Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

EFL Learners' Motivation Revisited

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Abstract—**This study sought to discern the difference between factors that are perceived demotivating by demotivated and motivated learners of English in Vietnam setting. Data gathered from a 27-item questionnaire survey of 147 EFL learners reveals seven factors perceived as demotivating by both groups: student-related factors (self-esteem, experience of L2 failure, lack chance to use L2 in reality, classroom atmosphere) and teacher-related factors (test outside lessons, teachers' skill, teachers' knowledge). Findings from this study also reveal that demotivated students perceived more demotivating factors and with higher intensity than motivated ones.**

Index Terms—**motivation, demotivation, student-related factors, teacher-related factors**

I. INTRODUCTION

With English as an integral part of the globalization process in the recent decades, English learning becomes indispensable and widespread activity. Thanks to many studies in education-psychology field (eg. Dornyei, 1998, 2001a, 2001b; Oxford and Shearin, 1994), motivation finds its accurate position in L2 learning achievement, analogously as the heart to a body. From then on, the past decade has witnessed the "motivational renaissance" of 1990s, in which excessively plentiful of theories proposed to elucidate the multifaceted motivation of L2 learners.

When the boundaries of motivation territory are gradually expanded, together with it, the dark counterpart of motivation is discovered, i.e. demotivation. Only until this decade that demotivation is studied, examined and analysized worldwide. Nonetheless, demotivation and its components, in Vietnamese context, remain a neglected land.

Furthermore, recent economic development heightens the need for English mastery, thereby promote teaching English becomes a promising career. English teachers have encountered numerous problems upon pursuing the career. Among those are English learners who at first show great interest, dynamic and capable in learning, however gradually become passive, hesitate to cooperate in class, and get lower grades. This is also a typical case of demotivated learners reportedly encountered by several L2 teachers.

All the above-identified motives consequently account for the engagement in this research, which is guided by the ensuing research questions:

1) Are there any differences concerning demotivating factors in the perception of motivated and demotivated students in Vietnamese context?

2) Which demotivating factors have most negative influence in the perception of demotivated and motivated students in Vietnamese context?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Motivation and Demotivation

Motivation

Among factors determining L2 learning achievements such as aptitude, learner preferences, learner beliefs, and age of acquisition, motivation gains widespread acknowledgement as the most influential. Thus, being able to conceptualize motivation as exactly as possible will, without a shred of doubt, be beneficial to all who related, like educationalists, psychologists, teachers and learners, to name a few.

Though motivation has secured its dominant and preeminent position in L2 learning research, paradoxically, no consensus is actually reached on a satisfactorily precise definition of motivation (Oxford and Shearin, 1994). The long-term controversy put down to the complicatedness, multi-faceted, or multi-factored nature of motivation as a conclusion drawn by Dörnyei (1998, p.117), "Although 'motivation' is a term frequently used in both educational and research contexts, it is rather surprising how little agreement there is in the literature with regard to the exact meaning of the concept". Later on, Dörnyei (2001b, p. 7), ironically named it "as no more than an obsolete umbrella that hosts a wide range of concepts that do not have much in common". The complexity of motivation can be unified since them all intended to explain nothing less than the reasons for human behaviour (Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh, 2006). Moreover, from observations of Dörnyei (2001b, p. 8), most scholars agree, at least, that motivation provides a source of energy that is responsible for "the *choice* of a particular action," "the *persistence* with it," and "the *effort* expended on it".

One popular definition proposed by Gardner (1985, p.10) in his eminent socio-educational model of language acquisition, regarded motivation as "*the combination of **effort** plus **desire** to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable **attitudes** toward learning the language.*" In this definition, three mentioned factors of effort, desire and attitude apparently belongs to the interior dimension of learners themselves. Thus, it is detectable that Gardner neglected social aspects of motivation such as learners stimulations linked to parents, teachers and peers, for instance.

Subsequently, a more thorough definition of L2 motivation is suggested, wherein motivation is a '*state of **cognitive or emotional** arousal*' which provokes a '*decision to **act**,',* which results in '*sustained intellectual and/or physical **effort***' so that the person can '*achieve some previously set **goal***'(Williams and Burden, 1997, p.120). The two researchers consider the roles of both individual and contextual factors in motivation and the temporal aspect of motivation.

In recent period of process-oriented perspective, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998, p. 65) presented a rather well-rounded definition in recognition of many other authors' previous achievements gained through years of hard work on the field. They concluded that motivation is a '*dynamically changing cumulative **arousal** in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out*'. This umbrella term covers well the temporal, dynamic nature of motivation as well as points out its directive role in the cognitive process.

An extensive body of literature exists on classifying motivation into types based on varieties of criteria. **Integrative** motivation is perceived as "a *sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group*" (Lambert, 1974). **Instrumental** motivation refers to "*the practical value and advantages of learning a new language*" (ibid) such as, get good marks, pass an examination, or find better jobs/promotions etc. **Resultative** motivation suggests that their success in learning trigger more motivation, while failure does the opposite (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991). **Extrinsic** motivation, considered by most scholars to be the same as instrumental motivation, derives from a number of outside factors such as winning a prize or avoiding punishment (Deci and Ryan, 1985, p.49). Alternatively, **intrinsic** motivation, partly resemble integrative motivation, originates from learners' internal needs for competence and self-determination, satisfaction, and enjoyment (ibid, p. 32). According to the findings of most studies, **intrinsic** motivation to the L2 learning is responsible for learners' achievement more significantly than extrinsic one. However, in peculiar situations, the extrinsic may surpass or even internalized to be intrinsic. For instance, it holds true where the role of L2 is as means of wide communication; thus, the weight of each types of motivation relies on particular socio-cultural conditions. In a nutshell, these types of motivation are "*complimentary rather than as distinct and oppositional*" (Ellis, 1998) as a learner, in reality, often possesses a joint motivation of all abovementioned one.

Demotivation

Viewed as the negative counterpart of motivation, nonetheless, demotivation seriously fails to catch due scholarly concentration and thus receives scant empirical researches up to 1990s.

Dörnyei described demotives as "*specific **external** forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or an ongoing action*" (2001b, p.90). However, it appears to conflict with his later reference to "*external and internal demotivating factors*" (Dörnyei, 2007, pp.29-30). In the same vein, Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) indicate, researchers regard both internal factors and external factors as demotivators. In addition, the borderline between internal factors and external factors is indistinguishable at some points. Henceforth, the term "demotive" or "demotivator" appears in the present study is "*forces which subtract from the overall motivational basis of intended or ongoing action.*" (Pigott, 2008 adapted from Dörnyei, 2001b, p.43) and demotivation to mean "*the state of a learner whose level of motivation is lacking enough to severely restrict progress*" (Pigott, 2008).

Looking at its role in L2 learning, though the picture remains rather blurred, Christophel and Gorham (1995) figure out that "*the strongest influence on motivation was not the presence of motivators in the classroom, but the absence of demotivators.*" In the same vein, Rost (2004) warned, "*one demotivating act can negate or wipe out the positive effects of ten motivating acts*".

Dörnyei (2001b, p.142) describes a demotivated learner as "*someone who was once motivated but has lost his/her commitment/interest for some reason*". Demotivated learners show a lack of interest in the L2 or L2 community culture, hesitate to participate in any class activities, have no intimate affiliation with teacher and/or peers. Consequently, they harbour ever-growing diffidence in classroom environment. Eventually, these learners end up with appalling learning outcomes, which in turn aggravate remaining motivation. Once such a wicked circle materializes, it turns almost unbreakable.

Amotivation

Amotivation, or *learned helplessness*, a concept emerged in self-determination theory. Amotivation is defined as the situation in which people lack the motivation to take any action seeing that '*there is no point...*' or '*it's beyond me...*' (Deci and Ryan, 2000). This happens when they lack self-efficacy or a sense of control on the desired outcome. Thus, the amotivated learner sets no goal and hold neither intrinsic nor extrinsic motivation to make any move.

B. Motivation Theories

The macro social, psychological perspective stage (1950s-1990)

The subsection covers the pioneering theory and dominant cornerstone "the socio-educational model of second language acquisition" of Robert Gardner and his associates as it has been the most influential in the L2 motivational

research from its birth up to now.

Gardner's (1985) social psychological approach classified L2 learners' goals, into two categories, *integrative* orientation and *instrumental* one. An integrative orientation embraces a positive attitude toward a L2 community, together with an inner aspiration to learn the L2 communicate and understand more about the culture, values, and beliefs etc. of L2 community. Instrumental orientation refers to a desire to learn L2 merely for such material rewards as improved career, or financial prospects.

Integrativeness is measured by three factors: attitudes towards the target language group, interest in foreign languages, and integrative orientation. *Motivation* is also measured by three factors: motivational intensity (the amount of effort invested in learning the language), attitudes toward L2 learning, and the desire to learn the target language. *Attitudes toward the learning situation*, or one's reactions to the immediate context, is measured by two scales: attitudes toward the teacher and toward the course.
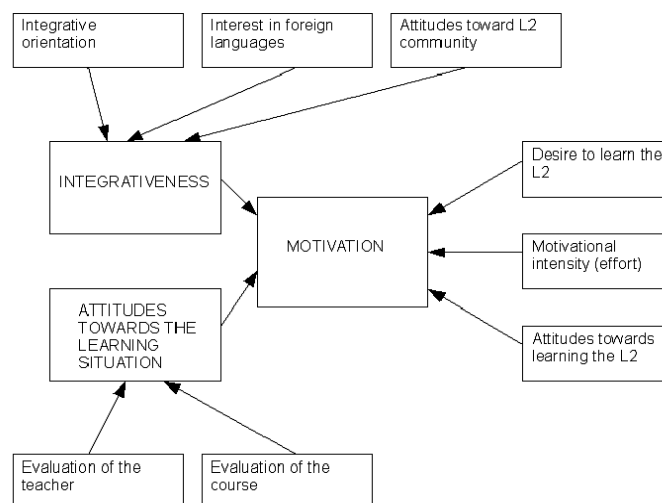
Figure 1. Conceptualization of integrative motivation (Pigott, 2008)

Prevailing as it is, the model is not without weaknesses. Four detectable drawbacks of Gardner's framework addressed by Oxford and Shearin are listed as follows. Firstly, the terms *integrative* and *instrumental* are certainly not adequate to embrace such reasons for studying as mere linguistic interest for its own sake, increase self-esteem and create a desired social image etc. Secondly, the framework overlooks the dynamically changing and temporal nature of motivation. Thirdly, it does not account for the differences of foreign language and second language in motivation. Fourthly, except for social psychology, it makes no mention of other psychological approaches. Oxford and Shearin (1994), on one hand, respected the domineering model, and then called "*for an expanded conceptualization that will draw from many subfields of psychology*".

The micro cognitive-situated perspective stage (early 1990s)

Up to early 1990s, the socioe-ducational model developed by Gardner and associates dominated research into language learning motivation. As Gardener's perspective was too broad in one way and limited in the other, 1990s witnessed the shift from a macro to a micro perspective of motivation. Whilst the macro perspective of L2 motivation focused on the social aspects of motivation, the micro perspective was narrowed down to practically explain how motivation worked in specific learning situations such as language classrooms.

The expectancy-value theory (EVT)

The expectancy-value theory (EVT) is credited to Dr. Martin Fishbein for his considerable contribution in the early to mid 1970's. Expectancy is defined as "*individuals beliefs about how well they will do on upcoming tasks, either in the immediate or longer-term future*" (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002, p. 119). And value is perceived as "*the value of a task is determined by both the characteristics of the task and by the needs, goals, and values*" of the task performer (ibid, p. 89). To be precise, only when such task seeks to fulfill one's needs, to reach one's goals, or to confirm personal values, does it grow to be meaningful to the performer.

Motivation to perform a task crucially depends on these two factors "*individual's expectancy of success in a given task*" and *"the value the individual attaches to success on that task" (*Dörnyei, 2001b, p.20). Thus, the greater expectancy one holds about their success and the greater value they attach to the task, the stronger the motivation to learn and overcome learning's barrier grows.

Self-determination Theory (STD)

Self-determination Theory (STD), first proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985), is a has been one of the most influential approaches in motivational psychology (Dörnyei, 2003, p.7). It is in the theory that motivation is first categorized and labeled either as *intrinsic*, deriving from internal needs, or as *extrinsic*, deriving from instrumental influences.

The study of motivation begins with the 'why' question of behavior. From SDT perspective, these goals or reasons

for engaging are driven by three psychological needs (i.e., the needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness) that are crucial in the energization of human behavior. People are motivated to satisfy these needs because they are considered essential for personal growth and well-being. (Deci and Ryan, 1985).

Autonomy is classified from the least to the most autonomous: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation. The last is the most autonomous and internalized form of external regulation. It refers to behaviors that are instrumental but harmonious with one's sense of self and is similar to intrinsic motivation (Deci, Ryan, and Williams, 1996).

Attribution Theory

Widely reckoned as a dominant theory in psychological motivation researches, Attribution Theory concerns with perceived causes people attribute to the successes and/or failures in life, thereby understanding achievement behavior (Weiner et al., 1971). They can, for example, blame an academic failure on being lack of effort, lack of ability or someone else's fault.

Achievement can be attributed to effort, ability, level of task difficulty, or luck. Causal dimensions of behavior are locus of control (i.e. the location of a cause), stability (i.e. relative endurance of a cause over time), and controllability. Depending on where and what causal dimension one attributes success or failure, it turns to yield positive or negative results. For instance, failure attributed to low ability is more damaging in terms of future progress than failure attributed to low effort (Dornyei, 2001a, p.10)

Self-Efficacy Theory

Self-efficacy is a kind of personal expectation or judgment concerning one's capability to accomplish some task. Schunk (1991) defines self-efficacy as "*an individual's judgments of his or her capabilities to perform given actions*" (p.207). He also claims that "*there is evidence that self-efficacy predicts ... academic achievement*" (ibid, p.207). Likewise, Bandura (1977) confirms, self-efficacy affects the amount of effort and persistence that a person devotes to a task. Therefore, the more people believe in themselves to achieve their goals, the stronger and higher their motivation is. If their own evaluation is positive, their motivation and self-efficacy will be enhanced.

Nevertheless, self-efficacy alone will not lead students to engage in tasks unless students also hold positive outcome expectations and believe that the tasks have value, as represented in contemporary expectancy–value theory (Guilloteaux, 2007).

The process-oriented perspective stage (late 1990s-present)

A process-oriented approach can potentially integrate various research trends, wished to synthesize, within a unified framework, various lines of research on motivation in the L2 field and in educational psychology.

The model consists of three temporal stage: *preactional* stage, *actional* stage and *postactional* stage. In the first stage, termed *preactional*, the motivation needs to be generated. The motivation in this stage is referred to as *choice motivation* because the generated motivation leads to the selection of the goal or task that a learner starts to pursue. Secondly, the motivation needs to be maintained and protected during the action (actional). This motivational dimension is also referred to as *executive motivation*. Thirdly, following the completion of the action, a learner evaluates how things went (postactional). This, in turn, contributes to the selection of the activities that a learner pursues in the future (Dörnyei, 2003). The key tenet of the process-oriented approach is that each of the three stages of the motivated behavioral process cycle is associated with different motives (Dörnyei, 2001b).

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants comprise 147 full-time students from various departments of University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Ho Chi Minh City (USSH-HCMC) such as Sociology, Press and Communication, Literature and Language, Education Management, French Linguistics and Literature, Human Resources Management, History, and Oriental Studies.

B. Instrument

"Questionnaire was opted with consideration for its apparent multi-advantage and particular suitability for quantitative research" (Dörnyei, 2003). The questionnaire was utilized in this research and is composed of two sections: Background information and Questions on demotivating factors. The first part aims to build up profiles of the respondents including gender, age, and length of English learning. The second part is composed of 27 questions, three of which is guided open whereas the rest were closed-ended ones. Out of 23 closed-ended questions, questions 3-7 and 9-13 are concerned with student-related demotivating factors whereas questions 14-26 look at external teacher-related demotivating factors. The entire questionnaire was worded in respondents' first language, i.e. Vietnamese to ensure full understanding of all respondents, thus, increase the validity of responses. 180 questionnaires were delivered to the participants and 147 completed responses were returned for the response rate of 81.67%.

TABLE 1.
DIMENSIONS OF DEMOTIVATING FACTORS

Dimensions	Closed-ended questions
Student-related factors	
Attitude towards English	3, 4, 5, and 7
Attitude to language environment	6 and 9
Self-efficacy and self-esteem	10 and 11
Experiences of failure or lack of success	12 and13
Teacher-related factors	
Teacher personality and behavior	17, 20, and 26
Teacher competence	14, 21, and 23
Teaching method	15, 16, 19, 22, and 24
Grading and assessment	18 and 25

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Group Division

The total number of 147 subjects is classified into three groups on the basis of their responses to the first question regarding their present status of motivation, viz.:

1. Students belong to Motivated Students (MS) Group if their answers are A.
2. Students belong to Demotivated Students (DS) Group if their answers are B.
3. Students belong to Amotivated Students (AS) Group if their answers are C.

Within the scope of the current study, in consent with Dörnyei's (1998) remark that "only demotivated students, or those who have experienced demotivation, can indicate the actual reasons that resulted in their loss of interest in language learning", and the definition of Amotivated learners in the literature review, only MS group and DS group was counted as valid and taken into consideration for the present comparative study. Data obtained from AS group will be briefly analyzed for further reference. Here is the number (N) of students in each group after all data is processed:

TABLE 4.1
MOTIVATION DISTRIBUTION

Group	N	Percentage
MS	102	69 %
DS	35	24 %
AS	10	7 %
Total	147	100%

Figure 4.1 Moti... distribution
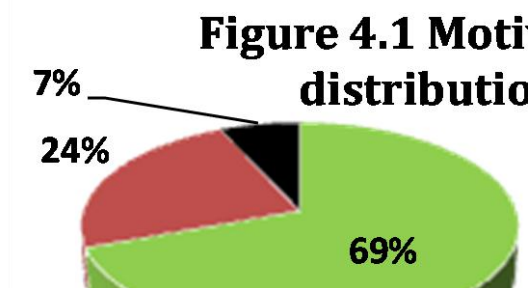
As presented in Table 4.1, the number of students belonging to MS Group is much higher than that of students belonging to DS Group; i.e. two unequal sample sizes. Though many controversies are born over the potential problem of validity caused by such inequality, it can be justified by means of subsequent arguments. Sampling method employed is simple, unlimited and random, thereby "some discrepancy between the numbers in the comparison groups would be expected" (Schultz and Grimes, 2002). Furthermore, "the appeal of equal group sizes in a simple randomised controlled trial is cosmetic, not scientific" since any actions to force equal group sizes "potentially harms the unpredictability of treatment assignments" and thus "can allow bias to creep" into the research (ibid, p.960). In addition, as randomness is appreciated for neutralised inherent possible disparities at the very first place, interventions at any stage render that attempt useless. As Schultz and Grimes (2002) crystallizes, "Such unpredictability reflects the essence of randomness."

B. Data Analysis

The 27-item questionnaire consists of 23 closed-end questions for students internal and external teacher-related factors; plus three open-ended questions for free writing opinions and comments of students on other roots of demotivation toward English learning. The first section deals with analysis of responses to closed-ended questions and the second with the analysis of responses to open-ended questions.

Analysis of responses to closed-ended questions

Out of all 23 closed-ended questions, questions 3-7 and 9-13 are concerned with student-related factors whereas questions 14-26 with teacher-related demotivating factors.

Student-related factors

Attitude toward English (Question 3, 4, 5, and 7)

Question 3 on *"Complicated grammar, difficult pronunciation, lots of vocabulary, etc."* collects information about the students' attitude toward the studying of components of English language such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc.; in other words, toward English language itself.

Figure 4.2 Students' attitude towards L2 itself
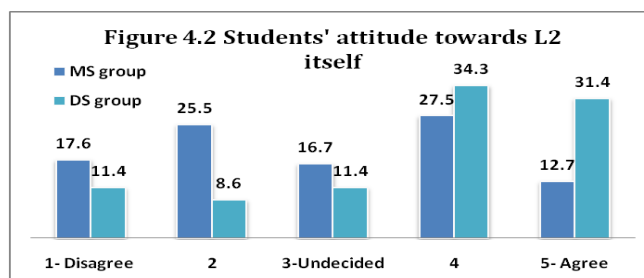
As displayed in Table 4.2, about 65% of DS Group admit their negative attitude and anxiety toward English itself, whilst only about 40% of MS Group agree so. Comprehensibly, more demotivated students than motivated ones adopt a negative attitude. However, by and large, the issue receives rather strong agreement from both the groups, demonstrating the widespread anxiety among students in face with a huge volume of "to-be-memorized" grammar and vocabulary. Thus, it casts no doubt that students' fear and anxiety grow day by day along with the increasing of linguistic knowledge that should be grasped. In compliance with Expectancy-Value Theory, as students' anxiety increase, their hopes and belief in potential success decrease, in part leading to demotivation in English learning. This finding suggests teachers' responsibility to help ease away students' misconception and anxiety.

Question 4 **"***I don't like cultures and histories of American, British, Western countries etc."* enquires about students' attitude toward cultures and histories of English-speaking countries, in short, attitude toward English community.

Figure 4.3 Students' attitude towards L2 community
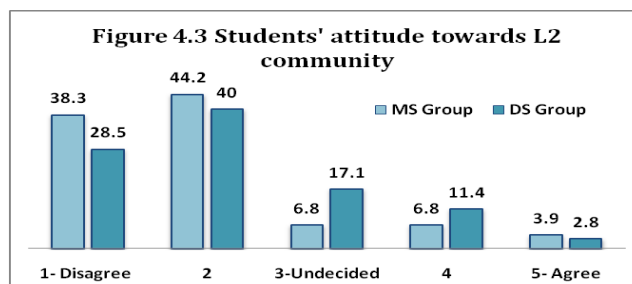
Results obtained from responses of both groups convey an encouraging message to all teachers as the vast majority of MS Group (82.5%) and of DS Group (68.5%) reject the notion of negative attitude to English community. Put it another way, even demotivated students, besides motivated students, find English community attractive and attention-grabbing. Thus, this finding triggers ideas and potential solution on how to tackle with demotivated students.

Figure 4.4 Students' attitude towards compulsory nature of L2 learning
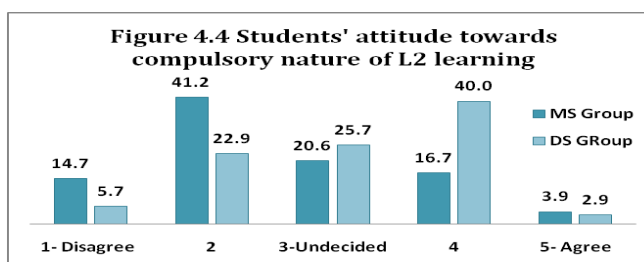
Question 5 *"I am pushed to study English at school"* deals with the question whether the compulsory nature of English in education system demotivate students.

As reported in the literature review, Dörnyei (1998) concluded that demotivated students regard compulsory English learning as one of demotivating factors. Just as expected, somewhat similar result is found in the current study based on the data displayed in Figure 4.4. Interestingly enough, around two thirds of MS Group show "***partly disagreement***" in contrast to the "***partly agreement"*** (the author's emphasis) from two thirds of DS Group.

Here raises the question as to what underlying reasons that lead both groups to make the choice of "***partly agreement/disagreement***" and not the other. One possible answer can be simple that the students just avoid the two extremes; this argument, however, seems to be shaky in comparison with their responses for other questions in this study.

With another attempt, the phenomenon, simply put, can be explained in light of Self-Determination Theory. Along with two other psychological needs for competence and relatedness, the basic need for autonomy is continually sought to be satisfied as it is "*essential to human functioning and well-being*" (Ryan and Deci, 2002). Once English learning is compulsory, that socially accepted pressure can exert, either conscious or unconscious, negative impact on the students' motivation. This explanation holds true for Western individualist culture; however, in Vietnamese collectivist context, such autonomy is undoubtedly not that much sought for. As noted in Phan's (2010, p. 232) research, "*the utility of only self-determination theory is insufficient in explaining the types of motivation that these female Vietnamese technical English majors experienced*". She advises taking Vietnamese social and cultural values into consideration, such as "*the respect for learning and knowledge, respect for the teacher, attribution of successes and failures to effort, filial piety, the concept of face, and the sense of belonging,*" to avoid misinterpreting Vietnamese students' motivation (ibid, p. 232). The complexity of integrative influence from these values can somehow account for the "partly agreement" or "partly disagreement" of Vietnamese students.
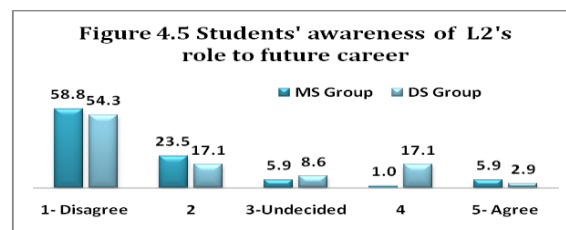
Question 7 "*I don't think English is crucial to my future career*" gathers data of the students' awareness of English role to their future careers.

Figure 4.5 Students' awareness of L2's role to future career

As regards the role of English to future career, the vast majorities (over 50%) belong to both groups affirm their awareness of its undeniably potential worth. The number of other choices gradually decrease, indicating the equivalent decrease of demotivation. This result, in concert with lots of previous findings, suggests reasonable exploitment of students' expectation in decreasing demotivation and enhancing motivation.

Contextual factors (classroom atmosphere, present opportunity to practice and use)

Figure 4.6 Students' opinion on classroom astmosphere
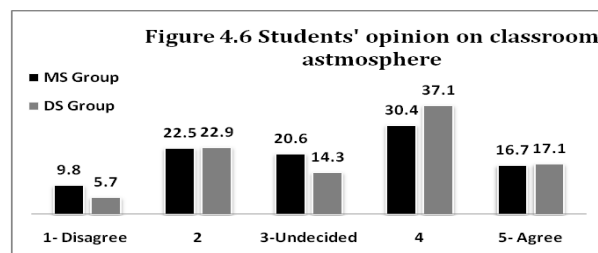
Question 6 *"Atmosphere in classroom is boring/tense/cold"* seeks to identify the influence of negative classroom atmosphere on students.

Classroom atmosphere is attributable to three aspects, namely, classroom activities, interactions among peers and between students and teachers. On balance, responses from the demotivated as well as the motivated can be roughly considered as parallel for each and every item. As the most frequent choice of MS Group and DS Group is Partly Agree, it all points to the conclusion that atmosphere should be given sufficient heed to yield fruits in terms of students' motivation. Since cosy and relaxed atmosphere is probably borne out of teachers' proactive management of class and classroom activities during lectures, presentations and other activities, to reach such achievement is mainly up to teachers to give it a try.

Question 9 "At *present, I seldom have chance to use English in practice*" is designed to find out whether limitation of students' present chances to practice and use English have any demotivating impacts.

Figure 4.7 Students' chances on actual use of L2

MS Group — DS Group

1- Disagree: 7.8 / 8.6
2: 17.6 / 14.3
3-Undecided: 6.9 / 14.3
4: 48.0 / 31.4
5- Agree: 19.6 / 31.4
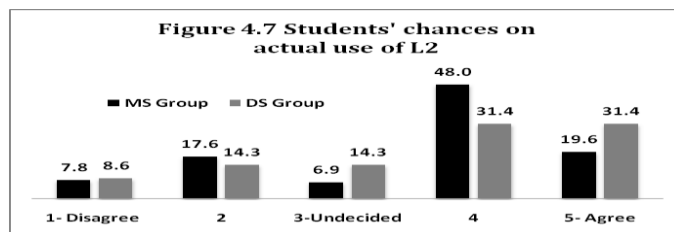
In response to question 9, 31.4% demotivated students agree as compared to 19.6% motivated students. Meanwhile, 48% motivated students in comparison to 31.4% demotivated students choose "partly agree". Above all, that lack of opportunity to practice and to put English into use is, to some extent, responsible for students demotivation in most cases. Thus, a recommendation for the sake of both teacher and students is increasing the amount of students' speaking time, or the number of meaningful activities with practical use of English, by means of student-centered methods, task-based approach, communicative approach, games etc. Briefly stated, both groups are consistent with each other on the demotivating influence of contextual aspect.

English self-efficacy and English self-esteem

Figure 4.8 Students' self-efficacy on L2 learning

MS Group — DS Group

1- Disagree: 16.7 / 11.4
2: 43.1 / 34.3
3-Undecided: 23.5 / 25.7
4: 12.7 / 14.3
5- Agree: 3.9 / 14.3
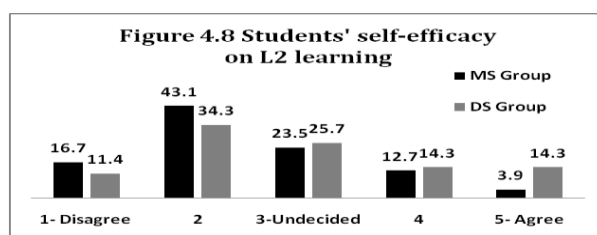
Question 10 "*I don't think I have capability to study English*" investigates students' self-efficacy on English learning.

As shown in Figure 4.8, the bulk of MS Group and Ds Group decides to choose "Partly disagree", thereby highlighting their beliefs in own capabilities to learn English. However, roughly one fourth of both groups express no opinion for their very own linguistic capabilities; in addition, one fourth of DS group either "agree" or "partly agree" to admit their "supposedly incapability' of English learning.

Upon previous analyses of the positive correlation between self-efficacy and motivation, such misconception in one's learning has given way to the floods of demotivation, which in turn threaten to entirely destroy students' self-efficacy and self-confidence. Serving as a alarm bell, the finding contributes to start teachers finding ways to help such students break the repetitive "*affective cycle*" that "*the more they blame themselves, the worse they perform; the worse they perform, the more they blame themselves*." (Falout and Falout, 2004).

Question 11 "*I'm afraid of making mistakes, of losing face with friends when speaking or writing English*" collects the students' opinion on their confidence when it comes to English performance.

Figure 4.9 Students' self-confidence in participating classroom activities

MS Group — DS Group

1- Disagree: 17.0 / 5.7
2: 17.0 / 22.9
3-Undecided: 17.0 / 20.0
4: 34.0 / 31.4
5- Agree: 15.0 / 20.0
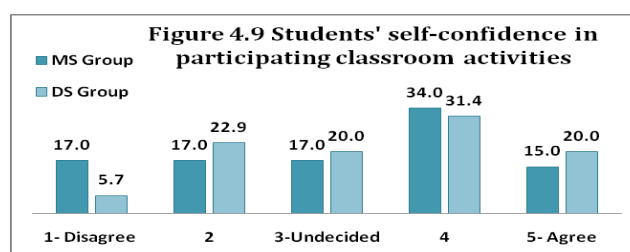
What is indicated in the figure is quite contrary to expectation, 49% of MS Group and 51.4 % DS Group admit, to some extent, their lack of self-confidence. All things considered, both groups produce virtually the same amount of each choice. Such a result seems, at first, incomprehensible. In Vietnamese collectivist context where self-confidence, together with self-reliance, dependence etc. never have been fully and appropriately encouraged, this result is somewhat understandable.

Experiences of failure or lack of success

Figure 4.10 Students' experiences of L2 failure
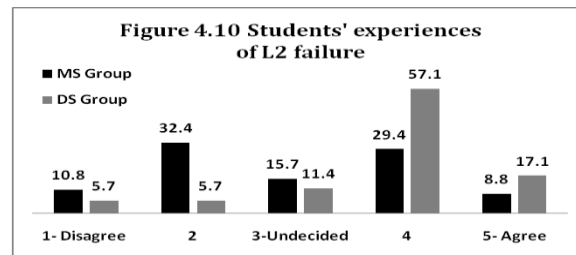
Question 12 "So *far, my English results have never been satisfactory*" concerns with students' experience of failure in English study and its impact on motivation.

In terms of previous results, as illustrated in Figure 4.10, the tendency of agreement was ticked by 57.1% plus 17.1% of students belong to DS Group stand out against all other choices. For students of MS Group, about 38% make the same choice. As more demotivated students are dissatisfied with their scores than the motivated one, a possible underlying assumption can be made that DS group get lower scores than MS group. Echoing many previous findings, once again, the demotivating influence of unsatisfactory achievement, or in other words, experience of failure or lack or success, proves true in Vietnamese context.

Question 13 *"Teaching pace in class is too quick"* relates to students' attitude to teaching pace.

Figure 4.11 Students' attitude to teaching pace
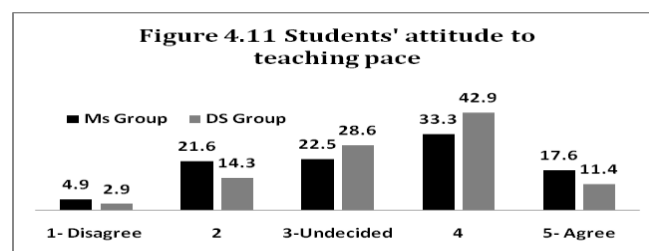
As regards improper teaching pace, most of the students generally imply being left-behind classmates or teachers' continuous speaking regardless of students' understanding, a type of academic failure. As indicated in Figure 4.11, roughly over 50% of both groups have gone through such an uneasy experience, which left them abandoned, reduced self-esteem and thus, demotivated. Hence, met in order to diminish such demotivation, the reasonable expectation of appropriate teaching pace for students' proficiency is to be more properly met.

Summary of results and further integrative analysis

Table 4.4 shows the means and standard deviations of the factor scores based on student responses on the 5-point Likert scale with the middle item scored three. The results are listed in order of strength from the strongest at the top.

As displayed in Table 4.4, to the demotivated set, (1) low English results, (2) negative attitude toward English itself, (3) lack of chance to use English, (4) high-speed teaching pace, (5) negative classroom atmosphere, (6) lack of self-esteem and (7) compulsory English learning are seven factors accounting for students' demotivation. Meanwhile, in the opinion of the motivated set, four demotivating factors are revealed, viz. (3), (4), (5), and (6). At the other end, it seems quite a inspiring finding that both groups are aware of English role in future career, nurture positive affection toward English community, and are fairly self-efficacious in English learning.

TABLE 4.4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF STUDENT-RELATED DEMOTIVATING FACTORS

MEAN			STANDARD DEVIATION	
DS Group	MS Group		DS Group	MS Group
Q12 - English results	3.76	2.93	1.017	1.206
Q3 - Attitude to English itself	3.68	2.92	1.342	1.325
Q9 - Chances to use English	3.63	3.54	1.308	1.216
Q13 - Teaching pace	3.46	3.37	.980	1.151
Q6 - Classroom atmosphere	3.38	3.22	1.206	1.248
Q11 - Self-esteem	3.37	3.13	1.215	1.338
Q5 - Compulsory English learning	3.12	2.53	1.008	1.072
Q10 - Self-efficacy	2.86	2.44	1.240	1.040
Q4- Attitude to English community	2.12	1.94	1.079	1.042
Q7-Awareness of English role	2.06	1.65	1.516	1.081

Note : Q12 = Question 12, Q3 = Question 3, etc.

Teacher-related factors
Teacher personality and enthusiasm
Question 17 *"Teachers are distant, apathetic with students (e.g. do not answer students' questions afterschool, etc.)"*
is interested in students' opinions on their teachers' personality and enthusiasm to students.

Figure 4.12 Teacher's personality and enthusiasm
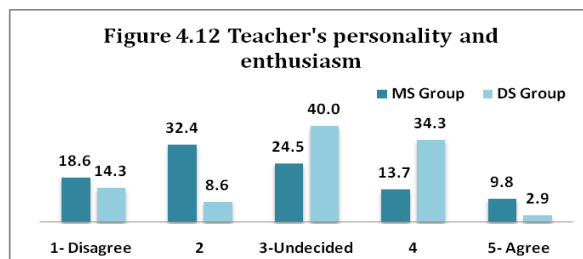
In response to this question concerning teachers' enthusiasm, astonishingly 40% of DS Group and 25% of MS Group say nothing; probably it is due to their own indifference to teacher or passivity, or lack of eagerness to the lessons that can push them to ask anything after class. Meanwhile, 37% DS together with 24% MS attribute their demotivation to teachers' lack of enthusiasm with students. By comparison, over 75% demotivated students either pay no attention or blame on their teachers lacking dedication, way more than 48.5% motivated students who choose so.

Question 20 *"Teachers (seemingly) show favoritism among students and/or classes"* reflects students' opinion on teachers' bias and its effect on them.

Figure 4.13 Students' opinions on teachers' bias
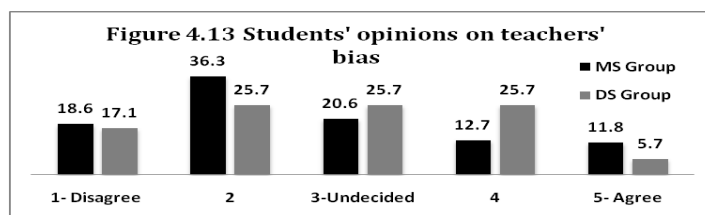
As shown in Figure 4.13, each 25% of DS Group chooses Partly Disagree, Undecided, and Partly Agree. Such confusing results only reveal a blurred image on how demotivated students perceive teachers' favoritism in classroom. Still, with careful observation, it is sound to conclude that teachers' discrimination has diverse impacts on every other students; just consistent with Hamada's (2011) observation after reviewing many studies on the field, "*the demotivators vary from learner-to-learner*". On the other side, noticeably 36.3% and 18.6% MS Group either partly oppose or oppose, respectively, to the idea of the statement. Hence, such percentage tells us that motivated students suffered less from teachers' bias than demotivated ones.

Question 26 *"Teachers are too strict (e.g. late students get minus marks, are not allowed in, no private chat, etc.)"* looks into students' revelation of whether teachers' strictness demotivate them.

Figure 4.14 Students' opinions on teachers' strictness
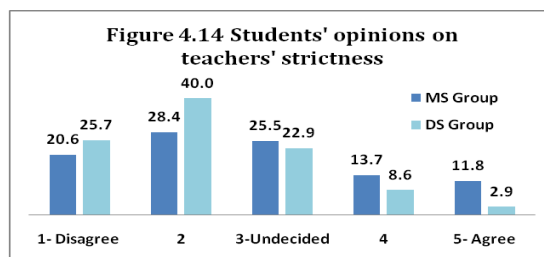
Contrary to expectation, up to 65.7% demotivated students, accompanied by 49% motivated students, refuse the common thought that strict teachers either scare or cast anxiety on all students, especially the less-proficient ones.

Teachers' competence
Question 14 "*Teachers' skills are poor (e.g. wrong pronunciation, intonation, or vague explanations)*" aims to find out how students perceive when their teachers' instructional skills are poor.

Figure 4.15 Students' opinion on teachers' poor skills.
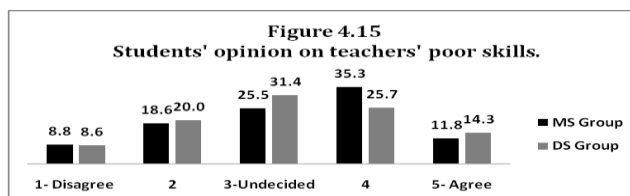
Whereas roughly over one fourth of both groups have no ideas if teachers' poor skills they may have negative effects on them, the rest of 47 % MS Group and 40% of DS Group say "Yes" to the question. Quite comprehensible, for example, students once discovered such a wrong pronunciation case, they tends to cast a growing doubt on their teachers since. In addition, most students often easily misinterpret bad intonation as lack of competence. Vague explanations and, instruction, similarly potentially exert negative impact on students' motivation to English learning.

Question 23 *"Teachers' knowledge is limited (e.g. make lots basic mistakes, give superficial explanations)"* tackles with the issue of teachers' knowledge.

Figure 4.16- Students' opinion on teachers' limited knowlege.
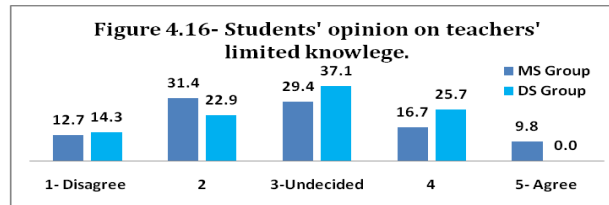
The highest rate of "Undecided students" indicates that rarely do they find teachers masking such mistakes or else, it may due to lack of linguistic knowledge or self-esteem to say that way. Another possible explanation based on cross-cultural knowledge can be exploited here. In truth, this question turns into somewhat sensitive when poses in Vietnamese environment, where the time-honored tradition of showing respect for parents and teachers has always been cherished; thus it is possibly too much to ask students to judge the knowledge of their teachers. Thus, it seems easy to understand the reason why 44% MS and 37 % DS voice that they are against such idea of question 20.

Figure 4.17 Students' opinion on teachers' shared knowlege.
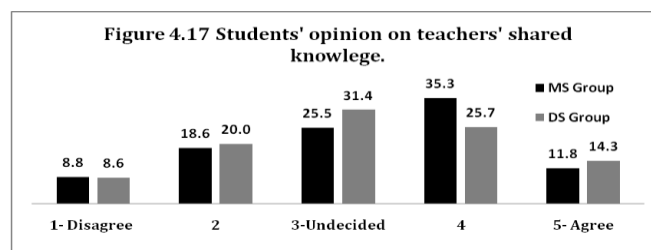
Question 21 *"The knowledge shared during class is useless/inappropriate for students."* concentrates on to what extent the knowledge teachers share in class met the expectations and needs of students.

While around one third of MS Group plus one fourth of DS Group claim that the teachers' shared knowledge does not met their expectations, one third of DS Group and one fourth of MS Group choose "Undecided" item. On balance, however, the pattern of choices made by each group fairly resemble, indicating the same pattern of attribution to the demotivating factors of unexpected knowledge in class. Besides, the selection of "Undecided" item is explainable via several assumptions such as lack of heed to teachers' lectures or no solid expectations or needs at the very beginning of English course.

Teaching method

Question 15 "*Teachers seldom conduct variety of activities*" is interested in whether teachers' conventional teaching method, specifically in class activities acts as a demotivator to students. Besides, Question 22 *"Teachers seldom praise students' achievement"* is posed to gather students' responses on whether the inadequate encouragement from students turns out to be a demotivating factor.

Figure 4.18 Students' opinions of teaching method: repetitive activities and lack of praises.
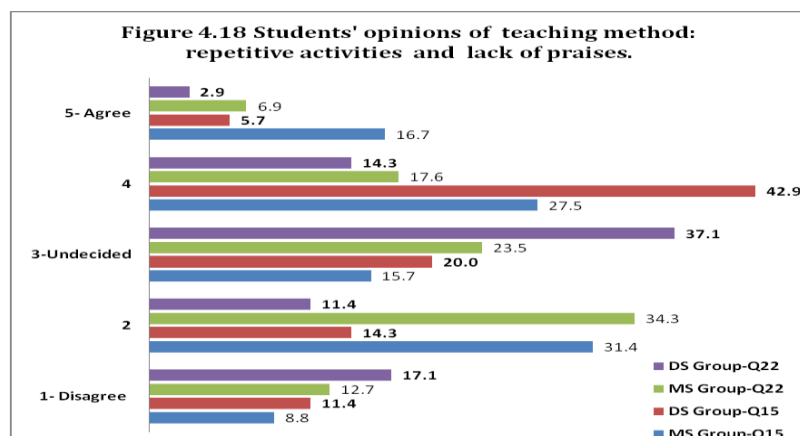
In terms of the disheartening influence attributed to teachers' repetitive activities, 43% of DS group ticks number 4,

i.e. "Partly agree" in comparison to 31.4% MS Group choose the otherwise, number 2. In terms of demotivation caused by teachers' scare of praises, 37.1% DS Group gives no opinion while 34.3% of their friends in MS Group agree to some extent.

Question 16 *"Teachers correct students' mistakes critically and severely"* focuses on teachers' correction strategy that may reduced students' motivation , meanwhile Question 24 *"Teachers seldom correct students' mistakes or give informative feedback."* concerns with teacher's informative feedback.

Concerning the demotivating force of teachers' correction strategies, the percentage of DS Group who choose "Undecided" takes up to 40% whereas 43.1% of MS Group disagree to some extent. Such highest rate of choice among DS Group for the no-comment choice, once again, may attributable to their lack of concentration to the teachers and/or lessons in class, or their indifference to class activities. In contrast, of all motivated students, 43 % partly disapprove and 15% disapprove such demotivating factors of correction strategy employed.
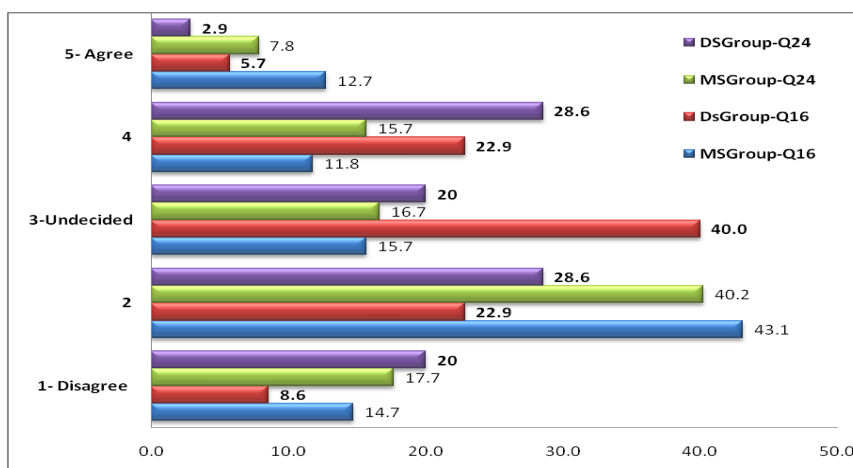
Figure 4.19 Students' opinion on teachers' correction strategy and informative feedback

Overall, there exists a tendency that more demotivated students' scores higher while motivated students scores much lower within scope of current study.

Question 19 *"Teachers give vague explanation on the objects and benefits of activities and exercises"* looks at the issue that how teachers inform students of class activities and exercises can be a factor of demotivation.
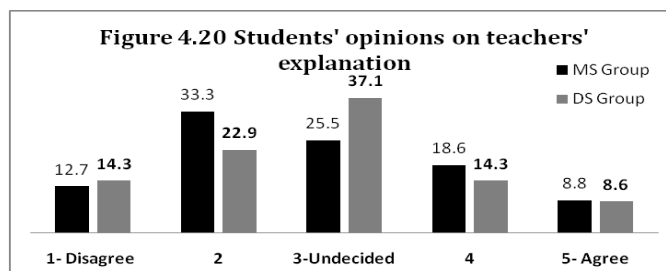
As can be seen from the figure, the highest bar is labeled "Undecided" in the selection of DS Group. Alternatively, around one thirds of MS Group, to a certain extent, object to the thought. As usual, the highest rate lies in the range of three middle choices, whereas the other two extremes receive relatively moderate selection.

Grading and assessment

Question 25 *"Teachers give tests outside lessons"* asks students for their opinions if teachers give tests outside lessons.
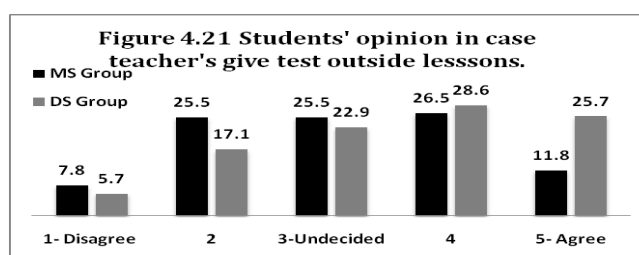
With a glance, it is simple to detect a slight variance between the three middle choices of both MS and DS Group. On the second look, however, one difference is found lying in the highest intensity choice of Agree made by approximately

one fourth of DS Group. For both sets of students, relatively more DS than MS find it demotivating that teachers gives test outside lessons. In light of L2 self-efficacy, a handful of self-efficacious students will seek ways to demonstrate the extra-knowledge gained outside class while the others find it quite frustrating as it turns every effort they make to studying hard into uselessness. Another way to understand this trend, drawing upon other findings on the correlation between achievement and motivation, they all look for secure satisfactory scores rather than taking risks in an unknown land.

Question 18 *"Teachers are hard on marks and highly demanding"* aims at solicit students' responses on the issue that in case teachers are highly demanding and economical in marks.

Figure 4.22 Students' opinion on teacher's grading and accessment
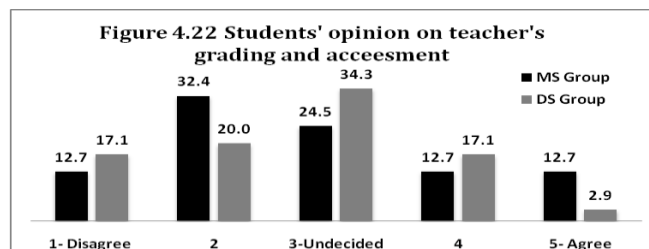
What is worthy of notice is the recurrence of "Undecided" high proportion chosen, by DS Group. When first reaching upon this figure, the author has to check the data once again to assure that there is no mistake and the figure is precisely drawn. About 37% of DS Group in addition to 45% students of MS Group expresses their disagreement to the point of interest.

Summary of the analysis on teacher-related factors

TABLE 4.5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TEACHER-RELATED DEMOTIVATING FACTORS

	MEAN		STD. DEVIATION	
	DS Group	MS Group	DS Group	MS Group
Q25 - Test outside lessons	3.51	3.09	1.222	1.161
Q15 - Repetitive activities	3.18	3.12	1.158	1.269
Q14 - Teacher's poor skills	3.17	3.23	1.175	1.151
Q21- Useless knowledge	3.06	2.77	1.197	1.094
Q17- Teacher's apathy	3.03	2.63	1.071	1.222
Q16 - Teacher's correction strategy	2.94	2.64	1.027	1.251
Q19 - Vague explanation	2.79	2.77	1.149	1.165
Q20 - Teacher's bias	2.77	2.63	1.19	1.258
Q23 - Teacher's limited knowledge	2.74	2.79	1.01	1.163
Q22 - Scare praises	2.69	2.7	1.105	1.138
Q18 - Teacher's high demand	2.66	2.79	1.096	1.233
Q24 - No informative feedback	2.66	2.65	1.187	1.452
Q 26 - Teacher's strictness	2.23	2.68	1.031	1.276

Note: Q25 = Question 25, Q15 = Question 15, etc.

Table 4.5 shows means and standard deviations of the teacher-related factor scores based on student responses on the 5-point Likert scale with middle item scored three. Thus, factors with mean over three will be counted as valid. The results are listed in order of strength from the strongest at the top.

As displayed in Table 4.5, to the demotivated set, the following factors rank as five top demotivating factors: (1) test outside lessons, (2) repetitive activities, (3) teachers' poor skills, (4) useless shared knowledge in class and (5) teachers' apathy toward students. Meanwhile, to the opinions of the motivated set, with the exception of factors number (4) and (5), they consider no more than three first factors (1), (2) and (3) as demotivating.

At the other end, all the means of the remaining factors are over 2.5 (save for Q26), which indicates the strong force of teacher-related demotivating factors. One noteworthy that, when it comes to the teacher-related demotivating factors, the highest choice of both groups, especially the DS Group, attaches to "Undecided" item. Whether it stems from lack of attention to teachers and/or lessons, indifference to class activities or other reasons, this phenomenon is in urgent need of clarifying. Though small, the difference is of importance in comparison to choices made at the other sections, which deal with internal factors related to students themselves.

Analysis of responses to closed-ended questions

Out of all 147 subjects, 133 give responses to the open-ended question (Question 2), concerning the general reasons what demotivating students' learning. The guided open-ended question appears at the beginning so that the students can

freely speak up their own opinons without being affeted by latter pre-written statements. After data being processed , classified into main themes and counted, here come the results.

Among all responses, the highest choice pertains to grammar and vocabulary learning. Some of them complains of huge amount of "have-to-be-memorized" vocabulary and grammar points, both of which they claim to forget right after that. Meanwhile the others get scared of having to write, listening or speak in English. "*Disappointing bad grades*" is seated in the second place on the list of top demotivating factors. Teacher-related factors as well as teaching method rate fifth. It is worth noticing that, demotivation stemming from lack of basic knowledge is strongly emphasized by a number of motivated and demotivated students. Boredom from lessons and teachers' styles, not able to keep up with classmates, social pressure or even laziness, difficult pronunciation, and time-consuming English learning are identified as sources of demotivation.

Ensuing are several original comments written by students belong to motivated group, classified under main themes:

1. Lack of facicilites and courses: "*So bad that there is good English center at Thu Duc campus and even around the whole district*" (Student 6); "*Academic course is not qualified and practical enough* " (Student 12)

2. Students lacks effective learning strategies: "*Studying English takes a lot of time*" (Student 9); "*I get demotivated after a long time no studying*"(Student 40) ; "*English exams draw near and there's so much to learn*" (Student 60); "*Long time no studying and I have forgotten almost everything*" (Student 61)

3. Teachers' ineffective teaching method in raising students' interest, motivation and inadequate explanations on the benefit of lessons: "*Studying English is not interesting*" (Student 11); "*Teachers never bring an interesting atmosphere to class*"(Student 56); "*I have to learn grammar that is not able to be put into practice*"(Student 24); "*I can't keep up with what teachers said and make no progress so far*"(Student 34);"*I don't understand what teachers talk about in class*" (Student 108)

4. Students' lack of self-efficacy and autonomy: "*Pressure to study demotivates me. And back to the past, the high school teachers is not qualified*" (Student 20); "*I have always been bad at English and get scared with the thought of having to study*" (Student 37)

5. Students' lack of basic knowledge for long: " *I missed basic knowledge since high school, and have to study under pressure of grades and qualification, thus lose interest* (Student 58); "*I lose basic knowledge for long, since then I acquire nothing and make no improvement*" (Student 68)

Among the dull picture appears an encouraging example of persistence: "*I failed National English Certificate Level A three times but I will try anyway*" (Student 75). Meanwhile the demotivated students claimed the root of their demotivation:

"*Whenever I learn English, I feel demotivated due to my lack of basic knowledge, of persistence, of determination as well as no appropriate learning strategies, in part due to the teachers' boring method*" (Student 105)

"*No basic knowledge plus pressure of certificate*" (Student 119)

"*I failed four times successively when trying to take A-Certificate*" (Student 120)

"*It is due to my laziness*" (S122) and "*Laziness to study vocabulary*" (Student 125)

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of the data analysis will now be discussed with reference to existing literature body. First, the author will revisit the research question posed as the guiding star for the whole study. Then, the finding is to be compared and contrasted in reference to the existing knowledge.

In response to the research question as to the existence of differences between demotives in perception of motivated and demotivated students in Vietnamese context, the answer is brief "yes". In details, according to the analysis above, each group holds a strong contrast with the other group on the demotives in terms of English results, attitude to English itself, teachers' shared knowledge in class, teachers' personality and test outside lesson. Each difference has already been explained in light of discussed theories of cognitive motivation.

TABLE 4.6 DEMOTIVATING FACTORS IN THE PERCEPTION OF MOTIVATED STUDENTS	
STUDENT-RELATED FACTORS	**TEACHER-RELATED FACTORS**
(1) low English results,	**(8) test outside lessons**
(2) negative attitude toward English itself	**(9) conventional teaching method**
(3) lack of chance to use English	**(10) teachers' poor skills**
(4) high-speed teaching pace	(11) useless shared knowledge in class
(5) negative classroom atmosphere	(12) teachers' apathy
(6) lack of self-esteem	
(7) compulsory English learning	

As displayed in Table 4.6, while the demotivated students perceive twelve demotivating factors, the motivated pick out only seven demotives. Moreover, in most cases, the demotivated choose higher intensity item in comparison to the motivated one. The difference of two groups suggests teachers employing different strategies to remedy.

In response to the sub-question, which demotivating factors have most negative influence in the perception of demotivated and motivated students in Vietnamese context, seven following factors are mutual choice of both groups.

TABLE 4.8
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DEMOTIVES IN PERCEPTION OF BOTH DS GROUP AND MS GROUP

DEMOTIVES	MEAN
Q9 - Chances to use L2	3.56
Q13 - Teaching pace	3.39
Q6 - Classroom atmosphere	3.26
Q14 - Teacher's poor skills	3.21
Q25 - Test outside lessons	3.20
Q11 - Self-esteem	3.19
Q15 - Repetitive activities	3.13

Standing on the extensive body of literature, the findings do confirm some previous results while question and complement some others. In comparison to demotives found by Dornyei (1998), (Phan, 2010) (with three demotives already cancelled out at the beginning), the finding has reinforced the negative influence of contextual factors, of misconception in learners' linguistic abilities, and of teacher-related factors. As presented above, the study found that teacher-related factors, whether directly as skills, teaching methods, personality or indirectly classroom atmosphere, or tests, account for a leading proportion in the whole picture of demotivation in students' perception. The similarity found in the present study reflects the fact that these factors are universally accepted as demotives.

However, the present findings contradict what Dornyei (1998) found in the case of "*attitude toward English community*" factor. In contrast to the opinion of Hungarian students, both motivated and demotivated Vietnamese hold strong warm affection for English community. This dissimilarity might well be explained in light of cross-cultural difference between the attitudes of Hungary and Vietnamese students to English community. One conclusion that the cultural aspect of motives as well as demotives should always be taken into consideration in conducting research.

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Signaling Nouns in English and Persian: A Contrastive Study

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Abstract—This study presents a comparison and description of a major class of vocabulary, signaling nouns, in English and Persian which have important discourse function in establishing links across and within clauses. This class of noun is prevalent in academic discourse. The comparison is based on three corpuses, Native English texts, Non native English, Native Persian texts. Signaling nouns in three corpora were identified in different stages. The data collected was analyzed and clarified on the basis of categories, adopted from Flowerdew (2004). The result showed that there are significant differences between Non-native English linguistics texts and Native English linguistics texts and also native Persian linguistics texts in the use and kind of signaling nouns. It was revealed that English writers used signaling nouns more than non-native English writers. And also non-native English writers used signaling nouns more than Persian writers. The description provides a framework which is likely to be of value to materials writers and teachers and learners.

Index Terms—anaphor, antecedent, discourse, text

I. INTRODUCTION

The text makes it possible for the reader and writer to go through an interaction process to achieve some communication. It is through the text that the writer encodes his message and it is through the text that the reader gets the meaning of the message by decoding it . A speaker of language can easily distinguish between a text and collection of sentences that don't constitute a text, because a text has a texture. For a text to have a texture, it must include ties that bind it together. "These ties are called cohesive ties that produce cohesion and coherence" (Halliday and Hassan, 1976).

Studies of coherence are often really about abstract cohesive devises, in the sense provided by Halliday and Hassan (1976). Some studies assume that coherence is produce by design, by appropriate use of cohesive devices. There are four ways by which cohesion is created in English: by reference, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical organization. These resources collectively meet the text-forming requirements referred to earlier. They make it possible to link items at any size, whether below or above the clauses; and to link items at any distance, whether structurally related or not (Halliday 1976) .

The definition of cohesion precisely accounts for the system of reference (Flowerdew, 2004). Referring elements establish a semantic relationship between them in which one of the elements provides the other with the meaning. One of the references and major class of lexical organizations which has important discourse function in establishing link across and within clauses are "signaling nouns. They are potentially any abstract noun, the meaning of which can only be made specific by reference to its context.

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions are to be investigated

1. What are the differences between native English texts and native Persian texts in the use of signaling nouns (quality and quantity) ?

2. What are the differences between native English texts and non-native English texts in the use of signaling nouns (quality and quantity) ?

3. What are the differences between native -Persian texts and non-native English (Iranian) texts in the use of signaling nouns (quality and quantity)?

A. Null Hypotheses

In regard to the above questions the following null hypotheses can be formulated.

1. There is no significant difference between native -English and native Persian texts in the use of signaling nouns.

2. There is no significant difference between non-native English and native Persian texts in the use of signaling nouns.

3. There is no significant difference between native Persian and non-native English texts in the use of signaling nouns.

B. Corpus

The corpus consists of three parts; (1) native English linguistics texts were chosen from among current native English books (2) Non-native English linguistics texts that were chosen from among current English journals and books, written by Iranian writers (3) Native Persian linguistics texts were chosen from Iranian journals and books written in Farsi.

Every corpus in the present study included 10 texts with the different writers. The idea of different texts writers (10) helps ensure that there is no problem of being peculiarities of an individual writer. Every text includes 3,000 words; this means that we have 30,000 words for every corpus and 90,000 words for the three corpora.

III. PROCEDURE

As mentioned previously, total of 30 texts were selected from native writers of Persian, native writers of English and also from non-native writers of English (Iranian writers). According to definition and classification provided by Flowerdew (2004) Signaling items for the corpora were identified in a number of stages. First, lists of all the different words occurring in each corpus were created by means of a computerized words frequency program (Microsoft Word). Then all signaling items which occurred in corpus were determined, and then these lexical signaling nouns were examined to establish if a given item functioned as a lexical signal.

Due to the fact that potential lexical signaling items can have more than one function, the next stage was to sort signaling nouns, eliminating non- signaling items i.e. homographs. Then the remaining items were divided into those which were realized across clauses, those that were realized within the clauses, and those which were exaphoric. Also all signaling nouns were studied to see whether they are anaphoric or cataphoric. The texts were analyzed by the researcher for the types and number of signaling nouns used. Then English texts were cross checked by my supervisor and advisor, Persian texts also were checked by a professor of Persian literature (Dr. Taki, from Shahreza Azad University).

A. Data Analysis

Signaling nouns in different corpora can have more than one function. The meaning of the given signal must be sought either earlier in the text or later in the text or outside the text, as assumed background knowledge.

The data collected was analyzed and clarified on the basis of following categories, adopted from Flowerdew (2004).

1. Across Clauses

The meaning of signaling noun in across clauses must be sought before or next clauses**.** The across clause is exemplified below:

Native English texts: in this **view** the study of language is the study of human mind.

Here the item" view" encapsulates the meaning of the preceding stretch of discourse and labels it as a" view".

2. Within the Clause

The meaning of such signals is realized within the clause that it occurs. The within clause is exemplified in the following:

Native English texts: the **suggestion** is that the primitive words could have been imitations of the natural sounds.

3. Exophoric Function

Sometimes, as Ivanic (1991) has noted, a signal cannot be recovered in the discourse, but appeals to background knowledge.Example:

Language system is very effective and can carry out many important **tasks.**

Here the item "tasks" are not realized in the text. It is left to readers to work out what sort of tasks the writer is referring to.

4. Cataphoric and Anaphoric

The cataphoric function is exemplified in the following example.

_. The third **goal** of this paper is to suggest…

The next examples illustrate the anaphoric function.

_. CA became the basis of teaching foreign languages. This **criterion** was established by Fries (1945).

B. Statistical Analysis

After data collection and signaling nouns categorization, the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS-X) was applied to analyze data, to reject or confirm the null hypotheses stated in this research study.

IV. RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The aim of the project was to investigate how differently native Persian writers, native English and Non-native English writers use signaling nouns in the academic writing. On the basis of this corpora, this chapter provides the results of the study, both in terms of descriptive and inferential statistics and also a discussion of the results.

A. The Difference between Native English & Native Persian Texts

In regard to the first question of this research, "the difference between native English & native Persian texts", signaling items for the corpora were analyzed. Table 1 shows average frequency of lexical signaling items per thousand

words, for the two corpora, native English & native Persian. The table shows that there are on average <u>18</u> signals per thousand words in the native English texts and <u>12</u> in the native Persian texts.

TABLE 1
AVERAGE SIGNALING ITEMS PER 1000 WORDS

Native English Texts	Native Persian Texts
18	12
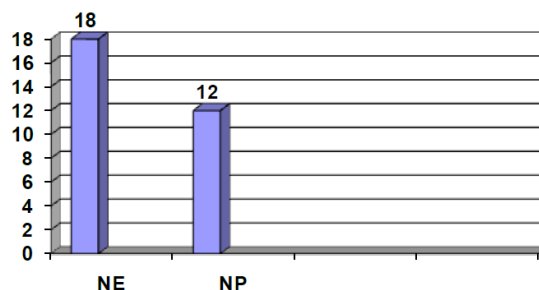
Figure1 Shows signaling nouns in Native English and Persion Texts

NP: Example: The Field as a whole represents **an attempt** to break down the broad questions about …

Example: We can hope to answer, and in so doing establish reasonable **results** that we can build on in moving closer to answer to the larger questions.

By considering the kind of SN for the first question, the difference between native English & native Persian Texts, Table 2 shows some of those items most often used with high to low frequency in a signaling function in English and Persian linguistic texts. **Kind**, for example, occurs 35 times, more frequency than other words in the Native English texts **and** not occurring at all as a lexical signaling item in the Persian texts. **Question** for example is quite frequency for two corpora, 30 for (NE) and 13 for (NP). In Persian the words (نقش) occurs 25 times, more frequent than other words in the Native Persian texts. It must be emphasized that many of signaling nouns have a relatively low frequency.

TABLE 2
SIX MOST COMMON SIGNALING ITEMS IN THE TWO CORPORA

NE		NP	
35	Kind	نقش	15
30	Question	سؤال	13
25	Result	نکته	10
20	Reason	حالت	7
15	Case	تفاوت	5

1. Across Clause signaling nouns

The meaning of such signals must be sought either in the text in the previous or next clause: Flowerdew(2004) categorises this group of signaling nouns as across clause. For finding the differences between native English & native Persian linguistic texts, table 2 provides us with the signaling nouns which function as across clauses, written by English native and Persian native writers. 205 signaling nouns occurred in native English texts, of which 160 function as anaphoric and 45 as cataphoric. 134 signaling nouns occurred in native Persian texts, of which 192 function as anaphoric, 42 as cataphoric.

TABLE 3
ACROSS CLAUSE SIGNALING NOUNS BY NATIVE PERSIAN AND ENGLISH TEXTS

Across Clause			
Native English		**Native Persian**	
Anaphoric	Cataphoric	Anaphoric	Cataphoric
160	45	192	42

The across clause is exemplified in the following taken from the two corpora.

Native English Examples: let me then quote Chastain first who recognizes at least four basic **characteristics** for communication. the first of which…

The lexical item characteristics here indicate to reader or listener that they should prepare themselves to received information which will indicate the nature of these characteristics.

Native Persian Examples:

زبان دستگاه منسجمي است که هر جزء به جزء ديگري بستگي دارد و ارزش هر واحد تابع وضع ترتيبي آن است. بر اين **اساس** هيچ يك از اجزاء زبان را نمي‌توان مستقل از ديگر اجزاء در نظر گرفت.

2. Within clause signaling nouns

Another category, in regard to differences between Native Persian and English linguistic texts, is within the clauses signaling nouns. In this case the meaning of signal is realized within the clause that it occurs. Table 4 provides us with nouns which function as within clause, written by English native and Persian native writers. 235 signaling nouns occurred in native English texts, of which **5** function as anaphoric, 230 as cataphoric. 96 Signaling nouns occurred in native Persian texts, of which 18 function as anaphoric, 78 as cataphoric.

The within clause is exemplified in the following:

Examples:

Native English: another **aspect** of language which Widdson makes in the development is the question of …

Native Persian:

كودكي كه به شش سالگي مي رسد از نظر زباني فردي بالغ است به اين **معني** كه او تا اين سن به دستگاه صوتي زبان خود تسلط يافته است

TABLE 4
WITHIN CLAUSE SIGNALING NOUNS BY NATIVE PERSIAN AND ENGLISH TEXTS

Within clause			
Native English		Native Persian	
Anaphoric	Cataphoric	Anaphoric	Cataphoric
5	230	18	78
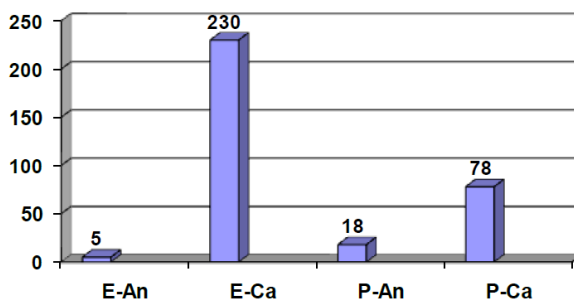
Figure 2Shows kind of signaling nouns in with in clause in Native English and Persion Texts

3. Exaphoric signaling nouns

Exaphoric signaling nouns are another category supposed to have out of the text reference. Table 5 Shows lexical signaling items which function as exaphoric for the two corpora. The table shows that 100 signaling nouns occur in the native English texts and 30 in the native Persian texts.

Native Examples: It is only necessary to glance through the current issues of the British scientific journal "nature "or its American equivalent to appreciate the **extensiveness** and **ramifications** of linguistics, both pure and applied.

As it is clear, it is up to the readers to infer what **extensiveness** and **ramifications** the author has in mind. They are not specified in the text:

Native Persian:

از آن جا كه دندان ها عامل سازنده برخي از صداها هستند اختلال در نظم طبيعي آنها اثر نامطلوب در كيفيت صداها مي‌گذارد و حتي در پاره اي از **موارد** منجر به ايجاد صداهايي به اصطلاح معيوب مي‌گردند.

TABLE 5
EXAPHORIC SIGNALING NOUNS USED BY NATIVE PERSIAN AND ENGLISH TEXTS

Exaphoric	
Native English	Native Persian
100	30

Further analysis of the first question is presented below:

Table 6 shows distribution of use of signaling nouns in the two corpora, English native and Persian native texts in 30000 words. As table 6 shows, in total 30000 words, 360 and 540 SN were used by native Persian and native English writers, respectively.

TABLE 6
DISTRIBUTION OF USE OF SIGNALING NOUNS IN TWO CORPORA

Total Words	Other Words	Number of SN	Corpus
30000	29640 98.8	360 1.2	Native Persian Texts
30000	29460 98.2	540 1.8	Native English Texts
60000	59100	900	totall

$X^2 = 36.548$ df = 1   Sig = .000

As chi-square analysis reveals, we feel safe that there is a significant difference between native English and native Persian linguistics texts in the use of signaling nouns. Table 7 also shows the distribution of kinds of signaling nouns in the two corpora.

TABLE 7.
DISTRIBUTION OF KINDS OF SIGNALING NOUNS IN TWO CORPORA

Total	EX	Whit in		Across		
360	30 8.3	78 21.7	18 5	42 11.5	192 53.3	Native Persian
540	100 18.5	230 42.6	5 .9	45 8.3	160 29.6	Native English
900	130	308	23	87	352	Total
$X^2 = 90.693$		df = 4		sig = .000		

Again X^2 analysis shows that there is a significant difference between native English and native Persian linguistics texts in the kinds of signaling nouns. According to what was mentioned above, we feel safe to reject the first null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between native -English and native Persian texts in the use of signaling nouns.

AAN=Across Clause Anaphoric   ACA= Across Clause Cataphoric
WAN=Within Clause Anaphoric   WCA= Within Clause Anaphoric
EX= Exaphoric

B. The Difference between Native English & Non-native English Texts

In relation to the second question of this research," the difference between native English & non-native English texts," Table 8 shows average frequency of lexical signaling items per thousand words for the two corpora, native and non-native English linguistics texts. The table shows that there are on average 18 signals per thousand words in the native English texts and 15 in the Non-native English texts.

TABLE 8
AVERAGE SIGNALING ITEMS PER 1000 WORDS

Native English Texts	Non-native English Texts
18	15

Figure 3Shows signaling nouns in with in Native English and
Non-native English Texts

By considering the kind of SN for the second question, table 9 shows some of those items most often used with high to low frequency in a native English and non-native English linguistic texts**.**

Way, for example, occurs in the Native English texts 50 times**. Way** occurs with only slightly less overall frequency (20 times) in the Non Native English texts. **Question** for example is quite frequent for the two corpora, 30 for (NE) and 25 for (NNE).

TABLE 9
SIX MOST COMMON SIGNALING ITEMS IN THE CORPORA

	NE Texts	NNE Texts
Way	50	20
Kind	35	37
Question	30	25
Result	25	5
Reason	20	10
Case	15	40

1. Across Clause signaling nouns

The reference of signaling noun in across clauses must be sought before or in next clauses**.** In regard to differences between Native English and Non-native English texts**,** the Across clause is analyzed in the two corpora.

Table 10 provides us with the signaling nouns which function as across clauses written by English native and non-native English writers (Iranian writers). 205 signaling nouns occurred in native English texts, of which 160 function as anaphoric and 45 as cataphoric. 192 signaling nouns occurred in non-native English texts, of which 160 function as anaphoric and 32 as cataphoric.

Native example: CA became the basis of teaching foreign languages. This **criterion** was established by Fries (1945).

TABLE 10
ACROSS CLAUSE SIGNALING NOUNS USED BY NATIVE PERSIAN AND ENGLISH TEXTS

Across Clause			
Native English		Non-native English	
Anaphoric	Cataphoric	Anaphoric	Cataphoric
160	45	160	32

2. Within clause signaling nouns

In this part signaling nouns which function as within clause used by native English and Non-native English writers (Iranian) were analyzed for differences. Table 11 provides us with the signaling nouns which function as within clause were written by native English and Non-native English writers, (Iranian). 235 signaling nouns occurred in native English texts,of which 5 function as anaphoric and 230 as cataphoric. 204 Signaling nouns occurred in native Persian textsof which 4 function as anaphoric and 200 as cataphoric.

TABLE 11
WITHIN CLAUSE SIGNALING NOUNS USED BY NATIVE PERSIAN AND ENGLISH TEXTS

Within clause			
Native English		Non-native English	
Anaphoric	Cataphoric	Anaphoric	Cataphoric
5	230	4	200

Examples:

Native English: Another important **background assumption** that linguists make is that the various human languages constitute.

Non-Native English: The plan of the book tests on **the assumption** that we can predict and describe …

3. Exaphoric signaling nouns

In relation to the differences between Native English and Native Persian linguistic texts in the use of signaling nouns, in the category of exaphoric, table 12 shows lexical signaling items which function as exaphoric for the two corpora. The table shows that 100 signaling nouns occur in the native English tex *NE Texts* ts and 57 in the native Persian texts.

Examples: Native English: One language may have **terms** not Found in another language.

1). Non-Native English: Derivations from universal semantic inputs to language specific surface structure out puts **in five stages:**

TABLE 12.
EXAPHORIC SIGNALING NOUNS USED BY NON-NATIVE ENGLISH AND NATIVE ENGLISH TEXTS.

Exaphoric	
Native English	Non-native English
100	57

Further analysis of the second question is presented below:

Table13, shows distribution of use of signaling nouns in the two corpora, non-native English and native English texts in 30000 words. As this table shows in 30000 words signaling nouns used 450 in non-native English and 540 in native English linguistics texts.

TABLE 13.
DISTRIBUTION OF USE OF SIGNALING NOUNS IN TWO CORPORA

Total Words	Other Words	Number of SN	Corpus
30000	29460 98.2	540 1.8	Native English Texts
30000	29550 98.5	450 1.5	Non-Native English texts
60000	59010	990	
$X^2 = 10.040$	df = 2	Sig = .004	

Inferential statistics shows that there is a significant difference between native English and non-native English linguistics texts in the use of signaling nouns (table 13).

TABLE 14.
DISTRIBUTION OF KINDS OF SIGNALING NOUNS IN TWO CORPORA

Total	EX	Whit in		Across		
540	100	230	5	45	160	Native English
	18.5	42.6	.9	8.3	29.6	
450	54	200	4	32	160	Non-native English
	12	44.4	.9	7.1	35.6	
990	154	430	9	116	320s	Total

$X^2 = 10.040$ df = 4   sig = .040

Inferential statistics in table 14 shows that there is a significant difference between native English and non-native English linguistics texts in the kinds of signaling nouns. So according to what was mentioned above, we feel safe to reject the second null hypothesis.

C. The Difference between Non-native English & Native Persian Texts

Regarding this question, the difference between non-native English & native Persian linguistic Texts Table 15 shows Average frequency of lexical signaling items per thousand words, for the two corpora. The table shows that there are on average 15 signals per thousand words in the Non- native English texts and 12 in the native Persian texts.

TABLE 15
AVERAGE SIGNALING ITEMS PER 1000 WORDS
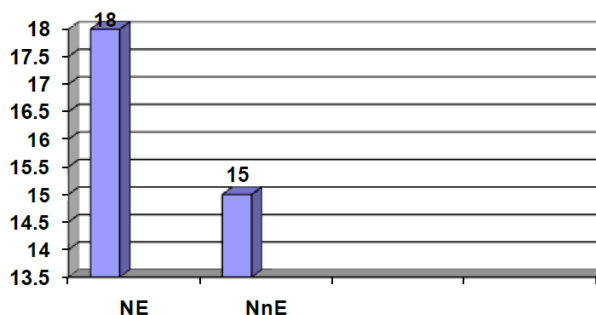
Native Persian Texts	Non-native English Texts
12	15
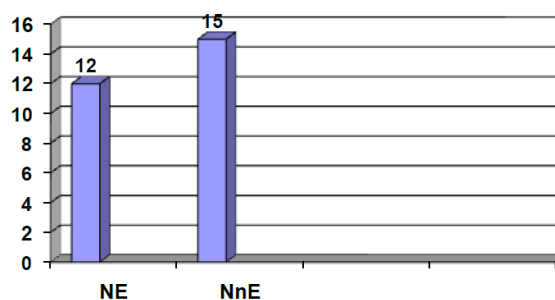
Figure 4Shows signaling nouns in Native Persian and Non-native English Texts

Regarding the kinds of SN, as Table 16 shows the word **Case**, for example, occurs in the Non-native English texts 40 times. The equivalent of the word "case"," حالت ", occurs only 7 times in the Native Persian texts. خصوصيت for example occurs 25 for (NP) and not occurring at all as a lexical signaling item in the Non-native texts. **Question** for example is quite frequent for the two corpora , 25 for (NNE) and 13 for (NP).

TABLE 16.
SIX MOST COMMON SIGNALING ITEMS IN THE CORPORA

NNET	*Freq*	*NPT*	*Freq.*
Way	20	خصوصيت	25
Kind	37	نقش	15
Question	25	سؤال	13
Result	5	نكته	10
Reason	10	حالت	7
Case	40	تفاوت	5

1. Across Clause signaling nouns

As mentioned before one of the category that can show the differences between native Persian & non-native English Texts is across clause. Table 17 provides us with the signaling nouns which function as across clauses written by native Persian and non-native English writers (Iranian writers). 234 signaling nouns occurred in native Persian texts, of which 192 function as anaphoric and 42 as cataphoric. 192 signaling nouns occurred in non-native English texts, of which 160 function as anaphoric and 32 as cataphoric.

Examples: Non-native English :Passive constructions relative construction, etc. such **comparisons** can be conducted within…

Native Persian:

نحوه ترتیب همسازه ها از موجي به موج ديگر فرق مي كند و همين **موضوع** باعث ايجاد صدا با طنين خاص مي گردد.

In these examples the meaning of the given signal must be sought earlier in the text.

TABLE 17
ACROSS CLAUSE SIGNALING NOUNS USED BY NATIVE PERSIAN AND NON-NATIVE ENGLISH TEXTS

Across Clause			
Native Persian		Non-native English	
Anaphoric	Cataphoric	Anaphoric	Cataphoric
192	42	160	32

2. Within clause signaling nouns

Table 18 provides us with the signaling nouns which function as within clause used by native Persian and Non-native English writers (Iranian). 96 Signaling nouns occurred in native Persian texts, of which <u>18</u> function as anaphoric and 78 as cataphoric. 204 Signaling nouns occurred in native Persian texts, of which <u>4</u> function as anaphoric and 200 as cataphoric.

TABLE 18
WITHIN CLAUSE SIGNALING NOUNS USED BY NATIVE PERSIAN AND NON- NATIVE ENGLISH TEXTS

Within clause			
Native Persian		Non-native English	
Anaphoric	Cataphoric	Anaphoric	Cataphoric
18	78	4	200
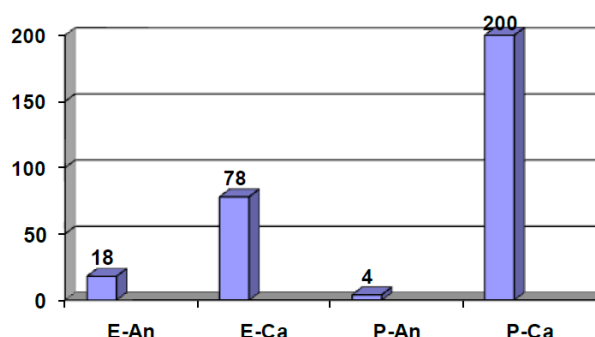
Figure 5 Shows kind of signaling nouns in With in clause in
Native Persian and Non native Engish Texts

3. Exaphoric signaling nouns

In regard to the differences between non-native English & native Persian Texts, Table 19 Shows lexical signaling items which function as exaphoric for the two corpora. The table shows that 30 signaling nouns occur in the native Persian texts and 57 in the non-native English texts.

Example: In some **cases,** words seem to have a use but no meaning as such.

TABLE 19
EXAPHORIC SIGNALING NOUNS USED BY NON-NATIVE ENGLISH AND NATIVE ENGLISH TEXTS.

Exaphoric	
Native Persian	Non-native English
30	57

Further analysis of the third question is presented below:

Regard to the same question, Table 17 shows the distribution of use of signaling nouns in the two corpora, Native Persian and Non-native English texts in 30000 words. As table shows in 30000 signaling nouns , non-native English used 450 and native Persian linguistics texts 360 respectively.

TABLE 20
DISTRIBUTION OF USE OF SIGNALING NOUNS IN TWO CORPORA

Total of Words	Other Words	Number of SN	Corpus
30000	29640 98.8	360 1.2	Native Persian Texts
30000	29550 98.5	450 1.5	Non-Native English Texts
60000	59190	810	
X^2 = 111.260	df = 8	Sig = .000	

Inferential statistics shows that there is a significant difference between Non-native English and native Persian linguistics texts in the use of signaling nouns.

TABLE 21.
DISTRIBUTION OF KINDS OF SIGNALING NOUNS IN TWO CORPORA

Total	EX	Whit in		Across		
360	30	78	18	42	192	Persian
	8.3	21.7	5	11.5	53.3	
450	54	200	4	32	160	Non-native English (P)
	12	44.4	.9	7.1	35.6	
810	84	278	22	74	352	Total
X^2 = 64.361			df = 4		sig = .000	

As regards the kinds of signaling nouns, table21, make us feel safe to say that there is a significant difference between native Persian and non-native English linguistics texts in the kinds of signaling nouns. So according to what was mentioned above, we feel safe to reject the third null hypothesis as well.

V. SOME GENERAL POINTS (FINDINGS)

Having described and exemplified the various functions of signaling nouns, in this part, the following tables cast more light on the findings of this study. Table 22(NE), Table 23(N-n E) and Table 24 (NP) show all of those items identified in the three corpora.

70 different items were identified as fulfilling the signaling function for the Native English texts 67 for the Non-native English texts and 122 for Native Persian texts within 30000 words. Although, as table 1, 2 and 3 show a considerable range of items functioning as signaling nouns, given the low frequency of many of them, as noted earlier, it is probable that larger corpora would be likely to yield an even wider range of items.

TABLE 22.
SIGNALING ITEMS IN THE NATIVE ENGLISH CORPUS

Topic-question-field-way-aspect-assumption-stage-issue-pattern-result-style-example-group-word-variation-clause-qualification-fact-regulation-rule-analyses-data-point-evidence-situation-approach-view-process-principle-function-part-type-ability-aim-reason-answer-problem-definition-hypotheses-case-kind-position-difference-feature-categories-technique-idea-cause-criterion-condition-Factor-Theory-reaction-support-subject-implication-pattern-Task-work-studies-respect-context-danger-detail-choice-chance-occasion-discovery-knowledge-modification-
TOTAL = 70 Words

TABLE 23
SIGNALING ITEMS IN THE NON- NATIVE ENGLISH CORPUS (IRANIAN)

Approach-course-aspect-attempt-discipline-stage-result-studies-source-issue-type-group-feature-aim-branch-assumption-technique-change-theory-criterion-attitude-view-evidence-idea-fact-principle-system-procedure-step-categories-example-item-kind-rule-process-element-difference-definition-point-purpose-part-section-position-activity-factor-situation-content-question-argument-case-way-size-use-rate-form-solution-need-information-class-reason-condition-contrast-effect-basis-association-formation-progress-Approach-course-aspect-attempt-discipline-stage-result-studies-source-issue-type-group-feature-aim-branch-assumption-technique-change-theory-criterion-attitude-view-evidence-idea-fact-principle-system-procedure-step-categories-example-item-kind-rule-process-element-difference-definition-point-purpose-part-section-position-activity-factor-situation-content-question-argument-case-way-size-use-rate-form-solution-need-information-class-reason-condition-contrast-effect-basis-association-formation-progress-
TOTAL = 67 Words

TABLE 24.
SIGNALING ITEMS IN THE NATIVE PERSIAN CORPUS

علم - خصوصیت - دانش - بررسی - چیز ــ علو م- منظور - کلمه - اندام - نگرش - مزیت ــ دسته - رابطه - نشانه - - نوع - رویه- مرحله - نکته - مجموعه - سخن - صورت - لحاظ-- اساس - حرف- نظریه - امر - محور - تعریف -اوصاف - نتیجه -بعد - مصداق - عمل - سطح - - مسئله - ارتباط - محدودیت - نقش - جهت - واقعیت - گمان - انتقال - رکن - نظر - احوال - رابطه - اطلاع - ترتیب - کار - قسمت - واژه - حقیقت - بخش - پدیده - جهش -جواب - پیشرفت - خدمت - وضع - تصور - زمینه - طریق - تفاوت - معني- نکات - پاسخ - واکنش - دستگاه - اختلاف - شاخه - شعبه - دلیل - روش- شیوه - مراحل - موفقیت - را ه - بحث - مفهوم - مطلب - دیدگاه - تمایز - جهت - موضوع - اثر - رشته - معیار - انتخاب - موقعیت - فعالیت - مثال - اصول - مشکل - راه حل - هدف - فرضیه - حالت - پیشنهاد - خطر - - جزئیات - عبارت - جنبه - نام - وظیفه - محاسبه - نرخ - قانون - اشتباه - محدودیت - - مورد - رفتار - - مقایسه - اعتراض - یادگیري - بدین گونه - ماده - مسافت - مذکور - ارتعاش -
TOTAL = 122 Words

Table 25 shows the frequency of some of those items most often used as signaling nouns. The word "**Way**", for example, occurs in the Native English texts 50 times. The word" **way**" occurs with only slightly less overall frequency (20 times)in the Non Native English texts and does not occur at all as a lexical signaling item in the Persian texts. The words **question** for example is quite frequent for the three corpora, 30 for (NE) 25 for (NNE) and 13 for (NP).It must be emphasized that many of them have a relatively low frequency. In relation to pedagogy, of course, the differing frequencies of the various items may suggest a different criterion for the selection and grading of such nouns in teaching.

TABLE 25
SIX MOST COMMON SIGNALING ITEMS IN THE CORPORA

NE Texts	Freq NE	Freq NNE	NP Texts	Freq NP
Way	50	20	خصوصیت	25
Kind	35	37	نقش	15
Question	30	25	سؤال	13
Result	25	5	نکته	10
Reason	20	10	حالت	7
Case	15	40	تفاوت	5

VI. DISCUSSION

By selecting 90000 words of linguistics texts from three corpora,. (1) Non-native English linguistics texts that were chosen from among current Iranian journals and books, (2) native English linguistics texts were chosen among current books and internet, (3) native Persian linguistics texts were chosen from Iranian journals and books written in Farsi. According to definition and classification of Halliday and Flowerdew, signaling items for the corpora were identified in a number of stages. All signaling items which occurred in corpora were realized then these lexical was examined to established if a given item functioned as a lexical signal. Then the kind and number of signaling nouns were identified .after data collection, the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS-X) was applied to analyze data.

The result showed that there are significant differences between Non-native English Native English and native Persian linguistics texts in the **use** of signaling nouns. And also the result revealed that there are significant differences between Non-native English, Native English and native Persian linguistics texts in the use of the **kind** of signaling nouns.

It was revealed that English writers used signaling nouns more than non-native English writers. And also non-native English writers used signaling nouns more than Persian writers: a justification for such a case may be that in English language lexical cohesions are consciously taught in writing classes like paragraph writing but in Persian no mention is made of the principles and mechanics of writing in classes at all. So this can show the language problem of Persian language.

Several interesting highlights were observed through this study which will be mentioned here: there is considerable variation in the proportion of the two functions (across clause and in clause) in the two corpora, Persian and English. English writers used more in clause and exophoric functions than Persian writers. For instance 96 signaling nouns were used in Persian and 235 in English.

Another feature worthy of note is that as seen in table 1 Native English texts have a higher average occurrences of signaling nouns per 1000 word .while table 21 shows there are more instances of any given item in the Native Persian texts. This can show that the number of signaling nouns in Persian is more than in English. But because there is no explicit teaching of these cohesive devises in Persian language, Iranian writers use less than in English language. Also it is probable that the larger corpora would be likely to yield an even wider range of items.

Sometimes signals may be accompanied by modification, in such a way as to make its reference more specific:

However it is to be noted here that sometimes the modification may be of more semantic importance than the signal which it modifies. In an example like **functional studies** the writer labels what he has been referring to as a studies but it seems that the modifier **functional** is what the writer wants to priorities in terms of his message. It is the fact that this study is **functional** (in contrast to the **structural** studies) that is important, not the fact that they are studies. The main role of the signal studies here is in creating an information structure in which the term functional can be introduced into the discourse and made salient.

Realization of a signal within the clause can also be at the level of the noun group. This most often takes the form of post – modification:

Native English Examples: A process of internal propagation:

Its function of providing mechanical...

In some cases realization within clause is performed by a pre modifier:

Examples: pumping action, the division process.

VII. PEDAGOGIC IMPLICATIONS

Text writers should whole–heartedly consider their readers as susceptible beings. While writing texts, they should take mental trips to the minds of the readers, whether the text is appropriate in terms of organization, types of questions or physical presentation. Understanding the reference links of a text may help to facilitate students' comprehension of the text even on an unfamiliar topic. It is also well–known that the best way to create motivation for reading is by the choice of an interesting and readable text. Not surprisingly but interestingly, sometimes a potentially motivating and interesting text can give readers motivation to continue their efforts to overcome a lake of content schemata for a particular text.

VIII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The present study investigated is there any differences between native English, native Persian and non- native English (Iranian) texts in the use of signaling nouns, quality and **quantity**. Various areas for research on signaling words such as, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs may also have such a function can be investigated. Only nouns are dealt with this study... As a case in point, one may wish to investigate are there any differences between native English, native Persian in the use of signaling verbs. Another area to investigate could the effect of signaling nouns on overall reading comprehension. In this case the effect of co − referential ties on reading comprehension can be more deeply investigated.

Part of the information involved in identifying referents of signaling items comes from the text itself. Can we investigate how information in the text can enhance the readers' ability to identify referents of signaling items? Another area to investigate could: As a third case further research we may ask: what is the effect signaling nouns on the speed of reading?

Another suggestion is: Can text structure, the pattern and frequency of signaling items be considered as criterions in measuring the difficulty level of materials?

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Supporting Self-efficacy and Learner Autonomy in Relation to Academic Success in EFL Classrooms (A Case Study)

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Abstract—This research was conducted for revealing the missing point of the discussions related to foreign language teaching and learning in Turkey. This study intended to investigate the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy, self-efficacy and academic success, learner autonomy and academic success, and these two concepts and academic success. Also, it was aimed to explore the effect of self-efficacy on academic success, the effect of learner autonomy on academic success and the effect of self-efficacy and learner autonomy on academic success. The study was applied to 250 preparatory level students at Gaziantep, Zirve, İnönü, Selçuk and Karatay Universities in 2010-2011 academic year. The data were collected through Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (SEQ) and Autonomous Learner Questionnaire (ALQ) and analyzed by SPSS 19.0. The analysis of the data revealed that there was a positive relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy (r= .667 p>.01), self-efficacy and academic success (r=.597 p>.01), and learner autonomy and academic success (r=.506 p>.01).

Index Terms—individual learning, learner autonomy, self-efficacy, academic Success

I. INTRODUCTION

Day by day, the importance of teaching and learning a language is increasing as the interaction among countries is soaring. As a result, since people try to learn more than one language to communicate with other people around the world, the rate of bilingual people is increasing. There are a lot of researches on the increasing rate of bilingual people. A research related to English-French bilingualism carried out in Canada is just an example of this. According to the research, *about 5.231.500 people reported to the 2001 census that they were bilingual, compared with 4.841.300 five years earlier, an 8.1% increase.* In 2001, these individuals represented 17.7% of the population, up from 17.0% in 1996. According to the findings of the study, it can be said that the increasing rate of bilingual people can be observed around the world

Taking the importance of language teaching and learning in today's world into consideration, the study aims to reveal the missing point of the discussions related to foreign language teaching and learning in Turkey. While autonomy is a general human need, the support of which would enhance students' positive feelings about themselves and their school work (Zhou et al, M, 2009, p.493), self-efficacy is the beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the course of action required to produce given attainments (Bandura, 1997b, p.3). It is clear that if one person has the ability to organize himself or herself and control himself or herself, it can be said that he/she is autonomous. Quinn (1974) claimed language teaching and learning is an autonomous art and it has accumulated over long periods. As he asserted, the process of language teaching and learning should be autonomous because language learning is a life-long journey. During this process, students should learn how to become autonomous and take the responsibility of their learning since there will not their teachers helping them during their life. As indicated in Chinese proverb "Give a man a fish and you feed for a day. Teach a man to fish and you feed him for a lifetime", teachers should teach students how to be autonomous and support autonomous learning in their classrooms due to the fact that language learning is also a life-long process. Moreover, a person's autonomy allows new interpretations of the world and possibility of change (Kenny, 1993, p.440). It can be said that if students have high self-efficacy, they will be aware of their abilities and they will be more autonomous. In Turkey, there are different studies on self-efficacy and learner autonomy separately. However, there are almost no studies on the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy. This study investigates the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy, self-efficacy and academic success, and learner autonomy and academic success. The first major purpose of this study is to investigate not only whether there is a relationship between learner autonomy and self-efficacy but also to find out whether self-efficacy affects learner autonomy positively. Also, its aim is to find out learner autonomy affects students' learning in a positive way. While the questionnaire on self-

efficacy reveals participants' self-efficacy scores, the questionnaire on learner autonomy reveals participants' learner autonomy scores in their language learning process. The scores bring the importance of the relationship between these two concepts into light in ELT. The second aim of this study is to reveal the relationships between self-efficacy and academic success, learner autonomy and academic success, and these two concepts (self-efficacy and learner autonomy) and academic success. Most teachers, learners, families and managers in schools complain that most learners cannot reach the proficiency level they desire in Turkey. The reason why they cannot attain the desired level of proficiency in foreign languages may be that people do not generally take the relationship between self-efficacy, learner autonomy and academic success in language learning into consideration. Moreover, as Yumuk (2002) indicates, the another reason may be that teachers' roles in Turkey do not allow students to be autonomous in classrooms. If students do not have the opportunity to explain themselves and control their own learning, they cannot be aware of their self-efficacy. This study helps to reveal the disregarded importance of the relationship between the two concepts (self-efficacy and learner autonomy) and academic success in language learning. In short, this study can have an effect on creating an effective language teaching and learning environment in Turkey. It may be a new road to the development of individual potential in language learning.

There is only a limitation encountered during this study. The results of the study cannot be generalized to all Turkish EFL learners because participants were selected from just only five universities in Turkey.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Self-efficacy

The societies of today have undergone different changes in the fields of information, society and technology. These dramatic changes are not new. However, what is new is their magnitude and accelerated pace (Bandura, 1997, p.1). This leads to continuous personal and social changes in the society. These challenging realities place a premium on people's sense of efficacy to shape their future (Bandura, 1997, p.1). Thus, what is self-efficacy? There are different definitions of the concept done by linguistics and educators as followed: "It is about learning how to persevere when one does not succeed (Pajares, 2005, p. 345).", "It is related to individuals' beliefs about the possibility of successfully performing a given academic task (Kornilova et al, 2009, p.597).", "It is the beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments (Bandura, 1997b, p. 3).", "It is a process in which students' sense of ability to perform a task influences their success, which in turn contributes to increased effort and persistence (Aliegro, 2006, p.18). ". As it can be drawn from the definitions of the concept 'self-efficacy', the main logic behind all of the definitions is the same: individuals' beliefs have a very important place in their lifelong learning journey. Individuals' self-efficacy beliefs have a significant effect on how they think, feel, motivate themselves and take actions. These beliefs can increase or diminish their success in every field of their lives. In other words, individuals architect their own destinies by their sense of self-efficacy.

B. Learner Autonomy

Autonomy in the educational world has attracted educational authorities' attention as the result of the rise of ideologies of globalization, the information age and the knowledge-based economy (Benson, 2001). These changes have contributed to the rising of learner autonomy in the educational world and learner autonomy has gained its momentum within the context of language learning and teaching. As a result of the rising of learner autonomy, there has been a serious change in the degree of the control of learners' responsibilities and deciding how these responsibilities are performed for the recent years. It can be said that this may be a challenge to the role relationship between learners and teachers (Cotterall & Crabbe, 1999, p.3). This relationship is likened to the relationship between a performer and a coach where the coach leads the performer to explore his/ her own world and reflect on it but not the relationship between a consumer and a provider in a traditional context. The questioning of these roles has been a fashion in today's education world and it has provided further food for thought in the aspect of a movement towards changing both teachers' and learners' roles in the classroom. This shift of responsibility from teachers to learners is generally referred to as 'learner autonomy' despite the fact that there are a number of different labels related to this concept (Cotterall & Crabbe, 1999, p.3). In order to understand this concept well, educators and linguistics have tried to define the concept in different ways as followed: "It is the ability to take charge of one's own learning (Holec, 1981, p.3)", "It is the capacity to take control of one's own learning (Benson, 2001, p. 47).", "It is learners' ability and willingness to make choices independently (Little, 1996, p.97).", "It is the capacity for a certain range of highly explicit behavior that embraces both the process and the content of learning (Cotterall & Crabbe, 1999, p.11).", and "It is a capacity and willingness to act independently and in cooperation with others as a social, responsible person (Dam et al., 1990, p.102).". As it can be drawn the definitions pointed out above, educators and linguists do not have a consensus on the term' learner autonomy'. However, the main gist of all the definitions is the same: learners build knowledge on their own and each learner brings his/her own experience and world knowledge to bear on the target language of task at hand (Candy, 1991, p. 270). It can be said that learner are the authors of their own education world. Although there have been a lot of different definitions about learner autonomy, it does not necessarily mean that the concept of learner autonomy has been fully understood (Oxford, 2003).

C. Academic Success

Academic achievement is a developmental or cumulative process (Duncan et al, 2007). During this process, successful language learners could make themselves into legendary figures, influencing many others (Gao, 2010). However, as Bandura (1977) claimed, if they become a success, they have to keep it and that is the toughest thing about success.

There have been a lot of researches done on different variables such as age, cognition, native language, input, affective domain, motivation, learners' self efficacy, learner autonomy and educational background affecting academic success for a long time and it has attracted researchers', theorists' and practitioners' attention for the last years (Wilhelm, 1997 cited in Wenden, 1991).

It can be said that there are different factors such as self-efficacy, learner autonomy, age, motivation, gender, language aptitude, cognitive and learning styles, socio-cultural cultures, personality, and intelligence which have an effect on academic success.

1. Self-efficacy and Academic Success

Self-efficacy is valued not because of reverence for individualism but because a strong sense of self-efficacy is vital for successful adaptation and change (Bandura, 1997, p.32). Academic achievements can be predicted by individuals' sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). It can be said that successful learners have higher self-efficacy. Multon et al. (1991) makes a connection between self-efficacy beliefs and academic performance by saying that self-efficacy beliefs have a positive effect on learners' academic performance and persistence. The notion that academic self-efficacy beliefs influence academic success is obvious but it may be less apparent that non-academic factors such as child's effortful control could also directly or indirectly influence academic achievement (Liew et al, 2008, p. 516). According to their sense of self-efficacy, learners perform a task satisfactorily, unsuccessfully or extraordinarily. Learners' beliefs in their ability to perform a task or achieve their goals promote their success in learning a language process and it is almost the same in all the cultures.

There have been a lot of studies on self-efficacy but there is a limited number of studies about the relationship between self-efficacy and academic success. According to the result of these studies, self-efficacy beliefs play a very significant role in academic success (Dennissen,et al, 2007; Multon et al, 1991; Pajares, 1996).

Cotterall (1999) conducted a study on 113 students' language learning at Victoria University of Wellington during a 12-week period from November 1994 to February 1995. According to the findings of the study, majority of the participants believed that they had the ability to learn a language successfully and to find an effective way to learn. It can be said that learners' beliefs affect students' learning styles and this determines what kind of a learner they are. In addition to this, their sense of efficacy plays a key role in to what extent they are successful during learning a language.

In a similar vein, Liew, McTigue, Barrois and Hughes (2008) did a longitudinal study on self-efficacy and academic success. In the study, there were 733 first grade students examined during three years. According to the result of this study, self-efficacy beliefs were positively correlated with reading and math within and across time (Liew et al, 2008, p.515).

Ayotola and Adedeji (2009) also examined the relationship between mathematics self-efficacy and achievement. The result of the study showed the importance of self-efficacy beliefs in predicting students' performance in mathematics. It is clear from the study that there is a positive relationship between students' mathematics self-efficacy and achievement in mathematics.

In the line with previous studies, Bassi et al. (2007) conducted a research on 130 Italian students who were with high self-efficacy or with low self-efficacy. The participants of the study were observed for one week by an experience sampling method. During this period, students dealt with different academic tasks and were monitored in the aspect of their personal skills by the researchers. According to the result of this research, students with high self-efficacy are more motivated than students with low self-efficacy in educational contexts. Thus, high self-efficacious students pursuit more than students with low self-efficacy, spend more time on their learning process and become more successful.

In Turkey, there are a lot of studies on self-efficacy. However, there is a limited number of studies on the relationship between self-efficacy and academic success. Recent studies conducted on this issue are Duman's (2007), Cinkara's study (2009) and Yılmaz's study (2010). All of these studies support the idea that self-efficacy beliefs have a positive effect on students' success in learning English.

In brief, self-efficacy beliefs provide foundation for human motivation, well-being and personal accomplishment (Pajares, 2002). Individuals' sense of efficacy plays a critical role in their academic achievement and their life-long journey. Taking all these studies done on self-efficacy and academic success into consideration, researchers, educators and teachers should not ignore students' beliefs about their capability since their beliefs are vital components of motivation and academic success.

2. Learner Autonomy and Academic Success

There have been a lot researches done on learner autonomy over the past three decades (Benson, 2001; Cotterall, 1995; Littlewood, 1996). The researchers mentioned above support the idea that learner autonomy increases motivation to learn consequently; and so it increases learning effectiveness. This affects their academic success indirectly. If a learner does not accept his/her learning responsibilities, they will be unwilling to learn and so they will be unsuccessful

during their learning life. As a result, there is a need for intervention in ongoing classroom practice to foster learner autonomy in order to provide an effective learning and teaching environment (Sanprasert, 2010).

Dam and Legenhausen (1996) conducted a project on learner autonomy in 1992. The aim of Language Acquisition in an Autonomous Learning Environment project was to observe the language development process of a Danish comprehensive school class in an autonomous language learning and teaching environment. According to the findings of the project, 7th grade learners in an autonomous class were better than learners following a more traditional language programme in the terms of C-test scores. This project supports the view that autonomous learning environment can affect learners' success in a positive way.

Nunan (1995) also conducted a project to investigate the effect of an autonomous learning environment on learners' learning process for over a twelve-week period. During this process learners took part in a language programmed designed with different modes such as co-operative learning, whole class work, pair and group work, learning beyond the classroom and individualized learning. At the end of this process, several changes were observed in students' learning behaviors. They became more communicative than before, preferred a more process-oriented approach to language learning rather than a product-oriented approach and began to take the control of their own learning. Also, they became more successful in their English courses than before. In short, it is clear from the study that autonomous learning environment affects students' learning in a positive way.

Taking its importance in the process of language learning into consideration, it can be said that educators and linguistics should not ignore its relation with academic success.

D. Self-efficacy and Learner Autonomy in Relation to Academic Success

Although learner autonomy and self-efficacy in language learning have been discussed separately for almost two decades, there is a general lack of data when it comes to investigating the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy, and these two concepts (learner autonomy and self-efficacy) and academic success.

Overing did a study on the Piaroa that are jungle people dwelling along tributaries of the Orinoco in the Guiana Highlands of Venezula (Cotterall & Crabbe, 1999, p. 34). They have a very highly developed theory of mind. According to them, there are two main forms of knowledge: ta'kwanya and ta'kwakomena. Ta'kwanya is related to the acquisition of cultural capabilities including the knowledge and capacity for using customs, language, social rules, rituals, and cuisine while ta'kwakomena is associated with the acquisition of one's own consciousness of and responsibility for such capacities. Personal autonomy is valuable. It is clear from Overing's study that at first, they are aware of their capabilities and capacity for using cultural values and then they take their responsibilities related to this issue in this community. It can be said that self-efficacy indirectly affects learner autonomy since without being aware of their cultural values they cannot realize their responsibilities and take them.

Concurrent to Overing's study, Lai conducted a study to raise learners' awareness of their own learning process and determining its effect on learners' capacity in their learning process during thirteen-week term period (Cotterall & Crabbe, 1999). According to the result of this study, increasing self-efficacy indirectly affects students' autonomous skills. This study was very important in the aspect of searching new ways to empower learners with the capacity to organize their own learning (Cotterall & Crabbe, 1999).

Briefly, it is very important to become aware of the knowledge and skills in the language learning process since we can manage our language learning process effectively. All the questions related to the language learning process such as "where am I?", "what are my goals?", "which strategies should I use to achieve my goals?" and "to what extent have I achieved my goals?" will be answered when a learner is aware of their capability and his/her responsibility in the learning process. It can be said that the more potential learners have for being autonomous, the more learning awareness they have (Cotterall, 2000). Development of learning awareness is a key objective of autonomous language learning (Dam & Legenhausen, 1996). Awareness is a key concept in learner autonomy (Cotterall & Crabbe, 1999, p.161).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The data were collected from 50 preparatory level students out of 250 participants from each of the following universities: Gaziantep University, Zirve University, İnönü University, Selçuk University and Karatay University (144 male and 106 female students). According to information got from the instructors, their ages vary from 17 to 25 years. Participants were from faculty of engineering including, civil engineering, mechanical engineering, physic engineering, food engineering, textile engineering, electronic and electrical engineering, faculty of education and faculty of medicine.

B. Instruments

To collect data two different questionnaires were used. The questionnaires are scored according to a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Always). The reliability of the questionnaires was analyzed by SPSS. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient of Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (SEQ) was .91 while the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of Autonomous Learner Questionnaire (ALQ) was .76. These values show that they are reliable instruments. The first questionnaire (SEQ) has 40 items focusing on questions related to students' self-efficacy. While 26 of these items were adapted from Bandura's Foreign Language Self-Efficacy Questionnaire, the rest of them were adapted from one of Ferla

et al.'s (2009) study related to whether there is a theoretical or empirical difference between academic math self-concept and academic math self-efficacy. Also, the second questionnaire has 40 items related to learner autonomy that were adapted from different resources. While 30 of the items were adapted from Egel's questionnaire (2003), the rest of them were developed by examining different sources (Sancar, 2001; Koçak, 2003). In short, the questionnaires were developed by making use of different sources to investigate whether there is a relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy, self-efficacy and academic success, learner autonomy and academic success and these two concepts (self-efficacy and learner autonomy) and academic success.

C. Data Collection

The administrations of each university (Gaziantep, Zirve, İnönü University, Selçuk University and Karatay Universities) were given information about the study and the permissions were taken to conduct the study. The questionnaires were applied to 250 preparatory level students at the universities mentioned above in 2010-2011 education year. The researcher visited five universities and administered the questionnaires to the students during regular class hours in their classrooms. The participants were informed about the aim of the study. They were told that it was very important for data reliability of the questionnaire to answer the questions sincerely and the questionnaires did not include questions disturbing their personality. Then, the first of the questionnaires (SEQ) were handed out and the students filled out them at the beginning of the week. Each questionnaire had a number, and so the instructor was asked to match his/her students' names with the numbers in order to match SEQ with ALQ. The second questionnaire (ALQ) was applied to the students at the end of the week in order to avoid the negative effects of the first questionnaire on the second questionnaire through a similar process. Some of the students were not present in both questionnaires. Thus, they were excluded from the study.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This research was conducted by two questionnaires (SEQ and ALQ). The analysis of the results obtained through SEQ and ALQ unveil that there is a positive relationship between self-efficacy and academic success, learner autonomy and academic success, self-efficacy and learner autonomy, and two concepts and academic success. According to the analysis of the data, it can be said that self-efficacy affects academic success positively. Also, learner autonomy has a positive impact on academic success. Furthermore, self-efficacy and learner autonomy influence academic success in a positive way.

One of the aims of this study is to find out the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy. The results of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation are shown in table 4.1.:

TABLE 4.1.
CORRELATION BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY AND LEARNER AUTONOMY

		Learner Autonomy	**Self-efficacy**
Learner Autonomy	Pearson Correlation	1	.667**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	250	250
Self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.667**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	250	250

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

According to table 4.1., the Pearson Product Moment Correlation unveils a significant positive relationship between learner autonomy and self-efficacy among 250 preparatory level students from Gaziantep, Zirve, Selçuk, Karatay and İnönü Universities (r = .667 p> .01). It can be said that when participants' sense of self-efficacy increases, their potential to be autonomous learners also increases. There is almost no such a study to investigate the relationship between learner autonomy and self-efficacy in the field of language learning and teaching. However, some linguistics and educators have implied that there is a relationship between learner autonomy and self-efficacy in their studies (Benson, 2006; Cotterall 1995, 1999; Schmenk, 2005). Schmenk (2005) puts forth that the concept of autonomy has value; nevertheless, provided that language educators admit that autonomy is not a universal and neutral concept and that encompasses a critical awareness of one's own abilities, possibilities and limitations within particular concepts (Schmenk, 2005, p.115). As Schmenk (2005) claims, self-efficacy is a prerequisite for learner autonomy due to the fact that unless individuals become aware of their capabilities, they cannot manage their own learning and take responsibility of their own learning process. It can be said that the results of the studies mentioned above are parallel with the findings of this research confirming a strong link between learner autonomy and self-efficacy.

The second aim of the study was to show whether self-efficacy and learner autonomy affect academic success in a positive way or not. So as to reach this aim, the multiple regression was used.

TABLE 4.2.
REGRESSION MODEL SUMMARY OF SELF-EFFICACY, LEARNER AUTONOMY AND ACADEMIC SUCCESS

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.614[a]	.377	.372	9.70293

a. Predictors: (Constant) Self-efficacy, Learner Autonomy

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	14072.581	2	7036.291	74.737	.000[a]
Residual	23254.255	247	94.147		
Total	37326.836	249			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Self-efficacy, Learner Autonomy
b. Dependent Variable: Academic Success

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	27.136	4.478		6.060	.000
Learner Autonomy	.138	.048	.195	2.889	.004
Self-efficacy	.241	.035	.467	6.930	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Academic Success

According to table 4.2., R value (.614 p >.01) shows the multiple correlation coefficient between two concepts (self-efficacy and learner autonomy) and academic success, and reveals that there is a positive significant relationship between learner autonomy, self-efficacy and academic success. The value of F (74.737) indicates that self-efficacy and learner autonomy significantly predict academic success among other variables such as age, language aptitude, intelligence, motivation, personality, socio-cultural factors, cognitive style, gender, native language, input, educational background and learning style that have an effect on academic success. According to this model, self-efficacy (β = .467 p < .05) and learner autonomy (β = .195 p < .05) are significant predictors of academic success among other variables that affect academic success. Self-efficacy and learner autonomy account for %37.7 the variation in academic success among the other variables mentioned above. In short, self-efficacy and learner autonomy make a significant contribution to predicting academic success among other variables in language learning and teaching. This means that the more self-efficacious and autonomous learners are, the more successful they become in the process of learning a language.

The third aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between self-efficacy and academic success. For this, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation was applied.

TABLE 4.3.
CORRELATION BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY AND ACADEMIC SUCCESS

		Self-efficacy	Academic Success
Self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	1	.597**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	250	250
Academic Success	Pearson Correlation	.597**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	250	250

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

As indicated in table 4.3., the obtained correlation (r=.597, p>.01) shows that there is a significant relationship between self-efficacy and academic success. It can be said that learners with higher self-efficacy can accomplish more than the ones with lower self-efficacy. According to the findings of this study, students with higher self-efficacy at Gaziantep, Zirve, İnönü, Selçuk and Karatay Universities are more successful in the process of language learning that the ones with low self-efficacy. It shows that students' beliefs related to their capacity at these universities lead their performance success in the process of language learning. The studies on the relationship between self-efficacy and academic success confirm the results of this study (Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Ching, 2002; Ferla et al, 2008).

The fourth aim of the study was to explain the effects of self-efficacy on academic success. To achieve this, simple linear regression was conducted.

TABLE 4.4.
REGRESSION MODEL SUMMARY OF SELF-EFFICACY AND ACADEMIC SUCCESS

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.597[a]	.356	.353	9.84553

a. Predictors: (Constant) Self-efficacy

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	13287.073	1	13287.073	137.073	.000[a]
Residual	24039.763	248	96.935		
Total	37326.836	249			

a. Predictors: (Constant) Self-efficacy
b. Dependent Variable: Academic Success

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	36.112	3.272		11.038	.000
Self-efficacy	.308	.026	.597	11.708	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Academic Success

As shown in table 4.4. the regression analysis suggests a significant regression model in which self-efficacy explains % 35 of variance in academic success among other variables such as age, gender, socio-economic factors, personality, learning style, language aptitude, intelligence, motivation, educational background, native language and input (R Square =. 356 p <.05). The value of F (137.073) indicates that self-efficacy predicts academic success. Self-efficacy (β = .597 p < .05) is a significant predictor of academic success among other variables. According to the result of simple linear regression analysis, It can be said that language learners with high self-efficacy at Gaziantep, Zirve, İnönü, Karatay and Selçuk Universities are more prone to becoming more successful learners than the ones with low self-efficacy. Students with high self-efficacy beliefs at these universities endured more than the ones with low self-efficacy when encountered with difficulties and obstacles and were more successful in academic achievement as supported by various researchers (Li & Wang, 2010). In short, the present study confirms the fact that students' sense of efficacy beliefs is a key determinant of their academic success (Wong, 2005; Yang 2004).

The fifth aim of the study was to explore the relationship between learner autonomy and academic success.

TABLE 4.5.
CORRELATION BETWEEN LEARNER AUTONOMY AND ACADEMIC SUCCESS

		Learner Autonomy	Academic Success
Learner Autonomy	Pearson Correlation	1	.506**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	250	250
Academic Success	Pearson Correlation	.506**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	250	250

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

The table 4.5. presents that there is a significant positive relationship between learner autonomy and academic success (r=.506 p>0.01). This means the more autonomous learners at Gaziantep, Zirve, İnönü, Selçuk and Karatay Universities are, the more successful they are. There have been numerous studies on the relationship between learner autonomy and academic success and they have a consensus on the view that learner autonomy and academic success are interrelated as confirmed in the present study (Zhou, Ma & Deci, 2009; Cotterall, 1995; Mineishi, 2010).

The last aim of the study was to find out the effects of learner autonomy on academic success.

TABLE 4.6.
REGRESSION MODEL SUMMARY OF LEARNER AUTONOMY AND ACADEMIC SUCCESS

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.506	.256	.253	10.58304

a. Predictors: (Constant) Learner Autonomy

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	9550.661	1	9550.661	85.273	.000[a]
Residual	27776.175	248	112.001		
Total	37326.836	249			

a. Predictors: (Constant) Learner Autonomy
b. Dependent Variable: Academic Success

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	29.134	4.874		5.977	.000
Learner Autonomy	.358	.039	.506	9.234	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Academic Success

As indicated in table 4.6., R-value (.506 p >.01) shows the correlation coefficient between learner autonomy and academic success, and reveals that there is a positive significant relationship between learner autonomy and academic success. This means that the more autonomous learners are, the more successful they become. As it is clear in table 4.6.,

the regression analysis suggests a significant regression model in which learner autonomy explains % 25,6 of variance in academic success among other variables such as age, gender, motivation, cognitive style, learning style, language aptitude, socio-economic factors, educational background, native language, and input (R Square = .256 p <.05). The value of F (85.273) indicates that learner autonomy predicts academic success. Learner autonomy (β = .506 p < .05) is a significant predictor of academic success among the other variables. According to the findings of the present study, students who are more autonomous at Gaziantep, Zirve, İnönü, Karatay and Selçuk Universities have been observed that they have become more successful in the process of language learning. It is clear that students participating in a classroom at these universities where they are given more opportunities to become autonomous are more likely to perform better in learning a language. The findings of this study confirm that learner autonomy plays a significant role in academic success in the field of language learning (Dafei, 2007; Yen & Lui, 2009).

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The most important finding of the present study is the relationship between learners' beliefs related to their language potential and their responsibility for their roles as language learners. The findings of the present study have unveiled the fact that there is a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy (r=.667, p>.01) and also have revealed that self-efficacy and learner autonomy affect academic success in a positive way according to the result of multiple regression analysis. There are a lot of researches on the relationship between self-efficacy and language learning, and learner autonomy and other student-focused constructs such as self-motivation, self-regulation, agency and identity (Benson, 2006). When comparing the present study with existing literature, it can be said that in most of these researches, learner autonomy and self-efficacy have been studied separately or compared or contrasted with other variables such as age, language aptitude, academic success, educational background, gender and motivation. To illustrate this, many researchers have conducted studies on the relationship between self-efficacy and academic success (Yılmaz, 2010; Cinkara, 2009; Duman, 2007; Liew, McTigue, Barrois & Hughes, 2008; Ayatola & Adedeji, 2009) while some researchers have studied on learner autonomy and academic success (Dam & Legenhausen, 1996; Nunan, 1995; Yen & Liu, 2009). Nonetheless, they have not integrated self-efficacy with learner autonomy and investigated their effect on learners' language performance in their studies. Thus, it is clear that there is no such a study on the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy, these two concepts (self-efficacy and learner autonomy) and academic success in the field of ELT. This study is the first one in the field. The main point of departure for the present study has been the missing pieces related to ELT in Turkey. In Turkey, most of language learners complain that they cannot achieve their full potential although they have been exposed to English for at least 9 years until they become university students. The problem behind this may be that both the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy and these two concepts and academic success may be ignored. The present study establishes students' sense of efficacy to guide their autonomous learning as a key factor affecting their performance outcomes related to language learning. Despite the fact that these two concepts have been studied separately, they cannot be considered separately in ELT. As indicated in *"Maintaining Control: Autonomy and Language Learning"*, no real progress towards autonomy can be made without attending to learner beliefs because of the important influence they have on learner reflection and metacognition (Pemberton et al, 2009, p.54). The findings of the present study are consistent with some points reported in earlier studies. Carter (1999) implies the importance of learners' beliefs in the process of being autonomous learners during language learning process according to the findings of his study. Wenden (1991) also declared that autonomous learners are self-confident learners believing in their ability to learn and to self-direct or manage their learning (Wenden, 1991, p.53). The results of the present study extend previous findings on the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy and the effect of the integration of these two concepts on academic success in the process of language learning and teaching. The previous studies did not show the effect of these two concepts on academic success together in ELT. According to the result of the present study, students with high self-efficacy at Gaziantep, Zirve, İnönü, Selçuk and Karatay Universities are more prone to becoming autonomous in the process of language learning because learners' beliefs related to their capacity in their language learning process affect to what extent they are autonomous. It is clear that learners at these universities are aware of their capacity in English and they believe in themselves. These students with high self-efficacy can control their own learning since they know that they have the capacity. In addition to this, both self-efficacious and autonomous learners at these universities mentioned above have been observed that they have become more successful in the process of language learning. It can be said that self-efficacy and learner autonomy are two most important predictors of academic success in the field of language learning.

The present study has revealed that self-efficacy, learner autonomy and the relationship between these two concepts (self-efficacy and learner autonomy) and academic success have an important place in language learning and teaching. In short, the present study revealed the disregarded importance of the relationship between two concepts (self-efficacy and learner autonomy) and language learning in the field of ELT. It implies that the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy should be emphasized simultaneously in the process of language teaching and learning. This integration will contribute to successful outcomes related to language learning and the present study will be a step in the new direction of language teaching and learning in Turkey. It can be said that learner autonomy and self-efficacy go hand in hand in the process of language learning, and this study may be a new road to the development of individual potential in language learning.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The promotion of an effective learning and teaching environment depends on the education system. Turkish education system can be defined as a traditional, teacher-dominated, and authority-oriented system since it is still directed and evaluated by the instructors. Most instructors are not autonomous in Turkey. As Little (2005) claims that teachers who themselves are not autonomous may have negative influence on the development of self-efficacious and autonomous learners. Therefore, in Turkey, there is no significant step to promote these in educational settings.

According to different studies on learner autonomy in Turkey, the only activity to promote learner autonomy is 'group work' in the lesson plans and the curriculum. As Harmer (2001) claims, group work promotes learner autonomy. However, there should be more activities that make students be aware of their own capacity and control their own learning in the curriculum.

Turkish learners need to develop a critical awareness of language learning. One possible solution for this situation can be to make students become aware of their capacity and promote their autonomy through curriculum (Cotterall, 2000). As teachers and administrators, the principles of autonomy and self-efficacy should be integrated into:

- The learning goal
- The learning process
- Tasks
- Learner strategies
- Reflection on learning (Cotterall, 2000)

The study reveals that self-efficacy, learner autonomy and the relationship between these two concepts (self-efficacy and learner autonomy) and academic success have an important place in language learning and teaching. However, in Turkey, there is no such study to investigate the importance of the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy, and these two concepts (self-efficacy and learner autonomy) and academic success. This study is the first one in the field. First, in future researches, the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy, and these two concepts (self-efficacy and learner autonomy) and academic success might be studied in detail. Moreover, researchers and educators should pay more attention to the importance of the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy, and these two concepts and academic success in language learning and teaching in the process of developing the curriculum because the results of the present study indicate that the integration of self-efficacy and learner autonomy in the process of language teaching and learning exerts some influences on the effectiveness of practicing what students have learnt related to foreign languages. Thus, it is recommended that EFL teachers should be aware of the importance of these two concepts (self-efficacy and learner autonomy) during the process of language teaching and learning. Secondly, the present study was conducted by using quantitative methods. Further research may include both quantitative and qualitative methods such as classroom observations and interviews due to the fact that this might help the researchers to understand students' sense of self and their attitudes towards being autonomous learners better while learning a language. Thirdly, there were 250 participants from five universities (Gaziantep, Zirve, İnönü, Selçuk and Karatay Universities) in the study. Because of this, the generalizability of findings may be limited. Therefore, further research may consist of a wider range of samples from more universities in Turkey. Lastly, further research may be conducted on the relationship between these two concepts (learner autonomy and self-efficacy) and other variables such as age, language aptitude, intelligence, personality, socio-cultural factors, cognitive style, age, motivation, educational background and learning style that affect learners' academic success in the process of language learning in Turkish EFL context in detail.

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I was Born Black and Female: A Womanist Reading of Lorraine Hansberry's *A Raisin in the Sun*

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Abstract—'I was born black and female,' Lorraine Hansberry once said. These two identities dominated her life and writings. Rejecting the limits placed on her race and gender, Hansberry employed her writings to investigate what it meant to be a black woman in post-war America. Throughout history, black women suffer various forms of marginalization, discrimination, and oppression. The same is true of their position in literature. Because of the white monopoly of literary writing and production, black women were underrepresented in the dominant white literary canon. Hence the need to have a distinctive voice of their own. As a literary movement, Womanism tries to give black women that voice. It addresses the triple impact of race, sex, and class on black women. Lorraine Hansberry's *A Raisin in the Sun* (1959) deals with a number of womanist issues like black man-black woman relationship, gender roles, images of black woman in the 1950s American society, black matriarchy and abortion. It centers around three black women as they grapple with the difficult circumstances they are facing in a largely white racist society.

Index Terms—womanism, black woman, Lorraine Hansberry, *A Raisin in the Sun*

The history of woman is largely the history of man. History writing itself is a typical man's activity. It constituted a "masculine tradition, written by men, devoted to the deeds of men, glorifying the masculine virtues of courage, honor, and patriotism, and dedicated to preserving the names of past heroes and recording patriarchal genealogies" (Rackin, 1985, p.329). Consequently, within that historical record, women had no place.

This results in the division of life into two distinctive sections: public and private. The feminist analysis proves this division to be gender-specific, i.e., the public life is the property of men and women are relegated to the invisible private sphere. (Rose in Mitchell & Oakley, 1989, pp.173-4) This leads to the confinement of women to the world of domestic labor, child bearing and concomitant sexual activities. (See Case, 1985)

These stereotypical images of women as wives, mothers, daughters or lovers are largely the product of a male-dominated society as Fergusson (1977, p.7) believes.

More important- since this paper deals with a dramatic work- these images are not confined to public life; they pervade the world of stage too. In relation to this, Gillian Hanna rightly observes:

Rarely were we able to play women who lived on stage in their own right. We were always someone's wife, mother or lover. (Someone being a man, of course.) Our theatrical identity was usually defined in terms of our relationship to the (more important) male characters. We only had an existence at all because we were attached to a man. (qtd. in Aston, 1999, p.7)

Generally speaking, feminist movements locate the oppression and subordination of women, which is seen to be historically extremely common and widespread, in the patriarchal domination of women by men. (Fortier, 2002, p.108) In fact, they share the basic view that "western civilization is pervasively patriarchal and is organized and conducted in such a way as to subordinate women to men in all cultural domains: familial, religious, political, economic, social, legal and artistic" (Abrams, 1999, pp.234-5).

Understandably, patriarchy comes under severe attack and criticism by the feminists for the role it plays in hindering women from realizing their creative possibilities. In *A Room of Her Own* (1929) and *The Second Sex* (1949), both Virginia Woolf and Simone de Beauvoire respectively made a detailed analysis of women's oppression within the patriarchal system. Both declare that women should establish and define for themselves their own identity by "challenging the existing false cultural notions about their gender identity and develop a female discourse that will accurately portray their relationship to the world of reality and not to the world of men" (Bressler, 2007, pp. 172-3). Furthermore, Beauvoire's analysis focuses on the social construction of women as the Other. This Beauvoire identifies as fundamental to women's oppression. She believed that discrimination against women happened on the basis of such categories of identity as race, class, and religion. But she said that it was nowhere more true than with sex in which men stereotyped women and used it as an excuse to organize society into patriarchy (See Changefoot, 2006).

Hence, it is quite natural that *The Second Sex* encourages the idea of women fighting for equality with men and emancipation. In relation to these goals, Beauvoire implicitly shows that emancipation of women is an ongoing endeavor; one that can not be completed as a project in the present. (Ibid., p.11)

Inspired by the efforts and calls of the first wave of feminists like Woolf and Beauvoire and influenced by the dramatic changes that took place in the western world in the wake of WWII, women began to demand equal rights with men, agitating specifically on the issues of equal pay, equal civil rights, equal access to education, health, legal rights, decent housing, free contraception and abortion on demand (Weedon, 1987, p.1).

Accordingly, being a "theoretical and political practice committed to the struggle against patriarchy and sexism," as Toril Moi pronounces (qtd. in Campell, 1994, p.5), Feminism is specifically directed at changing existing power relations between men and women so as to empower women and free them from all the manacles that hinder the release of their potentials. (Weedon, 1987, p.1)

However, the situation of women becomes more complicated in the case of black women whose position has been described and written by white authors. Because of that , Sue-Ellen Case remarks "the [resulting] discourse is necessarily distanced from the actual experiences that shape this position" (In Fortier, 2002, p.115). Moreover, "This distance is not an objective distance, but one which reflects a perspective of racial and class privilege" (Ibid). In fact, because black women have a different relation than white women do to the white male canon, and to the hegemonic white discourses, white authors, Case contends, can not write from the perspective of the ethnic communities or the experience of racial oppressions (Ibid.).

It is a well-known fact that black women's experience of oppression was and is triply grounded in gender, class and race. In "Ain't I a Woman," (1982), the black American activist, Bell Hooks, asserts the need of Feminist Movement to address the needs of women from all classes and races.(qtd. in Aston, 1995, p.79) Here Hooks encourages black women to recognize the special vantage point their marginality gives them and she urges them to make use of this perspective to "criticize the dominant racist, classist, sexist hegemony as well as to envision and create a counter hegemony" (Ibid.).

This desire to create a black "counter hegemony" is realized through the establishment of "Womanism" which is a special kind of [black] feminist theory that aims at answering the needs of black women and their struggle to transform the patriarchal and racial system this minority has historically experienced. Coined by the American novelist, Alice Walker, in her seminal book, *In Search of our Mothers' Gardens: Womanist Prose Since 1983* (1983), Womanism is the black equivalent to mainstream feminism. However, Walker makes it clear that womanism can only be differentiated from feminism by the additional factor of color/race (See Womanism, 2007).

In fact, there are more definitions of womanism than that of Walker. According to the Oxford Companion of African-American literature, "Womanism is generally understood to address the triple impact of race, sex, and class on African-American women and to compensate for the traditional shortcomings of feminist discourse that has routinely excluded the peculiar needs of African-American women" (Ibid.).

This definition underlies the special position of black women and emphasizes the fact that black women, in contrast to white women, additionally to their oppression in terms of gender and class, have to overcome disadvantages because of their race. (Ibid.) It also emphasizes that black women do not only have to face discrimination because of their cultural and social backgrounds like black men, but they are discriminated because of the fact that they are women as well.

Accordingly, womanism is often used as a means for analyzing black women's literature, as it marks the place where race, class, gender, and sexuality intersected. It is unique because it does not necessarily imply any political position or value system other than the honoring of black women's strength and experiences (Ibid.).

As for womanist theatre, it is constructed around major precepts of feminist, Afrocentric, and post-Afrocentric theatre theory, resulting in a reshaping of dramatic form and narrative (Giles, 2005, p.1). Like feminist theatre, womanist theatre subverts traditional Eurocentric dramatic structures to expose patriarchal misrepresentation, bias, and oppression. It also seeks to place women characters in the 'subject position,' (Ibid.) and to raise their consciousness as to their rights and potentials.

Although the term 'womansim' was not coined until the early 1980s, its concepts and interests appeared in many literary works before that time. One such work is Lorraine Hansberry's (1930-1965) *A Raisin in the Sun* (1959) (Henceforth *A Raisin*). Since Hansberry believes that "Black women are a prism through which the searing rays of race, class and sex are first focused, them refracted," (Ibid.) she sets out to transform these rays into a "spectrum of brilliant colors, a rainbow" which illuminates not only the experience of black women, but also of all mankind. (Ibid) In her powerful drama, Hansberry depicts the unique range of experiences of three black women negotiating their ways through a Eurandrocentric society.

Besides being an examination of the impact of racial discrimination on the life of an ordinary, working class family in the 1950s, the play displays a very strong view on a number of womanist issues that would transpire during the decade following its initial production and beyond. It raises the issues of black man-black woman relationship, gender roles, women's right to education and better living conditions, the role of male in the black matriarchal society, black woman's identity, poverty, and abortion.

All the characters in *A Raisin* have unfulfilled dreams. These dreams mostly involve money. Noteworthy is the fact that although the Younger family seems alienated from and oppressed by white middle-class society, they harbor the same materialistic dreams as the rest of the American society. In the 1950s, the stereotypical American dream was to have a house with a yard, a car and a big family.

In the play, Lena tries to realize this dream when she uses a life insurance money to move from the overcrowded and overpriced region the family is living in into Claybourne Park, a white-dominated city in the suburbs.

Hansberry expresses early in the play that the three women; Lena, Ruth, and Beneatha, are the backbone of the social organization of the Younger family whether they realize it or not. Two of them, Lena and her daughter-in-law, Ruth, have shouldered the burdens of home-makers, maternal care and domestic workers. Hard though it is, they are struggling to live up to this multiple roles ideal. Moreover, both are partners in the management of economic and domestic affairs.

Lena or Mama as she is often referred to in the play is the ultimate support and final word in the house. After her husband's –Big Walter- death, she becomes the matriarch of the Younger family. In her *Stage(d) Mothers: Mother-Daughter Tropes in Twentieth Century American Drama,* Hanson (2006) divides the mothers on the American stage into four main types. They are the monstrous mother, the saintly mother, the absent mother, and the mirroring mother.

Hansberry's play makes it crystal clear that Mama belongs to the category of saintly mother who is characterized by her willingness to suffer for her children. Furthermore, this mother is often defined by herself and others through her role as a mother rather than as a woman with multiple demands and conflicting interests. (Ibid, p. 123) Noteworthy, although she was seen by audiences, particularly whites, and critics alike, as a "familiar figure from the American literary and dramatic canon: the dark-skinned, white-haired, conservative Mammy of the good old days…who struggled to keep her unruly children in the line,"(Elam and Krasner, 2001. p.42) it is evident, Lisa M. Andeson asserts, that Mama is a "1959s reality-based example of the nurturing, protecting and fighting black woman" (qtd in Hanson, 2006, p.141). In the play, Mama fights to save her children from the enclosure of the ghettoes of Chicago which she sees as a danger to their health and happiness. Noteworthy here is Hansberry's dedication of *A Raisin* to her mother. Her dedication, "To Mama: In Gratitude for the Dream" is quiet significant in the light of Hansberry's concern with the dilemmas of black women in America. In fact, Hansberry's mother was a source of inspiration for her and a model worthy of emulation. She follows her mother's lead in fighting the racist policies that targeted the black race. Both call for the emancipation of the black race from all the manacles that prevent them from the realization of their dreams of equal chances in housing, education and work (See Ghani, 2011, p.610).

Mama's greatest desire is to move away from the crumpled apartment in which she lives with her family into a house with a garden in the suburbs. Walter, her son, does not share her dream and conflict arises between them over how best to spend the money. In an attempt to convince him of the importance of her decision, Mama states the reasons behind her insistence on buying a bigger house. She says

I- I just seen my family falling apart today…just falling to pieces in front of my eyes…We couldn't of gone on like we was today. We was going backwards 'stead of forwards-talking 'bout killing babies and wishing each other was dead…when it gets like that in life--you just got to do something different,…I wish you'd say how deep inside you you think I done the right thing. (Hansberry, 1960, p.165) (All subsequent quotations refer to this edition)

Therefore, it is not hard to see why Mama belongs to the group of mothers who are supremely self-sacrificing. To this, Anderson concurs:

The money that comes to the family does technically belong to Mama…She could have used all of the money on herself [traveling to Europe or buy expensive clothes], as Ruth suggests early in the play, but she chooses to give part of it to her children to help make their lives easier. In this, she embodies the self-sacrificing mother figure. (qtd. in Hanson, 2006, p.143)

In the same vein, Reed (2001) believes that Mama incorporates in her character almost all the 'descriptors' which Clenora Hudson-Weems deems essential in the African womanist for Mama is self-namer, family-centered, genuine in sisterhood, strong, whole, authentic, a flexible role player, respected, spiritual, adaptable, mothering, nurturing and in concert with the African man in struggle. (p.17)

These points determine Mama's relationship with her son, Walter, and with the other two women in the family; Ruth and her daughter, Beneatha. Although Mama loves them all and earnestly wants to help making their dreams come true, it is obvious that her treatment of her son is different from her treatment of her daughter. This difference in treatment, Neal A. Lester (2003) remarks, reflects Mama's gender bias (in Fisher and Silber, p.246). In fact, Mama is able to find her power within the patriarchal family structure around her. Though a male no longer heads the family, Mama rules the household in the place of her late husband. Her custody of the family is only temporary; she holds power only until she deems her son to have risen to the level of maturity wherein she can hand him over the reins. She does so at the end of the play, when Walter- in spite of his losing his share in the insurance money- rejects the money the racist Mr. Karl Linder tries to give the Younger family to convince them to stay where they are and not buy the house in the suburbs (Hanson, 2006, p.144). Mama compares Walter's decision here as worthy of his father, and in doing so, she passes the power over the family to her son. Thus Mama, Hanson argues, seems to "perpetuate the patriarchal family system" (Ibid.). In fact, Mama works to mold Walter into a "responsible man." She agrees to entrust him with a significant portion of the insurance money. She said "Take the money—Be the head of this family from now on like you supposed to be" (p.170) as she pushes him to be the patriarchal head of the family. More important, Walter's "initiation" into black manhood is orchestrated by Mama's manipulation. She allows Travis, Walter's son, to witness his father's action with Linder. She embarrasses Walter into making the decision she deems necessary, i.e. resisting the white racist policies in housing that aim at imprisoning the blacks in their ghettoized districts. Her self-congratulatory comment

about Walter to Ruth and Beneatha at Linder's departure- "He finally come into his manhood today, didn't he?"(p205) signals , Lester (2003) argues, the play's "climax for Mama as Walter's action allegedly demonstrates his personal integrity and the cultural dignity of African-Americans like his deceased father, who, according to Mama, gave his all to provide for his family" (qtd in Fisher and Silber, p.246). It is obvious that the values of patriarchy guide Mama's actions and thinking. Although she does not oppose Beneatha's dream of becoming a doctor or her decision to decline the wealthy George Murchison's proposal, she attaches little seriousness to Beneatha's move toward adulthood. In fact, she focuses more on Walter's life and problems. Moreover, from subtle comments about Travis's bedmaking- "He's a little boy. Ain't supposed to know 'bout housekeeping" (p.120) -to her behavior with Beneatha when the latter challenges her beliefs about God: "It don't sound nice for a young girl to say things like that" (p.128)- Mama, Lester asserts, seems to support "deeply entrenched gender roles" (in ibid., 248). This seems understandable since Mama is the product of the Great Migration and the first half of the twentieth century which is characterized by its conservative attitudes regarding the roles men and women should play within the social and cultural context of that period. However, Anthony Barthlemey believes that the end of the play makes *A Raisin* an 'endorsement of patriarchy' not at the expense of female strength or female governance [since] manhood in *A Raisin* is wholly compatible with [womanism]" (in Koloze, 2005, p.3-4). Mama does not surrender judgment to Walter simply because he is a man; she acquiesces because Walter is right. Manhood can not be achieved until Walter demonstrates the pride and dignity that the women of the Younger family already possess.

Walter is a frustrated and restless chauffeur who desires the opportunities that the white men have. More than anything, Walter is consumed with envy and rage because of the disparities that existed between black people and whites during the 1950s in America. He is "wracked up with bitterness" (p.157) as Murchison, Beneatha's boy friend, described him.

After the death of his father, Walter becomes the man of the house but he feels he is not acting as he should be. The family has no money and he hasn't been able to provide a better life for them. Of this, he complains to his wife, Ruth: "I am thirty five years old; I been married eleven years and I got a boy who sleeps in the living room-- and all I got to give him is stories about how rich white people live" (p.115). It is this knowledge that underlies his bitter disgust and self-contempt. These feelings towards himself affect the relationship that Walter has with each member of his family and the way he interacts with them.

Walter believes that being rich is the only solution to his family's problems. Despite his mother and wife's protestations, he insists on equating money with life. As such, his manhood, Lester (2003), believes, is based on economics and relegating women in his home to a secondary position of importance in his personal dream. (In Fisher and Silber, p.246) Walter assumes that his limited socio-economic position results from having unsupportive black women. He says: "A man needs a woman to back him up…We one group of men tied to a race of women with small minds" (pp.113-116). Walter's character here is meant to represent a kind of broken frustrated masculinity that white society perceived among black men of the 1950s; men who were shut out of the American dream by racism and poverty. Because of this exclusion, Walter's dreams of money becomes inextricably linked to his image of himself as a man.

Walter believes that Ruth and Mama should not work since it makes him look cowardly. Ruth and Mama want to support the family by cooking and cleaning the houses of the white people in the neighborhood. As a matter of fact, Walter's discrimination against Ruth and Mama is a sign of the times. Women in America did not commonly work in the 1950s and 1960s. The women were generally in charge of taking care of the children and the house.

Accordingly, Ruth and Mama's work as domestic laborers is a subversion of the gender roles in Walter's opinion. The vicious cycle of poverty and the difficulty of getting good-paid jobs for the black males impose responsibilities on black women that were "contrary to the conventional feminine roles, granting them a perceived dominance over black men" (Coleman, 2003, p.47). This dilemma is well summed up by Doris Y. Wilkinson and Ronald Taylor in *The Black Male in America: Perspectives on his Status in Contemporary Society* (1977):

Through…systemic denial of an opportunity to work for the black men, white America thrust the black woman in the role of family provider. This pattern of female-headed families was reinforced by the marginal economic position of the black male. (qtd in ibid., p. 47)

Through working outside and inside home, Bolton (2000) believes that both Mama and Ruth experience 'the third shift' which is a "widespread [womanist] phenomenon today precisely because we live in an era of social transition, when gender roles for women are in enormous flux" (pp.8-9). Like other black women, Mama and Ruth are expected to fulfill significant responsibilities and leadership roles at work and also retain a nurturing, other-oriented role in the family and broader community. (Ibid., p.9)

As for Walter-Ruth relationship, it is evident from the first scene that there is something wrong between them. They are short and impatient with each other. Ruth is tired of listening to her husband talk. She tells him to leave her alone three different times after asking him not to talk about anything money-related. "You get your mind off money and eat your breakfast," (p.109) she says to him. Yet Walter continues talking. Finally he sees the way his wife feels as he asks her, "You tired, ain't you? Tired of me, the boy, the way we live- this beat-up hole-every thing, Ain't you" (p.113).

With the rants of Walter, sexism is also very evident in the opening scene. Walter opens the play in a dialogue with his wife telling her "This is just what is wrong with the colored woman in this world…Don't understand about building their men up and making 'em feel like they somebody. Like they can do something" (p.115), (*Looking at his wife and*

his sister ...very sadly) The world's most backward race of people, and that's a fact"(p.119), and "Here I am a giant-surrounded by ants! Ants who can't even understand what it is the giant is talking about,"(p.157) because they don't support him. Hence, Walter provides the supporting rhetoric for his place as the patriarchal head of the family. He enforces his patriarchal aspiration as he defiantly gives his son the money for school that Ruth, his wife, denies for possibly economic reasons. Here Walter's attempts to assert his manhood highlights a "white patriarchal cultural script from which he reads and endeavors to follow- providing Travis and Ruth with illusory symbols of living the 'American dream'" (Lester in Fisher and Silber, 2003, p.246).

More important, Walter wants his son to have a better life than he has and wants to provide him with the education he deserves. In fact, he seems to care more for Travis's education than for his sister, Beneatha's, partly because Travis is his son and partly because Beneatha is a woman. Here Hansberry reflects her belief that within the marginalized group of black exists the even more marginalized group of black women who have to fight with prejudice across racial and gender lines. Obviously the women, according to Hansberry, are "the most oppressed of any oppressed group…and if you've got an oppressed group, [women] are oppressed twice" (Terkel, 1979, p.251). Walter denies Beneatha's dream of becoming a doctor. He says "Who the hell told you you had to be a doctor? If you crazy 'bout messing 'round with sick people- then go be a nurse like other women- or just get married and be quiet"(p.118). Whether consciously or not, Walter is acting as if his and his son's interests are more important than Beneatha's even though Beneatha has proven she is intellectually capable. Walter believes that the insurance money Mama gives to him can provide him with financial success and educational resources for his son, a priority he values more highly than his sister's goal of becoming a doctor.

Ruth Younger is the most selfless, self-sacrificing, and emotionally balanced character. She is a peacemaker between Walter and Beneatha and a bridge between Mama and Walter. The small income she earns from working as domestic laborer is essential for the desperately needed upkeep of the family. Moreover, the multiple roles she plays inside and outside home make her life really exhausting. Hansberry's description of her in the stage direction testifies to this:

Ruth is about thirty…she was a pretty girl…but now it is apparent that life has been little that she expected, and disappointment has already begun to hang in her face. In a few years, before thirty-five even, she will be known among her people as a "settled woman." (p.106)

This somehow gloomy portrayal does not mean Ruth lacks spirit or strength. Like other black married women, Ruth is in the middle, torn between the needs and dreams of others and her own humble aspiration to live peacefully. Like them, she subordinates herself because she is left with no other choices.

These conditions prove highly burdensome for Ruth as a black woman in a society that highly discriminates against the blacks. Commenting on this, Ryan (1975) remarks that black women like Ruth still carry the heavier burden, "Still, the fact remains that it is the black woman of America who is most likely to experience the worst of urban poverty, which brutally overtaxes her in the roles of wife, worker, and mother" (p.381).

When the play opens, Ruth is the first person to get up and after some noticeable difficulty, rouses Travis and Walter as she makes breakfast. Unfortunately for Ruth, neither her work at home nor outside it is appropriately appreciated, according to the male standards (Ibid., p.398). She says to Walter who is in one of his fits of anger, "O Walter (*softly*) Honey, why can't you stop fighting me?" to which he replies (*Without thinking*) "Who's fighting you? Who even cares about you?" (p.158).

Walter's answer is an index to the deterioration of his relationship with Ruth. This deterioration, Maitino and David (1996), observe, is "symbolic of the all-too often painful black male-black female relationship ground down by the pressures of daily living experiences" (p.137).

Woman's work outside home is an important issue for the feminist in general and black womanist in particular. In relation to this, Showalter (1977) observes, "For women…work meant labor for *others*. Work in the sense of self-development, was in direct conflict with the subordination and repression of women inherent in the feminine ideal" (p.22).

In the same vein, Dominelli (1994) explains that "women are always related to as bearing responsibility for others and having neither specific needs of their own nor needs that conflict with their roles as mothers, wives, or carers" (qtd. in Campell, p.90).

Moreover, the various reactions towards Ruth's untimely pregnancy and suggested abortion add thematic and structural complexity in the same way as Langston Hughes's poem "Harlem"-the source of the play's title provides no single answer to the question of what happens to dreams deferred (Lester in Fisher & Silber, 2003, p. 248). As *A Raisin* is the first major dramatic work to suggest abortion as a solution to an untimely pregnancy, it is possible that Hansberry is attempting to make a bold womanist statement with this plot twist.

During the 1950s, abortion was illegal. Having an abortion could subject Ruth to severe criminal penalties since the 'doctor' she is consulting is not a conventional physician but a woman who has the capability of performing an illegal abortion.

In general, twentieth century [black] feminist attitudes towards human abortion range from complete refusal of this practice, equating it with genocide and unspeakable crime (Kopaczynski, 1995, p.5) to an affirmation of woman's absolute right to refuse to have an unwanted child and to have control over the functions of their own bodies (Ibid).

The attitudes of the Younger family are as varied as the feminists'. Except Mama who heartily welcomes the news of Ruth's pregnancy, Ruth, Water, and Beneatha are reluctant to have the new baby since this means the need for more space, food, and care. As a matter of fact, their attitudes reflect the challenges they are facing on a day-to-day basis.

Koloze (2003) believes that Ruth's attitude toward abortion, if not an accurate assessment of her attitude toward her unborn baby, position her as one who is oppressed in two ways: being a woman and being a black. (p.2) Much like mothers today who are faced with economic uncertainties and psychological pressures, Ruth seems ineluctably drawn to abortion as a solution to the problem of an unwanted pregnancy. (Ibid)

Koloze goes on to explain the nature of Ruth's dilemma. He points out that Ruth is terribly aware of what is now identified as a post-abortion syndrome, "the symptoms of psychological, physical, and emotional distress which many women who have had abortion experience, if not immediately, then years after their abortions" (Ibid). "Ain't nothin' can tear at you like losin' your baby" (p.124), Ruth proclaims in sympathy as Mama relates the story of how she and Big Walter lost one of their already born children, "Little Claude." (Ibid)

Moreover, some critics are quite clear about the effect of abortion on African-American mothers. In her 1986 essay, "Apostrophe, Animation, and Abortion," Barbara Johnson writes that "the world that has created conditions under which the loss of a baby becomes desirable must be resisted, not joined. For a black woman, the loss of a baby can always be perceived as complicity with genocide." (qtd in Koloze, 2005, p.3). Through Ruth's decision to abort, Hansberry indirectly criticizes the vicious cycles of poverty and discrimination which black families fall victim to and which force black women to resort to this unpleasant solution.

Beneatha, mostly for economic reasons, defends Ruth's right to have an abortion. She firmly rejects the old notions of childbirth and reproduction without better conditions and opportunities for a good rearing and teaching of the new generation. Otherwise, she prefers abortion and birth control. Indignant of her mother's claim that she knows nothing about birth control and that it is better for her to "mind [her] own business," Beneatha insists "It is my business-where is he going to live, on the roof?(*There is silence behind the remark as the three women react to the sense of it*)" (p.135).

Unlike Beneatha, Mama is a pro-life womanist. As usual, Mama proves herself a source of help to Ruth when the latter tells her she is pregnant with a child she is not sure the family can support. Mama understands Ruth's fears and depression when she explains to Beneatha, "She be all right. Women gets right depressed sometimes when they get her way," and (*Speaking softly, expertly, rapidly*) Now you just relax…Just lean back, don't think 'bout nothing…nothing at all" (p.135). Mama's understanding of Ruth's crisis clearly shows that she is in tune with the conflicting needs and desires of each member of her family. Her saintliness shows through here strongly as she takes on the problems of Ruth as her own. She is able to empathize strongly with her daughter-in-law, suffering as she suffers, making Ruth's needs paramount.

Walter's lack of response to Ruth's threat to have an abortion is most shocking to his mother. Unlike his father who was nearly destroyed by the death of his child, Walter has given up hope not only for himself but for his progeny. He has begun to believe that his efforts have no point. Domina (1998) claims that Walter "will be able to assume responsibility for his family again only to the extent that he can believe his life presents real choices" (p.2).

More important, when Mama confronts him with the possibility that Ruth will have an abortion, she is quite clear in her definition of the African-American race as a life-affirming people in act one, scene II:

I'm waiting to hear how you be your father's son. Be the man he was…Your wife say she going to destroy your child. And I'm waiting to hear you talk like [your father] and say we a people who give children life, not who destroys them- …I am waiting to see you stand up and look like your daddy and say we done give up one baby to poverty and that we ain't going to give up nary another one…(p.149)

Mama's life-affirming statements come in two categories: first, descriptions of the love which Big Walter, the deceased patriarch of the family, had for his children; and secondly, her own definitions regarding the black race's role in preserving life. "He was one man to love his children…crazy 'bout his children!"(124-5) she relates of Big Walter. When she says this, Mama was recalling the abject poverty into which she and her husband raised their family. Mama narrates to Ruth how frequently Big Walter would come home from work and, after staring miserably at his poor surrounding, find solace in his children (Koloze, 2003, p.1).

Finally, Anne Cheney's biography of Hansberry demonstrates how Ruth's characterization is intertwined with Walter's. Although admittedly one of the "three strong, human women," with which Hansberry has populated her play, "At thirty, Ruth is caught between the ideas of the new and the old. She is a full-time domestic, but she values her roles as a wife and mother" (qtd in Ibid., p.7). Furthermore

As exhausted as Ruth is from domestic work for whites, her pregnancy, and her tension with Walter, she does not share Walter's monomania about money, business and social position. She would be satisfied with a peaceful home life and an adequate income. But as she begins to understand the compulsion of Walter's dream, their relationship becomes closer. Even Ruth's unselfish willingness to have an abortion shows her understanding of Walter's plight: she does not want to add to the financial burden or to the crowd apartment with one more person. (Ibid.)

The third woman in *A Raisin* is Beneatha who, according to Ben Keppel has traditionally been treated as Hansberry's alter ego, the vehicle for the expression of her creator's pan-Africanism…However, Beneatha…also expresses Hansberry's [black] feminism-her frank questioning of traditional male-female sex roles and of the assumption,

prevalent in the fifties, that a young woman's first job was to "catch' a "good" husband and make a "good" marriage. (qtd. in Ibid., p.4)

Beneatha appears as a new and an emerging voice that has not yet come into her own. She is influenced by the new ideas of her time and is at crossroads between black poverty and joining the status of the black bourgeois. A college student, Beneatha has certain privileges that her family lacked- membership in a play-acting group, and horse back riding club, in addition to photography and guitar lessons. Commenting on this, Domina (1998) remarks that Beneatha still believes "the world offers her a variety of choices" (p.3). In relation to this, her aspirations of becoming a doctor, and not a nurse, challenges the psychological limitations that her racist and sexist society has for young black women. She is challenged by the other characters for not conforming to their notions of a black woman's role and behavior.

Hansberry makes Beneatha her mouthpiece on more than one subject. In suggesting that she will never marry the wealthy Murchison, Beneatha is introducing one of the most important themes in womanism, i.e., the role of black women in the world and the proper relationship between man and woman (Ibid., p.7). Beneatha in fact shocks Mama and Ruth not only because she considers declining an offer of wealth but also because she considers declining marriage altogether; a possibility that runs counter to their expectation of a woman's role. Through Beneatha, Hansberry proposes that marriage is not necessary for women and that women can and should have ambitious career goals. In this, she seems to agree with Maria Grey who believes that

So long as marriage is held out as the only aim of a girl's life,…so long will all attempts at improvement fail…marriage should not be the first object of a woman's life, any more than of man's; girls must be trained from childhood to the idea that they, like their brothers, must take their share in the work of life…They should not only be allowed, but induced to work for their maintenance. (qtd in Harrison, 1971, p.148)

In doing so, Beneatha proves an early womanist who radically views her role as self-oriented rather than family-oriented. She not only wants to have a career, but also desires to find her identity and pursue an independent career without relying solely on a man. Commenting on black women's attempts to resist societal stereotyping of them through education and personal achievement, Ryan (1975) says "It was by no means uncommon to find black girls who were intent upon resisting the allure of ghetto street life and applying themselves to educational attainment and career preparation" (p.390). It is clear that Beneatha is not contaminated by the deep-seated resistance to achieve worldly achievement which the psychologist Horner (1972) calls "fear of success." Women who suffer this disturbing symptom feel that career achievement, particularly competitive ones which necessitate rivalry with men, will jeopardize their femininity and marital prospects. In other words, to succeed in one way in achieving a task means failure in another task (See pp.160-173).

Moreover, Beneatha's romantic encounters with Murchison and Asagai reveal that male chauvinism and prejudice against woman transcend cultural, national, educational and economic boundaries (Lester in Fisher and Silber, 2003, 247). Like Walter's attitude, Bemeatha's efforts to discover herself as an independent black female are challenged by Murchison and Asagai's desire to force her into traditional gender roles that hinder her creativity and personal life experience. (Ibid.) For example, despite Beneatha's intellect and daringness to consider various avenues towards self-discovery, Murchison's interest in her is solely romantic and sexual: "You're a nice-looking girl…That's all you need, honey…Be glad for that. As for myself, I want a nice-simple-sophisticated girl—not a poet" (p.166).

Like Murchison, Asagai believes that woman is good for nothing except a comfortable marriage. According to Lester, Asagai's philosophical challenges prove empty when they undermine Beneatha's personal potentials.(in ibid., 2003, p.247) Furthermore, his sexist, Afrocentric worldview presents men as leaders and thinkers and relegate women to a secondary position, not as men's partners but as their followers (ibid.)

My dear, young creature of the New World…the African Prince [himself]…swept with the maiden back across the middle passage over which her ancestors had come-Nigeria. Home. I will show you our mountains and our stars; and gave you cool drinks from gourds and teach you the old songs and ways of our people. (pp.192-3)

Asagai believes Beneatha can be complete only through marriage to him and becoming his American cultural conquest, a symbol of his own vain glory.

More important, in her attempt to overcome an identity crisis, Beneatha insists on investigating her African heritage and culture. In doing so, she precedes the New African Movement of the 1960s, in which the black American embraced their racial history, stopping their attempts to assimilate, even in physical appearance. With pride, Beneatha wears the African robe that Assagai has given her, plays African music on the phonograph, tries to imitate an African dance, and become conscious of her artificially straightened hair after Asagai playfully refers to it as "mutilated." (See act 2, Scene 1) Beneatha wants to break free of conforming to the white ideal. Her new radical Afro-hairstyle represents her embracing of her African roots. Her cutting of her hair is a very powerful social statement, as she symbolically declares that natural is beautiful which prefigures the 1960s cultural credo that black is beautiful.

Like many black women in American society, Beneatha is placed in a very difficult position. She is exposed to fair white role models whom she can neither emulate nor achieve. The black woman fosters fantastic dreams to "look like a movie star…like one of the sweet little white girls who were everybody's dream of what was right with the world" with the aid of bleaching and straightening potions (Maya Angelo qtd in Ryan, 1975, p.373). Kenneth Clark finds such aspirations as "psychic disease" which pervaded the black slums in America (qtd. in ibid.).

The questions of the position of woman and the nature of the roles she should play have taken the entire attention of human societies since their infancy. Since its emergence as a distinctive literary type in the 5th century B.C. drama shows an interest in woman-related issues. However, these issues were not the main focus of the dramatic works. In fact, they were dealt with within the larger framework of the dominant patriarchal system in which women have no voice and are often relegated to secondary positions.

Due to the dramatic changes and the introduction of new ideas that took place in the twentieth century, drama witnessed a surge of interest in these issues. Of special importance to Hansberry's *A Raisin* is the emergence of 'Womanism' since it deals with the lives of three black women who endure a double blow not only because they are black, but also because they are women as well.

When Hansberry wrote A Raisin, Womanism had not fully surfaced on the American literary scene. Here lies the importance of this powerful drama which deals with and foreshadows a number of the womanist issues that are crucial to black women's existence.

Some of the issues that Hansberry as a womanist cared about are racism, sexism, class and gender oppression, female representation in public and private life, and sterilization. Her portrayal of the three black women in the play challenged prevalent stage stereotypes of black women and introduced womanist issues to the American stage in a compelling way. Her portrayal of Beneatha as a young black woman with aspirations to be a doctor and independent in a society that highly discriminated against the black race, and her introduction of the abortion as a solution for the problem of an untimely pregnancy in an era when abortion was illegal signaled early on Hansberry's womanist stances and ideas. Indeed, in addressing these womanist issues, Hansberry proves herself a head of her time.

In fact, the play offers a rich field of exploration for American society's perception of black woman in the 1950s. Recent interpretations of female characterizations in the play reevaluate the moral strength of the three black women in many crucial ways. Instead of following the lead of traditional analyses of female characters whose reductive generalizations limit black women to passive secondary roles, current studies recognize the importance of black females as active agents in their societies.

Although the play is open-ended in the sense that it does not provide clear-cut answers to the questions it raises, it succeeds in raising the awareness of the problems the black race in general and black women in particular, are facing in a highly racist and material society. For example, the play says nothing about what is in store for the Younger family after their move to the Caybourne Park which is a clear challenge to the white racist housing policies. Similarly, the status of Beneatha'a education remains ambiguous especially in the light of Walter's loss of her share of money to Willy Harris. Perhaps, she will eventually become disillusioned after she experiences more racism and discrimination in the work market. The play also remains silent about the question of Ruth's abortion. Whether Ruth will abort the child or not is not clear. Ambiguity also envelops Walter's future economic status in the light of his loss of money and his lack of qualifications necessary to compete in the work market. In spite of this, *A Raisin* remains important as a cultural document about a crucial period in the history of America as well as for the continued debate over racial and gender lines that it has helped to spark. It also proves Beauvoire's above-stated belief, as far as black women are concerned, that "emancipation of [black] women is an ongoing endeavor, one that can not be complete as a project in the present." Due to her untimely death, Hansberry did not finish this project, she handed over the torch of fighting and resisting the oppression of black woman to future black womanist writers.

Finally, the writing and the production of *A Raisin* can be considered one of Hansberry's most radical statements. It is no small feat given her status as young black women in the 1950s. She was the youngest playwright, the fifth woman, and the only black writer at her time to win the New York Drama Critics' Circle Award for the Best Play of the year.

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External Validity of TOEFL Section of Doctoral Entrance Examination in Iran: A Mixed Design Study

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Abstract—External (generalization) validity is one aspect of construct validity (Messick, 1996) which deals with the inferences made on the basis of the test takers' scores on a test. External validity is of particular importance in high stake tests such as tests of English for academic/specific purposes which are used to evaluate the test takers proficiency in general English for academic purposes. This study was an attempt to investigate the generalization validity of TOEFL tests administered at Iranian universities to select Ph. D candidates. In doing so, a mixed design study was applied. The data for the quantitative part was collected through a self assessment instrument consisting of personal information and 40 items designed on five point Likert scale. 450 doctoral students from different universities in Iran took part in the study. The data of the study were analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistics including principal component analysis, univariate analysis of variance and regression analysis (p=.05) approaches. The qualitative data was analyzed through content analysis. The results of the study indicated that there is a significant difference between the participants' mean scores on TOEFL test and their means on academic language skills. Moreover, TOEFL scores did not significantly predict the test takers' scores on the use of academic language in target language use situations. Therefore, TOEFL test developers should take the issue of generalizability into consideration while planning TOEFL tests.

Index Terms—generalization validity, construct validity, TOEFL tests, target language use situations

I. INTRODUCTION

Although in Iran almost all undergraduate and postgraduate courses are taught in Persian, learners particularly master and doctoral candidates are urged to also read other sources and professional journals in English. To help students improve their English undergraduate and postgraduate students have to take language for academic purposes (EAP). The EAP courses not unlike the other subject matters are parts of master and doctoral entrance examinations which are held nationally and locally, respectively. The test takers' knowledge on EAP is usually tested through a general language test consisting on vocabulary, writing, and reading items. Such a kind of test is administered by almost all universities running Ph.D courses. The participants' score is a certificate for taking part in Ph.D examination. This test is of much significance to all Ph.D candidates. Therefore, like the other tests, TOEFL section of Ph.D entrance examination should have some characteristics such as validity.

Traditionally testers have distinguished different types of validity: content, predictive, concurrent, construct and face validity. Messick (1994; 1996) challenged this view and argued that construct validity is a multifaceted but unified and overarching concept which can be researched from a number of different perspectives. To simply put it, Messick (1989) captured the essence of construct validity into six distinguishable aspects, namely content, substantive, structural, generalizability, external, and consequential. In effect, these six aspects function as general validity criteria or standards for all educational and psychological measurement.

In the generalizability (external) aspect of construct validity, the concern is that a performance assessment should provide representative coverage of the content and processes of the construct domain. That is, to ensure that the score interpretation not be limited to the sample of assessed tasks but be generalizable to the construct domain more broadly (Messick, 1996).Evidence of such generalizability depends on the degree of correlation of the assessed tasks with other tasks representing the construct or aspects of the construct. This issue of generalizability of score inferences across tasks and contexts goes to the very heart of score meaning. Indeed, setting the boundaries of score meaning is precisely what generalizability evidence is meant to address.

Generalization validity is emphasized in two senses, namely, reliability and transfer. Generalizability as reliability (Feldt and Brennan, 1989) refers to the consistency of performance across the tasks, occasions, and raters of a particular assessment, which might be quite limited in scope (Messick, 1996). In contrast, generalizability as transfer requires

consistency of performance across tasks that are representative of the broader construct domain. That is, transfer refers to the range of tasks that performance on the assessed tasks facilitates the learning of or, more generally, is predictive of (Ferguson, 1956 cited in Messick, 1996). The review of literature, indicate that the construct validity particularly general validity of TOEFL tests has not been studied appropriately.

The main objective of the present study is to investigate external validity of TOEFL section of doctoral entrance examinations which are developed and administered both nationally and locally by Iranian state universities running doctoral courses.

II. RESEARCH QUESTION

To state the aim of the study, the following research questions were raised:

1-To what extent do the currently practiced TOEFL tests administered at Iranian universities have the characteristic of external validity?

2- How do Iranian Ph.D candidates view external validity of such proficiency tests?

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature indicates that the external (generalization) validity- the validity of inferences which are made on the basis of the tests takers' score on proficiency TOEFL test of local TOEFL tests has not been studied appropriately. However, the other two most popular tests: TOEFL and IELTS which provide the evidence of proficiency in the English language for non-English-speaking-background (NESB) students have been investigated in terms of their generalizability.

In the past 20 years, studies dealing with the relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement have been conducted. Lee (2006) investigating the dependability of scores on speaking assessment consisting of integrated and independent tasks through, generalizability theory (G-theory) procedures stated that it would be more efficient to increase the number of tasks rather than the number of ratings per speech sample in maximizing the score dependability. The multivariate G-theory analyses also revealed that (1) the universe (or true) scores among the task-type subsections were very highly correlated and that (2) slightly larger gains in composite score reliability would result from increasing the number of listening – speaking tasks for the fixed section lengths.

Van Moere (2006) investigated a group oral test administered at a university in Japan - one component of an in-house English proficiency test used for placing students, evaluating their progress, and making informed decisions for the development of the English language curriculum -to find if it was appropriate to use scores for higher stakes decision making.. Rasch analysis showed rater fit within acceptable levels considering the length and nature of the test; however, at correlations of .74 inter-rater agreements were lower than has been reported in research on commercially available interview tests. Candidates' scores on the two different test occasions correlated at .61. A generalizability study showed that the greatest systematic variation in test scores was contributed by the person-by-occasion interaction. Topic, or prompt, was not a significant factor. Candidates' performances, or how raters perceive an individual candidates' ability, could be affected to a large degree by the characteristics of interlocutors and interaction dynamics within the group.

Tonkyn (1995) asserts that there is plenty of evidence that language proficiency is a significant issue regarding the academic performance of overseas students, and that students who score higher on a Standard English test have a greater chance of future academic achievment.

Berieter and Scardamalia (1982) concluded that the problems of learning to speak and learning to write resulted in academic failure. Cummins and Swain (1986) established a theoretical framework concerning the difference between academic language and daily-life language. Demie, Taplin and Butler (2003) examined the relationship between bilingual students' level of English fluency and academic achievement and stated that bilingual students who were not fluent in English tended to do less well in school, and those who were fully fluent in English generally outperformed their English-speaking peers significantly. Kato, Albus, Liu, Guven and Thurlow (2004) reported that there was a strong relationship between the comprehensive assessment and the academic English test. In addition to IELTS and TOEFL tests, construct validation of performance assessments has been studied. Performance assessment typically asks students to show the processes of their thinking and reasoning so that educators can make direct inferences on the nature and depth of students' understanding (Lane, Liu, Ankenmann, & Stone, 1996; Messick, 1994). Linn, Baker, and Dunbar (1991) further stated that both logical and empirical evidence should be presented in order to draw valid inferences from performance assessment. They specified consequential validity and fairness as necessary criteria for evaluating performance assessments. Examining the Maryland School Performance Assessment Program (MSPAP), Yen and Ferrara (1997) found that the reading, writing, language, and math assessments of MSPAP show a substantial correlation (a = .54 to .78) with the reading, language, and math assessments of the Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills, Fourth Edition (CTBS-4).

Performance assessments can also have fairly strong predictive validity on future achievements. Davis, Caros, Grossen, and Carnine (2002) found that the score components of a writing benchmark assessment significantly predicted achievement in SAT-9 and High School Exit Exam (HSEE) scores. The function, based on the score components, correctly identified 77% of students in the upper or lower 50th percentiles on the SAT-9 Writing score

distribution and 67% of students in the upper or lower 50th percentiles on the HSEE Writing score distribution. Although review of literature indicates that the genneralizabily of international proficiency tests has been studied to a great extent, the local TOEFL/EAP tests such as those practiced at Iranian universities have not been investigated in terms of inference validity.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the study were 450 doctoral students majoring in chemistry, biology, geography, civil engineering, Persian literature and geography. The participants were selected through multi-stage sampling procedure. First, from different branches of science five disciplines were randomly selected. Then, from all universities running master and Ph.D courses seven big universities (Isfahan, Mashhad, Tarbiat Modares, Tehran, Allama, Shiraz, Shahid Chamran, Tarbiat Moalem and Shahid Beheshti,) were randomly selected. In order to know if the sample size is large enough to represent the population, we consulted Krejcie and Morgan (1970), which offer a table for estimating sample size by giving figures for populations ranging from 10 to 1000000 and the corresponding figures for the required sample size. The appropriate sample size for the population of the present study was found to be 390 doctoral students who were selected through convenient sampling procedures. To be on the safer ground, we selected 450 test takers.

B. Instrumentation

The main instrument used in this study was a *Self-assessment Questionnaire.* The questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first part dealt with the participants' general information such as major, education level, and their scores on TOEFL part of doctoral entrance examination. The second part consisted of four components: listening, speaking, writing, and reading with 10 items on each skill. Respondents assessed their English proficiency on a 5-point scale ranging from very week (1 = very week) to very good (5 = very good). The ordinal scale then was converted into interval scale. Therefore, the participants' score on each skill ranged between 10 -50.

In addition to the questionnaire, a Cued-Recall Interview was used to tap into the participants' knowledge of the generalization validity of such tests. That is, at first a leading question was asked to see what perceptions the test takers may have about the possible generalizations which they can make about such tests. Then, the participants' answers were followed by some other questions to explore the main possible merits and demerits of such tests in terms of generalization which can be made on the basis of the scores of such tests.

C. Data Analysis

This was a mixed design study and therefore a specific procedure was need. As a first step, the needed questionnaires were administered to the participants either directly by the researcher or through some colleagues and some were e-mailed to them. After collecting the questionnaires, they were analyzed by the researcher and the scores of each participant on each of the measures were calculated. The participants' score on TOEFL tests (independent variable) and theirs on academic reading, listening, speaking, and writing skills (dependent variables) were gathered. The data of study were analyzed through different statistical procedures including principal component analysis in order to extract the irrelevant items, univariate analysis of variance to compare the participants' mean scores on the five tests, Cronbach alpha for estimating internal consistency, and regression analysis to explain the effects of TOEFL on the prediction of the test takers' scores on different academic skills.

Then, the qualitative data was collected. Data were gathered during face-to-face in-depth interviews. The researchers informed the participants of the purpose of the research and obtained their written consent. The researchers also obtained the participants' permission to audiotape each interview for purposes of content analysis and audit trail. The interviews were conducted in both an unstructured and a semi-structured manner. The interviews lasted on average for about 30 minutes. Interviewing took place during all days over a five-month period, until the data collected were being consistently duplicated. No new information was gained from the last three interviews, thus data saturation was considered to have been achieved. The interview data were immediately transcribed verbatim and analyzed using qualitative content analysis

V. Results

A. Results of the Quantitative Phase

1. Results of factor analysis

As the instrument consists of four variables, four different factor analyses with extraction method of principal component analysis were run. The initial Eigenvalues for all components were above 6. The loading factors for all items of each component were above .6.   Therefore, it was confirmed that all items of each variable constitute one factor. The reliability of the instrument was above .9 which indicates the instrument has a very good internal consistency.

TABLE 1.
UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	67113.392	4	16778.348	570.219	.000
Intercept	1187256.131	1	1187256.131	40349.361	.000
TESTS	67113.392	4	16778.348	570.219	.000
Error	57230.477	1945	29.424		
Total	1311600.000	1 950			
Corrected Total	124343.869	1949			

As the results in the above table indicate there is a significant difference between the participants' means on different tests (F= 570.219, df= 4, Sig. = .000).

2. Results of Regression Analysis

Four different regression analyses were performed to examine whether the learners' scores on TOEFL tests had any effects on their academic listening, speaking, reading, and writing proficiency in target language use situations. The results are presented in the following Table:

TABLE 2:
MODEL SUMMARY FOR LANGUAGE SKILLS

Model	B	Se(B)	Sig.	R	R-Square	Adjusted R square
Listening	.090	.073	.21	.009	.004	.004
Speaking	.156	.037	.12	.160	.019	.015
writing	.091	.035	.059	.091	.008	.006
reading	.062	.038	.000	.622	.39	.36

a. Predictors (constant) TOEFL, b. dependent variables: listening, speaking, writing, and reading

As can be seen, TOEFL scores had no significant effect on the prediction of the learners' scores on academic listening skill, speaking, and writing skills. However, the results indicate that TOEFL scores had significant effects on the prediction of the learners' scores on academic reading skill.

B. Qualitative Analysis

20 doctoral students and 10 applied linguists were interviewed. Five themes were extracted from the interview data using qualitative content analysis. Here, we show the themes with direct quotations to exemplify them.

1. External invalidity pollutes any decision made on the test

Almost all participants believed that a good test is the one which predict the performance of the test takers' in real life situations. The TOEFL section of doctoral examination is administered to evaluate the test takers' English for general purposes. Therefore, high scores on this test means that the test takers are able use language in real academic situations. However, the participants believed that despite their high scores on this test they are not able to meet their academic needs. A doctoral student who got a very good test on TOEFL test states:

It is really naïve to think that a test taker who passed this test can make use of language in target language use situations. The items of the proficiency test that we took are not representative of the tasks in real life situations. This test only measures our knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension; whereas, we do quite different tasks in target language use situations. So it is quite clear that the results of the mentioned test cannot be generalized to the target situations.

2. External invalidity is due to this test indirectness

Another extracted theme was grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension are tested through multiple choice questions; whereas, in target academic situations doctoral students read the texts for reporting the main findings, to summarize, etc. Consequently, it could be strongly argued that no one can make generalization on the basis of a set of indirect items. To illustrate this theme, the following quotations from the participants are reported.

A Ph.D candidate in chemistry at one of the universities in Iran argued:

Answering the items on TOEFL test was a piece of cake for me. I practiced a couple of sample tests and I got aware of test methods and the contents. I got 90 out of 100. But now while writing an abstract, or summarizing a paper in English I do really find it hard and beyond my ability. I think generalizations made on the tests consisting of indirect items on grammar and vocabulary cannot be as much valid as one expects.

3. Generalization follows authenticity

All most all participants stated that the inferences and decisions made about their abilities on the basis of their scores on selection TOEFL tests are not valid because there is a very low similarity between the tasks and contents of these tests and real academic life non-test tasks. In other words, the students' high achievements in these tests do not guarantee their success in real academic life. The following direct quotation from a Ph.D candidate of law illustrates this theme.

Another problem with this test is that it onl measures limited skills and sub-skills through discrete point items. Whereas, in academic situations do we need to use the skills integratively. So the mismatch between the test items in tests and academic situations will expose the tests to indirectness and invalidity as well.

Another participant majoring in Geography states:

The TOEFL tests administered at the university in which I am studying now is limited in scope and contents. Vocabulary is tested through multiple choice items and the reading passages are not related to my own field of study. The tasks I need to do in target language use situation are more complex and complicated in terms of the discourse, genre, and lexicon. Therefore, the scores on the TOEFL test cannot predictive my performance the test takers' performance on in target language use situations.

4. Generalization invalidity leads to negative consequences

Another extracted theme was that if a test does not have generalization validity the inferences which are made on the basis of its scores will certainly lead to negative social, personal, individual, and financial consequences. These negative consequences are more detrimental when the administered test is a high stake test. The following direct quotations illustrate this theme.

One Ph.D candidate in applied mathematics argues:

Two or three years in row I was deprived of taking part in content part of doctoral examination just because of my low scores on TOEFL section. Although I finally passed this test, I have many problems in English. I don't know what the use of such invalid test is……..

5. External validity influences washback validity

A majority of the participants stated that they do not try to practice the language skills which they really need. They also argued that studying general and technical reading is sufficient for them to pass the test. That is why; they hardly ever study the journals and textbooks related to their field of studies. Therefore, such tests do not produce significant washback effects on learning. One of the participants majoring in Persian literature states:

One needs to learn finite grammar rules and the most essential words for TOEFL so that s/he can pass this test. Therefore, s/he does not attempt to study the other sources such as the journals, reference books, or other related books. Therefore, no innovation in language teaching and learning methods is made by the learners. I myself just use traditional strategies such as memorization. I think the results of this test do not lead to positive impacts on learning and teaching.

VI. Discussion

TOEFL test as a part of doctoral examinations are used throughout the Iranian universities both to control the entry of students into post graduate studies and to diagnose the test takers' proficiency. Language tests require technical expertise in their construction and application, in order to make the inferences that we draw from test results interpretable and supportable. The aim of this study was to determine the relative impact of the independent variable, the test takers' score on TOEFL test, on their performance on target language use situation tasks. It was also an attempt to study the external validity of such test from test takers' points of views.

To do so, the students were asked to assess their use of academic language in TLU situations. 450 students returned the questionnaire. The reliability of the questionnaire was above .9. Construct validity of the questionnaire was calculated through principal component factor analysis. The results of factor analysis indicate that the initial Eigenvalues for each component was above 5.3 and the loading of each factor was above .65. A brief look at the loadings shows that almost all of the loadings are high enough to conclude that all ten items of each component constitute one factor. The assumption of the study was that the students' performance on TOEFL tests was responsible for the greatest share of variance for all academic language skills. The results of data analysis, however, rejected this assumption and revealed the students' proficiency in TOEFL tests had by far the greatest share of variance for reading skill.

As the participants had five independent tests, the univariate analysis of variances was the best approach for comparing their means. This statistical approach is used when one group of participants have more than two different tests. As it could be seen, there is a significant difference between the participants' mean scores on TOEFL test and language the skills of language for academic purposes. The results of post hoc test (Tukey) also confirms that the participants' mean score on TOEFL test is significantly different from their means on listening, reading, writing, and speaking. The results also indicate that there is no difference between the means of listening, speaking and writing. However, the participants mean on reading test was significantly different from the means on listening, speaking, and writing. The descriptive analysis shows that mean scores on TOEFL test was the highest and reading was next to it (33.14 & 30. 33)

Four regression analyses predicted the relative impact of TOEFL test scores on students' overall academic listening, speaking, reading, and writing performances. The findings indicated that TOEFL proficiency accounted for.8% of the listening variance1%of speaking, .6% of writing, and38% of reading. Due to the vital importance of these tests and roles which they play in acceptance/non-acceptance of the candidates, it is firmly believed that test users should safely trust in the validity of such tests so that they can make inference and generalize the students' scores to non-test and real situations. Surprisingly enough, the TOEFL tests developed to screen doctoral candidates of chemistry, Persian literature, biology, geography, and civil engineering in 2009 and 2010 lacked generalization validity. That is, except for reading skill, there was no significant correlation between the test takers' scores on TOEFL tests and their use of academic listening, speaking, and writing tasks in target use situations. It could also be argued that, although TOEFL scores accounted for 38% of the reading variance, the results of unvariate analysis of variance indicated that there was a

significant difference between the mean scores on reading scores and TOEFL test. As the results, such variance share cannot be considered as ideal. Therefore, it could be argued that TOEFL proficiency tests are not good predictors of doctoral students' proficiency in academic listening, speaking, and writing skills. That is, test developers and university authorities cannot generalize the scores on TOEFL to target language use situation tasks.

The generalization invalidity occurs as the result of lack of correspondence between the content of TOEFL tests and target language use (TLU) tasks. In line with advocates of communicative testing, it is argued that maximal authenticity – the degree of correspondence between a given test task and a target language use task (Bachman and Palmer 1996) – and directness – the extent to which a test entails a candidate performing precisely the skill(s) we intend to measure– should be fundamental considerations in test design. The influence of sociolinguistics and pragmatics on the construct of communicative language ability (Bachman 1990) dictates the integration of skills in meeting test task demands. However, the findings of this study contradict Bachman and Palmer (1996) notion of generalizability indicating that the score interpretation should not be limited to only the sample of assessed tasks but be generalizable to the construct domain.

Another reason for generalization invalidity of locally administered TOEFL tests is deeply rooted in their function. Where a test is used for selection, as are Iranian TOEFL tests, those who seek access will attempt to gain the skills they believe necessary to succeed on the test. Some of these skills are generally considered to be desirable, as they are required in the target language use domain. However, as all tests are limited in how much of the domain they can sample and involve a certain amount of measurement error, there is inevitably scope for the misrepresentation of test takers' abilities. The skills required to pass a test are not necessarily or comprehensively the skills required in a target language use domain (Bachman and Palmer 1996). The content analysis of the TOEFL tests indicates that they only include test items on technical reading and vocabulary; whereas, post graduate students need all language skills to cope with target language use situation tasks (Alibakhshi, etal). Therefore, it could be strongly discussed that the construct of TOEFL tests is underrepresented. The target language use situation tasks exceed the domain of reading and technical vocabulary. The post graduate learners' academic language needs are not covered by the TOEFL test contents. In addition, test tasks are to a great extent, different from the academic tasks which Iranian learners will face. They have to summarize the texts, take notes, paraphrase, describe a technical problem, take not from live lectures, etc. However, the test tasks are only multiple choice items which the candidates are instructed to select the best. It could be argued that such a mismatch between real life tasks and test tasks jeopardize the validity of the TOEFL tests as well as the inferences which are made on the basis of these tests results.

VII. Conclusion

The results of the study indicated that TOEFL tests practiced at Iranian universities do not have generalization validity. In order to increase the generalization aspect of construct validity in TOEFL tests it is recommended that test designer pay attention to the real academic needs of master and doctoral students. That is, the content of TOEFL tests should be authentically representative of the learners' needs. In addition, test tasks should be representative of TLU situations. That is, the scores of tests which are both authentic and direct could be generalized to target language use situation tasks. It could also be concluded that authentic tests do have generalization validity and well certainly have positive washback effects on teaching and learning TOEFL at Iranian universities**.**

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The Exploring Nature of Language Learning Strategies (LLSs) and their Relationship with Various Variables with Focus on Personality Traits in the Current Studies of Second/Foreign Language Learning

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Abstract—Since Language Learning Strategies (LLSs) have potential to be, "an extremely powerful learning tool" (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo & Kupper, 1985a, p.43), the use of LLSs helps the learners retrieve and store material, and facilitate their learning (Grander & MacIntyre, 1992),they are sensitive to the learning context and to the learner's internal processing preferences, also they are extremely important part of second/foreign language teaching and learning, and there is relationship between the frequent use of LLSs and achievement in the language (Bremner, 1999; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995);there is need to understand what are LLSs, in what manner it is possible to teach them to learners, how learners choice and use them, and which variables affect the choice and use of them. A review of the relevant literature shows that there are various variables affect the choice and use of LLSs. Personality traits as one the most predictors, significantly influence success in learning a second language (Gass & Selinker, 1994). In the current study, the investigator aims to explore the nature of LLSs and their relationship to different variables.

Index Terms—language learning strategies, personality traits, language learning, second/foreign language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

In the last three decades or so, an important shift has taken place in the field of second/foreign language learning, and researchers have focused mainly on learner's individual factors, that it might be appropriate to comply with Wenden (1985), who reminds us, there is a proverb states "Give a man a fish and he eats for a day. Teach him how to fish and he eats for a lifetime". Applying such proverb in language learning and teaching, tells us that if students are taught strategies of language learning to work out, they will be empowered to manage their own learning. In such way, Ellis (1985) claims that native language speakers use the same strategy types as learners of second/foreign language use. In addition, Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinnary and Rubbins (1999) point out that "Differences between more effective learners and less effective learners were found in the number and range of strategies used" (p.166). Therefore, the importance of encouraging using LLSs (LLSs) is undeniable. Moreover even researchers (e. g. O'Malley et al.,1985b; Oxford, 1990; Ellis & Sinelair, 1989) support the belief that learners who receive learner training, generally learn better than who do not. In addition, there is relationship between the frequent use of learning strategies and achievement in the language (Bremner, 1999; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Therefore, there is claim that use of Language Learning Strategists (LLSs) helps the learners retrieve and store material, and facilitate their learning (Grander & MacIntyre, 1992).

The studies regarding LLSs are done in three different areas which are the characteristics of LLSs (Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot,1990; Wenden & Rubin,1987); the variables affecting LLSs (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Wharton, 2000); and the effect of strategy training on second/foreign language learning (Oxford, 1990).

From the variables affecting LLSs point of view, since individual differences have been identified as variables influencing language learning outcome (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Skehan, 1989); and as it was shown by the study of Marttinen (2008), the high percent of source of learners gain the knowledge is teacher; Horwitz (1988) and Wenden (1991) encourage teachers to discover the prescriptive belief of their own students. And in order to provide successful instruction, teachers need to learn to identify and understand their students' individual difference, and even they need become more aware that their teaching styles are appropriate to their learners' strategies (Oxford & Cohen, 1992). So interesting patterns of strategy use have been noted in the literature, for instances individuals learn considerable differently in their use of learning strategies (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1992; Oxford & Cohen, 1992; Wenden & Rubin, 1987); in various geographical and cultural settings, a positive relationship between strategy

use and language was reported (Bruen,2001; Park,1997; Sheorey, 1999); Rasekh and Ranjbari (2003) prove that metacognitive strategy training has a positive impact on enhancing EFL learners' lexical knowledge; learning strategies are essential for developing communication competence(Oxford, 1990); learners do not employ same strategy in all the situations; the use of different strategies is depending on several factors such as personal experiences (Von Glaserefeld, 1996) and general task (Nyikos, 1990); learning style appears to influence strategy use (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990).

Since LLSs are not innate but are learnable (Oxford, 1994), there are broad justifications have been offered for the evaluation of predictors of LLSs. For instance behavior tendencies reflected in personality traits affect some habits which influence LLSs (Paunonen & O'Connor, 2007).

Although the idea that the way individuals learn is related to their personality is not new, and since 1990s there has been a growing interest on how personality correlates to the academic performance. Personality has been conceptualized at different levels of breadth (McAdams, 1992), and each of these levels include our understanding of individual understanding. Moreover, individuals are characterized by a unique pattern of traits, and some study shows successful language learners choose strategies to suit their personalities (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989).

According to cook (2008), to understand scientifically, it must be interesting in personality. In such case, so high progress has been made toward a consensus on personality structure (Costa & McCare,1992; John, 1990; McCare & John, 1992), and the other studies regarding the relationship between personality traits and other variables, such as Blickle (1996) prove that Openness to experiences was correlate with interesting to use learning strategies; Ehrman and Oxford (1990) argue that since extroverted students like to interact with others, they learn foreign language better; there is correlation between extraversion and certain linguistic measures (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999).

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As Oxford (1990) points out how LLSs are important in both theoretical and practical aspects of language learning for language learners; since the publication of seminal works "What good learners can teach us" (Rubin, 1975) and "What can we learn from good learners" (Stern, 1975), there have done much valuable works in the field of LLSs.

To our knowledge, a review of the relevant literature considering LLSs shows after decades of research in the related field, LLSs have received considerable attention in the literature. The researchers came to conclusion that vast number of strategies has been reported to be used by language learners (Cohen, 1990) through various used methods such as survey tools and written questionnaire (Gu & Johnson, 1996; Fan, 2003), interview (Gu, 2003; Parks & Raymond, 2004), think-aloud or verbal reports (Goh, 1998; Nassaji, 2003), diaries or dialogue journal (Carson & Longhini, 2002), recolective narratives (Oxford, Lavine, Felkins, Hollaway & Saleh, 1996). Such measurements are used in the single form of method (separately) or as component methods (single set of methods) based on nature and goals of research works. In the light of these findings, the use of such strategies are varied based on various variables such as second/foreign language proficiency (Chamot, 2005; Chamot & Kupper,1989; Green & Oxford,1995; Griffiths,2003; Hong-Nam & Learell, 2006; Lan & Oxford, 2003; Oxford, 1993, 1996; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Shamis, 2003; Wharton, 2000), ethnicity (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Grainger, 1997), self confidence (Chamot, 1994), multilinguality (Ellis, 1994; Nation & Mclaughlin, 1986), and to be in abroad (Tamada, 1996; Gao, 2006).

Related literature of LLSs includes explanations of some interesting patterns regarding LLSs, such as Marti'nez (1996) argues some features of LLSs which are inferred from the literature: a) They play important role as a facilitator of language learning; b) The learners can choice the LLSs which they like; c) The learners may use the LLSs as problem-solving mechanisms to deal with the process of second/foreign language learning; d) The LLSs can be taught to the learners.

Oxford (1993) and Oxford and Crookball (1989) prove that a) More proficient learners tend to use the LLSs; b) The LLSs use is associated with other variables; c) The LLSs can be taught; d) Both students and teachers can become more aware of the potential of LLSs.

Moreover is that there are some other features for LLSs such as problem orientation, action basis, involvement beyond just cognition, ability to support learning directly or indirectly, degree of observability, level of consciousness, teachability, flexibility, and influence on strategy choice (Oxford, 1990, p. 11). It must bear in mind that playfulness as one of LLSs' characteristics which is shown as "goal", "purpose", "control" and so on in related studies.

There are important issues in the related literature of LLSs. Firstly, some researchers such as Porte (1988), Sinclair-Bell (1995), and Vann and Abraham (1990) approached LLSs from the point of view of unsuccessful learners; and the other researchers such as Rubin (1975), Stern (1975), and Naiman, Frohlich, Stern and Todesco (1978) concentrate on good learners. Secondly, the role of awareness in strategy use is very complex; and conscious choice is important to LLSs concept. In such case, Kohonen (1992) believes that strategies may become automates. The third issue , language and culture are strongly interwoven, and language is integral part of culture (Bedell & Oxford,1996; Howard,1996).In such situation, learning a target language would invariably mean learning the culture of the target language (Hall, 1999; Rose, 1999). Therefore, in foreign/second language classrooms, what is learned cannot be separated from cultural influences (Oxford, 1996b).

At finally yet importantly, there is the issue of personality. The studies on individual and personality differences are a central theme in psychology as well as the other areas of social and behavior sciences (Saklofske & Eysneck, 1998). In such issue there is bag of mixed results. For instance, in the reviewing nine studies regarding L2 success and personality,

Kiany (1998) found that two of these studies show positive relationship between extraversion and L2 success, three of them have positive relationship between introversion and L2 success, and three of them do not indicate any relationship. Or Robinson, Gabriel and Katchan (1994) found there is positive significant correlation between extraversion and achievement of language learning, but Skehan (1989) proves there is not any relationship. However, there are some more acceptable result such as Ehrman and Oxford (1990) show that inventors are generally uncomfortable with social strategies, and they do not like affective strategies. However, they are very much in favor of metacognitive strategies.

One of important general problematic issues, the issue of typologies that have been formulated for the description and classification of LLSs. Sometimes, one strategy belonging to one category can be classified under another category (Johenson & Johenson, 1998). In addition Cohen (1998, p.12) presents that they "are not clear –cut". Nevertheless, the taxonomy of Oxford (1990) is the most widely accepted taxonomy. The difference between Oxford's taxonomy and the other ones regarding LLSs is that, Oxford classified heterogeneous strategies into more specific categories (Ehrman, Leaver & Oxford, 2003).Moreover Oxford's taxonomy links individual strategies and groups of strategies with each of the four language skills (Oxford & Burry-Stock,1995).

III. What the Current Studies Show about LLSs

Since 1975s, dozens of various studies have contributed to our understanding of strategies employed by SL (Second Language)/FL (Foreign Language) learners at the level of adults. Such studies show in order to effect changes in perceptions of the learners' role in the learning process, we need to discover more about what learners do to learn successfully. Moreover such studies show that the best way of going about teaching strategies remain a subject of much debate right up to the present (Brown, 2001) because of use of LLSs is influenced by number of factors (Oxford, 1990), and the frequency and variety of LLSs vary among different individuals and depend on a number of variables (Chamot & Kupper, 1989).And researches show that students differ considerably in the use of LLSs (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford & Cohen, 1992). Although, factors such as attitudes, sex, ethnicity and the others have received lesser emphasis in the recent studies of LLSs (Oxford & Cohen, 1992). But the situation has improved somewhat through the personlogical work of some investigators (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990).Although still there is need to do more research on personlogical aspects because of the importance of personlogical traits as factors influence LLSs use (Willing, 1987).In this way, the recent studies try to focus more on individual differences in LLSs use (Oxford, 1992; Oxford & Ehrman, 1993).

A review of the relevant literature considering LLSs show that:

a) Good language learners use a variety of strategies in order to mastery in language skills (O'Malley et al.,1985a); difference between successful and less successful learners is depending on the LLSs they use (Abrahm & Vann, 1987; Chamot & El-Dinary, 1990; Cohen & Cavl canti, 1990); successful learners do not use all same techniques (Stevick, 1989); and there is no single set of strategies appropriate for recommendation to all learners (Gillette, 1987). However there are various variables influencing, such as learners' cultural background (Oxford,1996b; Oxford & Nyikos,1989; Politzer,1983; Rubin,1975).Although the welter of research, previous research has failed to have significant importance on individual differences in second/foreign language learning (Ellis,1985;Griffiths,1991).

b) Since the use of appropriate strategies allow learners to take more responsibilities for own learning, LLSs are seen as particularly important in henchmen of autonomy (Dickinson, 1987).In such manner, one of important objectives in the study of LLSs is to determine effectiveness of LLSs in learning second/foreign language(O'Malley&Chamot,1990). Therefore, if learners use LLSs efficiently, they can learn by themselves and self-examine their own progress. So having such situation for LLSs can improve learners and enhance their abilities of language. In this way Chamot (2005) comes to conclude that LLSs as procedure which facilitate learning task.

c) The examination of variation in human behavior is referred to as the study of individual differences (Ehrman & Dornyei, 1998). Such study of individual differences includes many subsets of studies such as the study of personality differences (Hampson & Colman, 1995), and personality factors that are important in development of linguistic abilities (Ellis, 1985). Psychologically, it is a truism that people are different in many fundamental ways, and learners are individuals, and there are infinitely variables (Skehan, 1989). In this manner Horwitz (1999) points out "language learners are individuals approaching language learning in their own unique way" (p.558). In addition, individuals who are characterized as a particular psychological type, adopt different learning strategies (Brown, 2001).In such situation, the teachers must make the students aware of the range of the strategies they can adopt (Cook, 2008); and they must aware of the relationship between personality and academic performance (Cattel & Butcher, 1968; Eysenck, 1967).

IV. The Situation of LLSs in the Recent Studies

Since LLSs have potential to be, "an extremely powerful learning tool" (O'Malley et al., 1985a, p.43), and extremely important part of second/foreign language teaching and learning, there is need to understand what are LLSs; in what manner it is possible to teach them to one learner; and how one learner choices and uses them. Such assumption lead that research on LLSs has witnessed profile and vigorous growth, and numerous studies around the world have contributed to both theory and teaching LLSs, which includes "growing interest in defining how learners can take

charge of their own learning and clarifying how teachers can help students become more autonomous" (Rubin, 1975, p. 15).

One of important issues which Oxford (1994) recommends it, it was that strategy should be somewhat individualized. In addition, in order to provide successful instruction, teachers need to learn to identify and understand their students' individuals' differences. Such reasons cause that some type of key terms shift from teacher to learner, such as "the learner-centered curriculum" (Nunan, 1988) and "learner-centeredness as language education" (Tudor, 1996). In such way, Cook (2008) guides the teachers to make students aware of the range of the strategies they can adopt.

One of the most important problematic issues in the literature of LLSs is that the correlation of personality and preferences for teaching modalities is unexplored yet (Chamorro-Premuzie, Furnham & Lewis,2007),although the investigation of personality factors is often mentioned to be important for gaining deeper insight into LLSs, and it helps to more understand role of learning strategies which is one of the most important issue as O'Malley and Chamot (1990) remark that it is necessary to clarify "the role of learning strategies in second language acquisition from both an empirical and a theoretical standpoint" (p.12).

At last it was shown that, various factors might potentially influence a student's choice of LLSs (Gardner & macIntyer, 1993). In addition, since there is strong relationship between psychological traits and the way that learners use language strategies (Ehraman & Oxford, 1990), psychological traits can play most important role in the field of LLSs.

V. The Relationship between LLSs and Different Variables in the Current Studies

The LLSs have been one of the most researched topics in the fields of second/foreign language education since Rubin (1975) wrote on the subject. The related studies include research on the relationship between LLSs use and various variables.

Such research includes the studies regarding the relationship between LLSs and gender, which show language use and gender have mixed results (Griffiths, 2004). Some studies show that there is difference of LLSs use based on the gender (Ehraman & Oxford, 1989; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). In such related studies it was found that female students reporting all or some of six groups of LLSs more frequently than male (Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Ghasedy,1998; Goh &Foong ,1997; Green & Oxford,1995; Hong-Nam &Learvell,2006; Lan & Oxford,2003; Lee & Oh, 2001; Oxford,1989; Oxford,Nyikos & Ehrman,1988; Politzer,1983).However the other studies prove that gender does not affect LLSs use (Griffiths, 2003; Lee & Oxford, 2008; Ziahossein & Salehi, 2008).

Regarding the effect of students' majors of study (fields) on strategy use, there are mixed results. Some studies found significant influences of students' majors of study (fields) on students' strategy use (Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989); however, the other studies prove no significant difference regarding the effect of students' majors of study (fields) on choice of strategy and strategy use (Ghasedy, 1998; Lee & Oxford, 2008).

In the case of effect of a second/foreign proficiency on strategy use, the most of the related research show that proficiency effect strategy use (e.g. Ghadesy, 1998).

The last case of effect of age on LLSs is "far from clear or conclusive" (Spolkey, 1989, p.92).

Alongside the field of LLSs, personality of individuals are affected through various variables such as culture(Markus & Kitayama,1998),genetic and environmental factors(Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985), sex differences(Budaev, 1999; Costa & McCare, 1992), and ethnicity (Griffiths, 1991).

VI. Rationale for the Research on Personality Traits in Relation with LLSs

A review of the relevant literature shows that personality traits significantly influence success in learning a second language (Gass & Selinker, 1994) and understanding the reasons for individual differences in levels of learning has always been a concern of researchers in the related fields. In this way, there are four soundest reasons to assess the relationship between LLSs and personality traits are: a) Learners need to know how to learn; b) Learners can provide training on how to improve learning of language; c) Teachers need to learn how to facilitate the process of learning; d) Knowing about personality can help the learners to learn more effectively.

In addition, there is evidence to show particular variables facilitate learning of a second/foreign language. In more specific examples, for instance, personality factors are important in development of linguistic abilities (Ellis, 1985), and even personality traits reflect what an individual *will* do (Furnham & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2004). Therefore, such variables may take into consideration when forming classes. Such findings alongside this assumption that Language Learning Strategy is a key factor affecting learners' rate of language learning and the ultimate level of language proficiency (Ellis, 1994), cause the researchers to have this important premise that finding the relationship between LLSs and personality traits is important, if the learners of second/foreign language learners wish to learn effectively.

VII. Limitation of the Research Works in the Study of LLSs

Generally speaking, there are some difficulties inherent in endeavor to conduct any research work on the learners of a second/foreign language. Such difficulties are as the results of methods (e. g. measurement issues, sampling issues), type of instrumentations (e.g. exclusive reliance on self-report responses to the questionnaires, ambiguity in the

questionnaire item wording, response style bias), and the other variables used in conducting descriptive type of research (Ellis, 1985).

Since all the education quasi-research deal with living human beings are occur out of laboratory conditions have limitations (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003). Such limitations include limitations that are related to questionnaires, sample, second/foreign proficiency test, type of research, statistical method, culture and nationality, environment, gender, comprehensive operational definitions.

Regarding the issue of questionnaire, although survey studies have been very illuminating and have yielded important results, the first limitation is that measuring of LLSs is done by using questionnaires. Since the questionnaires are self-report and single source of information, it is not clear whether the participants actively used the LLS which they indicated. Their response may not be just their beliefs and thoughts that they have about their use of strategies. In such way, in order to investigate students' actual use of LLSs, it should be some research method to corroborate results of questionnaire. For instance the researchers must observe classes, use think-aloud procedure (introspection), interview, and so forth. The second, there are may also have been some unclear points in questionnaire itself such as "Never" to "Always" may have been fuzzy because the interpretation of these scales can change according to context (Hatch & Brown, 1995), and the vagueness of wording has been another persistent problem in using questionnaire (Gu, Wen & Wu, 1995). The third issue, difficulty in cross-language research involves translation of the questionnaires. The fourth issue, questionnaires may not able to cover all the dimension of learners' LLSs and there is not deep insight. The fifth issue, although the learners' use of strategy is dynamic across times (Schmitt, 1997), questionnaires made strategy use to be as a static variable. Moreover, some questionnaires such as Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) which is designed by Rebecca L. Oxford (1990), do not describe in detail the LLSs a student uses in responses to any specific language task.

Regarding the limitation related to sample of participants, the sample may not be representative the population in general. However, researchers often selected a convenience sample in order to complete a study (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003).

Regarding the limitation related to second/foreign language proficiency, determining proficiency in language learning for speakers of other languages is not easy endeavor, and has been discussed by experts (Bachman, 1990; Farhady, 1982). For instance some studies used proficiency test scores (Dreyer & Oxford, 1995; Green & Oxford, 1995) and the others used self-rating (Wharton, 2000).

Since longitudinal research is more complicated and much slower, short period of study is chosen. As Ellis (1994, p.556) "sorely need" to have longitudinal research on LLSs, and as Chaudron (2003) (as citied in Griffiths, 2006) points out there is rarely longitudinal research in such case.

Regarding the limitations related to statistical methods, there is an important issue in the statistical procedures, that it is the reliability estimates of internal consistency may not be appropriate to measure something that could fluctuate in short period of time which is common the most of studies. The test-retest reliability measure is better indicator of reliability in such type of research. The second limitation is response biases. As it is known there are three prominent types of response biases, which are social desirable response, acquiescence, and extremely response bias (Herk, Poortinga & Verhallen, 2004).

Regarding the limitation related to culture, as Eliason (1995) discuses both culture and language affect the questionnaires. In addition in foreign/second language classrooms, what is learned cannot be separated from cultural influences (Oxford, 1996b).And the second issue, problem in cross-cultural studies is the style of response bias. In such case, the western-based of the questionnaires can affect the whole results of many studies in the way that maybe some different results would be suggested.

Generally speaking, one of the problematic issues that can be as a limitation is the lack of the comprehensive operational definitions.

VIII. CONCLUSION

Like other theories, the theory of LLSs has evolved. In such theory, particular approaches, methods, strategies, techniques were developed. Research on the related literature of LLSs, shows that LLSs has a history of only thirty years which is much sporadic (Chamot, 2005). Moreover, recently such strategies have been the focus of specific research (Oxford, 1990), and much of the research was descriptive. In addition, at the early researches on LLSs, there was not empirical research on nature of learning strategies and their influence on second language acquisition (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). In addition the development research on LLSs was based on early studies which were researched on good language learners (e. g. Rubin,1975).Such studies conducted on good language learners shows that good language learners have much to tell us about LLSs(Rubin,1975).

Past studies regarding LLSs have contributed to a voluminous archive of evidence pointing to the conclusion that there are many problematic issues have been arisen in the field of LLSs which must be the goal of consideration by the second/foreign language researchers. One of the main problematic issues is a plethora of terminology, dearth of clear understanding of terms, the lack of possibility to neatly draw line between them, and their applications in the field of language learning. However there are considerable progress has occurred in this field regarding the classification of LLSs (Ellis,1994). And even it is clearly to find comprehensive taxonomies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Ellis; 1994;

Oxford, 1990). The second problematic issue is that the previous research has failed to have significant importance on individual differences in second language learning (Ellis, 1985; Griffiths, 1991). Although the findings regarding the effectiveness of strategy training are rather mixed (Griffiths, 2004), but since there are studies which show that learners who received LLSs, generally learn better those learners who do not (Ellis & Sinckair, 1989; Oxford, 1990), the research on LLSs will continue to develop the researchers of second/foreign language acquisition/learning. In addition, research on LLSs continues in various directions for better understanding of both learning and teaching of language. Still there is not logical and well-accepted system for describing of strategy (Oxford, 1994).

The third problematic issue, individuality characteristics of teachers and their beliefs as factors often influence the effectiveness of the teaching/learning process (Richards, 1996), and teachers are "pivotal in the enterprise of teaching /learning situation" (Freeman & Richards, 1996, p.1). The teachers are generally are not aware of their students' learning strategies (Martinez, 1995; O'Malley et al 1985a), and their assumptions about their students' strategies are not correct (Hosenfeld, 1976), and even they have quite contrary to each other (Griffiths & Parr, 2001). In such way, it is difficult for teachers to accommodate various LLSs within the class and still cover required curriculum. Moreover, since some strategies are useful only for task (Oxford, 1989); sometime teaching the use of LLSs becomes more difficult if teachers do not have the materials appropriate to their classrooms (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

The fourth problematic issue, as Brown (2001) and Ellis (1985) believe, since there are abstract nature for many concepts, and problems of identification and measurements, it is not easy to study personality variables in second language learning contexts.

The fifth problematic issue, there is evidence to show particular variables facilitate learning of a second/foreign language. One of these variables is personality traits of the learners that are internal factors. However, regarding the results of the effects of personality traits on LLSs, and the relationships between LLSs and personality traits, there is lack of consensus in the results, inclusive or even contradictory results. For instance, there is a bag of mixed results about the correlation between extraversion and achievement of language learning, for example Robinson, Gabriel and Katchan (1994) found there is positive significant correlation, or Reiss(1983) found extraversion has significant correlation with successful language learning, but Skehan (1989) shows there is not any relationship. In such way, such theories are different and sometimes they are conflicting, and such assumptions may have the potential to affect and lead to different suggested results.

The sixth problematic issue, as Brown (1991) states "a language is part of culture and culture is part of a language" (p.165), there is belief that explicit teaching of target culture can improve non-native speaker linguistic skills (Hall, 1999).In such case, there are some problems arise in the mentioned field regarding teaching and learning of particular parts of the target culture when it is varied from the culture of L1. Such problems are not focused in the current studies.

The seventh problematic issue, with this feedback in mind that as Brown (1991) states "after a century of modern approach to language teaching, we have learnt that there is no single method that will work for all people in all situations" (p.138), and Ellis (1994) states that "veritable plethora of individual learner variable which researchers have been identified as influencing learning outcomes" (p.472), one of these variables, the general principal that learners need to play an active role in learning process (Horwitz, 1999)which has become widely accepted (although the general concept of using strategies to enhance learning is not new).But as Selinker (1972, p.213) emphasizes that "*a theory of second language learning does not provide a central place for individuals differences among learners*" (author's italics).

The eighth problematic issue, the teachability of LLSs is by no means universally accepted. Although Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinnary and Rubbins (1999) state "differences between more effective learners and less effective learners were found in the number and range of strategies used ,in how the strategies were applied to the task ,and in whether they were appropriate for the task" (p.166). In addition there are some general theoretical underpinnings that no single set of strategies appropriate recommendation to all learners (Gillette, 1987), LLSs as one of the most factors for individual differences in second language acquisition (Chamot,2005); as hinted in the previous sections, in the field of second/foreign learning and teaching, the focus has been shifted from teaching to learning; and the most important that although there has been extensive research on LLSs, but still there is lack of research conducted on some special aspects of learners' LLSs, such as base on which trait of personality, learners report doing particular LLSs to achieve success in language learning, and which patterns of reported use of LLSs are according to personality traits.

The ninth problematic issue, various valuable research works on variables in the relationship with LLSs have been done and continues to be done, but the previous research in the field of LLSs face with difficult questions which akin to the age-old riddle about the chicken and egg which comes first, because since learners can vary greatly from each others in their approach to learning, there is no consensus on what constitute LLSs in second/foreign language learning.

One of important concluding remarks in past studies, it is that interaction refers to communication between individuals (Ellis, 1999), and interaction provides learners with opportunities to gain receive comprehensive input (Gass, 1997) and make changes in their linguistic output (Swain, 1995). Moreover Nunan (1988) and Rogers (1983) claim that teaching and learning processes are the results of interaction between teachers and learners.

The last but not least, the factors in the use of LLSs can be categorized as: a) Learner's characteristics, b)Teacher's characteristics, c) Methodology and Materials.

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The Effect of Multimodal Learning Models on Language Teaching and Learning

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Abstract—When we talk about multimedia learning, we can ask several questions to ourselves understand the effect of information and communication technologies (ICT's) on our lives. ICT's have introduced new instructions that we use to think; consequently, the ways in which we think would also change. New identities are born that are connected to communication tools. From the viewpoint of applied linguistics, we are specifically interested in the effects that these communicative skills can have on the processes of language production and interpretation. Our conceptions of language and communication have changed substantially with the arrival of computer and its digital capabilities. Communications have also changed considerably. These changes have affected the school communities and the relationships established between teachers and students now involve other modes of cognitive involvement and social interactions made possible by digital online communications. In this paper, the researchers discuss the issues of ICT, multimedia learning, its principles, CALL, its advantages and implications of multimedia learning. Then multimodal learning, multimodality and second language acquisition, and implications of multimodality in language learning and teaching will be discussed. A review of the literature will determine how multimodal models affect the teaching and learning processes.

Index Terms—multimedia learning, communication, ICT's, CALL, production, interpretation, representation

I. INTRODUCTION

When we talk about multimedia learning, several questions occur in our minds concerning the impact of information and communications technology (ICT) on our lives. Information and communication technology (ICT) provides academics with an opportunity to create rich learning environments for their students, enhanced by the wealth of information and resources on the Internet, as well as the inclusion of a range of multimedia-based learning elements. Multimodal courses involve the use of multimedia and ICT to develop dynamic course resources that appeal to different sensory modes and a variety of learning styles (Sankey & Birch, 2005). For example, a multimodal course may include elements such as simulations, interactive diagrams, images, video and audio materials, interactive quizzes and crosswords, PowerPoint lectures with audio, and hyperlinked examples. With this new flexibility, major concepts within course material may be presented in a variety of modes (multiple representations), for example, in both a visual and aural form. This strategy leads learners to perceive that it is easier to learn, improve attention rates, and improve learning performance. There are marked differences in both computer skills and cognitive skills among learners that these technologies are bringing about. ICT have introduced new tools that we use to think; consequently, the ways in which we think would also change (Sankey, 2006).

We are specifically interested in the impacts of these technologies on the processes of language production and interpretation. Our conceptions of language and communication have changed substantially with the arrival of the computer and its digital capabilities. Communications have also changed considerably. These changes have had an important influence on the learning environment. In this paper, the authors discuss the issue of ICT, multimedia learning, its principles, CALL, its advantages and implications of multimedia learning. Then, multimodal learning, multimodality and second language acquisition, and implications of multimodality in language learning and teaching will be discussed.

II. INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT) IN SCIENCE EDUCATION

Since science can be viewed as *contents*, e.g. the laws, theories, facts, and as *processes*, e.g. measuring, recording, processing data, information and communication technology (ICT) in science education aims to support both (Wellington, 2000). Simulations and modelling offer a wide range of opportunities by either describing reality or simplifying it to aid conceptual interpretation. Simulations refer to models that are created by others; modelling refers to models that are created by pupils. Simulations show phenomena and processes that might be too slow or fast to do in the school lab; they offer access to non-existing entities, they model activities that would be dangerous or expensive to carry out by pupils (Wellington, 2000). Through simulations, variable can be controlled and teachers can focus on theoretical issues instead of dealing with managing the lab. Simulations are not panacea for learning science: easy manipulation of variables may lead to misunderstanding that happens in reality, models are hidden from the pupils which cause them to be able to manipulate only factors within this model and cannot question the model. So they may confuse the model with reality. Some models are better than others and some models are caricatures of reality rather than representations of it (Wellington, 2000). It is the teacher who can safeguard such confusions by stressing the fact that simulations are models and emphasize their limitations. ICT systems are useful for collecting and storing large amount of data, performing complex calculations on stored data, processing large amounts of data and displaying them in a variety of formats, helping to present and communicate information. Computers can be used for a variety of reasons to interact with multimedia software, to browse the Internet, to log data. However, the use of ICT in schools has shown weaknesses: the objectives are sometimes unclear, there are low expectations of written outcomes, glossy computer-generated effects are accepted without extending pupils' abilities, allowing students to reproduce information rather than analyse it (Wellington, 2000).

III. LEARNING WITH MULTIMEDIA

Multimedia has been successfully applied to many courses in order to provide a wide variety of learning styles or modalities (Birch & Gardiner, 2005). Learning styles are defined as characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment. Learners are more comfortable learning in an environment which reflects their predominant learning style (Sankey, 2006). Learners have a preferred learning modality, namely, visual, aural, read/write or kinaesthetic, while many learners are multimodal (use a combination of these modalities). Multimedia can be used to develop a more inclusive curriculum that appeals to visual, aural and kinaesthetic learners and overcome differences in student performance that may result from different learning styles. Presenting material in a variety of modes has been used to encourage students to develop a more versatile approach to learning (Morrison, Sweeney, & Heffernan, 2003).

Moving from the book to the computer is the opportunity for greater interactivity and novel ways to think about a learning activity. Technology provides more ways to represent concepts through different media formats. Such advances in technology ask for pedagogical enquiries to confirm the usefulness of such new activities in facilitating learning. Learners who have access to multiple representations enhance their comprehension, learning, memory, communication and inference (Scaife & Rogers, 1996). Kozma (1991) argues that learners will benefit more if the instructional methods provide, perform or model cognitive operations that are important to the task and the situation. Learners will benefit more if they can perform or provide for themselves the operations provided by these representational media (Kozma, 1991). Providing the learner with a sound structure and content is more important than providing them with interactivity and animation afforded by new media. Comprehension and learning require a sound content and structure of instructional material, and not new media or types of representation. The combination of text and image is effective when the information provided is complementary and adapted to each presentation. Making connections from multiple representations depend not only on the presentation mode and the construction of the interrelations between the multimodal items but also on the characteristics of the task (Dubois & Vial, 2000).

IV. PRINCIPLES OF MULTIMEDIA

We identify some of the most important principles of multimedia learning and what the research says about how they contribute to student learning.

A. *Words and Pictures are Better than Words Alone.*

People learn better from words and pictures than from words alone (Mayer, 2005). Words include written and spoken text, and pictures include static graphic images, animation and video. The use of both words and pictures lets the brain processes more information in working memory (Sweller, 2005). Mayer (2005) tells us that narration and video is much more effective than narration and text. Similarly, narration and video appear to be more effective than narration, video and text. Narration and text rely on the same channel to process information.

B. *Multimedia Learning is more Effective When Learner Attention is Focused, not Split.*

Multimedia applications are more effective when learner's attention is not split. Split attention occurs when the learner is forced to attend to information that is far apart, such as when content is visually far apart on the screen or if it is presented at two separate points in time. When related content is presented together in time visually, learning is more effective (Mayer, 2005). When related content is not presented together, learner attention is split and the brain has more

work to do to integrate the disparate sources of information. Words and pictures presented simultaneously are more effective than when presented sequentially (Mayer & Sims, 1994).

C. The Presentation of Multimedia Content Should Exclude Extraneous and Redundant Information.

Multimedia learning is most effective when it includes only content that is relevant and aligned to the instructional objectives (Mayer, 2003). Kalyuga, Chandler and Sweller (1999) found that students learned more when extraneous and redundant information was not included in a multimedia presentation. Learning is most effective when interesting and irrelevant information is eliminated because of the brain's limited information processing resources.

D. Multimedia Learning is more Effective When it is Interactive and under the Control of the Learner.

Not all students learn at the same pace. Research tells us that when learners are able to control the pace of the presentation they learn more. Multimedia presentations are more effective when the learner has the ability to interact with the presentation, by slowing it down or by starting and stopping it. This pacing can also be achieved by breaking the presentation into segments; shorter segments that allow users to select segments at their own pace work better than longer segments that offer less control (Mayer, 2003).

E. Multimedia Learning is more Effective When Learner Knowledge Structures are Activated prior to Exposure to Multimedia Content.

Learning from multimedia presentations is enhanced when the structures for organizing the information are activated (Pollock, Chandler, & Sweller, 2002). Helping students recall or acquire structures that will help them organize and understand the information can be accomplished in several ways. Activation can be accomplished by allowing students to preview the content through demonstrations, discussion, directed recall and written descriptions. These preview activities should be directed at activating prior knowledge (Kalyuga, 2005), signalling what is important, and showing how the content is organized. Activating knowledge helps provide a structure from long term memory to understand and organize the new information from working memory.

F. Multimedia Instruction that Includes Animation can Improve Learning.

When used effectively, animated content can improve learning. Animation appears to be most effective when presenting concepts or information that students may have difficulty envisioning. Animation is more effective when students have the ability to start and stop the animation and view it at their own pace or are able to manipulate various facets of the animation. Animation is more effective if it is accompanied by narration, which makes use of both the auditory and visual channels (Mayer & Chandler, 2001).

G. Multimedia Leaning is most Effective When the Learner is Engaged with the Presentation.

Multimedia is most effective when the content and format actively engage the learner. Active engagement helps the student construct knowledge and organize information into meaningful schema (Mayer, 2003). Multimedia that is more personalized engages learners more than multimedia that is less personalized (Mayer, 2005). Presentations that have a more conversational tone tend to be more engaging than those that have a more formal tone. Presentations that use the more familiar -you and I- are more engaging than those that present in the third person (Mayer, 2005). Learners tend to find presentations that use a familiar voice with a familiar accent more engaging than those that use a less familiar voice and accent (Mayer, Sobko & Mautone, 2003).

H. Multimedia Learning is most Effective when the Learner can Apply their Newly Acquired Knowledge and Receive Feedback.

Multimedia is most likely to be effective when students are provided with opportunities to apply what they have learned following exposure (Mayer, 2005). This reinforces and strengthens the newly acquired knowledge. Students should be provided with opportunities to integrate what they have learned with their everyday life. Feedback is an important part of the learning process. It is important to provide learners with clear feedback about their progress on an ongoing basis (Gee, 2005). Feedback helps keep students informed about their progress and helps them stay engaged. Providing feedback can reinforce what has been learned and can also correct any misconceptions (Gee, 2005).

V. COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING (CALL)

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is a form of computer-based learning which carries two important features: individualized learning and bidirectional learning. CALL materials are materials for learning. The focus of CALL is learning, and not teaching. CALL materials are used in teaching to facilitate the language learning process. It is a form of student-centred learning materials, which promote self-paced accelerated learning. CALL is not a software application, but rather courseware that is designed for language learning for a specific group of learners. The philosophy of CALL puts a strong emphasis on student-centred lessons that allow the learners to learn on their own using structured and/or unstructured interactive lessons. These lessons carry 2 important features: bidirectional (interactive) learning and individualized learning. It is a tool that helps teachers to facilitate language learning process. CALL can be used to reinforce what has been learned in the classrooms. It can also be used as remedial to help learners with limited language

proficiency (Warschauer, 2008). The reasons for using Computer-assisted Language Learning include: (a) experiential learning, (b) motivation, (c) enhance student achievement, (d) authentic materials for study, (e) greater interaction, (f) individualization, (g) independence from a single source of information, and (h) global understanding (Warschauer, 2008).

VI. Advantages of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

Some researchers indicate that the current computer technology has many advantages for second language learning. Computer and its attached language learning programs could provide second language learners more independence from classrooms and allowing learners the option to work on their learning material at any time of the day. Once implemented, it can be expected that the cost for computer technology is considerably lower than for face-to-face classroom teaching, and when used in conjunction with traditional second language classroom study, students can study more independently, leaving the teacher more time to concentrate effort on those parts of second language teaching that are still hard or impossible by the computer, such as pronunciation, work on spoken dialogue, training for essay writing and presentation(Jonassen, 1996; Salaberry, 1999).

The reasons why we should apply computer technology in second language instruction, include computer and its attached language learning programs can (a) prove practices for students through the experiential learning, (b) offer students more the learning motivation, (c) enhance student achievement, (d) increase authentic materials for study, (e) encourage greater interaction between teachers and students and students and peers, (f) emphasize the individual needs, (g) regard independence from a single source of information, and (h) enlarge global understanding (Lee, 2000). Taylor (1980) also expressed that computer assisted language learning programs can be wonderful stimuli for second language learning. Currently, computer technology can provide a lot of fun games and communicative activities, reduce the learning stresses and anxieties, and provide repeated lessons as often as necessary. Those abilities will promote second language learners' learning motivation. Through various communicative and interactive activities, computer technology can help second language learners strengthen their linguistic skills, affect their learning attitude, and build their self-instruction strategies and self-confidence.

With the high development of computer technology, computers can capture, analyze, and present data on second language students' performances during the learning process. Observing and checking students' learning progress are very important activities to help students achieve their second language acquisition. When teachers attempt to assess students' learning progress, they can get the essential information from a well-designed computer language learning programs and then offer feedback tailored to students' learning needs (Taylor & Gitsaki, 2003). In addition, Students can get various authentic reading materials either at school or from home by connecting to the Internet. And, those materials can be accessed 24 hours a day. In a word, computer technology also provides the interdisciplinary and multicultural learning opportunities for students to carry out their independent studies (Taylor & Gitsaki, 2003).

Warchauer (2004) indicated that the random access to Web pages would break the linear flow of instruction. By sending E-mail and joining newsgroups, second language learners can also communicate with people they never met before and interact with their own teachers or classmates. Shy or inhibited learners can be greatly benefited through the individualized technology-learning environment, and studious learners can also proceed at their own pace to achieve higher levels. Many concepts and cognitions are abstract and difficult to express through language the language teaching area. It seems that computers can make up for this shortage by using the image showing on the screen. Nunan (1999) reported that "interactive visual media which computers provided seem to have a unique instructional capability for topics that involve social situations or problem solving, such as interpersonal solving, foreign language or second language learning" (p. 26).

When computer technology combines with Internet, it creates a channel for students to obtain a huge amount of human experience and guide students to enter the "Global Community". In this way, students not only can extend their personal view, thought, and experience, but also can learning to live in the real world. They become the creators not just the receivers of knowledge. And, "as the way information is presented is not linear, second language learners can still develop thinking skills and choose what to explore" (Lee, 2000).

VII. Implications of Multimedia in Learning

Multimedia are resources that make effective use of computer technology by providing simulations, multiple representations, and informative and immediate feedback to learner's actions at the interface. While interacting with well-constructed multimedia programs, learners can explore the learning environment in their own time, and at their own pace. Multimedia applications for learning purposes accommodate verbal and visual representations with the use of dynamic or static information (Stoney & Oliver, 1999). Learning environments that provide learners with multiple representations offer opportunities for greater interactivity, and complementarity. There are implications about the importance of interactivity (Healey et al., 2002), and complementarity (Ainsworth, 1999) in the literature and some of them are analyzed below. Animations and virtual environments can emphasize the key-components of the phenomena under study, highlight the underlying processes explicitly and provide feedback to learners' actions (Scaife & Rogers, 1996). Interactivity has been defined as a facility by which a user acts on a computer presentation which in turn

interprets the user's action and produces the appropriate response. Interactivity gives learners the opportunity to re-inspect and facilitate their perception and comprehension through zooming, controlling of speed and viewing alternative perspectives (Tversky et al., 2002). However, learners still need to learn to 'read' the content of the animations in relation to the information presented verbally or as text and to assimilate it with their current understanding of the domain (Scaife & Rogers, 1996). Complementarity refers to the ability to present information or a structure in multiple equivalent ways. Thus, it can refer to both complementary processes and complementary information. When there is complex information to be shown or when there is no single representation that would sufficiently carry all the necessary content, multiple representations can be useful (Ainsworth, 1999). When employing multiple representations, learners can benefit from the different complementary processes that each representation supports: they can use more than one strategy and have the chance to exhibit preferences (Ainsworth, 1999).

VIII. MULTIMODAL LEARNING

Multiple representations provide some advantages for learners to learn. Studying the importance of multiple representations shows an overriding focus on "visualizing to be recognized". Viewing multiple ways of presenting concepts stresses the importance of vision in understanding, ignoring the effects of other senses in a learning activity. Learning is not only a visual-cognitive activity but also a physical one particularly as it requires the interplay among multiple sensory modalities and representations. The literature is mainly talking about visual and linguistic representations which are beneficial for specific tasks but they might not be appropriate for the whole spectrum of the learning activities. Learning is closely related to experiencing life and in life we employ all of our senses -not just vision. For learners to be engaged into a subject, they need to relate themselves and connect their everyday life to the learning material; in other words, they need to be situated. Such relationships could be generated by following an alternative approach to learning: one that incorporates learners' multiple modalities and the available instruments of the environment including the multiple representations provided by books or multimedia software. Such an approach is argued to be multimodal learning (Daniels, 2001).

IX. MULTIMODALITY AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Firth and Wagner (2003) contend that our ultimate goal is to argue for a re-conceptualization of SLA as a more theoretically and methodologically balanced enterprise that endeavors to attend to, explicate, and explore both the social and cognitive dimensions of S/FL use and acquisition. They argue that researchers will be better able to understand and explicate how language is used as it is being acquired through interaction resourcefully, contingently, and contextually. Language is not only a cognitive phenomenon, the product of the individual's brain; it is also fundamentally a social phenomenon, acquired and used interactively, in a variety of contexts for myriad practical purposes. Multimedia presentations can be an excellent means toward "re-constructing" a pseudo-natural environment in which these negotiations of meaning that serve as the platform for second language acquisition can take place. Accompanying the interaction between teacher and second language learners with a combination of modes such as animation (visuals and movement) and narration can provide a variety of contexts to be used for developing all the components of communicative competence. Mayer and Sims (1994) apply the concept of multimedia to the teacher's presentation of information through more than one medium and the concept of "multimodality" to the learner's use of more than one sense. They state that: Multimedia learning occurs when students use information presented in two or more formats – such as a visually presented animation and verbally presented narration- to construct knowledge. Our definition applies to the term "multimodal" (which refers to the idea that the learner uses more than one sense modality) rather than "multimedia" (which refers to the idea that the instructor uses more than one presentation medium).

X. IMPLICATIONS OF MULTIMODALITY IN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

A multimodal approach to the classroom highlights the important use of multiple modalities in real learning environments. Children select or negotiate the meanings conveyed from modalities to construct conceptions about the world. Each modality contains information that is a resource for pupil's meaning construction. Each modality covers a different aspect of phenomena which could challenge prior conceptions of the world and provide resources to imagine and think with (Kress et al., 2001). According to Kress et al., (2001), teachers often use gestures together with speech to draw attention to images and other references within the classroom. In particular, they argue: a variety of modes are interacting and interplaying: gestures, drawings, speech, objects. Each mode contributes to meaning construction: speech to create a difference, an image on the blackboard to get a visual backdrop, manipulation of an object to locate the discussion in the physical setting, action to make clear the dynamic nature of the concept, the image in the textbook to do a stable summary, cohesion is achieved through repetition, synchronization, similarity and contrast. The selection of modes makes meaning: the metaphorical path will be different in each case. Each mode plays a different role in the construction of the entity at hand. Each mode requires the pupils to do a different type of work in order to understand (Kress et al., 2001).

Moreno and Mayer (2007) believe that multimodal learning environments use different modes to represent content knowledge, for example verbal and non-verbal, where the non-verbal mode is the pictorial mode including both static

and dynamic graphics. These different presentation modes (verbal and non-verbal) are used to appeal to students' different sensory modalities (visual and auditory). Further, Multimodal courses allow instructional events or elements to be presented in more than one sensory mode (multiple representations), thus have been used to further facilitate student's learning (Shah & Freedman, 2003). The development of technology enhanced courses may result in a more current and relevant curriculum, innovation and new ideas, enhanced course quality, and diversification of academic programs (Maguire, 2005). ICT has significantly changed the way that teaching, learning and assessment occur. For example, the adoption and integration of ICT may lead to more student-centered approaches to teaching and learning, and thus support a more constructivist approach to course design. This is primarily due to the non-linear design of learning environments that has been found to increase learners' control over the way they progress through their materials (Karagiorgi & Symeou, 2005).

XI. Conclusion

Multimedia presentations compensate for absence of appropriate cognitive structures in certain domains due to the lack of opportunities that characterize certain communities and social groups- and also compensate for the weak or incomplete development of verbal skills. The research agenda calls for studies to evaluate the principles of multimodal learning and the electronic multimedia designs as they affect the acquisition of reading, writing, speaking and listening in various EFL contexts. A multidisciplinary approach is needed to understand the social, cognitive, cultural and linguistic variables involved in the process of language learning. Questions like the following can guide such agenda: what types of multimedia designs are more helpful for learners with different learning styles? What is the impact of the audio, linguistic, visual, gestural and spatial meaning making dimensions in the learning process? Can teachers offer learners opportunities to select the processing mode that best fits their learning style? The lines of research reviewed here can set the grounds for empirical investigations into the various arrangements and affordances that multimodality offers for the process of language learning. The quick pace of change from print-based to more visually oriented presentations of information involves a quick response from language teachers and educators to take advantage of multimodality to engage learners in meaningful cognitive, critical understandings. Attention to the meaning-making potential of the various multimodal designs can help language learners to cope more efficiently as they face new modes of information presentation.

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The Effects of Self-esteem, Age and Gender on the Speaking Skills of Intermediate University EFL Learners

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Abstract—This study aimed at investigating the relationship between self-esteem, age and gender on the one hand and speaking skills on the other hand. For this purpose, based on an OPT test twenty intermediate Persian learners of English were selected from among undergraduate EFL students studying towards a B.A. in teaching English as a foreign language at Islamic Azad University, Khorasgan Branch. Using a modified version of Farhady, et. al.'s scale (1995), measuring the five subskills of vocabulary, structure, pronunciation, fluency and comprehensibility, two raters evaluated the speaking ability of the participants at the end of the required course *(Oral Production of Short Stories)*. The Sorensen's (2005) questionnaire for measuring self-esteem containing 50 items was also administered to the participants. The result showed a significant relationship between self-esteem and speaking skill with fluency exerting the most influence. There was also a reverse relationship between age and speaking skills. Concerning the relationship between gender and speaking skills, no statistically significant association was found. The study could have implications for English language teachers, learners and text book writers.

Index Terms—self-esteem, speaking skills, testing speaking, Persian learners of English

I. INTRODUCTION

Different terms such as 'self-concept', 'self efficacy', 'self-esteem' and 'self confidence' are often used interchangeably and inconsistently in the literature because they may refer to different ideas about how people think about themselves (Stern, 1995).

Some researchers view self-concept and self- efficacy as the same construct, but others view them as two different constructs (Bong & Clark, 1999; Choi, 2005). Huitt (2004) distinguished the two terms 'self-concept' and 'self-esteem' by stating that 'self-concept' is the cognitive aspect of self, but 'self-esteem' is the affective aspect of self, which refers to one's feelings of self-worth. Self-confidence is not always what we think it is.

Some experts (e.g. Miyagawa, 2010) distinguish between self-confidence on one side and self-esteem on the other. Self-confidence is about what we can do by virtue of our efforts. What we are good and bad at. Self-confidence grows along with the quality of the effort. Self-esteem is more fundamental and is about the feeling of being worth something, just because we are who we are, and not because we have done something.

Nativists believe that any normal child can learn a first language because of the availability of what Chomsky (1959) refers to as UG. However, when it comes to the learning of foreign language, especially at the later stage, there are factors which can either inhibit or enhance the process of learning. These factors can be cognitive, affective, biological and socio-cultural variables (Stern, 1983)

A number of studies (Gonzalez-Pienda, Nunez, Gonzalez-Pumariega, 2000; El- Anzi's, 2005) have shown the effect of self-esteem, which is usually classified as an affective factor, as one of the crucial factors that determines success in academic performance in general. In this vein, scholars in educational psychology have attempted to analyze the different types of relationship that exist between self-esteem and performance. However, the results obtained so far do not seem to be conclusive as to which one of the two depends on the other, that is, it is not yet clear whether it is self-esteem which brings about academic achievement or, conversely, it is academic achievement which enhances self-esteem. For instance, Marsh, Kong, and Hau (2001) found that English achievement positively affected English self-esteem among their participants. Conversely, Marsh, Relich, and Smith (1983) in a study showed that it was the

academic self-esteem that positively affected school performance. Whatever the case, it is almost certain that there is a significant relationship between these two variables.

Concerning the relationship between self-esteem and achievement in second language acquisition, the result of a study by Hayati and Ostadian (2008) revealed that students' listening comprehension was significantly influenced by their self-esteem, supporting earlier studies in this area.

Speaking skills may also be affected by the learners' age. In the words of Klein (1986) 'between the age of two and puberty the human brain shows the plasticity which allows a child to acquire his first language' (p.9). Romero (2006) also states that while adults find it difficult to achieve the ability to acquire and integrate complex data and cope with different aspects at the same time, children can do it unconsciously.

One component of speaking that seems to be affected the most by age is pronunciation. Some studies (e.g. Kuhl, 2004, p.832) have shown that 'young infants are especially sensitive to acoustic changes at the phonetic boundaries between categories'. Also, children are especially good at predicting syllable chunks. According to Kuhl (2004) "infants are sensitive to the sequential probabilities between adjacent syllables" (p. 834). Adults, on the other hand, as some scholars claim, cannot acquire a phonological development (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p.69).

Other than investigating the possible impacts of age and self-esteem on the speaking skills, in this study an attempt was made to see if gender also plays a role in this connection. One of the few studies which have been conducted on the effect of gender on the production of oral skills is that of Gorjian, Moosavian and Shahramiri (2011). They investigated the effect of oral summery of short stories on male and female learners' speaking proficiency. The results of their study showed no significant difference between the two genders, although females slightly outperformed males.

One of the questions which remains to be investigated in this connection is related to the differential role that self-esteem may play in EFL production. More specifically, this study tries to see if self-esteem and age as well as gender can affect the learners' performance in the productive skill of speaking.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Many of those who learn a foreign language do so in order to be able to communicate with native speakers in real life situation. They wish to interact with the speech community in such a way that they are accepted as a member of that community. This implies that they are looking for acquiring communicative competence as used by Hymes (1972), in reaction to Chomsky's linguistics competence. What Hymes means is that linguistic competence is a prerequisite for communicative competence and has its own rules. These rules are those that native speakers acquire as they grow up in L1.

When it comes to learning a second language however, the situation is usually different. An adult second language learner has already mastered a first language together with the rules of use in communication, a situation which can easily interfere with those of using the first language, thus making it extremely difficult for the L2 learners to achieve native-like performance, especially when it comes to areas where there is a big difference between the two languages.

One area in speaking which has shown to be quite difficult to master completely is that of the pronunciation and intonation of the language. According to Spolsky (1989) only 5% of nonnative speakers can achieve perfect mastery of these two features of language in speaking. This means that in order to arrive at an acceptable level of near native communication, L2 learner must possess certain biological, cognitive, affective and socio-cultural variables. Affective variables are considered as inhibition, risk taking, anxiety, extroversion/introversion, motivation and self-esteem. (Celce-Murcia (ed.), 1991; Stern, 1983; Nezu &Nezu, 2003).

This article is basically concerned with self-esteem which comes under the umbrella term of affective (personality) variables. Maslow (1970) believes that in order to be a full functioning person, the learner needs to have satisfied certain needs. These needs, according to him, are basic needs which are (1) physiological such as the need to eat; (2) need for safety; (3) need for belongingness; (4) need for self-esteem and finally, (5) need for self-actualization. Concerning self-esteem, Maslow believes that all human beings desire respect and usually high evaluation of themselves and for esteem of others.

In recent years, self-esteem has attracted the attention of many scholars in psychology and education and many studies have been conducted to show the contribution of this characteristic to the learning of different subject matters including the learning of English (Kamarzarrin, 1994; Carter & Nunan, 2001). A number of studies found that self-esteem affects academic performance in English among EFL students positively (Hui-Ju Liu, 2008; Chapman & Tunmer,1997; Choi, 2005; De Fraine, Van Damme, & Ongheda, 2007; Kurtz-Costes, & Schneider, 1994; Marsh, 1990; Marsh & Yeung, 1998). On the other hand, some studies showed that it is the English achievement that positively affects English self-esteem (Marsh, Kong and Hau, 2001). Helmke and Aken (1995) suggested that, although there is no agreement about the direction of causal ordering between academic self-esteem and academic achievement, one thing is certain that academic self-esteem is formed at least in part as a result of prior academic achievement.

Considering the relationship between self-esteem and oral communication, Niki Maleki & Mohammadi (2009) found that the more successful learners had higher self-esteem than the less successful ones in performing oral communication tasks.

As mentioned above, two factors that might play an important role in relation to speaking skills are age and gender. Carroll (2008) believes that, in general, young children learn L2 better than older children and adults. He goes on to say

that although "older learners seem to do better initially but they reach a plateau; younger learners eventually catch up and pass them" (p.331).

Concerning the relationship between the age of arrival in the target language country, and language ability, Hakuta, Bialystok, and Wiley (2003) conducted a study the results of which showed that there is a strong association between and two and that as the age of arrival increases, the level of proficiency decreases.

According to Romero (2006) it seems that for adults it is very difficult to learn to speak a new language simply because they feel they need to cope with many different aspects at one time, and in real conversation that seems to be impossible. The author believes that the differences between children learners and adult learners and the circumstances under which they learn a second language are quite obvious and therefore the results could also differ.

Concerning children, the fact that they are at the optimal time for learning, is what makes them outstanding learners. This optimal time is referred to as the *critical period*. It could be said that children learn the language without being aware of it when they "are exposed to the right kind of auditory information" (Kuhl, 2004, p. 836). This means that children learn the language through communication and interaction and in this way they acquire all the abilities they can potentially develop. This is also because children have the capacity for perceiving and imitating sounds. Some studies have shown that children are capable of predicting syllable boundaries (Kuhl, 2004, p. 834). Felta (2006) claims that children from the beginning of their development can integrate difficult information easily and unconsciously.

Concerning adults, on the other hand, we observe that they find it so difficult to acquire certain native sounds. Some scholars (e.g. Lenneberg, 1967) believe that the reason lies in the fact that distinguishing and producing some sounds become difficult after the critical period and therefore adults often have a foreign-like pronunciation Some researchers even consider phonological development in adults to be impossible (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p.69).

However, other researchers hold the opposite view. Wolfgang Klein (1986) states that "the apparent facility with which children learn a second language is often attributed to biological factors, but an alternative explanation might be that, unlike adults, children have no need to fear the loss of their social identity" (p.6). These critics (e.g. Klein, 1986) argue that phonological facilities of children are bound to psychological reasons rather than biological ones. According to them, adults feel attached to their native identities, to their original social identities, and this is what prevents them from achieving perfection in L2 pronunciation. Klein (1986) maintains that 'suitably motivated adults are capable of mastering to perfection the pronunciation of the most exotic languages' (p.10). While Lenneberg (1967) claims that UG is available only before puberty, authors such as Felix (1988) reject such view. In this regard Felix (1988) states "If child and adult learners use different modules for the purpose of language acquisition, then we would expect adult learners to be unable to attain grammatical knowledge that arises only through the mediation of UG. If, in contrast, adults do attain this type of knowledge, then, we have reason to believe that UG continues to be active even after puberty"(p.279). It could be concluded that although the instances of adults speaking with native-like pronunciation are not very common, this does not mean that it is not possible.

Regarding the third factor, gender, a 1998 Canadian assessment of students' speech communication skills showed that there were many significant gender differences among individuals' listening skills (Hunter, Gambell, Randhawa, 2005). The study revealed that oral production of males was consistently below that of females According to Claes (1999) the evidence for inherent sex differences in language is not convincing.

Therefore, it is important to explore the relationship between both gender and age in relation to speaking. However it has to be mentioned at this point that compared with studies conducted in the areas of other language skills, few research has been conducted to investigate the relationship between the three factors of self-esteem, age, gender and speaking.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Based on what was mentioned above, this study makes an attempt to investigate the following questions:

1- Is there any significant relationship between self-esteem and speaking skills among intermediate Persian EFL learners?

2- Is there any significant relationship between males and females in terms of speaking skills among intermediate Persian EFL learners?

3- Is there any significant relationship between age and speaking skills among intermediate Persian EFL learners?

Based on these questions, the following hypotheses were formulated

1- There is no significant relationship between self-esteem and speaking skills of EFL learners.

2- There is no relationship between gender and speaking skills among EFL learners.

3- There is no relationship between age and speaking skill among Persian EFL learners.

IV. METHODS

In order to decide whether or not the hypotheses formulated could be rejected, the following steps were taken for the selection of participants, materials and procedures used in the study.

A. Participants

Twenty participants, fifteen females and five males, were selected from among undergraduate EFL students studying towards a B.A. in teaching English as a foreign language in Khorasgan University. These participants were about to sit for the final exam of their required course of oral production of short stories, which is normally offered in the third semester of their studies.

B. Instruments

1- An OPT test was administered to determine the language proficiency of the learners.

2- A speaking scale developed by Farhady, Jafarpoor and Birjandi (1995) was used by the instructor teaching the course of oral production of short stories at Khorasan University. The same scale was also used by the researcher. This scale measures the participants' speaking ability in terms of the following components: a. Accent; b. Structure; c. Vocabulary; d. Fluency; and e. Comprehension.

Scores were given on a 6 point scale ranging from the least appropriate (1) to the most (6). However, based on the purposes of this study and also the results obtained from the pilot study this scale was modified. As far as modification is concerned, instead of accent the term pronunciation, which is more commonly used in such studies was used. Comprehension, too, as intended by Farhady et al. was interpreted to mean the extent to which the participants could comprehend what was said by the speaker.

3- A questionnaire taken from Sorensen (2005) containing 50 items was used to measure the degree of participants' self-esteem. The participants were also asked to mention their age and gender as it was necessary to seek the correlation between age and gender, and self esteem.

C. Procedures

1- In order to choose the participants, an OPT test was administered among undergraduate language learners studying in the last week of the required course of Oral Production of Short Stories. Based on the results, those scoring one SD bellow and one SD above the mean were selected. Then a sample consisting of 20 out of these participants was randomly chosen for the purpose of this study.

2- The instructor teaching this course at the mentioned university was asked to provide the scores of participants based on the speaking scale developed by Farhady, et. al. (1995) consisting of 5 components of accent, structure, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension.

3- The same participants were invited for an interview with the researcher who asked them to talk about one of the stories covered in the course based on their own choice.

The reason was that the researcher is basically interested in their production skill not necessarily in the content of what they produced. The researcher's scale for rating learners' performance on their production was the same as the one the course instructor used.

The scale used by the teacher and the rater requires careful attention to the following points suggested by Farhady et. al. (1995):

a. Each interview must be carefully structured.

b. The number of raters will not be less than 2 for each case.

c. The candidates should be put at ease in order to make the results both more valid and reliable.

d. Each interview will be recorded for scoring and future reference.

e. Scoring will be discrete rather than holistic.

3- A self- esteem questionnaire was distributed among the participants who will be asked to fill them out. The questioners then will be collected for purpose of analysis.

It should be mentioned that a pilot study was conducted to determine the extent of time required for the completion of the questionnaire and OPT and also to decide whether or not the items and the scale require any modifications.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this study, as mentioned before, an attempt was made to find answers to the three questions concerning the relationship between the three factors of self-esteem, age, gender and speaking skills. Appropriate statistical procedures were followed to obtain the required responses for each question. Below each hypothesis and its results will be discussed separately.

Since the scores of speaking skills of participants were given by two raters, estimating the inter-rater reliability was necessary to determine whether or not their given scores are reliable. Table1 shows correlations between the scores of the raters in relation to pronunciation, vocabulary, structure, fluency and comprehensibility are significant at levels below .05. However, this level of significance is reduced to .08 regarding ratings on participants' achievements on vocabulary, which, obviously, means that in all cases, except one, the raters were in agreement over the achievements of the participants

TABLE 1.
PEARSON CORRELATION TEST FOR INTER- RATER RELIABILITY

	Pronunciation	Structure	Vocabulary	Fluency	Comprehensibility
Pearson Correlation	0.495	0.499	0.399	0.726	0.563
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.027	0.025	0.081	0.000	0.010

The first hypothesis formulated in this paper was:

1- There is no relationship between self-esteem and speaking skills of EFL learners.

Concerning this main question, multivariate tests were run. Tables 2. and 3. show the results. The findings show that it is safe to conclude that that there is a significant relationship between self-esteem and fluency (Table 3.) whereas the other components of oral production do not meet the requirements of being statistically significant.

TABLE2.
MULTIVARIATE TESTS

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.964	53.364[a]	5.000	10.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.036	53.364[a]	5.000	10.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	26.682	53.364[a]	5.000	10.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	26.682	53.364[a]	5.000	10.000	.000
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.330	.985[a]	5.000	10.000	.473
	Wilks' Lambda	.670	.985[a]	5.000	10.000	.473
	Hotelling's Trace	.492	.985[a]	5.000	10.000	.473
	Roy's Largest Root	.492	.985[a]	5.000	10.000	.473
SE	Pillai's Trace	.935	1.087	15.000	36.000	.401
	Wilks' Lambda	.175	1.645	15.000	28.007	.124
	Hotelling's Trace	4.106	2.372	15.000	26.000	.026
	Roy's Largest Root	3.953	9.488[b]	5.000	12.000	.001
Gender * SE	Pillai's Trace	.631	3.426[a]	5.000	10.000	.046
	Wilks' Lambda	.369	3.426[a]	5.000	10.000	.046
	Hotelling's Trace	1.713	3.426[a]	5.000	10.000	.046
	Roy's Largest Root	1.713	3.426[a]	5.000	10.000	.046

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept + Gender + SE + Gender * SE

TABLE3.
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Pronunciation	1.000[a]	5	.200	.404	.838
	Structure	.957[b]	5	.191	.168	.970
	Vocabulary	.640[c]	5	.128	.220	.948
	Fluency	8.715[d]	5	1.743	3.630	.026
	Comprehensibility	2.749[e]	5	.550	.554	.733
Intercept	Pronunciation	101.869	1	101.869	205.573	.000
	Structure	141.411	1	141.411	123.788	.000
	Vocabulary	122.508	1	122.508	210.193	.000
	Fluency	118.120	1	118.120	246.001	.000
	Comprehensibility	156.133	1	156.133	157.382	.000
Gender	Pronunciation	.460	1	.460	.927	.352
	Structure	.094	1	.094	.083	.778
	Vocabulary	.204	1	.204	.350	.563
	Fluency	.131	1	.131	.272	.610
	Comprehensibility	.314	1	.314	.317	.583
SE	Pronunciation	.697	3	.232	.469	.709
	Structure	.341	3	.114	.100	.959
	Vocabulary	.329	3	.110	.188	.903
	Fluency	5.175	3	1.725	3.593	.041
	Comprehensibility	.507	3	.169	.170	.915
Gender * SE	Pronunciation	.389	1	.389	.785	.391
	Structure	.094	1	.094	.083	.778
	Vocabulary	.040	1	.040	.068	.798
	Fluency	2.531	1	2.531	5.271	.038
	Comprehensibility	.314	1	.314	.317	.583
Error	Pronunciation	6.938	14	.496		
	Structure	15.993	14	1.142		
	Vocabulary	8.160	14	.583		
	Fluency	6.722	14	.480		
	Comprehensibility	13.889	14	.992		
Total	Pronunciation	270.750	20			
	Structure	345.000	20			
	Vocabulary	313.000	20			
	Fluency	278.250	20			
	Comprehensibility	390.750	20			
Corrected Total	Pronunciation	7.937	19			
	Structure	16.950	19			
	Vocabulary	8.800	19			
	Fluency	15.437	19			
	Comprehensibility	16.638	19			

a. R Squared = .126 (Adjusted R Squared = -.186)
b. R Squared = .056 (Adjusted R Squared = -.281)
c. R Squared = .073 (Adjusted R Squared = -.258)
d. R Squared = .565 (Adjusted R Squared = .409)
e. R Squared = .165 (Adjusted R Squared = -.133)

This finding is in part in line with the findings of Niki Maleki & Mohammadi (2009). They found that the more successful learners regarding the oral communication had higher self-esteem than the less successful ones in performing oral communication tasks.

Figure1. shows the extent to which degrees of self-esteem affect mean fluency
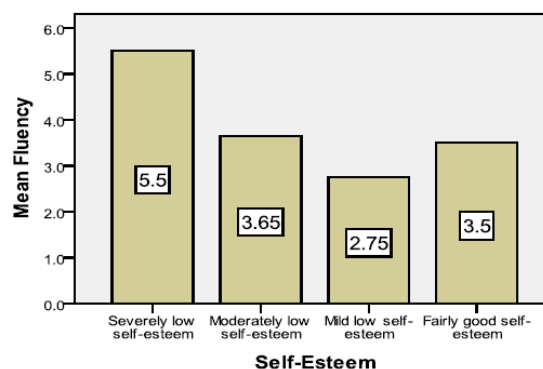
Figure1.Bargragh for mean fluency and self-esteem

The second hypothesis sought to determine whether or not there was a relationship between gender and speaking skills. More specifically the hypothesis was:

2- There is no relationship between gender and speaking skills among EFL learners.

Regarding this hypothesis as statistics in the multivariate tests (Tables 2 and 3) clearly show there is no meaningful associations between these two factors as results show no significant difference at the 0.05 level of significant. However as seen in figure 2. different weights of self-esteem impact fluency in production rather differently although not significantly. This finding is in agreement with the findings of Gorjian, Moosavian and Shahramiri (2011). In their study concerning the effect of oral summery of short stories on male/female learners' speaking proficiency, no significant relationship was found between gender and the speaking skills.

Figure 2. also shows that as males' level of self-esteem increases, their speaking abilities also improve. This is the reverse in the case of females except when we move from mild low self-esteem to fairly good self-esteem. These contrastive results can be due to the fact that there were only 5 males compared to fifteen females.
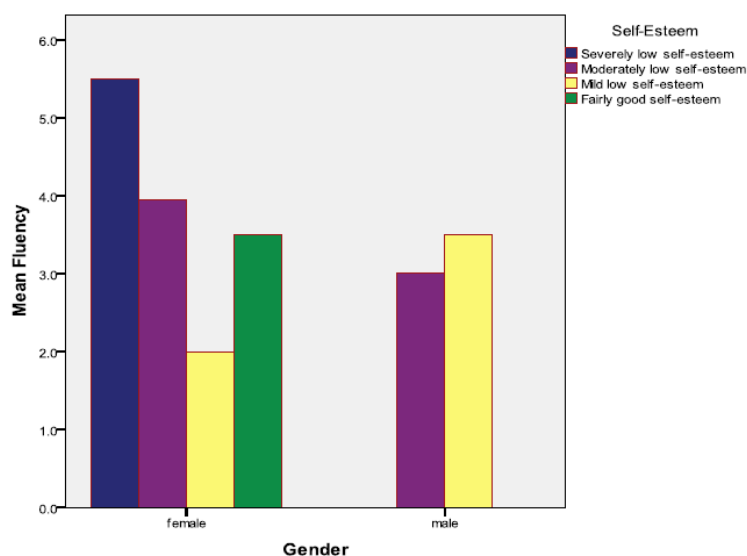
Figure 2.Bargragh for mean fluency and gender

Hypothesis three was concerned with whether or not there was a linear relationship between age and speaking skill. To be more specific it was stated as the following:

 3- There is no relationship between age and speaking skill among EFL learners.

A simple linear regression line by using the appropriate statistical method was run to determine the case. Figure 3. below shows that there is a negative relationship between age and speaking skills, that is ,younger participants outperform their older peers in all sub-skills of production. This is in line with what Carroll's (2008) views. He believes that as the age of learner increases, learning a second or foreign language becomes more difficult. Also the results of this study supports the findings of Hakuta, Bialystok and Wiley (2003) and is also in agreement with Romero's (2006) position that age affects the development of speaking abilities negatively.

This can be due to some factors including perhaps higher motivation on the part of younger participants and higher aspiration for their future. It can also be due to exposure to better materials, better technologies and improved methods of teaching normally available recently for the new generation of learners.
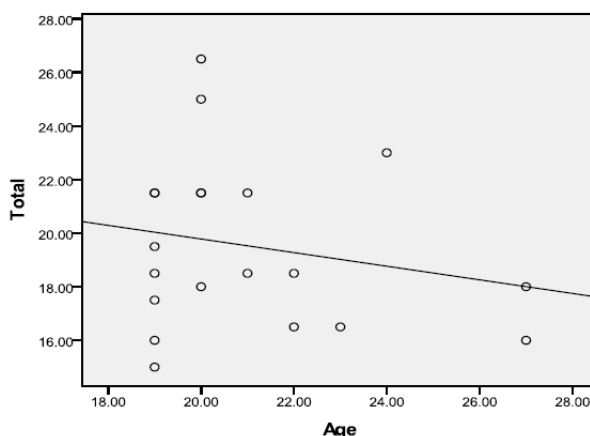
Figure 3. Scatter gram showing the relationship between age and achievement on oral production.

As Table 4. shows, the level of significant is much larger than what can be statistically significant to determine the effect of age on speaking skill.

TABLE4.
TEST OF ANOVA BETWEEN AGE AND SPEAKING SKILL

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7.752	1	7.752	.784	.388[a]
	Residual	177.985	18	9.888		
	Total	185.738	19			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Age
b. Dependent Variable: Total

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

As Erikson (1963) maintains we always look for stable identity, covering our knowledge of who we are, what our weaknesses and strengths are, and, in short, how we evaluate ourselves. This evaluation of the self in literature today is referred to as self-esteem. Many studies have been conducted to determine the relationship between how one evaluates himself and his success in academic studies. While some have reported that there is no significant relationship between the two, others have shown that the higher the self esteem, the greater the chances of success in academic achievement. The main concern of this study was to see if such a relationship could be detected among Iranian EFL learners' achievements in oral production, covering the five components of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, comprehension and fluency, on the one hand, and how they evaluate themselves, on the other.

The results showed that fluency was the only factor which was significantly affected by self-esteem, although the other sub-skills of oral production showed various degrees of influence, yet not statistically significant. The findings may be interpreted to mean that those who enjoy higher levels of self-esteem are more sociable, more risk taking and more prepared to share their views with others regardless of whether, lexically or grammatically, they produce what can be regarded as accurate or standard or even correct English. This means that fluency for the person who has a positive view of his worth comes before accuracy, something which can perhaps take care of itself in the process of communication.

In this study, a negative relationship was found between speaking skills and age, that is, younger learners outperformed the older ones. This difference can be traced back to the availability of richer materials and better exposure to the language through the different sources such as the Internet and foreign mass media. It seems that younger students are more interested in using the developing technology provided these days for the improvement of language education. According to Carroll (2008) biological changes, environmental factors, cognitive factors or the combination of factors might be responsible for the advantage that younger learners show in some studies .Regarding the relationship between gender and speaking skills no statistically significant relationship was found. This can be due to the fact that both male and females are exposed to the same materials, the same methods and are usually taught by the same teacher.

This paper might have some suggestions for language teachers. As it was shown, the level of learners' self-esteem has a significant effect on the fluency of learners' speaking. So it might be helpful if teachers pay more attention to their students' level of self-esteem and try to enhance it. Also considering the age of students is important for decision making purposes since it affects performance. Knowing this, teachers might be less critical on the performance of older learners and give them more time and make the necessary changes in their approaches to enable them to catch up with the younger ones. The factors of self-esteem, age should also be considered by materials developers.

English language learners could also benefit from the findings of this study to become aware of the impact of self - esteem and age and make appropriate decisions to enhance their self-esteem and also to begin learning a second language at an earlier age.

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A Study of Relationships between the CI Scores (E-C) of High-score & Low-score Groups and Their Language Learning Strategies

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Abstract—This paper investigates the relationships between language learning strategies and consecutive interpretation (CI) scores (E-C) of 120 English major students in China through a quantitative study. The analysis shows that there exist significant differences of using meta-cognitive strategy and cognitive strategy between high-score group and low-score group, sub-CI scores are positively correlated with the two strategies, and meta-cognitive strategy can positively predict the total scores. This indicates that the use of language learning strategies does have an impact on interpreting study.

Index Terms—interpreting, high-score group and low-score group, language learning strategies, CI scores

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning strategies refer to the intended activities by the learners to achieve more success. They include macro-regulation and process of planning, micro-methods and techniques. In recent years, research on learning strategies at home and abroad has made fast progress with more diversified angles and broadened scopes. The study on the relationship between strategies and scores has attracted more attention because it could, to certain extent, shed light on the effect and efficiency of the strategies used and their guidance to practical foreign language teaching and learning.

The macro-study on strategy-score relationship focuses on the relation between strategies and total score. For instance, Bialystok (1981) found that only functional practices can explain the significance differences of second language proficiencies; Wen Qiufang (1996) found that strategies of linguistic practices and dependence on mother tongue could significantly predict scores of CET 4 (College English Test Band 4); Jiang Xiaohong's study (2003) showed that those successors of CET4 tended to use more meta-cognitive strategy, cognitive strategy, memory and affective strategy. Yet some other scholars have different findings. They don't agree functional and linguistic practices have a strong relation with scores of language tests nor have a significant influence on them (Liu Runqing, 2000). The micro-study on strategy-score relationship focuses on the relation between learning strategies and individual technique of SLA (Second Language Acquisition). For example, Phakiti (2003) carried out a research on the relations between students' reading comprehension and cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. The results showed that test scores were positively correlated with cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies, and the level of meta-cognition decreased gradually from the high-score group, medium-score group to the low-score group. Other scholars agreed with Phakiti that students' strategies differed in reading and influenced their comprehension ability (Xu Yulong, 2003; Yang Xiaohu, 2002; Zou Shen & Zhang Yanli, 2002). Memory strategy was positively correlated with scores of vocabulary tests (Wang Wenyu, 1998) and meta-cognitive strategy was closely related with vocabulary volume and knowledge, and four types of cognitive strategies positively correlated with total scores of vocabulary tests (Wu Xia & Wang Qian, 1998). Micro-study also exploits the relations among strategies and spoken language, listening and writing (Wang Lifei, 2002; Gao Haihong, 2000; Liu Shaolong, 1996).

Nowadays in China majority of studies about learning strategies focuses on students' performance in CET 4, CET 6 (College English Test Band 6), TEM 4 (Test for English Major Band 4), TEM 8 (Test for English Major Band 8) and PETS (Public English Test), and relations among strategies, total scores and sub-scores of these tests. Fewer scholars touched the field of interpreting, which we can say is an embodiment of multi-skills, such as listening, speaking, writing, analyzing and translating. A few existed strategy studies on interpreting were mainly concentrated on direct strategies, such as memory strategy (Li Fangqin, 2004; Xu Han, 2007), note-taking strategy (Dai Weidong & Xu Haiming, 2007; Xu Haiming, 2008) and communicative strategy (Wang Shaoxiang, 2007; Wei Jiahai, 2007). These studies were more like conclusion of professional experiences or contrast between professional interpreters and non-professional interpreters. Until now the author has not found any formal empirical research on relations between strategies and interpreting learning process and scores. Interpreting actually belongs to language learning process (Robinson, 2997) and is also a process of problem-solving. There are many unexpected variables in the process of interpreting, such as fast delivery of speech, speakers' strong accents, density of input information, unfamiliar topics, unbalanced distribution of effort, any of which may possibly lead to interpreter's failure to understand SL (source language), loss of information

and even the stop of interpreting. In order to keep the three-party-communication going, the interpreter should not only have enough bilingual knowledge and interpreting skills, but also quick response and strategies to handle the unexpected emergencies and compensate the errors of language understanding and expression. The successful understanding and analyzing of SL and reconstruction in TL (target language) not only depend on the help of direct strategies and skills, such as note-taking, memory and compensation strategies, but also the guidance of some indirect strategies like cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies.

With its increasing political, economic and cultural exchanges with international societies, China needs more and more interpreters. Interpreting has been selected as a compulsory course in universities for students of foreign language major. How to learn interpreting and how to nurture more qualified interpreters are new challenges facing the academia. Therefore it will be of necessity and practical significance to strategy research and interpreting teaching, to study the relations between strategies and interpreting learning, and differences of strategy use between good learners and poor learners.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Questions to Answer

This study will answer the following questions: (1) what are the differences on using learning strategies by high-score group (hereafter referred as HSG) and low-score group (hereafter referred as LSG)? Which differences have statistical significance? (2) What are the relations between learning strategies and sub-CI scores of all students? (3) What are the relations between learning strategies and sub-CI scores of HSG and LSG?

B. Research Subjects

225 sophomores of English major of the School of Foreign Studies in one university of China.

C. Research Tool

The author used the Oxford Learning Strategy Questionnaire (1990) and divided learning strategy into six types: memory strategy, cognitive strategy, meta-cognitive strategy, affective strategy, social strategy and compensation strategy based on other scholars' methods (O'malley & Chamot, 2001; Wen Qiufang, 1996; Cohen, 2000). The questionnaire has 47 questions with 5 Likert scales ranging from Level 1(I never do it) to Level 5(I always do it).

The scores were from an English-Chinese consecutive interpreting test, part of the semester final exam. The scores were given based on three aspects with different proportion of the total score (100 marks): fidelity (50%), expression (30%) and target language (20%). Fidelity is based on two sub-scores, understanding of SL (25 marks) and completeness of utterance (25 marks); expression is judged on three sub-scores: the interpreter's pronunciation and intonation (10 marks), articulation and fluency (10 marks), and logical structure of utterance (10 marks); target language evaluates the students' grammar (10 marks) and vocabulary of TL (10 marks).

D. Data Collection and Calculating

The questionnaires were directly given to students after examination, and then collected on site. There were 220 standard questionnaires except 5 ineligible ones. Input every student's scores resulted from their answers to six strategies into computer and use SPSS to calculate the average score for each learning strategy. Rank the students according to scores of interpreting test. The first sixty students from the top belong to the HSG (high-score group), and the sixty students from the bottom of list is the LSG (low-score group). Then use SPSS to analyze the data of 120 students and carry out independent-samples T test, correlation analysis and regression analysis.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Differences of Sub-scores of Interpreting Tests

TABLE 1
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T TEST FOR SUB-SCORES OF LSG AND HSG

Sub-scores	LSG		HSG		t Value	Significance
	Average	Standard Deviation	Average	Standard Deviation		
Understanding of SL	15.0667	2.6609	25.5167	1.4320	26.788	.000
Completeness of TL	14.1333	1.9438	17.0833	0.7431	10.980	.000
Pronunciation & Intonation	6.7333	1.1179	8.3000	0.5615	9.701	.000
Logical Structure	6.2000	1.0704	8.1667	0.3758	13.428	.000
Articulation & Fluency	6.2167	1.0100	8.3000	0.5909	13.791	.000
TL Grammar	6.9333	1.1179	8.4500	0.5017	9.588	.000
TL Vocabulary	6.8333	1.0918	8.2000	0.4034	9.095	.000
Total Score	62.1167	8.3810	84.0167	2.9198	19.114	.000

We can see from Table 1 that the two groups differ significantly on total scores and sub-scores; therefore they are two different groups. The differences of sub-scores rank from the highest to the lowest as follows: understanding of SL(t=26.788), articulation and fluency (t=13.791), logical structure (t=13.428), completeness of TL (t=10.980), pronunciation and intonation (t=9.701), TL grammar (t=9.588) and TL vocabulary (t=9.095). The biggest difference between HSG and LSG is the understanding of SL. Understanding SL, the first step of interpreting, covers two parts: listening and understanding. It is the base of the other steps of interpreting. The students need to distinguish every English sound and at the same time put them together to identify the specific word, sentence and the whole utterance at large. How well the students understand the SL largely depend on their comprehensive language knowledge and skills. Generally speaking students with a higher comprehensive capability will have high scores in understanding SL, the opposite is also true. The smallest difference between HSG and LSG is TL vocabulary. The author thinks the reason lies in that during E-C interpretation most students can freely and skillfully use Chinese (mother tongue) to express the converted meaning given that they have totally understood the English message. Because of the time limit and immediacy of interpreting test, students did not have enough time, which might be possible for written translation, to elaborate on words chosen. Simple and clear expression was the first choice for most students. Therefore there is no big difference between HSG and LSG on TL vocabulary (Chinese).

B. *The Differences on Learning Strategies*

TABLE 2
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T TEST FOR LEARNING STRATEGIES OF HSG AND LSG

	LSG		HSG			
	Average	Standard Deviation	Average	Standard Deviation	t Value	Significance
Meta-cognitive Strategy	3.0092	.5116	3.3537	.4698	3.841	.000
Cognitive Strategy	2.9806	.4239	3.2111	.3952	3.081	.003
Memory Strategy	2.9500	.4627	3.0709	.4565	1.440	.152
Social Strategy	3.0361	.4939	3.1667	.5377	1.385	.169
Affective Strategy	2.8472	.5976	3.0333	.5573	1.764	.080
Compensation Strategy	3.2667	.4696	3.4417	.5069	1.962	.052

Table 2 shows that HSG and LSG differ significantly on the using of meta-cognitive strategy (t=3.841,p<0.01) and cognitive strategy (t=3.081, p<0.01) while the differences on using the other strategies are not statistically significant. The author thinks that the HSG students have much stronger discipline of self-study than LSG students and are good at making study plans to monitor and regulate the learning process. While facing the threshold of interpreting course which has a much higher demand on comprehensive qualities, many students get lost and cannot find better ways to acquire enough vocabulary, acute listening and quick response to SL, immediate conversion of SL to TL and handle the intense pressure on spot. Therefore they need the guide of meta-cognitive strategy to make effective study plan. Cognitive strategy is kind of direct strategies, which is used by learners to solve problems in one specific activity. By checking the students' notes of interpreting (students' notes were collected after test), the author found big differences between HSG and LSG (the author will discuss it in details in another paper). Most HSG notes are simple, clear and logical with identical symbols and links while those of LSG notes are hard to read with too simple contents, confusing structures or messy handwriting. This shows that HSG students are more skillful at using note-staking, a kind of supplementary tools, to reduce the burden of memory and save more effort for analyzing SL and expressing in TL. According to the talks with HSG students after tests, the author found they tended to focus more on the key words of the utterance to get the main idea of the message, which can also be regarded as one cognitive strategy.

From Table 2 we can also find that the difference between LSG and HSG on using compensation strategy (p=0.052) is very close to the significance level (p < 0.05). This probably shows that HSG students tend to use more compensation strategy. As interpreting is a three-party communication by speaker, interpreter and listener, compensation strategy can be used to maintain the flow of communication. When being unable to understand the input message, or to find the equivalent expression in TL, the HSG students may take compensation strategies, such as replacement, generalization and omission, to make up for the information loss and keep the communication going. LSG students may just give up any compensation approaches, which will lead to "silence", or "stop" of interpreting.

C. *Correlation Analysis*

To what extent do the differences on using learning strategies by LSG and HSG correlate with the total score and sub-scores of interpreting test? The author carried a correlation analysis based on the data of 120 students. The results are showed in Table 3:

TABLE 3
CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF SCORES AND LEARNING STRATEGIES OF ALL STUDENTS

	Meta-cognitive Strategy	Cognitive Strategy	Memory Strategy	Social Strategy	Affective Strategy	Complementation Strategy
Understanding of SL	.324**	.324**	.092	.125	.159	.173
Completeness of TL	.256**	.245**	.038	.05	.128	.139
Pronunciation & Intonation	.318**	.306**	.042	.097	.147	.190*
Logical Structure	.296**	.310**	.065	.120	.121	.150
Articulation & Fluency	.382**	.343**	.163	.114	.249**	.173
TL Grammar	.295**	.347**	.127	.135	.133	.169
TL Vocabulary	.325**	.330**	.083	.163	.201*	.168
Total Score	.341**	.341**	.094	.123	.173	.181*

**p < 0.01, *p< 0.05

From Table 3 we can find that meta-cognitive strategy is significantly correlated with all the sub-scores. This proves that meta-cognitive strategy is the most important learning strategy and plays a crucial role in controlling the whole learning process, improving study efficiency, planning and monitoring the examination process. The highest Pearson's correlation coefficient (r=.382 p<0.01) is between meta-cognitive strategy and "articulation and fluency" in TL expression. We know that the most important feature of meta-cognitive strategy is the self-monitoring ability, that is, to monitor, inspect and rectify the output of language. The linearity of spoken language plus time limitation is likely to create speaker's ambiguous expression. Therefore a qualified interpreter must use self-monitoring before talking to avoid any incomplete or ambiguous expression (Yang Chengshu, 2005:239). When having understood the SL message, students paid more attention to their expression, especially the fluency and clearness. Therefore the "fluency and articulation" ranks the highest in correlation with meta-cognitive strategy. "Understanding of SL" and "TL vocabulary" are also highly correlated with meta-cognitive strategy (r=.324, r=.325). This can be explained by another feature of meta-cognitive strategy, use of attention. Attention is the only catalyzer to transfer "sensory memory" into "short-term memory". Characterized by instantaneity, interpreting requires students to understand and store the SL information, to analyze and express in TL instantly. Any distraction will lead to loss of information, misunderstanding or wrong expression. Therefore concentration is crucial to interpreting. As the interpreting test is of English to Chinese (B-A), students are more comfortable with expressing in their mother tongue and there don't exist too many difficulties in matching words and retrieving information from long-term memory. Therefore they have comparatively time and effort to concentrate on choice of words and monitor the outputs.

Cognitive strategy is also significantly correlated with total scores and all sub-scores. It shows that cognitive strategy is the most fundamental strategy needed in SLA. It's also the most widely used direct strategy by SLA learners. Language learners will try various kinds of cognitive strategies when learning a foreign language, yet few of them are aware of them. For instance, students have done many exercises such as note-taking, shadowing, generalization and summary, retelling and paraphrasing during the interpreting study. These linguistic practices and functional practices can enhance their foreign languages as well as interpreting. These rehearsals can also reduce the time and effort in handling information and nurture a sense of automatic conversion when encountering certain familiar input, which means the interpreters can spare more effort to deal with the whole semantic structure of the input and create more accurate and fluent output (Bao Gang, 2005:83). In Table 3 the correlation coefficient between cognitive strategy and "TL grammar" is the highest (r=.347) followed by "articulation and fluency" (r=.343) and "TL vocabulary" (r=.330).

Affective strategy is positively correlated with "articulation and fluency"(r=.249, p<0.01) and "TL vocabulary" (r=.201, p<0.05). This result disagrees with some scholars' findings. Cheng Xiaotang and Zheng Min (2002) found the higher frequency of affective strategy would likely increase learner's anxiety, especially when dealing with grammar and vocabulary tests, the students appeared to be more hesitant to make decisions. Their anxiety and hesitation negatively influenced their scores. But as affective strategy is to use leaner's individual elements, such as mood, attitude, motivation and value, to affect language study, it will promote learning if used positively by the leaner, or will result in too much anxiety and even bad scores. Because this research was based on an English-Chinese interpreting test, students were more comfortable with expressing in the mother tongue, and therefore they had the time to adjust the mood and emotion, to monitor a clear and accurate expression in Chinese.

Compensation strategy is positively and significantly correlated with the total score (r=.249, p<0.01) and "pronunciation and intonation" (r=.201, p<0.05). It's also highly correlated with "understanding of SL" and "articulation and fluency". Compensation strategy is a communicative approach employed when the speaker finds the original language plan unable to work and a replacement plan have to be used (Poulisse, 1997). The main goal of compensation strategy is to keep the communication going. It can be sub-divided into achievement strategy and reduction strategy. Achievement strategy encourages the speaker to encounter the problems and remain the macro-language plan unchanged, and bypass the obstacles through language polishing. On the other hand, reduction

strategy chooses to escape the trouble and give up or change the original language plan (Poulisse, 1993). Students may choose either of the two strategies when facing problems, but based on the contexts and self capacity. The use of compensation strategy can enhance the fluency of utterance and earn a better impression from the audiences or a higher score from the teacher. But excessive use of reduction strategy will hurt the faithfulness to the SL and may lead to loss of scores. That is also the reason why in Table 3 compensation strategy is less correlated with "completeness of SL"(r=.139).

It needs to point out that only memory strategy and social strategy have no any correlations with scores of interpreting test. The author does not think memory strategy play an important role in the advanced period of language study. As an advanced course, interpreting has a very high entry threshold for learners: proficient linguistic knowledge and encyclopedia knowledge. After the beginner period, the learners will depend more on skills rather than rote before they become qualified interpreters. The findings of Liu Yunqing and Wu Yian (2000) showed that memory and self-management had no significant correlation with language scores. They concluded that on medium and advanced level of language learning, learners mainly depend on strategies of understanding, summarizing and deduction to master the complicated linguistic skills. Compared with the primary level of learning, this period does not have too many language rules or new words for memorizing. China's university teaching under the influence of traditional education system is still an examination-oriented system to a larger extent. Overemphasizing language knowledge and skills has restrained students from using social strategies. Reid (1987) discussed in his research that Chinese students were vision-centered learners and their knowledge came mainly from traditional classroom through textbooks and blackboards. They seldom had chances to use affective and social strategies.

Then the author had a correlation analysis on the data of HSG students and LSG students respectively. The results are showed in Table 4 and Table 5.

TABLE 4
CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF SCORES AND LEARNING STRATEGIES (HSG)

	Meta-cognitive Strategy	Cognitive Strategy	Memory Strategy	Social Strategy	Affective Strategy	Complementation Strategy
Understanding of SL	-.125	.126	.093	.040	-.146	-.121
Completeness of TL	-.032	.107	.095	-.042	-.143	-.017
Pronunciation & Intonation	.219	.136	.114	.019	.0940	-.047
Logical Structure	-.084	-.022	-.070	.070	-.054	-.156
Articulation & Fluency	.134	-.076	.061	-.027	.106	-.158
TL Grammar	-.119	-.053	-.040	-.136	-.166	-.106
TL Vocabulary	.048	-.154	-.159	.013	.058	-.025
Total Score	-.025	.067	-.025	-.096	-.005	-.146

TABLE 5
CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF SCORES AND LEARNING STRATEGIES (LSG)

	Meta-cognitive Strategy	Cognitive Strategy	Memory Strategy	Social Strategy	Affective Strategy	Complementation Strategy
Understanding of SL	.128	.243	-.076	.011	.115	.110
Completeness of TL	.054	.072	-.155	-.073	.081	.035
Pronunciation & Intonation	.106	.200	-.153	.018	.039	.186
Logical Structure	.117	.242	-.065	.029	.009	.089
Articulation & Fluency	.251	.383**	.123	.058	.262*	.192
TL Grammar	.205	.367**	.100	.178	.124	.164
TL Vocabulary	.205	.359**	.055	.163	.168	.121
Total Score	.167	.293*	-.054	.045	.132	.140

**p < 0.01, *p< 0.05

Table 4 shows that learning strategies by HSG students did not correlate significantly with all the sub-scores of interpreting test. As for LSG students, their cognitive strategies significantly correlated with "articulation and fluency", "TL grammar", "TL vocabulary" and the total score, as showed in Table 5. This proved that although LSG students used few cognitive strategies than the HSG students, the effect of cognitive strategies on their scores remained effective. LSG students tried to make up their weakness in understanding the SL by optimizing TL expression (mother tongue) with the purpose of getting more scores from good articulation and standard grammar. Therefore those with more

cognitive strategies would score higher. In addition, the affective strategy of LSG students is also significantly correlated with "articulation and fluency" (r=.262, p<0.05), this also proved the above explanation.

In order to further probe the relations between learning strategy and interpreting scores, the author used stepwise method to carry out a multi-regression analysis on learning strategies and total scores of the 120 students. Only those significant variables (p< 0.05) can enter into the regression formula. The result is showed in Table 6:

TABLE 6
MULTI-REGRESSION ANALYSIS

	R	R^2	Estimated Standard Error	R^2 Change	F Change	B	Beta	t Value	Significance
Meta-cognitive Strategy	.341	.116	11.9386	.109	15.553	8.320	.341	3.944	.000

Meta-cognitive strategy, as the only variable entered into regression formula, can contribute 10.9% to the differences of total scores and therefore positively predict the scores. This further proves the importance of meta-cognitive strategy in interpreting learning. The setup of study plan, self-monitoring and introspection of learning process, and self-evaluation on learning results are all conducive to higher interpreting scores. Other variables failed to enter the regression formula because of their insignificance from the statistical point of view.

IV. CONCLUSION

The above analysis shows that there exist significant differences of meta-cognitive strategy and cognitive strategy between HSG and LSG, and LSG students tend to use few of these two strategies than HSG students; meta-cognitive strategy and cognitive strategy are significantly correlated with total score and all sub-scores, and meta-cognitive strategy can positively predict the interpreting scores; affective strategy is correlated positively and significantly with "articulation and fluency" of TL expression; the use of compensation strategy has positive and significant correlation with total scores and "pronunciation and intonation" in TL expression. The above findings give us some suggestions for practical teaching: teachers should be fully aware of the importance of learning strategies and then guide or train the students, low-score students in particular, to use these strategies, especially cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. Meanwhile, the negligence of students' emotions or affective elements is one of the reasons contributing to the unsatisfied results of faA oreign language teaching in China (Xiang Huaiying, 2003). Therefore, due to the high pressure of the job of interpreting, teachers should pay more attention to students' mental competence and teach them to relieve unnecessary anxiety and finetune the mood. They should also encourage students to control the overall pace of interpreting and TL expression, and when meeting obstacles try to use more achievement strategy to guarantee the flowing of communication.

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Beyond the Veil: Re-conceptualizing the Representations of Bengali Women in Ali's *Brick Lane**

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Abstract—Ali's novel *Brick Lane* is significant because of its ambivalent representation of Bengali women. Drawing from the Postcolonial studies and feminist scholarship, the paper analyses the representations of the women in the novel, as they are shaped by various cultural signifiers. The paper critiques and notes the novel's narrative practices with the particular attention paid to the gendered discourses. Comparing the alternative representation given by Ali in the novel Brick Lane, with the one found in the idiom of the colonizer, the study highlights the significance of voicing the experiences of the women of color, particularly the Muslim Bengali women, in diaspora who are reduced to the burqa-clad representations. Deconstructing the representations in the novel, it is argued that the women exercise agency in the public and private spheres of life. The study is significant as it questions the politically motivated representations of the formerly colonized women in the idiom of the colonizer, who are oppressed by their culture, concluding that the engagement of the postcolonial female writers with voicing of the experiences of the women of color has gone a long way to challenge the image of the colonizer as a savior of the colonized women.

Index Terms—*Brick Lane*, representations of Bengali women, veil, postcolonial literature

I. INTRODUCTION

The multiple representations of the women in Postcolonial fiction have always been debated among the Postcolonial critics, Feminist scholars and Cultural theorists. Ali's novel *Brick Lane,* published in 2004, has been hailed by the critics, for revealing the experiences of Bengali community, particularly Bengali Muslim women, living in the Brick Lane in the U.K. The protagonist, Nazneen and her sister Hasina, living in Bangladesh, who take independent decisions about their sex and family life are contrasted with the images of the plain farm women in the idiom of colonizer, internalized by the colonized. *Brick Lane* sparked anger among the Bengali community, who believes that the novel has misrepresented Bengali Muslim women as sex objects, oppressed by their culture, idealizing and adapting to the Western culture. The problematic representations of the women in the popular media and literature can also be seen as an attempt to tag the image of the oppressed as well as the oppressor with the women represented. Hence, the novel warrants the further analysis of its thematic conventions and characters.

The paper explores those multiple feminine representations in the novel under discussion, using the theoretical considerations of Mernissi (1987) and Mohanty (1994), arguing that the women represented in the novel, in the private and public spheres, use various strategies to exercise agency. Drawing from the Postcolonial Studies and Islamic Feminist Criticism, the paper critiques the images of the oppressed (women as a victim of shame, physical violence and sexual exploitation) highlighting the ambivalences in the representations. Consequently, the oppressed women can also be seen in the role of subjects. The paper also brings to the light, the representations of female sexuality, as they result from the process of gendering within society, under the theoretical considerations of Mernissi (1987). Commenting on the power dynamics, the study concludes with the discussion that the oppression of the women in the novel does not necessarily originate from the culture and tradition of the colonized, rather it results from the misinterpretation of the social signifiers.

II. MOTIVATED REPRESENTATION IN COLONIAL DISCOURSE AND POSTCOLONIALITY

Said (1978) believes that the Western writers are a part of the "Project of colonization" when they view and represent East from the biased lens of Imperialism, representing Orient as a place to be civilized by the Western Colonizer. The

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* The title of the paper is inspired from Mernissi's work "Beyond the Veil-Male Female Dynamics in Muslim Society" (1987)

significant part of literature and writings produced as such represent the Eastern women either as a prostitute, a sex object, or a simple, passive farm woman who never questions her male counter-part. Said (1978) argues that such representations present East, frozen in time and space, a fixed monolithic reality. The identities of Eastern women are also seen as fixed, incapable of developing or having multiplicity. The Islamic identity of women has been particularly demonized, representing Islam as a symbol of sex and polygamy. Nerval (cited in Said: 1978) describes Egypt as a place which offers enormous possibilities of satisfying male sexual desires, representing Eastern women as exotic maidens.

Islamic feminists have questioned such representations, indicating that the identity of a woman as Muslim is not monolithic or fixed, rather it keeps on changing, depending on historical, cultural, geographical and local contexts. Consequently, various religious and cultural symbols keep on acquiring new meanings. The signifier of veil, for example, does not necessarily mean oppression, as seen in the Western discourse. Rather, it could be an expression of social or political empowerment, as women in Iran chose to wear veil to show political affiliation with their sisters. Moghissi (1999) points out:

"The imagery of Islam as a peculiar religion, predisposed to maltreat the female sex, seems always to have existed. No other religion has so shamelessly been the target of demonization for its gender practices and no religion has so passionately and boldly barricaded itself against outside pressures" (p. 13)

Khan (1994) notes that Islamic Feminists tend to disregard institutions of patriarchy by arguing that certain revelations or laws are imposed in response to certain critical situations. Consequently, certain discriminatory laws against women are imposed without considering the similarity between the contexts, resulting in demonization of Islam. Postcolonial female writers try to explore how scriptures are misinterpreted and how female protagonists react to such gendering. Kahf (1999) speculates on the ways in which the Muslim woman has been made an archetypical image through her representation as "a maid to be rescued" in Western literature. In such literatures, she is an object of Western Male gaze and such representations are governed by power politics. Later, Western Feminists have also contributed to the project of colonizer, by propagating similar motivated representations. Zine (2008) adds to the discussion by noting that the postcolonial writers tend to adhere to, as well as contrast with such westernized representations by using significant tropes and motifs which are given new meanings according to situations.

Bhabha believes that Postcolonial writers write from the *third space of enunciation*, representing hybrid identities (Ashcrof, Griffiths, Tiffin: 1995). According to him, the solution of colonization is the mimicry of the colonizer by the colonized, resulting in the similarities as well as differences between the colonizer and the colonized. Diasporic experience plays a significant role in this regard as it brings the colonized subject in close contact with the colonizer resulting in creating fluid identities among colonized.

Indian critics, particularly those constituting Subaltern Studies Group, add to the debate by exploring the dynamics, which make the brown women lose their agency. Spivak (1988) focuses on Indian woman as a sexed subaltern, and how she is silenced either by the white feminists or by the elite Indian nationalists, speaking for her resulting in her lack of representation. Mani (1987) adds to the debate by noticing that the arguments in favor of *sati* and against *sati* were drawn from "authentic texts" without acknowledging that the construction of such documents is the result of indigenous patriarchy and the experience of colonization, which results in silencing the women.

The engagement of Postcolonial Feminist critics with the representations of the women of color as "the oppressed" result in attempting to unveil the dynamics behind the exploitation of the women and the strategies used by such women to exercise agency. In this way, they challenge the motivated representations, projecting the women of color frozen in time and space.

III. FEMININITIES IN *BRICK LANE*

Identity of the women of color is not a fixed reality, rather it keeps on shifting and changing (Khan: 1994) The multiple layers of identities are created because of the multiple positioning of the women with respect to their history, nationality, religion and ethnicity. Hence, these multiple layers of identity may be contrasting and conflicting in nature. *Brick Lane* is significant because it unveils the dialogics and dialectics between "the self" and "the other", which shapes the consciousness of the women of color. Consequently, the "oppressed" is not necessarily a fixed identity for women, rather, they are represented in a state of resistance against patriarchal norms. Furthermore, the oppression does not stem from the Islamic culture or religion, rather it results from the power struggle within various groups in the society, which can't specifically be a feature of Eastern society only.

Mernissi (1987) mentions the concept of Chronopolitics, i.e. "a time scenario in which power is achieved through the control of intangible: the flow of signs, the circulation of information and liquid sums." She notes that in Islamic society, the women's rights are opposed by the elite fundamentalists through a control over the power of creating knowledge i.e. misinterpretation of the past. In the course of the novel, we find Chanu obsessed with the glorious past of his nation. He would see the influence of the Western society as having a corrupting influence on Muslim women. Moghissi (1999) notices that Muslim men tried to hide Muslim women from Western gaze and the inventions of Western civilization because the body of a Muslim woman symbolized Islamic culture and identity. Keeping it in a status quo reflected the protection of Islamic culture from erosion. Mrs. Islam voices the perspective of the fundamentalists when she disapproves Jorina's working in the factory on account of her mixing up with people from other nationalities:

"Mixing up with all sorts: Turkish, English, Jewish. All sorts. I am not old fashioned, said Mrs. Islam. I do not wear burkha. I keep purdah in my mind, which is the most important thing." (p.21)

Hence, the seclusion of Bengali women results from the conflict between the colonizer and the colonized, and the desire to protect Muslim women- a symbol of Islamic culture. Chanu liked his wife "as an un spoilt girl from the village" (p.15) for the same reason. Represented as a typical mother and wife, she is shown as a subordinate to her husband for her life. "*Nazneen always walked one step behind him.*" (p. 90)

Chanu wants to inculcate the same spirit of nationalism among his daughters to save them from the corrupting influences of the West. He wants his daughters to be able to recite from Nazar-ul-Islam, the national poet or Tagore and to learn the national anthem of Bangladesh. "*A sense of history- that is what they are missing" (p.195)*

Similar to the Muslim men's obsession with the past, is their obsession with the fate. Patriarchal oppression is propagated and supported by making it a myth, an undeniable fate.

"Fighting against one's Fate can weaken the blood. Sometimes, or perhaps most times, it can be fatal. (p.5)

Fate is represented as an undeniable calamity for women, a form of oppression imposed by the male counterparts; the women who react against the patriarchy are hence seen to be reacting against God and the State.

"What could not be changed must be borne. And since nothing could be changed, everything had to be borne. This principle ruled her life. It was mantra, fettles and challenge. So that, at the age of thirty four, after she had been given three children and had one taken away, when she had a futile husband and had been fated a young and demanding lover, when for the first time, she could not wait for the future to be revealed but had to make it for herself, she was startled by her own agency as an infant who waves a clenched fist and strokes itself upon the eye." (p.6)

Hasina believes that God is putting her in tests and trials, hence, He is responsible for various forms of oppression, so fate seems to be a puritanical form of correction, a series of tests by God himself. They must not be resisted. Nazneen's mother submits to the fate, a passive victim of her husband's oppression; she is hailed by her husband as belonging to the family of saints. However, she offers the only form of resistance by taking her own life when her husband marries the second time. When Nazneen is having physical relationship with Karim, she feels that for the first time, her life is controlled not by fate, but by a force greater than fate. So fate becomes a metaphor for patriarchal oppression, against which she exercises her will. Looking at the women dressed up in underwear and shirt, she feels that clothing, not the fate decides one's future. So fate becomes a metaphor of social conditioning— clothing, food and the commonly accepted behaviors, essentialized through reinforcement. Hasina *kicked against the faith*(p.13). Nazneen finds out that her son Raqib should be taken to a hospital. If he is left to his fate, he might not survive. Ali's representation of the concept of fate is significant here, not only because it shows how the patriarchal society approves a particular code of conduct for the women, but also because it reveals how the women react against such politically motivated systems of belief.

 Hasina and her friends at the factory are also the victims of patriarchal oppression, beating and assaults. Mernissi (1987) describes that the duty of a man to correct his wife by physical beating is voiced in Koran, however, the Prophet(P.B.U.H.) reduced it to decent measures. Disciplining female sexuality through physical violence is a very common phenomenon of Muslim society. Hasina makes her *husband loose his patience without meaning to.*(p.42) Jorina gets beaten up by her husband for being the best worker in the factory and getting a bonus in the form of a *sari.*

"Foot come all big like marrow and little finger broken. Bending over her stomach give her trouble. Renu say at least you have a husband to give good beating at least you not alone. The husband say he will beat twice each day until she tell the name of the man." (p.164)

Physical beating and all other atrocities committed by the men are justified in the name of fate- an undeniable condition which has to be borne without complaining and questioning. What is significant here is the fact that the women, victimized and brutalized, stand up together in a bond of sisterhood, to fight against oppression. Hasina and her friends at the factory helped Aleya to catch up with her work when she got beaten up by her husband. *"We giving Aleya our love is best thing we can give,"* Hasina commented (p.164) She also visited and took care of Monju regularly when her husband threw acid on her. The bond of affection among the oppressed gives them the courage to fight back, hence positioning them as actors in their own right.

IV. Sexual Exploitation and Its Repercussions

Sexual exploitation of the women of color results from the class based society and its past experience of colonization which necessitated the women to earn and move out of the four walls of the home; the traditional values dissuade them to do the same. The dilemma results in sexual harassment and exploitation of the women at their workplace and domestic violence and no recognition of their labor at the hands of their husbands and families.

The class based society results in exploitation of the working class at the hands of the elites- in the case of the novel, the women are forced to be exploited to pay for their living. Mr. Chowdhury sexually exploits Hasina and pays her back by providing her shelter. Abdul walks with her, takes care of her and tries to get the benefit of the emotional support from Hasina. Ahmad, an albino, offers her the proposal of marriage only because he himself was marginalized and left out. When he gets that sense of belonging, he gets tired of Hasina and considers her polluted and unclean. Nazneen is married off to a man she does not like, by her father. Showalter (cited in Suleri: 1993) sees a loveless marriage as a legalized rape. The apparently limited choices available to the women of color, in comparison with the Western women,

affected by developing or underdeveloped social structures, make them a coherently oppressed group in the eyes of Western feminists. Lindsay, (cited in Mohanty: 1993) sees all the women of color as economically dependents on men. She feels that prostitution is the only form of trade available for women in Africa dividing the formerly colonized into oppressor and oppressed. What she overlooks is the fact that in the social structure, men as well as women are oppressed, which brings them at the same level. Chanu fails to get a promotion because, according to him, the Britain is racist. Dr. Azad, like Nazneen, had no share in decision making about his family members. Mustafa, the rapist gets beaten up and murdered brutally. What is significant about such representations is the fact that "the self" shares the characteristics of "the other". The discourse of the colonizer disable the women of color to rise above the level of the oppressed. Hence, the historical and cultural specificities are ignored which are variable and which render the binaries of oppressor and the oppressed as fluid.

The myth of male oppression is further strengthened by attaching the concept of *izzat* and *asmat* with women. (Rahman: 2002) The social construct of "shame" results in making the body of a woman, a battleground; in this battle, the honor of the clan and the family has to be supreme. Shame is regarded as a very important social construct which results in restricting the physical mobility of women, making their rebellion against patriarchy a taboo. However, the word acquires multiple meanings according to the context, shaping the identities of women. Jorina, an independent woman in *Brick lane* has been shamed, because she earns for herself. So the signifier of shame is attached to the signified of economic prosperity for women. Her husband is shamed because people assumed that he cannot adhere to the typical role of bread winner for her family; his adultery has been justified as a cause of his wife's economic prosperity hence he is not shamed; rather the blame is shifted to his wife.

"Jorina has been shamed. Her husband goes to other women. She started working and everyone said he cannot feed her. Even though, he was working himself, he was shamed. And because of this, he became reckless and started going with other women. So Jorina has brought shame on them all." (p. 97)

Razia rejects the concept of shame on human and individualistic grounds:

"Will the community feed me? Will it buy football for my son?"(p.97)

Hasina living in Bangladesh suffers on account of being an independent woman. The man in love with her decides to exploit her emotionally. The administrator at the work place tells her:

"The boy admit to all. Don't tell me your shameless lie. Go before I beat shame into you." (p.169)

Shame acquires new meanings i.e. the woman's denying the word of a man is shameful. Shame is also a form of disciplinary measure for women which, if denied, should be taught through physical violence.

The concept of shame has also been used in conjunction with the representations of female sexuality as it is shaped by the interpretation of Islamic jurisprudence and diaspora.

V. SEXUALITY OF BENGLAI MUSLIM WOMEN

Mernissi (1987) points out that in Islam, aggression like sexual desire is seen as a form of energy, which if positively used, can result in spiritual elevation of the individual. Otherwise, it can create havoc in society by disturbing its functioning. She notices that Muslim society regulates female sexuality by assuming it as active instead of passive. Imam Ghazali (cited by Mernissi: 1987), believes that the women have the most important expression of phallic sexuality i.e. ejaculation. The difference lies in the patterns of ejaculation, woman's being much slower than that of male's. The demands of female sexuality in Islamic jurisprudence are enormous and it is the duty of the husband to satisfy them. An expression of Nazneen's sexual desires is to skate with a man. She is entranced by the postures of the couple skating together; the movements as they are depicted are highly suggestive as they are quite similar to the movements during sexual intercourse.

Khuri (2001) points out that in Islamic societies, men and women have established norms of communicating sexual desires through gestures and body movements. She elaborates some of those gestures as follows:

"Leg gestures and movements may take various positions, each conveying a special meaning. Some positions are sexually arousing. In an arousing position, the legs are slightly open on the genitalia at an acute angle and the feet take the shape of a perpendicular or an obtuse angle with the tip of one foot pointing towards the other inter actor while the second lies with the stretch of his body. In this position, it looks as if one is trying to embrace the other by using the legs instead of the hands." (p.127-128)

The movements of the couple fascinated Nazneen as they were sexually arousing. She wished to skate the same way with an equally attractive man.

"A man in a very tight suit (so tight that it made his private parts stand out on display) and a woman in the skirt that did not even cover her bottom gripped each other as an invisible force hurtled them across on oval arena. The people in the audience clapped their hands together and then stopped. ..Every move they made was urgent, intense, a declaration. The woman raised one leg and rested her boot (Nazneen saw the thin blade for the first time) on the other thigh, making a triangular flag of her legs, and spun around until she would surely fall but didn't. She did not slow down. She stopped dead and flung her arms above her head as if she had conquered everything: her body, the laws of nature and the heart of tight suited man, who slid over on his knees, vowing to lay down his life for her." (p.29)

The other expressions of her unsatisfied sexual desires are waking up at night and eating. Denied the romantic love and attachment with her husband, Nazneen is entranced by the idea of having foreplay with Karim. She is shown not only to have an active sexuality, but also deriving pleasure and self-satisfaction from her sexual experience.

"In between the sheets, in between his arms, she took her pleasure desperately, as if the executioner waited behind the door. Beyond death was the eternal fire of hell and from every touch of flesh on flesh, she wrought the strength to endure it. Though they began with a gentle embrace, tenderness could not satisfy her, nor could she stand it and into her recklessness she drew him like moth to a flame. In the bedroom, everything changed. Things became more real and things became less real. Like a *sufi* in a trance, a whirling dervish, she lost one identity an found another." (p.321)

The act proves to be milestone in regaining her happiness and confidence and her search of herself. In Islamic jurisprudence, satisfied sexuality results in civilization; work is the outcome of harmonious sexuality. Nazneen got the confidence to speak out about the fate of her sister, Hasina, her rape and despoliation which she refused to talk about initially with her husband. She also started enjoying her work harmoniously.

"She told him about her sister and left nothing out, beginning with Mr. Chowdhury, the landlord, the one who (Chanu had said) was respectable type. When she spoke of the rape, she named it in the village way: Hasina was robbed of her nakphool, her nose ring; and the selling of Hasina's body she did not name, saying only my sister had to stay alive, and she saw that Chanu had understood." (p.381)

Mernissi (1987) points out that there has always been a conflict between Islamic fundamentalists and the un-veiled women, who are seen as a threat in the economic hegemony of the fundamentalists. Furthermore, the love for a woman is contrasted with the love for God, a *fitna* which disturbs the smooth functioning of the society. Hasina's physical beauty is seen as a threat to the social fabric:

"Nazneen told her everything about Hasina and her heart shaped face, her pomegranate pink lips and liquid eyes. How everyone stared at her, women, men and children, even when Hasina was six years old. And how the older women began to say, even before she turned eleven , that such beauty could have no earthly purpose but trouble." (p.44-45)

Mr. Chowdhury considers her beauty as the cause of disruption of the smooth functioning:

"These boys like wax around a flame. They come close and they melt. How they can help this thing? It is you who must take care." (p. 165)

The bright colored dress of the woman is also seen as a potential threat to the morals of the men:

"Shahnaz say you know how people talk. If you wear bright color, they say, you asking them to look." (p.160)

Similarly, attractive female features have to be hidden by using cosmetics to ensure the smooth functioning of the society.

"Only other day, she advising again on cosmetics. She is skill in cosmetics. She have notice my lips too pink too big can look impure. Religious protest people outside gates seek out all impurities like this. Putting powder on the lips makes hide them little bit." (p.163)

Moghissi (1999) notices that the sexuality of Muslim woman is a legal possession of *Umma* and Islamic state. A Muslim woman is handicapped because of the fundamentalist interpretations of sacred texts, resulting in her little or no involvement in the decisions of her marriage and divorce. Mernissi(1991) postulates that the oppression in the name of Islam, seldom has anything to do with the sacred texts as interpreted in the times of Prophet (P.B.U.H) and have a lot to do with the misinterpretation of Islamic jurisprudence for achieving political and monetary gains. Exploring the politics of gendering, Mernissi (1991) further points out that there had been a strong misogynistic tendency among Islamic fundamentalists, which is actually governed by monetary gains. The similar phenomenon is observable in the case of the novel as the fundamentalists in Bangladesh are in conflict with the women working in the factory. When Hasina works in the factory, the *mullahs* in the area start a campaign against the women who earn for themselves, hence prove to be competitors to the men in the jobs.

"Some people make trouble outside the factory gates. They shout to us, "Here come the garment girls, choose the one you like." A *mullah* organize the whole entire thing. Day and night they playing religious message with loud speaker. The say it sinful for men and women working together. But they the ones sinning take God's name, give insult to us and tell lies." (p. 159)

Women like Hasina exercise agency by deciding to work and earn for themselves. They realize that economic prosperity is the solution to the patriarchal oppression:

"Working is like a cure. Some find it curse, I meaning Renu. But I do not. Sewing pass the day and I sit with friends. As actual fact, it brings true friendship and true love." (p.159)

The similar conflict exists between Razia and her husband in U.K. Her husband, a fundamentalist spends quite less on her family and sends most of his earning to imams for building up mosques. He inspects the kitchen and insists on using all the food in the kitchen before purchasing new food. He disliked his wife, an unveiled woman, who questions the patriarchal oppression. Razia fights against the hegemony of her husband by learning to speak English and getting a job. The shift from traditional roles of the women of color results directly or indirectly from the process of colonization. Mernissi (1987) notices that in the post-colonized era, the whole Muslim nation has to turn into soldiers and workers to increase the production. For this purpose, Muslim society has to grant women the equal rights which resulted in drastic changes in the authentic social institutions. The women in *Brick Lane* are examples of such women who are questioning the decisions and assumptions of men by demanding equal rights, in a social fabric that is affected by colonization.

Mrs. Islam, fights against the hegemony of patriarchy by giving loans to the people and taking interest on it. She is strongly criticized by the fundamentalists for this tendency, being called the sinner who has to burn in hell. However, she is the one, who could have her own way with the men folk. What is significant is the fact that Nazneen, follows the example of Razia and tries to learn English. She is not allowed by her husband. However, she is allowed by her husband to earn through stitching when he gives up his job and has to rely on Nazneen to earn for the family. The freedom gives her the chance of coming in contact with Karim, the fundamentalist lover, with whom she gets used to of the idea of political freedom and independence. According to Mernissi (1987), one of the challenges posed by modernity is sexual anomie- a period of deep confusion and absence of norms. Through her analysis of data from Morocco, she reveals that besides the sexual segregation which stems from Moroccan code of ethics, the reality is rapidly changing because modernity encourages a close contact between sexes. Consequently, a deep confusion and guilt arises in the minds of the youth, who are involved in dating and extra-marital sex but are confused about whether the religion permits them the liberty or not. The same situation becomes visible in the course of the novel- when Nazneen and Hasina are engaged in illicit relations with men, they are overcome by the guilt of their actions, obsessed with the thought of burning in hell yet continuing to engage in extra-marital sex because of their dissatisfied family lives. Hasina runs away with the cook in the end because she is determined to look for her happiness. Skating, as already mentioned, is seen as a symbol of exercising liberty to take decisions about the self, particularly about her sexuaity. Nazneen is taken by her daughters and Razia to skate, depicting that she is going to be independent about herself in future as well.

The sexuality of the women is also used as a tool to get their own way with men folk. Mrs. Islam narrates the incident of her own village where all the women in the village made the men dig a new well for their families by denying them the sexual relations. What is noticeable about the representations of women of color is the fact that such women are objects, not the subjects in their decisions about love and marriage. Furthermore, they are determined to have happiness, satisfaction or practical gains by making independent decisions about love and sexuality. Such representations challenge the stereotypical and fixed representations of women of color who do not dare to question the decisions of their men folk.

VI. WOMEN AS SUBJECTS

Mohanty (1994) points out that the colonial discourse has presented women in the kinship structures as victims of male violence, defining them as the passive victims, a monolithic reality, controlled sexually by men. On the contrary, postcolonial discourse presents the women of color exercising resistance against the male hegemony, implicitly as well as explicitly. Hasina knows and exercises the tactics of controlling her husband. She keeps the house in order so that she could keep on getting favors from her husband. She, along with other women emerge as the powerful women, who discuss the strategies of winning in the power dynamics; men on the other hand only react, and that too according to the expectations of women. When Hasina runs away from her first husband, to avoid being beaten up, she gets the courage by seeing a beggar woman who is crippled but she resists when she is moved against her will.

Mohanty (1994) notices that the married women are the victims of colonial process because the process of colonization and displacement has destroyed the traditional family and kinship structures. She quotes the example of Zambian women in Bemba, who were given the protection of tribal laws after the marriage. The effects of colonization has changed the traditional institution of marriage resulting in curbing the rights and the privileges offered to the women of color through the institution of marriage. Nazneen has to go to the UK after marriage because of poor economic conditions in her own village. Consequently, she is distanced from her family and the support and protection she could have from her family. The presence of the clan and *biradary* is considered a protection for the women of color. Mustafa, the cowman, who rapes a young girl, is beaten up and brutally killed by the men of the girl's family. Nazneen, even as a child, decides not to save him from the painful death by rolling a log under his feet when he is dangling from the tree.

Postcolonial critics notice that the oppression of the women of color result from the process of colonization. In most cases, colonization is seen as a root cause of the oppression against women of color, since it dismantled the traditional social structure of the colonized, denying women the protection against patriarchy. The battle between the colonizer and the colonized is fought on Muslim women's bodies. Suleri (1994) points out that the Islamization of Pakistan in 1980s is the result of American political and ideological support of the military dictatorship in Pakistan, which resulted in unleashing the horrors of *Hudood Ordinance* and other such legislatives, curbing the freedom of women. The resistance against this oppression arose in the form of Women's Action Forum, consisting of unveiled women, who are rebuked and hated by the fundamentalists. The similar phenomenon is observed in the case of the novel where Bangladeshi community living in UK is facing colonial propaganda against the customs, beliefs and values of Bengalis. Consequently, Islamic fundamentalists raise the outcry of war against modernity, trying to veil Muslim women or inculcate Nationalist ideologies in them by teaching them Bengali language and poetry. Muslim women suffer in the conflict, as they are supposed to be loyal to their national identities, which subject them to patriarchal oppression. Consequently, the women in the novel are seen to rebel against those customs and traditions which are oppressive.

The women living in Bangladesh decide to take the help from court when they find out that the teacher at the government school does not teach well:

"The teacher is at fault, not only father. These teachers must be responsible. Only way of making them responsible is to take the whole damn lot to the court." (p.g 171)

Similarly, Shehnaz refuses to give dowry to her in-laws, a custom commonly practised in South Asian culture:

"Why should we give dowry? I am not a burden. I make money. I am the dowry." (p.g 158)

Another form of resistance is creating knowledge about the men folk. Hasina tells Nazneen about the married women who exercise various forms of liberty at night on the roof. These women smoke "secret cigarette" and are authorities in the knowledge created by their practical experiences. "The Windy Wife" knows about various forms of indigestion. "Great Disaster" predicts as to which incident is going to bring luck or misfortune. The greatest authority is the wife who knows men. That woman believes in using discursive means to control the husband from committing adultery:

"Aaah, she says, if you want your husband faithful, you must hide his tooth brush in the morning. She do always say Aaahh before everything. "A man not going another woman with smelly breath. I know men." (p. 183)

Nazneen, when confined by Chanu in the domestic spheres, tries to interpret Quran on her own. What is significant is the fact that she does not look forward to men's interpretation of Holy Quran.

"To God belongs all that the heavens and earth contain. She said it over a few times, aloud. She was composed. Nothing could bother her. Only God, if He chose to. Chanu might flap about and squawk because Dr. Azad was coming for dinner. Let him flap. To God belongs all that the heavens and earth contain." (p.11)

A similar tendency is observable in case of Hasina who likes to write her letters in English without caring for the rules of grammar. Ashcroft, Griffith and Tiffins (1989) believed that the colonized appropriated the language of the colonizer to make it a suitable tool for their expression. Hasina, a tough fighter, used to write English without caring for grammatical errors, hence breaking free from the grammatical rules which could silence the subaltern. Nazneen, in the beginning, was silenced because of the hegemony of her husband. Later she started speaking out, deciding for herself and for her family. She also breaks free from the confines of the spatial boundary by roaming about in the streets and getting herself lost. She felt elated at the thought of communicating in English with a perfect stranger, understanding him and being understood by him. She exercised her agency by going inside a pub to use toilet and later asking for directions from a Bangladeshi restaurant.

Guha (2001) speculates about how the peasants stood up against the Colonizer and how the elite nationalists took up the role of the colonizer, silencing the subalterns. Nazneen, as a sexed subaltern had also been silenced when Chanu, a nationalist, refuses to help Hasina in Bangladesh. However, she reacts by spoiling her house chores at home, just as peasants stood up against the nationalist from within the country.

"Nazneen dropped the promotion from her prayers. The next day, she chopped two fiery red chillies and placed them, like hand grenades, in Chanu's sandwich. Unwashed socks were paired and put back in his drawer. The razor slipped when she cut his corns. Her files got mixed up when she tidied. All her chores, peasants in his princely kingdom, rebelled in turn. Small insurrections, designed to destroy the state from within."(p. 59)

Resisting against patriarchal social structures, the women in the novel are gathered together to create a bond of sisterhood. Nazneen's mother cried over the shoulder of her sister at the fate of the girl raped by Mustafa. Nazneen's aunt, a victim of her husband's brutality rejects patriarchy by refusing to go back to her husband. Amma's sister visited her and cried for the girl raped by Mustafa.

"We're just women. What can we do?"

"They know it, that's why they act as they do."

"God has made the world this way."

"I told him I will not go back." (pg. 104)

Nazneen receives the impulses of rejecting patriarchy from Hasina, living in Bangladesh:

"Whenever she received a letter from Hasina, for the next couple of days, she imagined herself an independent woman too." (p.93)

Hasina works at the factory with four of her best friends, who are together in their strategies to fight against the oppression:

"Four in my row stick like sisters. Aliya, Shehnaz, Renu and me. I tell you about them, my other sisters" (p. 157)

So the women of color stood up against patriarchal oppression with the help of each other. The bond of sisterhood is perhaps most visible in the struggle for economic prosperity on the part of women of color. Contrary to the Western representations of the women of color which present economic development and access to the labor market as the ultimate solution to all the problems of such women (Mohanty:1994), Ali tries to unveil the problematics of oppression and resistance resulting from free access to the labor market to the women of color, in variable social structures. What comes out is the fact that the Bengali women were provided security in their traditional social set up, the dismantling of it under the influence of colonization has brought economic liberty but denied them the protection against sexual harassment.

VII. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Contrasting the image of women of color by the colonizer, Ali's female characters are quite strong and self-sufficient. Such representations are in keeping with the traditions set by the Postcolonial female writers such as Sidhwa and Suleri. Similarly, Henderson observes a heteroglossia (1993) in the writings of black women writers. She notices that they

write from a complex social, historical and cultural positionality which renders them as entering in to *dialectic of identity* with mutually shared aspects of "self" with "the other". The various points of similarity in the heteroglossia of discourses produced by postcolonial women writers challenge the fixed trope of the identity of the "oppressed" for the women of color. Suleri(1993) is of the view that creating the identity the women of color only in terms of nationalism or gender politics is in contrast with the lived experiences of such women; the identities should be construed as a result of various social, political and cultural influences which do not specifically create a fixed identity. In keeping with the argument, the representations of women in the novel are emblematic of multiplicities, as they adopt different courses of action in varying situations. The choices made by the women regarding sexuality, veiling or earning encapsulate the struggle of power and dominance by the women against patriarchy. The novelist brings out that various cultural symbols of the formerly colonized nations keep on shifting meanings; the signifier of veil, for example, can be a tool of oppression as well as empowerment. Unveiling the dimensions of power dynamics between the genders, the socio-cultural set up of the Bengali community is presented as largely influenced by the Colonization. The battle between the colonizer and the colonized is fought on women's bodies, necessitating women to take decisions about tackling with various forms of patriarchy. British diaspora also plays a significant role in creating hybrid identities of women of color, the mimicry of the colonizer by adopting various cultural symbols such as clothing, language and food results in creating a socio-cultural fabric different from the traditional one.

The novelist does not present British diaspora as the solution to oppression, rather she presents the various alternatives adopted by women to fight against oppression. Cultural norms and symbols in this regard do not have to be perceived as a source of oppression, rather they can be alternatively seen as a tool of empowerment. What the writer brings out through these alternate representations is the multiplicity of the ways in which such women exercise agency. A large group of Western feminists see the sexual liberty as the privilege denied to the women of color. The novelist subtly reveals that the choices made regarding sexuality, marriage or living a life of celibacy by the women of color all aim at exercising agency in the struggle of power in the various social structures. It is the politics of gendering, its impacts and repercussions that we have tried to unveil in this paper.

APPENDIX GLOSSARY

Bhaji: A dish of mixed vegetables, common in South Asia.

Biradary: The clan or the extended family.

Burqa: A long gown and head scarf used for veiling by Muslim women.

Dal: Pulses

Dervish: A Sufi Muslim, known for is poverty and austerity, similar to mendicant friars in Christianity or Hindu sadhus.

Fitna: Disruption in society.

Hudood Ordinance: A controversial law against the women imposed in Pakistan in 1980s. The law was criticized because it made no distinction between adultery and rape.

Izzat, *Asmat*: These words, often synonymous refer to the concept of honor prevalent in the culture of North India and Pakistan. It implies that a woman should maintain her reputation and the reputation of her family according to the accepted code of ethics. If a woman's izzat is violated by a man, the revenge is obligatory for the woman's family. If a woman exercises sexual liberty or the right to choose her husband against the wishes of her family, the act is seen as dishonoroable and often results in physical torture or murder of the woman by her family.

Kebab: Fried pieces of minced meat.

Mullahs: Islamic clergy

Purdah: Veil

Sati: The practice of a Hindu widow's cremating herself on her husband's funeral pyre in order to fulfill her true role as wife.

Sufi: A devout believer, who very often offers devotional prayers.

Umma: Muslim community

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Analysis of Equivalent Structures in Persian for the Translation of English Passive Sentences Based on Translations of "Animal Farms"

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Abstract—This article is an attempt to analyze the Persian language structures equivalent to the Passive structures in English. After a brief review of both linguists and grammarians views about this structure, various structures used in the translations of the English passive structure in the book "Animal Farm" by George Orwell (1945) have been analyzed resulting in the introduction eleven different categories of such structures. Then the frequency of each structure has been calculated in each of the five available translations according to which the more frequent structures were introduced. The findings show that the structure "active-intransitive verbs" is the most common structure in these translations which is used to translate the passive structure in English. The findings also confirm the previous research claiming that in the Persian language there is a tendency to use the active structure rather than the passive one.

Index Terms—passive, Persian, English, equivalent structures, style

I. Introduction

Speakers of any language use all the means available in their language to convey their meaning. Because of the variety of such means in different languages, when translating a text from one language to another, it may not be possible to use the same capacities available in the source language. One of the structures which have been a cause of dispute among different grammarians and linguistics is the "passive voice". It is of more challenge when translating a text from the English language, whose speakers tend to use this structure more often, to another one. This difference in the frequency of this structure between the two languages, namely English and Persian, can be one of the basic differences between the two languages. This difference becomes more conspicuous when translating from one language into another. The failure to pay attention to these differences has led to the translation of passive voice in English to a passive voice in Persian, which makes the translated texts seem odd and unusual in Persian.

On the other hand, there are different ideas about this structure in Persian. Considering the form and structure, there is a "past participle of the verb +a form of the verb "become" [*shodan*] which all researchers in this field believe to be the equivalent for the passive structure in English. In this article different available structures in Persian used to translate the passive structure in English are analyzed and their frequencies are identified according to different translations of the book "Animal Farm" by Orwell (1945). These translations include:

Translation 1: Huria Moosaei (2009), Translation 2: Alizade Z.(2008), Translation 3: Amir Amirshahi (2009), Translation 4: Muhammad Firoozbakht (2009), Translation 5: Saleh Hosseini & Masumeh Nabizadeh (2008)

II. Literature Review

Passive voice, like many other aspects of language first appeared in Greek grammarians' works. They were the first who developed the idea of aspect (derived from vox meaning form) and by combining this idea with active and passive, they discussed the different forms of active and passive sentences (Lyons, 1996). It is worth paying attention to the Greek tradition because of their deep influence on the succeeding grammarians including the Romans as well as the contemporary western and non-westerns. Their focus on the form of passive structure and the idea that this structure is derived from the active one led to their inability to comprehensively account for the Greek grammar, and also caused their succeeding grammarians to consider the passive structure as the one derived from the active one and not to think of anything beyond it. With this in mind, passive and its structure has been of great importance to researchers. Different studies show that the frequency of occurrence of this structure in English and some other European languages is more than that in Persian (Jabbari, 2003). Linguists and grammarians have different viewpoints about this structure; grammarians consider a fixed and certain form as passive and they only consider form to distinguish active from passive but linguists think of other structures in addition to the form of passive structure. Those structures are the ones

that have the meaning of passive structures but their form is not passive; therefore, for them the meaning of a structure is as important as its form. As a result their viewpoints can be categorized as follows:

A. Passive in Persian

Form and Structure

Passive and its structure is one of the issues grammarians pay attention to and they have a special definition for passive and its structure. "A passive verb is attributed to the direct object like: Hassan was seen. [*Hassan dide shod*] in which "was seen"[*dide shod*] is passive and is attributed to the direct object, Hassan. (Shariat, 1988, p.165). Khanlari (1998) believes that the difference between active and passive lies in the attribution of the verb to the subject and object, respectively. He also believes that the theme in an active sentence is the subject and in a passive one is the object. (pp. 84-85)

Anvari & Givi (1996) define passive as a verb whose subject is not known. In other words, we can attribute a transitive verb to the object without mentioning its subject. For example in the sentence: The teacher was seen in the street. [*Moallem dar khiaban dide shod*] the verb "was seen" [*dide shod*] is attributed to the object; in other words the theme of the sentence is the object rather than the subject. As it is only the transitive verb that can have an object, the passive verb is always derived from a transitive verb. The passive verb consists of the past participle (past base form of the verb + the final vowel sound/e/) and one form of the auxiliary verb "become" [*shodan*] (p.50). They believe that verbs like "be released" [*raha shodan*], "be found" [*peida shodan*], and "be lost" [*gom shodan*] are the intransitive forms of the transitive verbs "release" [*raha kardan*], "find" [*peida kardan*], and "lose" [*gom kardan*], respectively (p.26).

Lambton (1983) believes that in Persian, if it is possible to use the active structure, the passive one will not be used. So the sentence "I was hit by him." should be translated as "He hit me." [*ou mara zad*] (p.54). Some others deny the existence of a passive structure in Persian. In John Moyne's idea (1974) the distinction between active and passive structures does not exist in Persian but there are some intransitive verbs accompanied by the verb "become" [*shodan*]. Some other researchers in this field limit the application of passive structures to cases where there is no agent (doer of the action). In Soheili's idea (1976) through the process of passivization the direct object is extraposed to the place of the subject and the subject is generally omitted.

In his article "Passive in Persian" Dabirmoghaddam (1985) makes a syntactic distinction between the structure of passive and intransitive verbs and states that the passive transformation is a limited one applied just to verbs whose subject has control over the verb. The application of the passive transformation to the deep structure of active sentences is comparable with the three transformations changing the active to passive sentences. In modern Persian, the intransitive motion verb of "go" [*shodan*] has turned into an auxiliary verb used in passive sentences. On the other hand, a group of causative sentences made up of an adjective and the causative verb "do" [*kardan*] has also something to do with the auxiliary verb "become" [*shodan*].

Lazar (2005) states that a passive verb is made by using the past participle of the verb and the auxiliary verb "become" [*shodan*]. (pp. 191-192)

Vahidian Kamyar (2005) argues that what all grammarians believe to be the past participle of the verb is derived by adding a final vowel /e/ to the past base form of the verb. But most of these so-called "past participles" of the verbs are neither an adjective nor even a free morpheme. For example, grammarians consider the form "beaten"[*zade*] as the past participle of the verb "beat" [*zadan*], while [*zade*] is neither an adjective nor even a free morpheme and it cannot replace another adjective. For example, it is not possible to have the phrase "a beaten child" [*bacheye zade*] or to replace it for a noun like "the beaten left" [*zadeha raftand*]. The past participle of the verb "wash" [*shostan*], however, is "washed" [*shoste*] and can be used in the phrase "washed clothes" [*lebashaye shoste*]. He believes that in Persian the morpheme [*and*] and the active form of the verb rather than using the passive structure is used if the doer of the action is unknown.

Viewpoints on Meaning and Function

The word "function" in this group of works is used to be in contrast with "structure". Bateni (1969) considers other structures in addition to the form of passive (past participle and the auxiliary "become" [*shodan*]) to state the passive meaning. He believes there are three other ways to express a passive meaning:

1. The non-personal aspect, like "He should be seen." [*ou ra bayad did*]

2. The third person plural form of the verb without mentioning the subject, like "They say he is a good person." [*miguyand adame khubi ast*], or "they beat him" [*zadandash*]

3. Changing the verb of the sentence so that the structure of the sentence will not change but the verb will. For example, the verb "do" [*kardan*] will change to "become" [*shodan*] and "beat" [*zadan*] to "eat" [*khordan*], like " He announced the result" [*natije ra elam kard*] to "the result was announced" [*natije elam shod*] (p. 136)

Pakravan (2002) puts the word "function" as opposed to "structure" and believes that we should first clarify the function of passive and then distinguish it from other structures in Persian. The function of passive is the one in which the agent or the doer of the action is of the secondary importance compared with the direct object, purpose or the action itself. The way of decreasing the importance of the agent is different from one language to another. In Persian because the sequence of the words in a sentence is not so strict, and also because of the possibility of subject omission, the bound morpheme in the verb standing for the subject and the morpheme [*ra*] which shows the direct object in a

sentence, the motivation for the application of the passive structure is different and it is used not to decrease the level of the subject but to omit it. In cases where the purpose is to decrease the level of importance of the subject, it is possible to start the sentence with the direct object and mention the subject after that. For example, it is possible to have the sentences "Hassan stole the car." [*mashin ra Hassan dozdid*] or "He stole the car." [*mashin ra dozdid*]. It is also possible to add the prepositional phrase "by …" [*tavassote …*], like "the car was stolen by Hassan." [*mashin tavassote Hassan dozdide shod*]

B. Passive in English

Quirk (1985) states that in the active voice, the subject of the sentence performs the action of the sentence. An active sentence is subject + verb + object. Take this sentence for example: **The boy hit the ball**. "Boy" is the subject of the sentence, and "hit" is the verb. Since the subject of the sentence, boy, is doing the action, hitting the ball, this sentence is said to be in the active voice. The passive voice, on the other hand, is the opposite. In a passive sentence, the subject of the sentence receives the action of the verb, like: **The ball was hit by the boy**. In this sentence, the subject, *ball*, is not performing the action of the sentence. The ball is not the agent doing the hitting. Instead, it is receiving the action of the sentence. The ball is the subject receiving the action of the verb.

To simplify, the passive is formed when the active subject becomes the passive agent; the active object becomes the passive subject; and the preposition "by" is introduced before the agent (pp. 159-165).

III. METHODOLOGY

As the purpose of this study was to analyze the available means in Persian to translate English passive sentences and their frequencies, we needed some practical and suitable data. It seems that novels and short stories are more appropriate because they include various adventures and dialogs. The story "Animal Farm" by George Orwell (1945) was chosen as a source to identify and analyze passive structure. This book has different translations in Persian which are suitable for our aim to deal with different structures used in Persian to translate those sentences. Five translations were chosen and then the passive sentences were selected in the ten chapters of the original book, afterwards their equivalent structures in the five translations were indentified and categorized. These structures were categorized according to their form and the definitions put forward by Anvari & Givi(1996) and then they were put in different eleven groups of structures which would be discussed in the following section.

IV. ANALYZING THE STRUCTURES

The following groups of structures and their examples, extracted from the data in the original book and the translations, would make the point of focus in this study clear:

A. Group One: Active Structure

In this group, the English passive structures, which are translated through active sentences in Persian, are discussed:
Intransitive Verbs:
According to Anvari & Givi (1996, p.64), a verb which completes the meaning of a sentence without an object or does not need an object is an intransitive one like "went" [*raft*], "stood up" [*barkhast*], and "sat down" [*neshast*]

The researchers in this study have divided the intransitive verbs to two groups of linking verbs and main verbs when translating the passive verbs in English:
Linking verbs:
Linking verbs in Persian, according to Anvati and Givi, p.68), are defined as "those which do not have a perfect meaning and are just used to prove or disprove a relationship and their meaning is complete with an adjective or another word, like "It is bright." [*hava roshan ast*]. To clarify this point let's consider one of the examples in "Animal Farm":
1) The animals were satisfied that they had been mistaken. (Orwell, 1945, p 58)
In this sentence the passive verb "were satisfied" is translated as "were happy and pleased" [*khoshhal va razi budand*] in Moosaei's translation (2009, p.20)
Main Verbs:
The second group in intransitive verbs are named as intransitive-main verbs. Anvari and Givi (1996, p.64) have defined such verbs as "Most of the verbs used in a language like "go, sit, sleep" [*raftan, neshastan, khabidan*] show an action being done or receiving a certain action. Such verbs are called main verbs. The intransitive-main verbs are subdivided to two subcategories:
Non-personal intransitive main verbs:
Anvari and Givi (p.70) state that quasi auxiliaries like "can, must and should" [*tavanestan, beyestan,* and *shayestan*] sometimes make a verb which is not attributed to a certain person, like "can't be left, mustn't be said, shouldn't be left" [*natavan raft, nabayad goft,* and *nashayad raft*]. Such verbs are called non-personal verbs. As an example in "Animal Farm" look at the following sentence:
2). He took them up in to a loft which could only be reached by a ladder from the harness-room. (Orwell, 1945, p32)
In this sentence the passive verb "could only be reached" is translated as "was possible to go there" [*mishod be anja raft*] in Firuzbakht's translation (2009, p.88)

Personal Intransitive-main Verbs:

Based on the definition offered for intransitive verbs and also the division of this group to personal and non-personal verbs, all intransitive verbs apart from the non-personal ones are categorized in the group of personal intransitive verbs. The following is an example:

3) The plan which Snowball had drawn on the floor of the incubator shed had actually been stolen from among Napoleon's papers. (Orwell, 1945, p 52)

In this sentence the passive verb "had been stolen" is translated as "had gone stolen" [*be serghat rafte bood*] in Alizade's translation (2008, p.87)

When analyzing the Persian translations for passive sentences, we came across some structures which are, according to Anvar & Givi (1996), compound verbs whose second part is "become" [*shodan*], like "get lost" [*gom shadan*], "be found" [*peida shodan*], and "be forbidden" [*man' shodan*] and are believed to be the intransitive form of the compound verbs whose second part is "do" [*kardan*], like "lose" [*gom kardan*], "find" [*peida kardan*], and "forbid" [*man' karadan*]. (p. 26) Therefore, such structures which are used by translators to translate passive sentences are categorized in the group of personal intransitive verbs, like:

4).The pigeons who were still sent out to spread tidings of the Rebellion were forbidden to set foot anywhere on Foxwood. (Orwell, 1945, p 97)

In this sentence the passive structure "were forbidden" is translated as "became forbidden" [*man' shodand*] in Alizade's translation (p.90).

Transitive Verbs:

The second group of active verbs includes transitive verbs. According to Anvari & Givi (1966, p.64) a verb whose meaning is not complete without an object and needs an object to have a complete meaning and passes the subject to get to the object is called a transitive verb. In order to include more details, this group is subcategorized to two minorcategories:

Non-personal Transitive verbs:

As it was mentioned before, the quasi auxiliaries "can" [*tavanestan*], "must" [*bayestan*], and "should" [*shayestan*] are sometimes used to make verbs which do not refer to a certain person, like "can't be seen" [*natavan did*], "mustn't be said" [*nabayad goft*], and "shouldn't be read" [*nashayad khand*]. Such verbs are called non-personal transitive verbs. (Anvari & Givi, p.70) The following example makes the point clear:

5).The commandments were written on the tarred wall in great white letters that could be read thirty yards away. (Orwell, 1945, p23)

In this sentence the passive structure "could be read" is translated as "was possible not to be read" [*mishod nakhand*]

Personal Transitive Verbs

Based on the definition of transitive verbs by Anvari & Givi and also their subcategorization to personal and non-personal, all transitive verbs except from the non-personal ones are included in the group of personal transitive verbs. The following is an example:

6).This was sung every Sunday morning after the hoisting of the flag. (Orwell, 1945, p77)

In this sentence the passive structure "was sung" is translated as "they sang it" [*mikhandand*] in Hosseini & Nabizade (p.92)

B. Group Two: Passive Structure

The second group consists of the passive structure. In other words, this group includes the English passive structures which are translated into a passive structure in Persian.

According to Anvri & Givi (1966), a verb whose subject is not known is a passive one. In other words, the transitive verb can be attributed to the object without mentioning the subject. A passive verb is made by using the past participle of the verb, i.e. the past base form of the verb, plus the final vowel /e/, and different forms of the auxiliary verb "become" [*shodan*]. (p.50) The following is an example making this point clear:

7).A schoolroom would be built in the farmhouse garden. (Orwell, 1945, p 96)

In this sentence the passive structure "would be built" is translated just like the passive structure in English [*sakhte khahad shod*]

C. Group Three: Equivalent Structure

The third group includes the equivalent structures. For some passive structures, the translators have not used the translation of the same verb in Persian, rather they have used some other verbs whose meanings are similar to the passive verb in English, or they have used some other structures which are identified as noun phrases or idiomatic expressions in this study. So the equivalent structure is divided to three subcategories:

Equivalent Verbs

This group includes verbs which are not the exact translation of the English passive verb, but rather an equivalent verb having a similar meaning. This group itself is divided to two groups:

Equivalent active verbs

Here is an example:

8) The very instant that our usefulness has come to an end we are slaughtered with hideous cruelty. (Orwell, 1945, p8)

In this sentence the passive structure "are slaughtered" is translated as "are destroyed" [*az bein miravim*] in Firouzbakht's translation (p.9)

Equivalent Passive verbs

Here is an example:

9).The milk and the windfall apples should be reserved for the pigs alone. (Orwell, 1945, p33)

In this sentence the passive structure "should be reserved" is translated as "should be removed" [*kenar gozashte shaved*] in Moosaei's translation (p.38)

Noun Phrases

Some passive structures are translated through another structure named noun phrases. By noun phrases, we mean the nouns or their derived forms which are used to translate English passive structures. According to Anvri & Givi(1996) a noun is a word which can directly and independently be used as the subject of the sentence and can be the name of a person or something (p.78). They (p.21) have defined infinitive in Persian as the past base form of the verb plus the suffix /*an*/ which has the meaning of a verb without mentioning the subject or tense, like "to eat" [*khordan*]. Infinitive is a kind of noun. The following is an example of a noun phrase:

10).When the corn was cut and stacked and some of it was already threshed, a flight of pigeons came whirling through the air. (Orwell, 1945, p36)

In this sentence the passive structures "was cut, stacked and threshed" are translated as "cutting, stacking, and threshing" [*deravidan, koppe kardan,* and *kharman koobi*] in Hosseini & Nabizade's translation (p.43)

11).The sheep who had been killed was given a solemn funeral. (Orwell, 1945, p39)

In this sentence the passive structure "had been killed" is translated as "sacrificing" [*ghorbani*] in Amirshahi's translation (p.38)

In these examples, there are passive structures which are translated through using noun phrases which can be considered as another capacity to translate English passive structures.

Idiomatic Verbs (Verbal expressions)

Khanlari (1987, p.169) has defined idiomatic verbs or verbal expressions as a group of words the whole of which conveys a meaning generally equivalent to the meaning of a simple or compound verb. This definition includes all expressions which have the following conditions in addition to the above-mentioned criterion: a) they don't include more than two words, b) one group of the words includes a prepositional phrase, and c) the total meaning is a figurative one, i.e. it doesn't imply the meaning of any of the parts. He gives the example of "being separated from the foot" [*az pai dar amadan*] which means "to fall down" [*oftadan*]. The following is an example in the translations which are studied in this research:

12). It was rumoured that a corner of the large pasture was to be fenced off. (Orwell, 1945, p 94)

In this sentence the passive structure "was rumored" is translated as "the rumor had fallen" [*cho oftade bood*], meaning "it was rumored", in Hosseini & Nbizade's translation (p.113)

D. Group Four: Elision

In this group, there are passive structures which are omitted in the Persian translation. In fact, in such cases the translator has used the surrounding context to present the meaning of the passive structure without using it in the translation of the part. The following is an example:

13) A young pig named Pinkeye was given the task of tasting all his food before he ate it. (Orwell, 1945, p52)

This sentence is translated without the translation of the passive structure "was given the task" in Amirshahi's translation (p.76)

As it is seen in this example, without translating the passive structure, the translator has used some other devices like changing the meaning of the gerund "tasting" to the simple past verb "tasted" [*micheshid*] to translate the sentence and make the meaning of the original sentence clear.

Based on the different structures used in the translations of the book "Animal Farm" by George Orwell (1945), we can come to the following figure as a summary of all the above-mentioned structures:
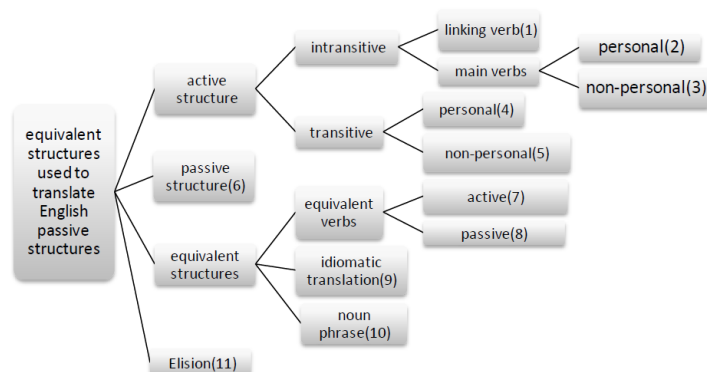

Figure1: Equivalent structures in Persian to translate English passive structures

The frequency of the above-mentioned eleven structures in each of the five different translations is given in percentages in the following figure:
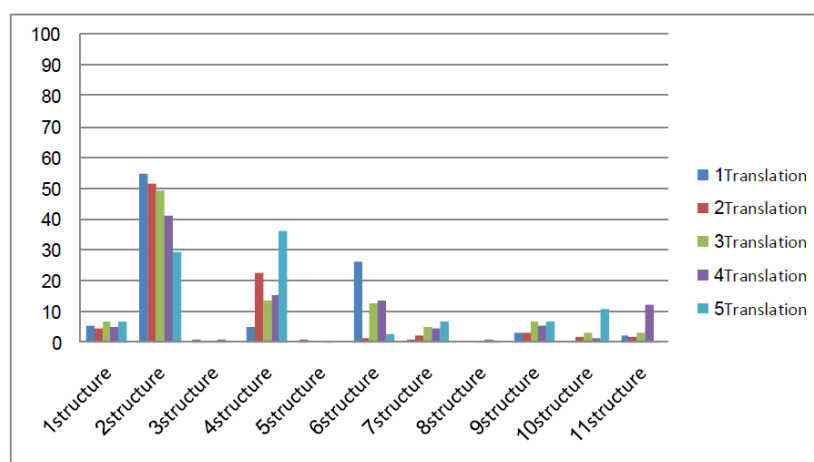

Figure2: Frequency of the eleven structures in each of the five translations Percentage

V. CONCLUSIONS

According to the frequency of the eleven structures in the five translations, it can be concluded that the structure "active-intransitive-main verbs (structure2)" is the most frequent one among the structures used to translate the English passive structures, and it is the prevailing tendency among the different translators to use this structure. The frequency of this structure also shows that in Hosseini's translation (No.5), this structure is less frequent than in the other translations. In this translation, the structure "active-transitive-personal (structure4)" is the most frequent one. This structure (No.4) is the second frequent structure among the eleven structures. The average frequency of the two structures 2 and 4 shows that in Persian, the active structure is more common than the passive structure. The passive structure (No.6) places the third among the others. It shows that translators do not believe this structure to be a suitable one to translate English passive structures. The frequencies of structures 1, 7, 9, 10, 11, and 8 fall in the next levels, respectively. Their frequencies are, however, not so different. The least frequent structures are "intransitive-main non-personal (No.3)" and "transitive active non-personal (No.5)". As a whole, Persian has various means and structures to translate English passive structures. The frequency of each of these structures is different and seems to depend on the translator's style and his mastery over the two languages. It is also obvious that translators prefer to use the Persian active structure rather than the passive one to translate English passive sentences.

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A Study on Features of Zhu Ziqing's Prose and Its Translation—With Special Reference to His *Hetang Yuese*

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Abstract—As a prominent prose writer in modern Chinese literature, Zhu Ziqing is known for his touching and thought-provoking language. The words and expressions he chooses are both vivid and succinct, bringing readers aesthetic feelings. In order to successfully represent the aesthetic values in the English version, a translator needs to do a deep-going research into the artistic features in his prose works and tries to reproduce them in the version so as to realize the ultimate goal of prose translation—similarity in spirit.

Index Terms—Zhu Ziqing, prose translation, artistic features, similarity in spirit

I. INTRODUCTION

Zhu Ziqing (1898-1948) is an outstanding Chinese prose writer as well as a famous poet, whose style of writing is characterized by a kind of simple and profound beauty. He succeeds in achieving a fusion of the conveyance of feelings with the description of scenery, producing artistic conceptions full of poetic charm and leading the reader into an artistic realm. Rich in vivid images, his lyric prose can inspire the reader with fertile association and imagination. When it comes to translating his prose works into English, a translator should bear it in mind that the original aesthetic values need to be represented in the English version. Prose translation, as one kind of translation, also aims at making sure "the readers of a translated text should be able to comprehend it to the point that they can conceive of how the original readers of the text must have understood and appreciated it" or "the readers of a translated text should be able to understand and appreciate it in essentially the same manner as the original readers did" (Nida, 1993, p.118). To realize this goal, the first step taken by a translator is to fully appreciate the beauty and analyze the features of Zhu's prose works.

II. ZHU'S LYRIC PROSE LANGUAGE

Zhu Ziqing's lyric prose successfully fulfils the function of conveying the meaning and expressing the feeling, which is the soul of the aesthetic features in his prose. The reason why his prose can bring readers such aesthetic feelings is none other than his fresh and natural language that is novel, poetic and musical.

A. Novel

The vividness of language should take novelty as the premise. Every new object needs to be expressed in a new language form. It is impossible to vividly show the ever-changing characters of objects if one always follows what other people say. Zhu Ziqing is apt at tapping the treasure of language and bold to innovate in prose language. He prefers non-westernized spoken language, however, he does not absolutely reject westernization. Actually, he selectively introduces some westernized elements into his prose language so as to increase a sense of freshness.

1. A Suffix "着"

In imitation of the English suffix, he makes use of the verbal suffix "着" in Chinese to achieve two goals: one is to change the part of speech; the other is to show the continuous movement of the object described. In this way, he not only increases the novelty of language but also adds poetic flavor to his lyric prose. For Example:

但是河中<u>眩晕着</u>的灯光，<u>纵横着</u>的画舫，<u>悠扬着</u>的笛韵，夹着那吱吱的胡琴声，终于使我们认识绿如茵陈酒的秦淮水了。

But the ***glimmering*** lantern lights, the pleasure-boats ***floating*** here and there and the melodies played on flutes and fiddles gradually showed us that the water of the Qinhuai was as green as artemisia wine.

Here, the Chinese words "眩晕", "纵横" and "悠扬" are adjectives. The writer changes them into verbs by adding the verbal suffix "着" behind them to show the continuous action. While in the English versions, the translator adopts different ways of expression to represent this feature. Both the adverb "always" and the present participles like "glimmering" and "floating" indicate the continuous state of the things described. If "悠扬着的笛韵" is translated into "…and the mellifluous notes *flowing* from flutes and fiddles", the effect would be much better.

2. Syntactical Inversion

Unusual sentence patterns can sometimes be especially forceful and elegant. Normally a sentence moves from subject to verb to complement, but inversion is a departure from the customary arrangement of words. To enliven and vary the writing style, Zhu Ziqing sometimes applies the English inversion to his prose writings. On the one hand, the inverted word or phrase gets greater emphasis than it did when buried in the normal position of the sentence. On the other hand, the inversion can contribute to a pleasing variety in sentence structure. For example:

山上不但可以看山，还可以看谷，稀稀疏疏错错落落的房舍，仿佛有鸡鸣犬吠的声音，<u>在山肚里，在山脚下</u>。
The author's version:

You can catch sight of mountain range as well as mountain valley. There seems to be the crowing of cocks and the barking of dogs coming out from the sparsely scattered houses, ***on the hillside or at the foot of the hill***.

According to the usual practice of modern Chinese, the adverbial is often placed before the predicate. But Zhu Ziqing purposefully inverts it after the predicate. As the adverbial, the prepositional structure "在山肚里，在山脚下" is found after the predicate. The inverted sentences sound quite natural and graceful, free from any kind of affectation. The versions just follow the English way of expression with few alterations.

B. Poetic

Yu Dafu, a modern Chinese short story writer and poet, praised Zhu's prose for a kind of poetic charm permeating through it. This is really true. The beauty of his lyric prose lies in its poetic flavor as well as the vivid description of scenery. Language should be appropriately embellished, but this does not contradict with the simplicity of style. One couplet frequently quoted reads like this: ("欲把西湖比西子，淡妆浓抹总相宜。")

The West Lake looks like the fair lady at her best,
Whether she is richly adorned or plainly dressed.

Either "richly adorned" or "plainly dressed" language will increase the vividness of prose, as long as it is properly handled. Zhu Ziqing attaches much importance to the artistic expressiveness of language. The following aspects may contribute to a better appreciation of his poetic language.

1. Active Verbs

In the preface to his anthology called *Miscellany of Europe*, he says the following words: "It is the most difficult to arrange the Chinese sentence patterns with the characters '是' (*be*), '有' (*have* or *has*), and '在' (*in*, *at*…). To show the positional relations among the objects, it is hard to avoid using these three patterns. But who would be patient with the stereotyped all the time? It would be unbearably oppressive since all these patterns show a static state. So I try every means to omit these three disgusting characters. Of course I would be happier to turn something static into dynamic, e.g. 'A child appeared from under his left arm.' " He earnestly practices what he himself advocates.

In his lyric prose, one has no difficulty finding many elaborately chosen verbs. Verbs are the liveliest and the most active factor in language, which can immediately enliven the things described and add vividness to them. If verbs are properly selected to depict the static scenery, the original static things will be animated with action and will look more lifelike so as to inspire the reader's association and increase his interest.

天黑时，我躺在床上，他便伶伶俐俐地从我身上<u>跨过</u>，从我脚边<u>飞去</u>了。等我睁开眼和太阳再见，这又算<u>溜走</u>了一日。但是新来的日子的影儿又开始在叹息里<u>闪过</u>了。(《匆匆》)

In the evening, as I lie in bed, he ***strides over*** my body, ***glides past*** my feet, in his agile way. The moment I open my eyes and meet the sun again, one whole day ***has gone***. But the new day begins to ***flash past*** in the sigh. (Tr. Zhu Chunshen)

The image of time, described by the writer, is continuously moving: it nimbly "跨过", briskly "飞去", quietly "溜走", and rapidly "闪过". Similarly, the four active verbs "stride over", "glide past", "go" and "flash past" in the English version vividly show the fleeting feature of time, impressing the lively portrayal of time upon the reader. It seems that he can hear the light footsteps of time.

2. Metaphorical Expressions

Newmark (2001) argues that good writers use metaphors to help the reader to gain a more accurate insight, both physical and emotional, into a character or a situation. Zhu Ziqing is quite adept at handling various rhetorical devices to present the objects vividly before the reader and evoke his rich imagination. Among them, metaphor in his lyric prose helps to create the vivid images and increase the poetic flavor of his language. For example:

春天象<u>刚落地的娃娃</u>，从头到脚都是新的，它生长着。
春天象<u>小姑娘</u>，花枝招展的，笑着，走着。
春天象<u>健壮的青年</u>，有铁一般的胳膊和腰脚，他领着我们上前去。(《春》)
The author's version is as follows:

Spring is like ***a newly born baby***, gradually developing itself.
Spring is like ***a girl*** gorgeously dressed, smiling and walking.
Spring is like ***a robust young man*** with muscles of iron, leading us forward.

His work entitled *Spring* is praised to be a prose poem. Zhu Ziqing uses metaphor throughout this famous writing. Zheng (2002) believes that while dealing with rhetorics like metaphors, translators are expected to retain the original

metaphors in the version as long as the target readers can understand them, although there are no such metaphors in the receptor language. In these three parallel sentences, spring is first compared to "a newly born baby" to show its exuberant vitality, then it is likened to "a girl", showing its beauty and liveliness and finally it is compared to "a robust young man" implying its youthful spirit. All these three metaphors are very appropriate because they leave readers vivid and concrete images and help them to feel spring in a progressive way.

In short, the proper use of both active verbs and metaphorical expressions can add vividness and vitality to the objects described, formulate a concentrated imaginative awareness of experience, and provoke a specific emotional response on the part of the reader, thus helping to create poetic flavor or charm in Zhu's lyric prose writings.

C. Musical

Literary language is featured by the beauty of sound or musicality, for example, there are quite a lot of words containing two syllables in modern Chinese, among which reduplicated words accounts for a large proportion (Lin, 2002). These words have strong rhythm producing harmonious sounds. Therefore, when doing Chinese-English translation, a translator should spare no efforts to represent the original beauty in sound in the English version. Musicality is another striking artistic feature of Zhu Ziqing's lyric prose. He strives for the beauty of harmonious sounds, and this can be seen from his frequent exercise of reduplicated words in most of his lyric prose. Besides, one can easily find many parallel structures in Zhu's lyric prose. They help to create the relatively balanced intonation and hence produce a kind of symmetrical beauty in sound. The following part will focus on the discussion of the two aspects.

1. Reduplication

One of the most remarkable stylistic features of Zhu's lyric prose lies in the frequent use of reduplication or reduplicated words. Such words greatly enhance the musicality of his prose language. Reduplication is peculiar to the Chinese spoken language. Zhu brings this trait into full play in his prose works.

早上我起来的时候，小屋里射进两三方<u>斜斜</u>的太阳。太阳他有脚啊，<u>轻轻悄悄</u>地挪移了；我也<u>茫茫然</u>跟着旋转。(《匆匆》)

Version I:

When I get up in the morning, the ***slanting*** sun casts two or three squarish patches of light into my small room. The sun has feet too, edging away ***softly and stealthily***. And ***without knowing it***, I am already caught in its revolution. (Tr. Zhang Peiji)

Version II:

When I get up in the morning, the ***slanting*** sun marks its presence in my small room in two or three oblongs. The sun has feet, look, he is treading on, ***lightly and furtively***; and I am caught, ***blankly***, in his revolution. (Tr. Zhu Chunshen)

In this example Zhu Ziqing uses three reduplicated words like "斜斜", "轻轻悄悄"and "茫茫然". The use of these words helps the reader see and hear the elapse of time. Obviously, both the translators pay attention to this feature. "轻轻悄悄" is respectively rendered into adverbs "softly and stealthily" in Version I and "lightly and furtively" in Version II. By comparison, the alliteration in the former is much better than the two adverbs combined together in the latter as it reproduces the original musicality in a way conforming to the English expression. Both the two translators adopt free translation to deal with "茫茫然", for it is rendered into a prepositional phrase "without knowing it" in Version I and an adverb "blankly" in Version II.

2. Parallel Structure

Strictly speaking, parallel structure can first give the reader visual enjoyment because of its regular form. But it can bring forth audio pleasure because of the inherent rhythm as well. Let us look at some examples:

(1) 燕子去了，<u>有再来的时候</u>；杨柳枯了，<u>有再青的时候</u>；桃花谢了，<u>有再开的时候</u>。(《匆匆》)

Swallows may have gone, ***but there is a time of*** return; willow trees may have died back, ***but there is a time of*** regreening; peach blossoms may have fallen, but they will bloom again. (Tr. Zhu Chunshen)

The original triple parallelism is full of strong vigor with regular rhythms. The English version employs the corresponding sentence patterns to retain this feature. But to avoid monotony caused by undue repetition, the translator makes a little change in the final sentence instead of saying "but there is a time of reblooming."

(2) 于是——<u>洗手的时候，日子从水盆里过去</u>；<u>吃饭的时候，日子从饭碗里过去</u>；<u>默默时，便从凝然的双眼前过去</u>。(Ibid)

Thus the day flows away through the sink ***when I*** wash my hands; vanishes in the rice bowl ***when I*** have my meal; passes away quietly before the fixed gaze of my eyes ***when I*** am lost in reverie. (Tr. Zhang Peiji)

The same sentence patterns are arranged in a streamline, so it seems as if the reader could see the flow of time. Most of the clauses are short, giving him a feeling of liveliness. The syntactical structure is quite simple with few changes, just like a continuously flowing river. The musicality lies in the smoothness of sentence rather than the cadence of syllables. The writer uses the distinct colloquial expressions to reveal the poetic charm freely. The rhythm of language coincides with the anxious state of mind in a natural way. In the version, the repetitive word "过去" of the original is respectively rendered into "flow away", "vanish" and "pass away" according to different contexts.

The above-mentioned aspects are general features of Zhu's lyric prose. As for one specific essay, some other characters will appear. In the following part, the author will further study the translation of his lyric prose by comparing

two versions of his famous work.

III.   ANALYSIS AND COMPARISON OF TWO ENGLISH VERSIONS OF ZHU'S *HETANG YUESE*

Hetang Yuese (*Moonlight over the Lotus Pond*), as one of Zhu's representative prose writings, enjoys a high reputation in modern Chinese prose. What this lyric prose expresses is the writer's subtle feelings through the minute description of the lotus pond in the moonlight. This prose writing is composed in a graceful way like a slim girl with elegant bearing, or a whiff of cool breeze pleasing to our heart. Zhu Ziqing successfully blends his inner feeling with the natural setting. At the same time, his artistic techniques also contribute to adding poetic flavor. He gives full play to his fantastic imagination to create vivid and lively images by choosing appropriate verbs and adjectives, applying original rhetorical devices and so on. Both the artistic appeal contained and the images described in this essay are represented through its language. It is the poetic language that gives the reader aesthetic feelings.

To translate such elegant writing into idiomatic English, it is impossible for a translator to do without being artistically accomplished and capable of handling the target language. Besides, as Zhang (1987) says, it is possible for a translator to represent the original artistic features. However, because there are big differences between the two languages, the words, sentence patterns and rhetorics may not be fully transplanted into the version, but at least part of them can be done. In this part, the author intends to discuss how to convey the original aesthetic properties from different aspects by comparing Version I by Zhu Chunshen with Version II by Wang Jiaosheng. The two translators enjoy high reputation in literary translation. Either version has its strong points in conveying meaning and expressing feeling.

A.   Choice of Words

Hetang Yuese is usually seen as a wash painting full of freshness and elegance. We must admit that some nouns, verbs and adjectives in this prose play a decisive role in creating vivid images. Therefore, "figurative meaning is a frequent technique to attract attention" (Nida, 2001, p. 167). In translation, the words chosen should not only be equivalent to those in the source text in semantic meaning but also reflect the original style.

(1) 沿着荷塘，是一条<u>曲折的</u>小煤屑路。这是一条幽僻的路；白天也少人走，夜晚更加寂寞。荷塘四面，长着许多树，<u>蓊蓊郁郁</u>的。没有月光的晚上，这路上阴森森的，有些怕人。今晚却很好，虽然月光也还是<u>淡淡的</u>。

Version I:

Alongside the Lotus Pond ***runs*** a small cinder footpath. It is peaceful and secluded here, a place not frequented by pedestrians even in the daytime; now at night, it looks more solitary, in a ***lush, shady ambience*** of trees all round the pond. The foliage, which, in a moonless night, would loom somewhat frighteningly dark, looks very nice tonight, although the moonlight is not more than ***a thin, grayish veil***.

Version II:

A path paved with coal-dust ***zigzags*** along the lotus pond, so secluded as to be little frequented in the daytime, to say nothing of its loneliness at night. Around the pond grows ***a profusion of luxuriant*** trees. On moonless nights, the place has a gloomy, somewhat forbidding appearance. But on this peculiar evening, it had a cheerful outlook, though the moon was ***pale***.

The original adjective "曲折的" is rendered into verbs "run" and "zigzag" respectively. The latter is better, for it vividly describes the appearance of the path. The reduplicated word "蓊蓊郁郁" is rendered into "a lush, shady ambience" in Version I. On the one hand, the translator adopts liberal translation to reproduce the original meaning; on the other hand, the repeated sound /sh/ implies that there are many trees, and the writer's melancholy mood is exposed as well. In Wang's version, the phrase "a profusion of luxuriant trees" only reproduces the original meaning accurately, but its aesthetic effect is not as strong as that of Zhu's version. Finally, "淡淡的" is translated into "a thin, grayish veil" in Version I, which is actually a wonderful metaphor. The adjectives "thin, grayish" together with the noun "veil" bring the readers visual enjoyment as if they could view the pale moon through a thin veil. While in Version II, "the moon was pale" is no more than a narrative statement, lacking poetic flavor.

(2) 月光如流水一般，静静地<u>泻</u>在这一片叶子和花上。薄薄的青雾<u>浮起</u>在荷塘里。叶子和花仿佛在牛乳中<u>洗</u>过一样，又象<u>笼</u>着轻纱的梦。

Version I:

The moon ***sheds*** her liquid light silently ***over*** the leaves and flowers, which, in the ***floating*** transparency of a bluish haze from the pond, look as if they had just been ***bathed*** in milk, or like a dream ***wrapped*** in a gauzy hood.

Version II:

Moonlight was ***flowing*** quietly like a stream ***down*** to the leaves and flowers. A light mist ***overspread*** the lotus pond. Leaf and flower seemed ***washed*** in milk.

In this example, the original four verbs are properly used to effectively express the writer's slight joy. In Version I the word "shed" has to do with both light and water, and the connotation of it is richer than that of "flow" in Version II. "浮起" is rendered into the present participle "floating", which shows the continuous action while the word "overspread" fails to reveal the dynamic state of mist. If something is described as bathed in light or moonlight, this really means that light makes it look pleasant or attractive. "Bathe" used together with "milk" gives more prominence to the cleanness of

lotus flowers than the word "wash". Finally, the verb "wrap" points out the misty and obscure state of this specific scene. What is more, "流水", "青雾", "轻纱" are respectively translated into "liquid light", "bluish haze" and "gauzy hood" in Version I so that the original beauty of haziness can be further perceived by the TL readers. Therefore, Version I better transfers the original beauty in sense by seeking the most suitable words.

Among the adjectives, reduplicated words occupy a large proportion. The frequent use of reduplicated words is one of the striking stylistic features in *Hetang Yuese*, which shows Zhu's pursuit of musicality in his works. There are altogether 26 reduplicated words appearing in this essay, among which some like "田田" and "亭亭" are even borrowed from the Chinese classic poetry. These words are conductive to producing cadenced rhythm.

(3) 曲曲折折的荷塘上面，弥望的是田田的叶子，叶子出水很高，像亭亭的舞女的裙。

Version I:

All over this ***winding*** stretch of ***water***, ***what*** meets the eye is ***a silken field of leaves***, reaching rather high above the surface, like the skirts of dancing girls ***in all their grace***.

Version II:

On the ***uneven*** surface of the pond, all one could see was ***a mass of*** leaves, all interlaced and shooting high above the water like the skirts of ***slim*** dancing girls.

In the original sentence appear three reduplicated words. Whether they are successfully translated is the key to the translation of the whole sentence. In Version I, the translator resorts to the English alliteration "winding…water, what…" to obtain the similar effect; "田田" is translated into "a silken field" with a view to catching tactile sensation; "亭亭" into a prepositional phrase "in all their grace" from the perspective of semantic meaning. Besides, there also exists another group of alliteration sounds formed by the words "*s*tretch", "*s*ilken", "*s*urface" and "*s*kirts". In Version II, the three reduplicated words in the original are replaced by "uneven, mass, slim", which the author thinks fail to reproduce the original beauty in sound. There is no denying that it is challenging for a translator to make "the choice of a suitable equivalent" (Baker, 2000, p. 18) in the version.

B.   Rhetorical Devices

Almost all the images created in this prose writing embody the writer's rich imagination. The novel rhetorical devices like metaphor and personification play a positive role in giving a quiet and beautiful view of the lotus pond at night. At the same time, rhetorical devices contribute to increasing poetic charm of the whole work by highlighting the images of what the writer describes. For example:

(1) 层层的叶子中间，零星地点缀着些白花，有袅娜地开着的；有羞涩地打着朵的；正如一粒粒的明珠，又如碧天里的星星，又如刚出浴的美人。

Version I:

Here and there, layers of leaves are dotted with white lotus blossoms, ***some in demure bloom***, ***others in shy bud***, ***like scattering pearls, or twinkling stars, or beauties just out of the bath***.

Version II:

The leaves were dotted in between the layers with white flowers, ***some blooming gracefully***; ***others, as if bashfully, still in bud***. They were ***like bright pearls and stars in an azure sky***.

In this example, Zhu Ziqing uses both simile and personification to depict lotus flowers in great detail, as they are the most indispensable part of the pond. The flowers, as described by him, are endowed with human qualities. White flowers symbolize purity and reflect the writer's inner world. In Version I, the translator first uses a parallel structure "some in demure bloom, others in shy bud", in which the adjectives "demure" and "shy" are effective in likening flowers to charming young ladies; what is more, the similes "like scattering pearls, or twinkling stars, or beauties just out of the bath" faithfully reproduce the postures of lotus flowers, bringing aesthetic feelings to the readers and arousing their association and imagination. The merit in Version II lies in the use of the verb "bloom" together with two adverbs "gracefully" and "bashfully" so that the flowers are full of dynamic beauty. However, as the original similes are simply rendered into "like bright pearls and stars in an azure sky", the original appeal gets weakened to some degree.

When using metaphor to describe scenery, Zhu Ziqing does not content himself with the display of visual image. In this essay, he uses another important rhetorical device—synaesthesia (different sensations mutually linked up by the writer when he describes scenery, with one sensation compared to another). Actually, this is an odd metaphor provoked by artistic association. He tends to endow the silent scene with sounds, so the reader may get a strange experience of what he depicts.

(2)微风过处，送来缕缕清香，仿佛远处高楼上渺茫的歌声似的。

Version I: A breeze stirs, sending over breaths of fragrance, ***like faint singing drifting from a distant building***.

Version II: Their subtle fragrance was wafted by the passing breeze, ***in whiffs airy as the notes of a song coming faintly from some distant tower***.

(3) 塘中的月色并不均匀，但光与影有着和谐的旋律，如梵婀玲上奏着的名曲。

Version I: The moonlight is not spread evenly over the pond, but rather in a harmonious rhythm of light and shade, ***like a famous melody played on a violin***.

Version II: Uneven as was the moonlight over the pond, there was a harmony between light and shade, ***rhythmic as a***

well-known melody played on the violin.

In example (2), the sense of smell is compared to the sense of hearing because breaths of fragrance and indistinct singing have faintness in common; in example (3), the visual sense is also compared to the sense of hearing because harmony is seen as the resemblance between "light" mingled with "shade" and "a famous melody played on the violin." Therefore, when the reader appreciates the beautiful scene of lotus pond, it seems as if he could hear the faint singing or the melodious notes from the violin. Now let us see how the two translators deal with this metaphor respectively.

Both the translators use simile with "*as…*" or "*like…*" to show the similarity between the tenor and the vehicle. The author prefers Version II because the two tenors "fragrance" and "harmony" are highlighted while the first version seems to center on other things like "breeze" or "moonlight". In addition, the adjective phrases "airy as…" and "rhythmic as …" function as the complements, which clearly point out the similarities between different sensations. Therefore, the TL readership can be led into a more secluded realm, so it is easy for them to realize the implication the writer intends to transmit. In Version I, the clauses are loosely organized and vague in meaning. One might as well change "played" into "being played". It can be regarded as the continuous tense of passive voice "be played" or the passive voice of the gerund "playing". In this way, Version II will better fit in with the context and provide audio enjoyment to TL readership.

C.   Structural Characters

The structural characters in this essay are reflected in syntactical parallelism and "repetition of words or phrases for emphasis (Nida, 2001, p. 211). Chinese and English have much in common in this aspect, that is, the aesthetic features can be achieved through the combination of sound, form and sense. The repetitive structures containing the variable components can give emphasis to the relationship between parallel words. This relationship can be equilibrium or contrast. The syntactical parallelism effectively enhances a sense of rhythm, which is the essence of musicality. Almost all the parallel sentences in this essay are either the writer's direct comment on something or his inner soliloquy. For example:

(1) 我爱热闹，也爱冷静；爱群居，也爱独处。像今晚上，一个人在这苍茫的月下，什么都可以想，什么都可以不想，便觉是个自由的人。白天里一定要做的事，一定要说的话，现在都可不理。(《荷塘月色》)

I like ***a serene and peaceful life***, as much as ***a busy and active one***; I like ***being in solitude***, as much as ***in company***. As it is tonight, basking in a misty moonshine all by myself, I feel I am a free man, free to ***think of anything*, *or of nothing***. All that one is ***obliged to do*, o*r to say***, in the daytime, can be very well cast aside now. (Tr. Zhu Chunshen)

This paragraph is strikingly featured by the frequent use of parallel structure, by which the writer can easily express his contradictory psychology and then give prominence to his strong desire for a free, serene and happy life. What impresses the reader most is the symmetrical form of parallel structures together with the accompanying accented rhythms. The translator takes this characteristic into full consideration by adopting several well-balanced structures like "a serene and peaceful life" and "a busy and active one", "in solitude" and "in company", "think of anything" and "or (think) of nothing", etc., with a view to preserving the beauty of coherence and equilibrium as well as the original musicality.

(2) 这时候最热闹的，要数树上的蝉声和水里的蛙声；但热闹是它们的，我什么也没有。

Version I:

The most lively creatures here, for the moment, must be ***the cicadas in the trees*** and ***the frogs in the pond***. But the liveliness is theirs, I have nothing.

Version II:

At this moment, most lively were ***the cicadas chirping in the trees*** and ***the frogs croaking under the water***. But theirs was all the merry-making, in which I did not have the least share.

In the original text, the noise from cicadas and frogs set off the serenity of the surroundings and with the background noise, the writer's depressed mood is conspicuous to be perceived by the reader. As to this partial parallel structure, both translators copy the form but the effects are quite different. In Version II, the two onomatopoeias "chirp" and "croak" in the parallel structures vividly reproduce the noise made by cicadas and frogs. Besides, the participial form of the two words suggests the continuity of noise. Compared with Version II, the first version fails to transmit the original meaning though it retains the form of the source text.

Besides parallel structure, inversion can be viewed as another structural character though it is not as remarkable as the former in this prose writing. It can bring the reader some freshness after he reads many a normal sentences. A pleasing variety in sentence structure can be achieved by means of inversion. What is more, the inversion may promote greater continuity between sentences. For example:

(3) 树梢上隐隐约约的是一带远山，只有些大意罢了。树缝里也漏着一两点路灯光，没精打采的，是渴睡人的眼。

Version I:

Over the trees appear some distant mountains, but merely in ***sketchy silhouette***. Through the branches are also a couple of lamps, ***as listless as sleepy eyes***.

Version II:

Distant hills ***loomed*** above the treetops in dim outline. Here and there, a few rays from street-lamps filtered through

the trees, *listless as the eyes of one who is dozing*.

The reason why the writer chooses inversion lies in that both subjects in the two sentences "远山" and "路灯光" have their respective post modifiers. In this way, the sentence will look more compact. The author prefers Version I because it preserves the original sentence pattern. And the inverted sentence indeed enables the semantic coherence between the clauses. Seen from the perspective of coherence and continuity, Version II is inferior to Version I.

It is clear that each version has its own merits and demerits in different aspects. But on the whole, the author believes Zhu's version is better than Wang's. The former succeeds in reproducing the original artistic conceptions. It seems as if the TL readers are reading an idiomatic English essay describing scenery. Like the original text, the version by Zhu Chunshen is provided with aesthetic values: the original language beauty in sense, form and sound is represented through proper wording and phrasing, rhetorical devices and sentence patterns, successfully reproducing the original artistic conceptions. What impresses the author most is that Zhu Chunshen perfectly reproduces the original musicality in the version, which sets a good example in handling this problem in the translation of lyric prose.

IV. HOW TO ACHIEVE DESIRABLE ARTISTIC EFFECTS IN PROSE TRANSLATION

With regard to the translation of lyric prose, the translator should bear in mind how to achieve the desirable artistic effects in the translated text besides transferring the original meaning. Only when the artistic effects are reproduced can a translation attain the stage of aesthetic appreciation. The translator may take "spiritual similarity" as his aesthetic pursuit when translating Chinese lyric prose into English. This term advocated by the famous Chinese translator Fu Lei means conveying the original artistic conceptions in the target language without having to stick rigidly to the original linguistic form.

The notion of "spiritual similarity" or "conveying spirit" stresses the transfer of the original flavor, just as what Mao Dun, a 20th century Chinese novelist, cultural critic, and journalist says, "If the version is not able to keep the 'romantic charm' contained in the original, much of the moving power will evidently be lost." A translator should not content himself with such translations as being literally accurate while artistically lifeless. The above English version by Zhu Chunshen is fully justified in doing so. The translator breaks the framework of the original linguistic form and reorganizes the sentence structure, thus achieving spiritual similarity by reproducing the artistic conceptions and the content of the original. Let us analyze the above-mentioned example from this perspective:

月光如流水一般，静静地泻在这一片叶子和花上。薄薄的青雾浮起在荷塘里。叶子和花仿佛在牛乳中洗过一样，又象笼着轻纱的梦。

The moon sheds her liquid light silently over the leaves and flowers, *which*, in the floating transparency of a bluish haze from the pond, look as if they had just been bathed in milk, or like a dream wrapped in a gauzy hood.

The translator does not copy the original sentence pattern in a mechanical way. In order to make the version sound like fluent and idiomatic English, he renders the original three sentences into a long sentence with an attributive clause, embodying hypotaxis—the characteristic feature of English. In this way, the English version becomes more compact and coherent. And in the above discussion, the choice of words in this English version has been fully analyzed. Thus, not only is the original meaning represented completely, but also the soft tone and the hazy atmosphere are conveyed to the TL readers.

However, "spiritual similarity" as the end-result of the translation of lyric prose does not mean that the translator is entitled to give no consideration to formal similarity. It cannot be denied that spiritual similarity is based on formal similarity. Without similarity in form, spiritual similarity will certainly be deprived of its basis. An ideal translated text is usually thought to be adequate both in form and in spirit, but as far as the translation of lyric prose is concerned, especially when the two aspects cannot be realized at the same time, the translator has to put more stress on similarity in spirit than similarity in form. As compared with the former, the latter is only of secondary importance.

In pursuit of "spiritual similarity", the author has a try at translating one paragraph in *Hetang Yuese*:

曲曲折折的荷塘上面，弥望的是田田的叶子，叶子出水很高，像亭亭的舞女的裙。层层的叶子中间，零星地点缀着些白花，有袅娜地开着的；有羞涩地打着朵的；正如一粒粒的明珠，又如碧天里的星星，又如刚出浴的美人。微风过处，送来缕缕清香，仿佛远处高楼上渺茫的歌声似的。这时候叶子和花也有一丝的颤动，像闪电般，霎时传过荷塘的那边去了。叶子本是肩并肩密密的挨着，这便宛然有了一道凝碧的波痕。叶子底下是脉脉的流水，遮住了，不能见一些颜色；而叶子却更见风致了。

As far as one could see, the pond with tortuous margins was overspread with a mass of leaves, which rose high above the water like the skirts of slim dancing girls. And layers of leaves were starred with white lotus flowers, some gracefully open, others bashfully in bud, like sparkling pearls, stars in an azure sky, or beauties just out of the bath. A breeze carried with it breaths of fragrance, like the faint singing drifting from some distant tower. At this moment, a quiver ran through the leaves and flowers, which reached to the far end of the pond with lightening speed. This caused a wave of emerald among the leaves that had rubbed shoulders with each other. Under them was the softly running water, hidden from sight, with its color invisible, but the leaves looked more graceful than ever before.

V. CONCLUSION

Zhu Ziqing's prose works are characterized by the artistic values. The aesthetic values in his prose works are created by the writer and realized through the reader's aesthetic experience. The translation of lyric prose is actually a process of reproducing the original artistic features. To fully represent the original aesthetic values in the target language, a translator has to play the double role of both "reader" and "writer". Through the comparative study of two English versions of his famous *Hetang Yuese*, it is concluded that "similarity in spirit" can be viewed as the aesthetic pursuit of a translator as well as the end-result of the translation of lyric prose. The translator does not have to strictly adhere to the original linguistic form. He is, however, supposed to understand the original artistic features thoroughly, and then take full advantage of the target language to reproduce the language techniques and artistic conceptions of the original.

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Honor as a Barrier in Adapting Technology in Language Learning Context in Oman

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Abstract—This study investigated a barrier to adopting technology in a language learning context among Omani College students. The barrier examined was honor – to see if it affected female usage of the internet. The study used a questionnaire, complemented by semi-structured interviews with teachers and students at Nizwa College of Technology, Sultanate of Oman who volunteered to participate in the study. The results of the questionnaire were quantified, while the interviews augmented the results and provided relevant insights. The study found a gender divide regarding computer usage: parents consider the computer and the Internet suitable for the male members of the family but not for the female members; female students are discouraged from using the Internet, particularly instant messaging and social network sites such as Facebook due to fear of gossip and potential harm to the family honor.

Index Terms—barrier, honor, Oman, internet, technology

I. Introduction

The introduction of computer technology and the Internet has had significant effects on second language teaching and learning in the Gulf States. In today's dynamic and fast moving world computer literacy has become an essential necessity for good job prospects in the region.

Little research has been done in reference to Arab learners and Oman who are living in a society, where traditions and cultural values centers on family ties, and where a new educational technology, such as the Internet, might be seen as a threat to the values that are core to the culture, therefore, leading to rejection or a strong resistance of non-standard classroom instruction such as the usage of the educational technology.

This paper explore if there is an interlinking effect between honor and female usage of the Internet, as well as their relation to the educational environment.

A. Arab Culture

Family is the center of Arabic life. From early childhood and continuing through adulthood, Arabs are taught to always honor and respect their family. Because the Arab family's favorable reputation is considered paramount, honor is protected and defended at all costs. Shame, especially against family, is avoided and criticism is taken very seriously because bad actions not only dishonor an individual but also an entire family unit. These elements or Arab culture are reflected in the behavior of its members ("Bedouin-Arab Families - Family Dynamics in Bedouin-Arab Society," 2000). Family authority is related to age and gender, which adheres to the typical patriarchal model ("Arab Cultural Awareness," 2006), and "the Arab family is the center of all loyalty, obligation and status of its members" (Guide to Arab Culture, 1999, pg. 17).

Whereas in Western society, the family is important, but not considered to be central to Western life. Honor and shame, although significant, are usually not viewed as key elements to the Western Family dynamic.

B. Cultural Impediments

In Arabic societies, customs and values center on family ties. More emphasis is placed on connections with people in the community than isolation and self-autonomy. As such, the "concept of privacy and trust are embedded in cultural practices" (Al-Ani & Redmiles, 2004, pg. 1.). Traditions and culture continues to be a strong influence on their daily practices. The older generation holds the greater power and the "younger generation typically defers to their wisdom" (Smith & Dunckley, 1998, pg. 1) and the younger generation has been molded into submissive members of the family group. In the case of Oman and the Nizwa College of Technology, the students are from rural and traditional areas of the Sultanate. Many are the first generation in their families to receive a higher education, and the first generation to have access to the Internet.

Since Arabic cultural values revolve around family ties, a new technology like the Internet has to overcome the "strangers in our midst" factor (Al-Ani & Redmiles, 2004, pg 1.). Otherwise, it might be perceived as a threat to the values that are core to the culture in which they exist and lead to rejection of the new technology as a result. According to Gunn (2003), interactions that take place through electronic channels lose none of the socio-cultural complexity and gender imbalance that exist within a society.

C. Internet Usage

In 2008, 465,000 people (total population 2,957,717) accessed the Internet in Oman, which ranked the country 110th in the world ("CIA World Fact Book," 2010). There are gender differences between female and male usage of the Internet in the Arab world. Because the Arab world follows a patriarchal model, "Arabic women in the Arab world need to cross bigger social and cultural hurdles in using the Internet" (Ning Shen & Shakir, 2009, pg. 4). Cultural traditions limit their communication with people outside their close family network. In fact, "children are taught and molded to be able to integrate into their immediate social environment "(Guide to Arab Culture, 1999, pg. 17). Using the Internet, email, chat room, online discussions, and online games, may all represent a strong conflict with traditional cultural and social gender from Arabic women. The Arab culture definitely "frowns at and does not condone some of the things people do on the web" (AKinyemi, 2003, pg. 3). Since the Arab society believes it is necessary for the women to "live up to these expectations" (Al-Khayyat, 1990, pg. 23), the women are closely supervised in an effort to preserve the family's honor.

According to Ayed (2005), the Internet plays an important role in shaping the political attitudes and culture among youth. The young generation in the Arab world are influenced by both Islamic and modern cultures (Solberg, 2002), which often do not stay in harmony. Even though the Arab youth are faced with these frequently-conflicting ideologies, "research about Internet usage in the United Arab Emirates has proven that they have kept firm ties to their cultural tradition "(Ning Shen & Shakir, 2009, pg. 5).

D. Parental Control

As mentioned earlier authority in Arab society is generally related to age and gender ("Arab Cultural Awareness," 2006). Male family members believe that any shame from which the Arabic family might suffer will most likely be caused by their female relates. As such, the males feel responsible for the females, and control them through their lives. Hence, parents and brothers might be afraid that the women of the family gossip. Since gossip mainly involves "shame and shameful behavior, fear of gossip may make parents spy on their children" (Al-Khayyat, 1990, p. 23). Since honor is the most important thing to Arab families, Arab's try to limit that their daughters are being talked about. As gossip operates as one of the "strongest forms of social control" (Al-Khayyat, 1990, p. 23) Gossip could occur using the Internet through instant messaging or email because interaction online is faceless and there are no restrictions of race, color, sex and religion. The interaction patterns cannot be easily controlled between the male and female students. Hence, the religious barriers collapse online!

Parents play an important role in their children's ICT adoption behavior because they will pay for the computers and connections. Thrane (2003) listed two main factors influencing the ICT adoption in teenagers' homes: economic affordability (whether the parents are able to afford the ICT) and utilities (whether the ICT can meet their needs or desires and offer children opportunities to learn at the same time). When the financial situation allows, parents are usually active in buying their children new ICTs if needed. In the case of the students at NCT, the majority is from rural and economically underdeveloped areas of Oman, and consequently has limited access to the Internet at home.

However, parental control in teenagers' ICT adoption and use is always complex and contradictory. New ICTs cause apprehension amongst parents for two main reasons: first for fear that their children will be spending too much time on these devices and less time with the family (Thrane, 2003), and second, for fear that their children will be exposed to all types of negative information and in appropriate (Tiemann, 2007; Ferran, 2008). These worries, in turn, may impel parents to rethink the adoption of ICTs (Ling & Yttri, 2002), or monitor and set rules on the use of these devices (Campbell, 2005).

II. RESEARCH METHODS

The purpose of this study was to find out why certain teachers, relatives and male student discourage female students from using the Internet. Methods of data collection included both quantitative and qualitative research methods such as questionnaires and interviews.

To compensate for the limitations of the survey method, semi-structured interviews were used to gather data. Interviewing is one of the most powerful tools used to understand people's points of view, beliefs and attitudes. This is because of its interactive nature, interviewing has many advantages over other types of data collection strategies (Best & Kahn, 1998). The interviews compliment the survey instrument by providing better understanding of contexts, as if offers solid descriptions and explanations for the quantitative data in the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

The questionnaire asked how their parents view the Internet, whether anyone such as their brothers, sisters or friends monitor their Internet usage and if anything negative has been said regarding the Internet in relation to their usage. Any kind of control of the usage of the Internet is an important factor that affects the adoption and usage of the Internet. For example, they were asked: "How do your parents view the Internet?"; "Do your parents/brothers/sisters check your emails and/or whom you are chatting with?"; "Has a teacher ever told you that the Internet can be harmful?" etc.

There were also open-ended questions in this part to help with further analysis, they are also asked to explain in their own worlds why they make those choices.

A. Questionnaire

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B. Interview

The purpose of the semi-structured, one-to-one interviews was to explore further, provide depth, or clarify points raised by the responses to the questionnaire. The interviews lasted approximately 10-15 minutes per subject and subjects were asked about item responses on the questionnaire which turned out to be crucial to the study.

C. Subjects

The student participants of the study are second and third semester students attending a two to four semester intensive foundation studies program in English.

The student participants in the present study are 20 students. The mean age of them is 18.7. The first language of all the student participants is Arabic. 12 of the student participants are boys and 8 are girls. All of the participants graduated from High School in one of the Omani governmental schools. The student participants are placed in one of 4 levels (pre-elementary, elementary, intermediate, and advanced) according to their placement scores. They are exposed to English 20 hours a week.

III. RESULTS

Question 1 received mixed responses from students on how their parents view the computer and how they view the Internet (Question 2). 65% of the female students said their parents don't want them to use a computer or the Internet and commented that "*our parents don't really know what a computer is or what it can do, so they don't trust us to use one.*" Whereas, 25% of the female students said that their parents thought it was a great intervention and useful for their studies. All the male students answered that their parents think it is useful for their studies, even though the parents might not know what a computer is.
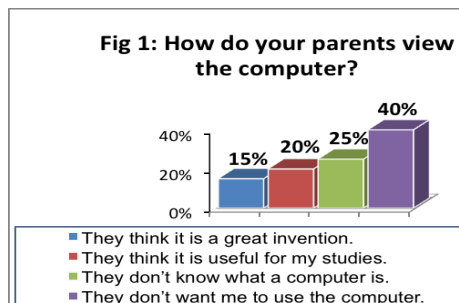

Figure 1: Female students responses

None of the male students said their parents/brother/sisters check on the students' emails and/or whom they are chatting with (Question 4). Whereas, 30% of the girls answered they do not really know if it happens, and 25% said it happens sometimes.
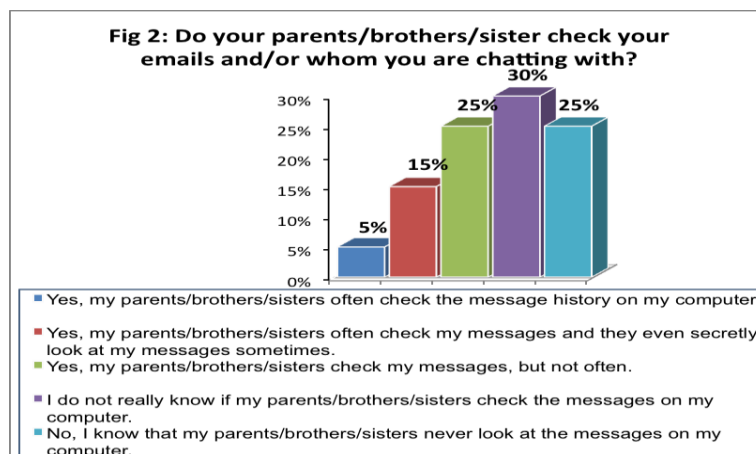

Figure 2: Female students responses

All of the students have at one time or another been told that the Internet can be harmful (Question 5) by a member of their family. Only 10% of the male students have been told that the Internet can be harmful by a friend (Question 6), whereas all the girls had one time or another been told that it can be harmful. However, what is striking is that 70% of the female students said Muslim teachers had told them that the Internet can be harmful (Question 7) and that they should not chat or interact online with male counterparts.
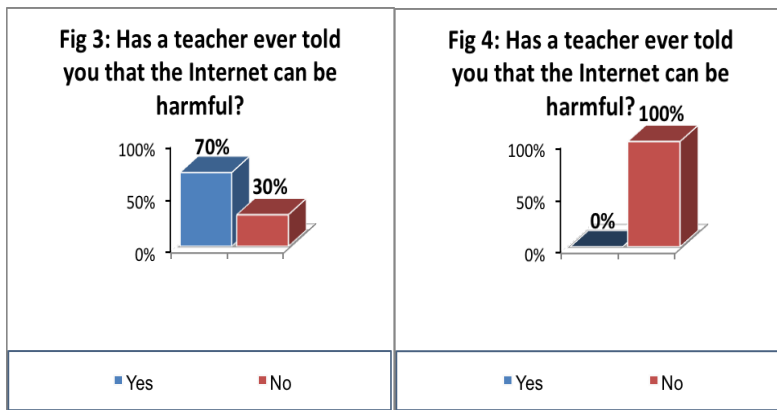

Figure 3: Female students responses   Figure 4: Male students responses

IV. DISCUSSION

The paper sets out to answer why certain teachers, relatives and male students discourage female students from using the Internet. This is imperative in understanding the underlying reasons why female students decide to adopt, or not, technology in a language learning context in Oman. This section will outline the 3 main reasons for the above.

In Oman, as in many countries in the Gulf region, cultural traditions limit female communication with people outside their own immediate family and the opposite gender. By and large it is "not suitable for non-family members of the opposite sex to approach for conversation or other casual encounters" (Guide to Arab Culture, 1999, p.22).

Hence, using the Internet represents a strong conflict, being seen as a threat to the core values that center around Arab families. Furthermore, religion is an important aspect of students perception of "self" (Canning & Bornstein, 2001) and they are expected to live up to certain expectations. The Arab teachers felt the need to protect the female students' students honor and from the shame that they think could occur if they interacted with the opposite gender online. In other words protecting and preserving Arab socio-cultural values (Akinyemi A, 2003).

The older generation holds a greater power, "they are considered a blessing in the family and their opinion is respected and valued" (Arabic Cultural Profile, 2008, pg.4). The younger generation typically "defers to their wisdom" (Smith & Dunckley, 1998, pg. 1) and as such many students listen to their teachers as "authority figures and trust their judgment" (Arab Cultural Awareness, 2006, pg 57). Furthermore, this was not only limited to the college, female students are also being discouraged by family members such as their older brothers, parents and figure heads in their neighborhood. The male members of the family in Oman feel responsible for the female members and want to protect and keep them innocent. Several female students pointed out that they are afraid of gossip; gossip could bring shame on themselves and their family, which has been documented in previous studies by Al-Ani & Redmiles (2004). This was also indicated in the present study in the interviews as a strong deterrent from using the Internet. Especially, since honor is the most important aspect in the Omani society and given that women in Arabic/Islamic cultures are expected to adhere to certain ways and be "supervised," these findings confirm to Al-Khayyat (1990) previous writings.

Even though, the Internet is accessible to most on their cell-phones, the female Omani youth has kept firm ties to their cultural traditions as Ning Shen and Shakir (2009) found of their counterparts in United Arab Emirates.

As the account presented above indicates, female students are facing many hurdles in utilizing the full benefits of ICT in an educational aspect: (i) cultural traditions still dictate dictates who female students should interact with in a traditional city such as Nizwa2; (ii) the Arab teachers feel a strong sense of protection of the female students; (iii) gossip is a huge discourager as it might bring shame on them and their family.

It should therefore be clear from the above discussion that traditional values are one of the main barriers in allowing female students the freedom to use the Internet.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper investigated the barrier of honor and female usage of the Internet. It showed that honor is a major barrier in adopting technology in a language learning setting among Omani College students, inside and outside the classroom.

Honor plays a major part in the female students' usage of the Internet. They are afraid that "people" might start to gossip if they are seen interacting with the opposite gender online. Several of the female students had been warned that the Internet will be harmful for them and their brothers, older sisters, and/or parents might check whom they are

communicating with online. Hence, many of the female students are discouraged from using the Internet and only use it sparingly or not at all.

The introduction of computer technology and specifically the Internet has had significant effects on communicating, teaching and learning in Middle East, but still faces many challenges. It provides an important medium for second language learners to communicate with native speakers in real situations, which is not always easily accessible in Oman, as well as improving their overall skills and learning more specifically about the target culture.

APPENDIX A STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

1. How do your parents view the computer? (Multiple Choice)
  ☐ They think it is a great invention.
  ☐ They think it is useful for my studies.
  ☐ They don't know what a computer is.
  ☐ They don't want me to use the computer. Why: _____
  ☐ I don't know
2. How do your parents view the Internet? (Multiple Choice)
  ☐ They think it is a great invention.
  ☐ They think it is useful for my studies.
  ☐ They think the Internet is a good way to connect with friends.
  ☐ They think the Internet is a good way to get to know new people.
  ☐ They don't know what the Internet is.
  ☐ They don't want me to use the Internet. Why: _____
  ☐ I don't know
3. Do your parents/brothers/sisters restrict or control your usage of the Internet? (Multiple choices)
  ☐ Yes, my parents have control over the monthly cost of my Internet access.
  ☐ Yes, my family members control whom I contact on the Internet in order that I avoid bad influences.
  ☐ Yes, my parents control how long I can use the Internet to ensure that I spend enough time on my studies.
  ☐ No, they don't control my use of the Internet at all.
  ☐ List any other reason(s) why your parents control your use of the Internet.
  _____
4. Do your parents/brothers/sister check your emails and/or whom you are chatting with?
  ☐ Yes, my parents/brothers/sister often check the message history on my computer.
  ☐ Yes, my parents/brothers/sisters often check my messages and they even secretly look at my messages sometimes.
  ☐ Yes, my parents/brothers/sisters check my messages, but not often.
  ☐ I do not really know if my parents/brothers/sisters check the messages on my computer.
  ☐ No, I know that my parents/brothers/sisters never look at the messages on my computer.
5. Has a family member ever told you that the Internet can be harmful?
  ☐ Yes
  ☐ No
  ☐ If yes, what was the reason:_____
6. Has a friend ever told you that the Internet can be harmful?
  ☐ Yes
  ☐ No
  ☐ If yes, what was the reason:_____ _____
7. Has a teacher ever told you that the Internet can be harmful?
  ☐ Yes
  ☐ No
  ☐ If yes, what was the reason:_____

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The Quest for Resolving Second Language Teaching Dilemma: A Review of the Proposed Solutions during the Last Two Decades

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Abstract—This paper intends to address the issue of Second Language Teaching (SLT) Dilemma termed by Danesi (2003). It traces the major scholastic trends to this challenging dilemma in the area of SLT during the past two decades. The study gives a classified overview of two main theoretical trends to resolve this Dilemma. One theoretical trend expresses an ethno-culturally-oriented methodological reaction which focuses on the evolving perspectives on language teaching methods and approaches after the emergence of post-method era. With regard to this trend, the researcher particularly focuses on its two main responses to the SLT Dilemma chronologically listed as: Kumaravadivelu's (1994) "post-method pedagogy" and Larsen-Freeman's (1999) "seven I's". The other theoretical trend expresses a neurolinguisticlly-oriented methodological reaction to the SLT Dilemma which is related to bimodality theory developed by Danesi (2003). The researcher endeavourers to delve into the tenets and principles of these three specific responses to come up with a clear understanding of them which may coherently highlight the two investigated theoretical trends toward the SLT Dilemma accordingly. To this end, the researcher examines the different dimensions of these responses with reference to the following two theoretical questions: (a) why have the pervious methods and approaches failed to tackle the SLT Dilemma? , (b) how can the SLT Dilemma be resolved? In light of such a rationale, the study might be able to compare and elucidate the two investigated theoretical trends and consequently, it might shed more light on the issue of SLT Dilemma from a scholarly outlook.

Index Terms—SLT Dilemma, post-method pedagogy, seven I's, bimodality theory

I. Introduction

To date, a plethora of theories on Second Language Teaching (SLT) have generally contributed to the development of second language teaching and learning, all claiming to account for some success achieved in the field of second language teaching and learning. Yet, despite their early relative success from a methodological standpoint, concerns have always been raised about the pedagogical consequences of devising such teaching practices, learning materials, and language syllabuses. For example, several fundamental methods (e.g. Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, Audio-lingual Method, & Total Psychical Response) and approaches (e.g. Communicative Language Teaching, & Task-based Language Teaching) have been proposed to make substantial progress in the domain of second language teaching and learning. But, as such methods or approaches have intended to implement their theories and assumptions in the relevant teaching contexts; the vast majority of them have failed to meet the needs and expectations of their target language learners (Selinker, 1972; Danesi, 2003; Talebinezhad & Mahmoodzadeh, in press).

In view of such methodological failure, Danesi (2003) raises the notion of SLT Dilemma which claims that despite considerable research on SLA and SLT, language learners rarely achieve high levels of proficiency, irrespective of their background or the employed methodology. To investigate this issue more deeply, three given responses being classified into two distinct theoretical trends in reaction to SLT Dilemma are discussed with reference to the following two theoretical questions: (a) why have the pervious methods and approaches failed to tackle the SLT Dilemma? , (b) how can the SLT Dilemma be resolved?

II. The Classification of Scholastic Trends towards SLT Dilemma during the Last Two Decades

A. The Ethno-culturally-oriented Methodological Reaction to SLT Dilemma.

In the light of the factors accounting for the phenomenon of SLT Dilemma, ecological and cultural issues can play a pivotal role. In fact, the investigated trend argues that the existence of socio-cultural constraints or barriers may impede the application of the proposed methods and approaches in the teaching environments around the world. For example, Li (1998) points to the difficulties in South Korea in adopting CLT and attributes the source of the difficulty to the differences between the underlying educational theories of South Korea and Western countries. In Vietnam, Sullivan (1996) conducted an ethnographic research which indicates that views of learning in Vietnam are not always in accordance with CLT. Likewise, Ellis (1994) questions the relevance of CLT in English language teaching by

Australian teachers in Vietnam. He describes CLT as socially constructed with Western values such as *individualism* (versus what he calls *collectivism* in Vietnam) and, as such, not culturally attuned to Asian conditions. However, some researchers have proposed some possible solutions to the SLT Dilemma which are included in this classified approach (Bax, 2003; Bjorning-Gyde & Doogan, 2004; Bjorning-Gyde, Doogan, & East, 2008; Breen, 2006; Danesi, 2003; Ellis, 2005; Fenton & Terasawa, 2006; Jarvis & Atsilarat, 2004; Johnson, 2006, Kumaravadivelu's, 1994, 2001, 2003a; Larsen-Freeman, 1999). It is worth mentioning that in the last two decades, the significance of the contextual constraints has also been reflected in the area of professional development of language teachers and as a result, some researchers have advocated the move toward socio-contextual perspectives in teacher training (e.g. Bax, 1997; Crandall, 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Lamie, 2004).

In addition, Kumaravadivelu (2003b) addresses the emergences of *colonialism* in the prevailing language teaching methods and argues that "the methods used in different parts of the world, however modified they are, still basically adhere to the colonial concept of method"(p. 541). In view of such a colonial phenomenon, Kumaravadivelu maintains that the concept of method seems to be a construct of *marginality* which can be viewed from its four inter-related dimensions, that is, *scholastic, linguistic, cultural*, and *economic* perspectives. To deal with this postcolonial predicament, he proposes a bottom-up processing framework called *macrostrategic framework* on the basis of the above pedagogical parameters in an attempt to challenge the debilitating effects of method as a means of marginality. The macrostrategic framework consists of both macrostrategies and microstrategies which are derived from theoretical, empirical and experimental insights to second/foreign language learning and teaching. It is a broad guideline based on which teachers are able to generate their own situation-specific or need-based microstrategies and classroom techniques. These macrostrategies include: 1) Maximizing learning opportunities, 2) Minimizing perceptual mismatches, 3) Facilitating negotiated interaction, 4) Promoting learner autonomy, 5) Fostering language awareness, 6) Activating intuitive heuristics, 7) Contextualizing linguistic input, 8) Integrating language skills, 9) Ensure social relevance, 10) Raise cultural consciousness (see Kumaravadivelu, 2003a).

However, more particularly, among the solutions included in this trend, the researcher focuses on two main responses, namely Kumaravadivelu's (1994) *post-method pedagogy* and Larsen-Freeman's (1999) *seven i's* which are elaborated below. The researcher attempts to look through the tenets and the underlying assumptions of these theories to find the answers to the two theoretical questions under study.

Kumaravadivelu's "Post-Method Pedagogy" Response.

Why have the pervious methods and approaches have failed to tackle the SLT Dilemma? In response to this question, Kumaravadivelu (1994) discusses that methods and approaches proposed thus far have been considered as the only key to successful teaching. The main reason for this lies in the fact such methods are too dogmatic requiring the teacher's total commitment to their established methodology and overall educational philosophy; therefore, this pedagogical commitment has made it almost impossible to adopt them to different learning and teaching contexts.

As a result, the search for a perfect method which can meet the teachers and learners' needs around the world has led to the accumulation of many teaching methods during the history of language teaching. But, since these methods have been developed and prescribed for use on the basis of the over-generalized methodological knowledge, they have failed to fulfill the teachers and learners' needs and demands to a great extent. Thus, since the pervious methods have been developed based on a set of generalized tenets, they are not context-specific and can not be applied and implemented in all local teaching contexts around the world. In this way, Kumaravadivelu (1994) underemphasizes the pedagogical values associated with the individual methods in the broad context of language teaching and asserts that the method era has come to an end and the search for an alternative method is of no avail.

How can the SLT Dilemma be resolved? The early 1990s witnessed substantial changes and innovations in the domain of language pedagogy. In essence, this was a decade during which the *post method era* emerged with a focus on how teachers could develop and explore their own teaching through *reflective teaching* and *action research* (Richards, 2002). In other words, as discussed by Richards and Lockhart (1994), the emergence of post-method pedagogy led to the revitalization of teaching from the inside rather than by trying to make teachers and teaching to conform to an external model. Kumaravadivelu's (1994) post-method pedagogy was an attempt to resolve the SLT Dilemma. According to this theory, the concept of post-method signifies the search for an alternative to method rather than an alternative method (cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2003b, p. 544). The post methods era has thus led to a focus on the processes of learning and teaching rather than ascribing a central role to methods as the key to successful teaching. As language teaching moved away from a search for the perfect method, attention shifted to how teachers could develop and explore their own teaching through reflective teaching and action research (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). Thus, it seems that post method pedagogy seeks to empower practicing teachers in an attempt to develop an appropriate pedagogy based on their local knowledge and local understanding" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003b). Kumaravadivelu (2001) discusses that a post method pedagogy must "a) facilitate the advancement of a context-sensitive language education based on a true understanding of local linguistic, sociocultural, and political particularities; (b) rupture the reified role relationship between theorists and practitioners by enabling teachers to construct their own theory of practice; and (c) also tap the sociopolitical consciousness that participants bring with them " (p. 537).

According to Kumaravadivelu (2003b), post method pedagogy consists of a three-dimensional system including three pedagogical parameters of particularity, practicality, and possibility. These parameters "interact with each other in a

synergic relationship where the whole is greater than the sum of its parts" (p. 545). The first and foremost, any post method pedagogy has to be pedagogy of particularity. That is to say, language pedagogy, to be relevant, "must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 538). To phrase in another word, such a pedagogy is "responsive to and responsible for local individual, institutional, social, and cultural contexts in which learning and teaching take place" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003b, p. 544). In short, pedagogy of practicality aims for a teacher-generated theory of practice. This assertion is premised on a rather simple and straightforward proposition: No theory of practice can be useful and usable unless it is generated through practice (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). And, the parameter of possibility "is derived mainly from Freirean critical pedagogy that seeks to empower classroom participants so that they can critically reflect on the social and historical conditions contributing to create the cultural forms and interested knowledge they encounter in their lives" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003b, p. 544).

However, in terms of the critiques of the premises of the post-method paradigm, Tajeddin (2005) argues that "while being a consequence of the general trend of paradigm shift, the post method paradigm is founded on a number of premises prevalent in the method era despite its repeated disenchanted with the concept of method" (p. 1). According to Tajeddin, in spite of the attempts to disenchant the realm of language teaching with the very word method (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2001, 2003a), on the one hand, the applications of post-method paradigm have filed to permeate the area of syllabus design, materials development, language testing, and classroom practice while on the other hand, methods still have theoretically and practically outlived the so-called method era. Therefore, according to Tajeddin, the post-method framework has not been disenchanted with the category of method and it stills seems to fall within the category of method by its nature. The other securitized response to the SLT Dilemma included in this theoretical trend relates to Larsen-Freeman's (1999) "seven I's" which is briefly elaborated below.

Larsen-Freeman's "Seven I's" Response.

Why have the pervious methods and approaches failed to tackle the SLT Dilemma? Larsen-Freeman (1999) discusses that a number of scholars in our field have criticized language teaching methods during the last two decades. Some have noted that the search for the best method is ill-advised (e.g., Bartolome, 1994) claiming that there can be no one best method. But there has been an additional concern registered which is worth of attention. Larsen-Freeman questions the assumption that a method that is suitable in one part of the world is appropriate for all parts of the world. In view of this methodological crisis, some researchers (Breen, 2006; Butler, 2005; Canh, 1999; Chowdhury, 2003; Ellis, 1994; Hu, 2002; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Li, 1998; Nishino, 2008; Pennycook, 1989; Savignon & Wang, 2003; Stapleton, 1995; Wu & Fang, 2002) have also offered some similar supporting evidence for CLT approaches. That is, they have demonstrated that as Larsen-Freeman (1999) discusses, some methodological challenges in this regard indicating that although CLT is perceived as progressive and modern in some parts of the world, it is not seen as an appropriate way to teach languages everywhere, since many of its underpinning values conflict with those of other cultures. Thus, teachers are obliged to abandon the use of the method in question, even though here there is nothing wrong with the application or actual usefulness of the method but the problem is that this methodology does not fit these teaching contexts.

Likewise, Larsen-Freeman (1999) underscores the intrinsic value of the method itself and disapproves of the emergence of Kumaravadivelu's (1994) post-method pedagogy in the area of second language teaching. Larsen-Freeman argues that it seems a pity that post-method teaching is the final response to the SLT Dilemma. For after all, much good can come from working with language teaching methods. However, in attempting to be culturally appropriate, it is not intended to contribute to the de-skilling of teachers by deciding *a priori* that a method is inappropriate to a given context. Indeed, she maintains that "assuming that teachers are helpless victims of ideological imposition and disregarding their agency in the teaching/learning process seems just as much an affront as assuming that new methodologies are superior to traditional ones". Teachers and teacher educators should not be blinded by the criticisms of methods and thus fail to see their invaluable contribution to teacher education and continuing development (p. 26).

Larsen-Freeman (1999) discusses that the main reason for this methodological failure lies in the fact the proposed methods have been imposed on teachers by others and thus, they are not going to be shaped by teaching a teacher's own understanding, beliefs, style, and level of experience while being implemented in the relevant teaching contexts. To put it in another word, the current methods are falsely assumed to be fully intact formulaic packages for practice in the classroom.

How can the SLT Dilemma be resolved? In reply to this question, Larsen-Freeman (1999) discusses that the key to resolve the SLT Dilemma is moving beyond *ideology* to *inquiry*, a way which can avoid the inappropriate uses of methods, while benefiting from them at the same time. To elaborate on her proposal, she introduced the notion of *seven "I's"*— moving from *Ideology* to *Inquiry* while challenging notions of *Inclusive generalizations, Imposition* leading to *Implementation, Intactness*, and *Immutability*. Some tenets of the *seven "I's"* are briefly discussed in the following: first of all, it must be explicitly acknowledged that language teaching methods do reflect ideological positions. Methods are not just empty vehicles delivering language content. By inquiring into their practice via interacting with other ideologies, it helps keep teachers' teaching alive and prevent it from becoming stale and overly routinized (Prabhu, 1990). Further, it is a leap of logic to assert that because methodologies rest upon certain values, it therefore follows that they are

automatically inappropriate for certain cultural contexts. In teaching, of course, we are not engaged with whole cultures, but with individuals within a culture. We need to reconcile ideas about the influence of culture with recognition of individual differences (Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

As Littlewood (1999) has observed such generalizations as all Vietnamese or Japanese value collectivizing over individualizing and collaboration over competition are false. Educators can treat such tendencies as starting points or hypotheses about students' behavior, but such inclusive statements are clearly overgeneralizations. Larsen-Freeman (1999) discusses that a method is a coherent set of links between thoughts (or beliefs) and actions in language teaching. Methods are coherent in the sense that there should be some theoretical or philosophical compatibility among the various thought-action links. Of course, a teacher may also simply borrow the techniques of a method, without its accompanying value. Learning to teach is a developmental process. Skilled teachers do not emerge from teaching preparation programs ready to implement a particular method. They must not only develop their thoughts about teaching, but also their actions or techniques. According to Larsen-Freeman (1999),

"Methods are not immutable in practice. As teachers gain experience, they come to understand a particular method differently. Thus, methods are not something superimposed on teaching. They are instantiated differently, not only due to contextual differences, but also due to the teachers' stage of development. In order for this matter to be realized, the ideology underlying a method must be acknowledged, but so must the spurious views on methodology called the "i" myths: the myths of inclusive generalization, the myth that imposing a method will lead to its implementation, and the false assumptions that methods are fully intact and immutable packages. Decisions about appropriate methodology should be made by local educators, taking their students' needs into account" (pp. 28-29).

B.   The Neurolinguistically-based Methodological Reaction to SLT Dilemma.

During the last decade, pedagogical applications of neurolinguistic studies have permeated in the domain of SLA and have strengthened the body of knowledge of this field accordingly. In light of their significant contribution to SLA, seemingly the advent of Danesi's (1986) *bimodality theory* has initiated a neurolinguistically-based methodological reaction to view the SLT Dilemma from a vantage point. Nonetheless, one interesting fact in this regard is that this theory being amended by Danesi (2003) may be considered as the only methodological endeavourer to approach the SLT Dilemma from a neurolinguistic aspect during the last decade. In this sense, a few scholars, however, have addressed the prevailing neurolinguistic gap in the literature of the second language studies (e.g. Kim-Rivera, 1998). To meet the aims of the study, the researcher here attempts to securitize the principles and the underlying assumptions of this theory to find the answer to the following theoretical questions.

Danesi's "Bimodality Theory" Response.

Why have the pervious methods and approaches failed to tackle the SLT Dilemma? According to Danesi (2003), bimodality theory, one of the recent views on SLT which radically ushered in a new era of research in second language learning and teaching, suggests that the reason that so many methods and approaches in SLT have relatively tended to fail lies in the fact that all of them were in part unimodal, that is, focusing on only one of the two hemispheres of the brain. For example, on the one hand, the methods such as Grammar Translation Method or Audio-lingual Method focused only on the left hemisphere (L-Mode) while, on the other hand, the Communicative, Humanistic, and Neurolinguistic methods and approaches overemphasized the right hemisphere (R-Mode) to the detriment of the L-Mode.

As Danesi (1988) discusses, at the end of the 19th century, the designation of the left hemisphere as major or dominant and the right as weak or minor caused teaching methods to be unimodal, that is, to concentrate on the structural form of language. The pedagogical implications of this signified a tendency to neglect those features associated with the right hemisphere (usually the creative/artistic qualities). Further research continued to strengthen the views that the left hemisphere was programmed for form and the right controlled content, in that it deciphered new stimuli in an efficient manner.. Therefore, the methods that pursued grammatical linguistic competence only exercised the left hemisphere actively (cited in Antenos-Conforti, 2001, pp. 30-31).

Needless to say, although the techniques utilized in inductivist and deductivist methods focused on developing L-Mode control of second language, it should be noted that some of the techniques used in the inductivist method- e.g. the use of the situational practice, the incorporation of visual stimuli, the contextualization of practice routines, etc.-did have an R-Mode focus. And, it might explain why they have survived to this day as effective techniques on their own (Danesi, 2003).

However, on the other hand, Communicative, Humanistic, Neurolinguistic methods and approaches were designed with an opposite unimodal bias. They typically overemphasized and utilized R-Mode functions to the detriment L-Mode functions. This is why they always generated much interest at first, but seldom produced high level of proficiency at the end of a course of study. Moreover, it should be noted that no method or approach has ever been designed intentionally to be unimodal. It is more accurate to think of SLT practices generally as placeable on a continuum with two extreme L-Mode and R-Mode endpoints (i.e. GTM & Silent Way methods, respectively) at which bimodality theory suggests the mid-point of this continuum as the most appropriate for SLT practice (Danesi, 2003, p. 49).

How can the SLT Dilemma be resolved*?* In reaction to this dilemma, Danesi (2003) discusses that bimodality theory is an attempt to provide neurolinguisic foundation for language instruction in the classroom. Its underlying assumption is that there is a natural flow of information from the right to the left hemisphere of the brain during language learning.

In fact, bimodality theory's response to SLT Dilemma which is mainly based on the findings of the neurolinguistic studies suggests that the optimal solution to the current dilemma lies in the systematic utilization of both hemispheres of the brain during the process of language learning. In effect, as Danesi states, any instructional system that privileges only one of the two modes of brain is bound to fail sooner or later because such a system has been unimodally developed. Nevertheless, as Danesi and Mollica (1988) note, bimodality does not dictate any specific instructional routine or style; it can be adapted into any textbook, regardless of emphasis. Thus, this theory is compatible with the notion of proficiency in that it is a multifaceted concept that adapts to all methodologies, approaches, and techniques.

It is worth mentioning that the principles and techniques of bimodality theory have been developed and extended during the last two decades. In essence, Danesi (2003) proposes the most recent pedagogical implications of bimodality theory through a set of pedagogical principles and techniques. These principles and techniques can assist language teachers to improve their teaching. Also, they can inform syllabus designers and material developers of the recent findings of neurolinguistic studies so that they are able to design more efficient ELT materials for EFL/ESL learners. However, they are four pedagogical principles which are derived from the recent relevant brain research corresponding directly to the application of bimodality theory in SLT. Danesi introduced these principles as follows: *(1) the modal flow principle; (2) the modal focusing principle; (3) the contextualization; (4) the conceptualization principle*. The consolidation of these principles would effectively enhance the learning of the language, as they integrate both structure and communication, and thus educate both hemispheres at the same time. The summery of these informative principles are concisely explained below.

By definition, the modal flow principle (also known as modal directionality principle) "signifies that at first the experiential plane is activated (the R-mode), then new input flows to the analytical (the L-mode), as was generally the case with the inductive principle"(Mollica & Danesi 1998, p. 209). However, the principle of modal directionality should be utilized only with new input, so that foreign language learners may experience a new structure or concept before shifting to the formal explanation as to why it is so (Antenos-Conforti, 2001).Young and Danesi (2001) discuss that during the initial learning stages, students need to assimilate new input through observation, induction, role-playing, simulation, oral tasks, and various kinds of interactive activities. But formal explanations, drills, and other L-Mode procedures must also follow these stages, since we have found that control of structure will not emerge spontaneously. Danesi (2003) divided the neurological basis of the brain during the process of learning a new language into three neurolinguistic stages and then identified the general procedures being utilized in any teaching context based on the modal flow principle. These stages as well as their characteristics are discussed below:

During an R-Mode Stage: Classroom activities should be student-centered and involve students and teacher in a complementary fashion. Novel input should be structured in ways that activate sensory, experiential, inductive forms of learning (dialogues, questioning strategies, simulations, etc.). And, the students' inductive and exploratory tendencies should be encouraged to operate freely when introducing new information.

During an L-Mode Stage: The focus here shifts to the teacher. The teacher should explain the structural and conceptual features of the new *materials* clearly using deductive and inductive techniques as warranted by the situation. And focusing on some problematic aspect of the subject being taught is to be encouraged if a student appears to have difficulty grasping it or using it with appropriate comparison to the NL and with suitable exercise materials.

During an Intermodal Stage: The learner should be allowed to employ the new materials to carry out real- life verbal tasks, but only after he/she shows the ability or willingness to do so. Teaching new things or discussing matters of form and structure *during* this stage should be avoided. Students should be allowed to find solutions to problems of communication on their own. Role-playing and work in pairs or groups is advisable for most students, although some may not wish to participate. The latter can be assigned other kinds of creative tasks (e.g. writing).

Modal focusing principle is required at points in the learning process when, for instance, a learner appears to need help in overcoming *some* error pattern that has become an obstacle to learning. L-Mode focusing allows the learners an opportunity to focus on formal matters for accuracy and control while R-mode focusing allows the learners to engage in matters of understanding and conceptualization (Danesi, 2003). As Mollica and Danesi (l998) mentioned, "the modal focusing stresses the fact that, at some time during the learning process, students may need to concentrate on one mode or the other to digest new data, reinforce acquired structures or vocabulary, or simply think of what to say" (p. 210).

In terms of contextualization principle, Danesi (2003) argues that memorizing or pronouncing words in isolation, rehearsing speech formulas, or even practicing grammar without reference to some situation that typically entails them, rarely leads to learning. The reason is that language derives its meaning (usage) primarily from the context in which it is involved (i.e. its use). So, *without* sufficient context, it is unlikely that the brain can assimilate new input in any mnemonically functional way. Danesi (2003) also maintains that during an R-Mode Stage, the new material must contain references to cultural concepts in order for the brain to detect the appropriate meaning potential of the new structures whereas, during an L-Mode Stage, the practice and rehearsal of the new structures is greatly enhanced if practical or conceptual information is provided.

Concerning the conceptualization principle, Danesi (2003) discusses that a common observation of teachers is that students often produce L2 messages which are semantically anomalous when they attempt to speak or write spontaneously without some form of guidance. Danesi identifies the source of such anomaly in the unconscious tendency of learners to put together L2 messages on the basis of L1 concepts. Thus, the language teacher must ensure

that the two systems- the linguistic and the conceptual- are interrelated during all aspects and stages of instruction and practice. Moreover, "in terms of dealing with incoming conceptual structures, the conceptualization principle can manifest itself in one of these three ways:(1) isomorphic (2) overlapping (3) differentiated"(p. 66). As Danesi (1993) suggests the student learning a L2 must thus learn about the life of the language through his/her understanding of concept boundaries, metaphorical usage, proverbs, and conceptual domains. Included in this domain of language are also al1 the nonverbal language of a target culture such as gestures, tone, social interactions and register.

Moreover, as discussed by Danesi (2003), after the proposal of bimodality theory, a number of second language teachers and researchers, especially in Italy and North America began assessing the implications of this theory critically (Curro, 1995; Lombardo, 1988; Nuessel & Cicogna, 1992; Pallotta, 1993). In addition, with respect to the application of this theory, Talebinezhad and Mahmoodzadeh (in press) has recently conducted a study investigating the pedagogical applications of bimodality theory in a selection of both internationally-developed and locally-developed ELT textbooks used widely in Iran. In the end, the results of the study revealed that pedagogical techniques and principles of bimodality theory appear to be significantly more applied in the design of the internationally-developed ELT textbooks than the locally-developed ones. The study also suggested that perhaps one of the main reasons for the inefficiency of the locally-developed ELT textbooks used in Iran was the marginality of the pedagogical techniques and principles of bimodality theory in them and that the textbooks need to be modified in order to be more in line with the pedagogical objectives of bimodality theory.

However, since the arrival of the tenets of bimodality theory, some researchers have cast doubt on the application of this theory. For example, Kim-Rivera (1998) argues that there are some issues concerning Danesi's bimodality theory. One of these issues is that few empirical studies have been carried out to support this theory (e.g. Danesi & Mollica, 1988; Danesi, 1988) and only when a consistent pattern of significant results is available can bimodality be considered worthy as a theoretical basis for instructional practice. According to Kim-Rivera, another issue is that Danesi's bimodality theory has been the only concrete proposal for second language teaching from the perspective of neuroscience. Accordingly, there have been few arguments for or against it from SLA researchers and the validity of this theory requires additional research and the support of future neurolinguistic findings.

III. DISCUSSION

In the current study, the overview of the classified theoretical trends in reaction to SLT Dilemma reveals that, on the one hand, seemingly the appeal to resolve this dilemma from ethno-cultural perspectives has been considerably documented by many researchers during the last two decades, whereas the attempt to enrich our knowledge of second language learning and teaching on the basis of the relevant neurological findings still has not been welcomed by SLA researchers to a great extent. To my knowledge, during the last decade, Danesi's (2003) bimodality theory seems to be the only worthwhile example of the neurolinguistically-oriented methodological reaction which has aimed to crystallize the findings of the recent neurolinguistic studies into a pedagogically systematic scheme set forth for the ELT practitioners. However, it is worth noting that, unlike the previously well-documented neurrolinguistically-based theories such as Critical Period Hypothesis (CPU) and Parallel Distributed Processing (PDP), bimodality theory perhaps suffers from a clear-cut research gap. In effect, by no means it has been the focus of SLA researchers during the last decade, even though it has not put forward fewer practical guidelines and implications for language teaching practices than the two afore-mentioned theories.

On the other hand, seemingly the path which has been gone through by the SLA researchers in the trend of ethno-culturally-oriented methodological reaction to the dilemma in question is significantly more subject to the phenomenon of contextual variations and thus, this trend might not find an optimal solution to all endless contextual and cultural teaching constrains. In contrast, the neurolinguistically-based methodological reaction to SLT Dilemma seems to favor some systematic frameworks which are not context-specific and perhaps are unlikely to be affected by the above-mentioned ethno-cultural impediments. In fact, the methodological foundations of the theories in this trend (e.g. bimodality theory) appear to make them fit various socio-cultural teaching environments. In this way, the effects of socio-cultural variations can probably be avoided to a great extent accordingly.

However, it should be noted that one can not assume Danesi's (2003) bimodality theory as an optimal response to SLT Dilemma, since as was mentioned earlier, only a few studies have been conducted so far exploring its practical applicability among EFL/ESL language learners in different teaching environments (e.g. Curro, 1995; Danesi & Mollica, 1988; Lombardo, 1988; Nuessel & Cicogna, 1992; Pallotta, 1993). Hence, this theory entails further research studies with sufficient corroborating results to gain more pedagogical credit in the future. In a nutshell, if such a scholarly phenomenon occurs, then this theory might have the potential status of a new paradigm and might cause a paradigm shift in the theoretical trends towards the issues of SLT Dilemma. Since as Kuhn (1970) discusses, a new paradigm is formed in science when a revolution occurs in thinking of the shatter pervious ways of approaching or viewing a discipline.

IV. CONCLUSION

This paper has attempted to demonstrate how the SLT Dilemma has been treated by the researchers in the area of SLT during the last two decades. After looking over the classified trends under study, the researcher suggests similar points for SLT Dilemma as Ellis (2005) suggests for a possible dilemma in SLA. That is, perhaps SLT like SLA is still in its infancy, since the search and theory still do not afford a uniform account of how instruction can best facilitate language learning; therefore, it seems that the proposed theatrical trends towards resolving the issue of SLT Dilemma are still open to debate unless there is a consistent and close alignment between their advocated assumptions and the corollaries of their corresponding studies.

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Observation and Reflection on Problem-based Learning

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Abstract—**Problem-based learning (PBL) is a student-centered pedagogy in which students learn about a
subject through solving purposefully designed "problem". The aim of this study was to investigate whether the
PBL trains the students to develop reflective thinking and acquire the necessary skills to solve problems that
were not directly related to the ones discussed in PBL. Following participation in the PBL which was
incorporated in an immunology course, the students were examined on questions that can be divided into two
types depending on their relatedness to the PBL questions. The result indicates that the students performed
equally well on these two types of questions, confirming the build-up of general problem-solving capabilities.
Strategies for further improving the PBL methodology according to various pedagogical theories and practices
were also discussed.**

Index Terms—**problem-based learning, web-based learning, teaching method**

Problem-based learning (PBL) is a student-centered pedagogical format that contrasts with the conventional
teacher-centered lecture-based teaching (Wilkerson 1996). The introduction of the PBL approach has been motivated by
recognition of the drawbacks of traditional instruction and the deeper understandings of how people learn (Boyer, 1998).
In PBL, students are divided into working groups and are given questions that are of complex, multifaceted, and
practical nature. Thus, students learn about a subject and acquire knowledge in the context of problems. Furthermore,
students are oriented toward meaning-making rather than fact-collecting type of learning. They are trained to identify
what they already know, what they should know, and how and where to retrieve information that may lead to the
resolution of the problems. With such dynamic group work as well as both collaborative and independent investigation,
the students can achieve higher levels of comprehension and develop more self-learning skills. PBL fosters the students'
skills in problem solving and comprehensive thinking. In comparison to traditional instruction where knowledge is
expounded by a teacher, the PBL methodology actively engages the student in constructing knowledge in their own way
so as to achieve a higher quality of learning.

Although PBL was pioneered in the health sciences at McMaster University in Canada more than 40 years ago, this
teaching style did not become widely accepted until recently. The first time I heard this terminology was when I
participated in the teaching of the course "Basic Immunology" organized by the Department of Microbiology and
Immunology in Gothenburg, 2009. I had the experience of both giving lectures in a traditional format and being a tutor
in PBL group discussions. The course was composed of a total of 52 hours of lecture, 37 hours of laboratory
demonstration and 18 hours of PBL tutorials. The PBL questions were carefully designed and chosen so that the
students learn how to answer the questions through solving the problems. The "problems" in our PBL curricula were
typically in the form of "cases", which were challenges common to the cutting edge knowledge of
immunology. Students were advised to practice deductive reasoning and analyzing rather than merely memorizing.

I have participated in three rounds of teaching of the course "Basic Immunology" so far. A question that occurred to
me was whether or not our PBL really trains the students to develop reflective thinking abilities. The purpose of the
PBL is not simply to train the students to be able to answer the questions raised at the PBL sessions; instead, they are
advised to use these questions as probes to try to understand related scientific issues in a broader sense in immunology.
One way to measure if this goal has been reached is to analyze the students' examination results. We had two types of
examination questions all of which were essay based. One type had a direct, more obvious relationship with the PBL
questions; whereas the other type of questions was not directly related to PBL questions. In order to be able to answer
them the students had to extend their scope of PBL discussions and dig deeper into the study materials.

I undertook to analyze the examination scores of the spring term of 2011. In this examination, the students were
asked to answer 12 essay-based questions. Of these 12 questions, 8 were directly related to the questions in the PBL
cases and 4 were not directly related to the questions in the PBL. If the PBS training could really help students develop
critical thinking and draw inferences about other cases from one instance, then the students should be able to answer
both types of questions equally well, irrespective of their correlation with the PBL questions. I have analyzed altogether
88 PBL and 44 non-PBL questions answered by 11 students (Supplementary Table 1). All the raw scores were
transformed into the Percentage of Total (PCT) scores. The average PCT score for PBL questions was 63.19 and the
standard deviation was 30.98. The counterparts for non-PBL questions were 71.89 and 31.70, respectively (Table 1).
The ANOVA analysis indicates that the PCT score is not statistically significantly different between PBL-related and

non-related questions done by those 11 students.

Table 1. Comparison of PCT scores

N	Direct relation to PBL	PCT score		P
		Mean	Std	
88	Yes	63.19	30.98	0.134
44	No	71.89	31.70	

Of course there are certain limitations of this study. First of all, the student number is relatively small. This might be compensated for by the question numbers. Each student answered 8 PBL-questions and 4 Non-PBL questions. Therefore, the comparisons were drawn on a total number of 88 versus 44 questions. Secondly, the relative difficultness of individual examination questions and the stringency of the marking standards for them might vary, which would form the confounding elements for the analyses. However, I do not think that these 12 questions were conceived and marked by the examiners with a strong awareness of the PBL cases. Thirdly, it can also be argued that the examination performance of the students could be solely attributed to the lectures and the laboratory demonstrations. In other words, it could be argued that the PBL had no bearing at all on the examination results. Of course this is very unlikely. Therefore, I still believe that the current observation supports my assumption that our PBL case discussions were well designed so that the training fosters learning 'transfer', that is, learning in one situation can be transferred to learning in another, through self awareness and reflective learning.

Despite the current encouraging observation, we may still try to improve the PBL methodology according to various pedagogical theories and practices.

One of the approaches is to blend PBL with the Web-based learning (WBL) (Secundo 2008; Taradi 2005). The WBL refers to communication and collaboration tools such as online forums, messaging, and e-mailing etc. WBL can be efficiently incorporated into PBL tutorials if we build a platform on the Internet which may increase the efficacy of the PBL discussions. Of course we should not forget the principle of the student centeredness (Terry Anderson, 2008). In web-based PBL, the students can interact with the tutor and other students more conveniently, which is not subject to the limitation of conventional face-to-face classroom PBL, especially time and location restrictions, for example. We do see occasions that a certain student cannot attend a particular PBL session due to course conflicts or other appointments. With the incorporation of WBL into PBL, students are allowed to learn at their own rhythm and pace. Another advantage of the web-based PBL lies in the fact that answers to the questions can bounce back and forth several times between the students and the tutor as well as among the students themselves. The students can not only find the answers in their lecture notes and textbooks, but also search the Internet conveniently for answers by making full use of the Internet resources. Thus the students may corroborate their conclusions by evidences from various sources. Students can even upload their preliminary answers on the platform for other students and the tutor to evaluate and then revise the answers with the suggestions by the tutor and their fellow students. The tutors can know what the difficult study points are with the help of the computer which may keep a record every error and revision that the students make. Therefore the tutors can revise and reformulate the study questions for the students of the next term. In addition, a combination of WBL and PBL can keep all the students involved in the learning process. We always see situations that some students are more dominant than the others in PBL discussions. Sometimes this creates problems because a few less active students are deprived of the possibility for participation. With online interactions, any student would have enough space and time to voice their opinions and thoughts which may allow the development of individual accountability. Taken altogether, online interactions brought about by WBL can make PBL a more powerful learning method.

The success of PBL-based curricula also depends on the quality of case design (Yoshioka 2003; Dolmans 1997). Immunology is a rapidly developing medical discipline and new knowledge is generated every day. The study cases should prompt the students to actively discuss the problem based on their prior knowledge. Each group or individual student then can make a hypothesis or working statement which is further revised as more information is deducted through heated debate and reasoning. Therefore, the probing questions should be designed and constructed in such a way that would stimulate the students' curiosity and inquisitiveness. The students should not just passively answer the questions at the surface. They should be encouraged to examine and try out what they already know, discover what they need to learn, and develop problem-solving skills in general. They should be prompted to investigate deeper into the cases and brain storm for every possible answer that is related to the question, including those not directly related. We also need to be aware of the fact that the students who sign up for the course Basic Immunology come from various backgrounds. Their prior knowledge in immunology-related subjects and biomedicine in general vary substantially. The PBL cases should be appropriately designed so that they are suitable for all the students.

The PBL learning methodology also requires that the tutor develop good pedagogical strategies (Chan 2008; Maudsley 1999). The role of the tutor is to provide appropriate scaffolding of the case topics, ask probing questions, excite intellectual inquisitiveness, and keep the discussions moving. The PBL tutors have to be reminded that they are

not starring on the stage; instead, the leading roles are always played by the students. The tutors should stay attentive but refrain from too much interruption. Most importantly, tutors should not give the answers to the questions directly, instead, they should encourage and motivate the students to be active and search for needed facts and solutions themselves. One ancient Chinese philosopher once said that to teach a disciple how to fish is better than to give a fish. PBL is a good example of this pedagogical philosophy. Therefore, the role of the tutor in PBL is not "to offer fish" but rather "to teach how to catch fish". In PBL, the tutor acts as a facilitator and a mentor, but not a source of "solutions".

In conclusion, the PBL for the course "Basic Immunology" is well designed and constructed. It effectively encourages and trains the students to learn by solving problems and reflecting on their experiences. Future revision is also required to update the content so that it can maximally match the development of the field accordingly. My colleagues and I aim to build our PBL into a pedagogical entity which conforms to the pedagogical concept as conveyed by the famous quote from the poet William Butler Yeats: "Education is not the filling of a pail, but the lighting of a fire."

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLE 1.

Obs	Student ID	Question	Rawscore	Fullscore	PCTSCORE	PBL
1	1	1	6.0	8	75	1
2	1	2	4.0	6	67	1
3	1	3	6.0	6	100	1
4	1	4	6.0	6	100	1
5	1	5	2.5	6	42	2
6	1	6	2.0	6	33	1
7	1	7	7.0	8	88	1
8	1	8	5.0	6	83	2
9	1	9	2.0	6	33	1
10	1	10	3.5	4	88	2
11	1	11	7.0	8	88	2
12	1	12	7.0	8	88	1
13	2	1	5.5	8	69	1
14	2	2	4.0	6	67	1
15	2	3	2.5	6	42	1
16	2	4	5.0	6	83	1
17	2	5	3.5	6	58	2
18	2	6	5.0	6	83	1
19	2	7	7.0	8	88	1
20	2	8	4.0	6	67	2
21	2	9	3.0	6	50	1
22	2	10	3.5	4	88	2
23	2	11	4.5	8	56	2
24	2	12	5.5	8	69	1
25	3	1	6.0	8	75	1
26	3	2	4.5	6	75	1
27	3	3	4.0	6	67	1
28	3	4	6.0	6	100	1
29	3	5	5.0	6	83	2
30	3	6	2.0	6	33	1
31	3	7	8.0	8	100	1
32	3	8	6.0	6	100	2
33	3	9	5.5	6	92	1
34	3	10	4.0	4	100	2
35	3	11	7.5	8	94	2
36	3	12	5.0	8	63	1
37	4	1	0.0	8	0	1
38	4	2	0.0	6	0	1
39	4	3	0.0	6	0	1
40	4	4	4.0	6	67	1
41	4	5	1.0	6	17	2
42	4	6	0.0	6	0	1
43	4	7	0.0	8	0	1
44	4	8	1.0	6	17	2
45	4	9	3.0	6	50	1
46	4	10	0.5	4	13	2
47	4	11	4.5	8	56	2
48	4	12	3.0	8	38	1
49	5	1	7.5	8	94	1
50	5	2	3.0	6	50	1
51	5	3	6.0	6	100	1

52	5	4	6.0	6	100	1
53	5	5	6.0	6	100	2
54	5	6	3.0	6	50	1
55	5	7	8.0	8	100	1
56	5	8	6.0	6	100	2
57	5	9	4.5	6	75	1
58	5	10	4.0	4	100	2
59	5	11	6.5	8	81	2
60	5	12	6.0	8	75	1
61	6	1	5.5	8	69	1
62	6	2	3.0	6	50	1
63	6	3	6.0	6	100	1
64	6	4	6.0	6	100	1
65	6	5	5.0	6	83	2
66	6	6	3.5	6	58	1
67	6	7	6.0	8	75	1
68	6	8	5.0	6	83	2
69	6	9	3.5	6	58	1
70	6	10	4.0	4	100	2
71	6	11	8.0	8	100	2
72	6	12	5.0	8	63	1
73	7	1	6.0	8	75	1
74	7	2	3.5	6	58	1
75	7	3	6.0	6	100	1
76	7	4	5.5	6	92	1
77	7	5	5.0	6	83	2
78	7	6	0.0	6	0	1
79	7	7	7.0	8	88	1
80	7	8	4.0	6	67	2
81	7	9	3.5	6	58	1
82	7	10	3.5	4	88	2
83	7	11	8.0	8	100	2
84	7	12	6.0	8	75	1
85	8	1	6.5	8	81	1
86	8	2	2.5	6	42	1
87	8	3	3.0	6	50	1
88	8	4	6.0	6	100	1
89	8	5	4.0	6	67	2
90	8	6	3.0	6	50	1
91	8	7	8.0	8	100	1
92	8	8	0.0	6	0	2
93	8	9	4.5	6	75	1
94	8	10	4.0	4	100	2
95	8	11	0.0	8	0	2
96	8	12	2.5	8	31	1
97	9	1	6.5	8	81	1
98	9	2	5.0	6	83	1
99	9	3	3.5	6	58	1
100	9	4	6.0	6	100	1
101	9	5	6.0	6	100	2
102	9	6	5.0	6	83	1
103	9	7	7.0	8	88	1
104	9	8	5.0	6	83	2
105	9	9	5.0	6	83	1
106	9	10	4.0	4	100	2
107	9	11	7.5	8	94	2
108	9	12	6.0	8	75	1
109	10	1	7.0	8	88	1
110	10	2	5.5	6	92	1
111	10	3	5.0	6	83	1
112	10	4	6.0	6	100	1
113	10	5	5.5	6	92	2
114	10	6	1.0	6	17	1
115	10	7	5.5	8	69	1
116	10	8	4.0	6	67	2
117	10	9	1.5	6	25	1
118	10	10	3.5	4	88	2
119	10	11	7.3	8	91	2
120	10	12	6.0	8	75	1
121	11	1	0.0	8	0	1
122	11	2	2.5	6	42	1
123	11	3	0.0	6	0	1
124	11	4	4.5	6	75	1
125	11	5	1.5	6	25	2
126	11	6	1.5	6	25	1
127	11	7	1.0	8	13	1

128	11	8	2.0	6	33	2
129	11	9	0.0	6	0	1
130	11	10	3.5	4	88	2
131	11	11	0.0	8	0	2
132	11	12	1.5	8	19	1

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Structure-based vs. Task-based Syllabus: The Effect of Type of Syllabus on Listening Comprehension Ability of Iranian University Students

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Abstract—The present study attempted to investigate the effect of typology of syllabus (structure-based vs. task-based) on the listening comprehension ability of two homogeneous classes (50 participants) during a whole academic semester. The homogeneity was attained through administration of a pre-test taken from Barron's TOEFL (Sharpe, 1996). The selected students were assigned to a structure-based and a task-based group. The subjects in the structure-based group were instructed through *American Kernel Lesson: Intermediate* (O'Neil et al., 1978), and the second group was instructed through *Expanding Tactics for Listening: intermediate* (Richards, 2005), representing the structure-based and task-based syllabus, respectively. Unlike the structure-based group, the task-based group demonstrated a considerable and statistically significant improvement in the post-test performance. The results of this study could be of pedagogic significance to syllabus designers, material developers as well as teachers.

Index Terms—Structure-based Syllabus (SBS), Task-based Syllabus (TBS), listening comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

For many years, the role of listening in English teaching programs was undervalued and neglected. According to Richards (2002), until 1970s listening was hardly mentioned in journals at all. However, this neglected status of listening was shifted after Krashen (1985) theorized that *comprehensible input* was very instrumental in triggering language development. The significance of listening was further accentuated with the advent of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Therefore, as in other areas of language teaching, listening was approached and studied from different perspectives. Rubin (1994) enumerates five of them: 1) text characteristics 2) interlocutor characteristics 3) task characteristics 4) listener characteristics and 5) process characteristics.

Despite the sizeable volume and the novel avenues of research opened for listening skill, it seems that the role of syllabus in teaching listening has been taken for granted. This is while the syllabus and the materials used for the purpose of teaching plays an essential role in the success or failure of any English teaching program. Nunan (1988) contends that the choice of a syllabus is a major decision in language teaching, and its part in the development of language teaching practices is indispensible. It is a truism to say that one of the most remarkable shifts in language education has been moving away from a structural syllabus to the one built around communicative tasks. Structural syllabus, as the name speaks for itself, is centered around structure of language. It focuses only on one aspect of language, namely grammar. However, task-based language teaching which is linked to CLT applies activities which involve real communication and the use of language for carrying out meaningful tasks. In fact, the meaningful language and tasks are considered as the important key for the learner's success (Richard & Rodgers, 2001, p. 223).

Reviewing through the pertinent literature, the researchers discovered a research gap of the role of syllabus and materials in listening-related studies. This study is, in fact, a small attempt in this direction: to look into the degree of efficiency of the two types of syllabi (SBS and TBS) on listening ability of a sample of Iranian university students. This study is crystallized around the following question:

Does the type of syllabus (SBS vs. TBS) affect the listening comprehension ability of a sample of Iranian university students?

II. REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

As said earlier, different strands of research have investigated 'listening' from various perspectives. In the ensuing

paragraphs, a brief account of the studies on listening is presented, followed by a description of structure-based and task-based syllabi.

Some of the studies on listening have given special weight and attention to the computational processes and cognitive dimensions involved in listening comprehension. Anderson's (1985) three-stage comprehension model of perceptual processing, parsing, and utilization inspired a good number of studies. Being influenced by this line of research, the various levels of cognitive processing (phonetic, phonological, prosodic, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic) (e.g., Gardner, 1998), the ways and strategies of accessing the mental processes during listening tasks (e.g., Goh, 1997), and the factors influencing processing (e.g., Rubin, 1994) have been investigated.

Some studies have concentrated on the question of what distinguishes skilled from unskilled listening behavior. These studies are primarily concerned with the individuals' abilities in applying different skills and strategies (Tsui and Fullilove, 1998). According to Goh (2002) and Vandergrift (2003), what differentiates skilled from unskilled listeners is the ability of combining various strategies (e.g., top-down and bottom-up strategies, along with metacognitive strategies) in a harmonious manner.

Along with the just-mentioned computer-analogous models and studies which particularly deal with inside-the head processes involved in listening comprehension, the social dimensions of listening have been studied as well. The scholars studying social dimensions have argued that listening does not take place in a vacuum and the human utterances must be interpreted with regard to the exigencies of their broader communicative context. The comprehension and interpretation of gestures and other non-verbal or culturally bound cues and nuances fall within the boundaries of social dimensions of listening (Harris, 2003). Carrier (1999) talks of the necessity of awareness of socio-pragmatic forces between the interlocutors. He contends that interlocutors need to be conscious of the status relationships between themselves, and how these relationships could affect the comprehension and freedom to negotiate meaning, particularly in the contexts where there exists unequal power relationship.

Anxiety and motivation as two influential psychological variables have also been investigated. The psychological dimension of listening is related to the language classrooms. Elkhafaifi (2005) did a study on the effect of anxiety on listening comprehension of learners. His study indicated there were significant negative correlations between listening anxiety and listening comprehension scores of learners of Arabic. Motivation as another psychological variable was investigated by Vandergrift (2005). He found a positive relationship among listening proficiency, use of metacognitive strategies and reported levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Testing of listening comprehension (e.g., Brindley, 1998) or the factors influencing listening test performance (e.g., Wu, 1998) have been investigated by the researchers interested in the assessment of listening.

Type of task has been another point of investigation for the studies on listening. A study by Brown et al. (1985) led them to conclude that output tasks should not rely exclusively on memory or writing abilities, and informative titles are capable of facilitating comprehension if listeners are directed to pay attention to them. Eykyn (1992) studied the impact of four tasks (multiple choice, choose-a-picture, French to English vocabulary lists, and WH- questions) on the recall protocol of novice high school French learners while watching authentic video material.

Reviewing through the literature, the researchers found no study addressing the role and effect of type of syllabus on the listening skill of L2 learners. This study was launched with the purpose of filling up this gap. As the present paper aims to look into the impact of two types of syllabi (structure-based& task-based) on listening skill, it seems warranted that a very brief account of them be provided to let the study be placed in an appropriate context.

A. Structure-based Syllabus (SBS)

Structural syllabus or grammatical syllabus, often recognized as the traditional syllabus, is centered around grammar. In this type of syllabus, the focus is on the outcomes or the product, and the content of language is a collection of the forms and structures such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, statements, questions, and so on (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986). White (1988) asserts that structural syllabus is concerned with *what* should be learned, without considering who the learners may be or how languages are acquired. It specifies structural patterns as the basic units of learning and organizes these according to such criteria as structural complexity, difficulty, regularity, utility and frequency. The learner is expected to master each structural step and add it to his/her grammar repertoire.

B. Task-based Syllabus (TBS)

Task-based approaches to syllabus design and second language teaching, which focuses on the ability to perform a task or activity, and not on explicit teaching of grammatical rules, have attracted the attention of many researchers, language instructors and syllabus designers (Prabhu, 1987; Nunan, 1989). Task-based teaching has the goal of teaching students to draw on resources to complete some pieces of work (e.g., a process). In order to complete the tasks, the students draw on a variety of language favors, function, and skills, often in an unpredictable way.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants in this study were fifty intermediate EFL students majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT) in Islamic Azad University of Izeh, with the age range of 18-25. The participants were both male and female, and were

enrolled in a listening comprehension course in the second semester of the academic year. They were selected based on non-random judgment sampling from among 84 students: at first a pretest was administered to discover the students' homogeneity in their listening comprehension scores, and fifty students whose scores were around the midpoint (i.e.,14) were selected as the participants of the study. Then, the selected students were numbered 1 to 50 and were divided into two groups (SBS and TBS) based on odd and even numbers regarding systematic random sampling. The study took a whole academic semester (12 weeks).

B. Instruments

The two tests, pre-test and post-test, were taken from Barron's TOEFL (Sharpe, 1996). The tests covered the four main language skills, but the study focused on the listening comprehension skill only. The listening comprehension had three parts with special directions for each part. Part A included short conversation, part B included longer conversations, and part C included several short conversations. All these conversations were followed by content-based questions.

As for teaching listening in the course of the semester, two books representing two different types of syllabi were employed: the first one *American Kernel Lesson: intermediate* (0'Neil et all, 1978), and the second one *Expanding Tactics for Listening: Intermediate* (Richards, 2005). Drawing on Widdowson's (1998) differentiation of "exercise" and "task", it could be claimed that the two books had a divergent set of "meaning", "goal" and "outcome". He argues that "exercise" and "task" differ in terms of these three elements. An exercise is premised on the need to develop linguistic skills as a prerequisite for the learning of communicative abilities. While a task is based on the assumption that linguistic abilities are developed through communicative activity. According to Nunan (1999), the essential difference between a 'task' and an 'exercise' is that a task has a non-linguistic outcome, while an exercise has a linguistic outcome. Seeing the two books through the perspective of "exercise" and "task" distinction, it might be claimed that since in American Kernel Lesson the language activities have a linguistic outcome and are in the framework of "exercise," it might be categorized as a book representing structure-based syllabus. According to Richards (2002), O'Neill's Kernel Lessons was a reflection of Chomsky's "transformational grammar" in a textbook and "seemed to offer an exciting new approach to grammar teaching…" (p. 9). However, in *Expanding Tactics for Listening* the language activities are *task-*type because the language activities are primarily focused on meaning, and "orientation" (Skehan, 1998) is from engagement in communicative activity to the development of linguistic skills.

C. Procedures

The pre-test was administered at the very beginning of the semester to determine the homogeneity level of the participants as well as the then proficiency of students in listening, and the post-test was given at the end of the semester in order to obtain the degree of listening proficiency of students after being exposed to two different types of syllabus and instruction. It was assumed that the comparison between pre-test and post-test of the students could reveal the degree of effectiveness of each syllabus during the semester. The reliability of pre-test and post-test was met based on Cronbach's Alpha as (r= .98) and (r=.96), respectively.

As said before, SBS group was instructed based on *American Kernel Lesson: intermediate* (O'Neil et al, 1978), and TBS group was taught based on *Expanding Tactics for Listening* (Richards, 2005). *American Kernel Lesson: Intermediate* consisted of 25 units. The listening tasks were preceded with a series of related pictures and a corresponding text, which was centered around certain grammatical points. In this book the selection and grading of the content was on the basis of the complexity and simplicity of grammatical items and specified structural patterns as the basic units of learning. And, the organization was based on criteria such as structural complexity, difficulty, regularity, utility and frequency. Each unit was revolving around one specific grammatical point which was meant to be enhanced through ample use of highly controlled, tightly structured and sequenced pattern practice drills.

The students were supposed to look at the pictorial context and make some guesses of the story they were about to listen to. Afterwards, the teacher played the audio program and the students were listening to the tape while looking at the pictures. After listening to the whole story, some students were randomly chosen by the teacher to recreate the story they had just listened to with a specific focus on the highlighted grammatical point of the unit. This stage was followed by letting the students compare their personal stories with that of the text.

Tactics for listening: Intermediate consisted of 25 units which presented the listening activities in a framework compatible with task-based teaching. The units had four sections. The first section, "Getting Ready," introduced the topic of the unit and presented key vocabulary for the unit listening tasks. This section was meant to activate the relevant schemata with the aim of facilitation of learning process on the part of learners. The next three sections, each entitled "Let's Listen," were linked to conversations or monologues recorded on cassette or CD and provided the students with a variety of listening comprehension tasks.

What needs to be mentioned here is that the two books used for this study had different criteria of grading and sequencing. It is quite obvious that in *American Kernel Lesson: Intermediate,* task complexity was the reflection of traditional linguistic grading criteria. However, in *Expanding Tactics for listening: Intermediate,* task complexity seemed to be the result of task factors themselves. According to Long and Crooks (1993), these task factors might be the number of steps involved, the number of solutions to the problem, the number of parties involved and the saliency

of their distinguishing features, the location of task in displaced time and place, the amount and kind of language required, the number of sources competing for attention and other linguistic, cognitive and social factors.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The major question to be answered in this study was whether the typology of syllabus could impact on the listening comprehension ability of the participants of the study in the course of an academic semester. As it is shown in Table 2, t-test was calculated at the confidence level of .95, and the results revealed a significant difference between TBS and SBS groups.

TABLE1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR BOTH GROUPS' PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

Groups / Descriptive Statistics	Structure-based group		Task-based group	
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
Mean	22.44	23.60	21.96	28.08
N	25	25	25	25
Std. Deviation	6.04	6.36	5.28	9.10
Std. Error Mean	1.20	1.27	1.05	1.82
Range	20	23	20	32
Max.	34	37	35	47
Min.	14	14	15	15

TABLE 2.
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

Groups	Paired differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
TBS & SBS post-tests	-4. 48000	3.05669	.61134	-5.74174	-3.21826	-7.328	24	.001

It is worth mentioning that in this study the teacher tried her utmost to meticulously implement the directions of teaching methodology provided by either of the syllabi (provided by the books' teachers' guides). Therefore, the results obtained could be more confidently ascribed to the syllabus design of the books and their prescribed teaching methods. The results seem to be in line with the general theoretical notions of language teaching methodology and syllabus design that task-based syllabus and teaching method could be more effective than structure-based syllabus and grammar-based teaching agendas. Robinson (2001) and Long (2007) are of the opinion that traditional approaches to syllabus design which have centered on such units of analysis as words, grammatical structures and functions (synthetic syllabus) tend to ignore important findings within SLA, because these types of syllabi are based on the assumption of linearity of language acquisition, which has been questioned by many researchers in the past thirty years. Items in these types of syllabi are supposed to be learned one at a time, and are expected to be accumulated until the learner synthesizes them into a coherent syntax. In addition, as Ellis (1997) has argued, the order of items in a structural syllabus do not have psycholinguistic validity, in that as Bley-Vroman (1983) has argued the categories of a structural syllabus do not correspond to the categories which learners construct in the process of language learning. By the same token, Willis and Willis (2007) contend that most grammar translation and audio-lingual programs are based on what Lightbown and Spada (2006) call "get it right from the beginning" approach, and argue against it as being the case in actuality of language acquisition process.

Lightbown and Spada (2006) contrast "get it right from beginning" approach with the "get it right in the end" approach, which is based on the belief that what learners need most of all are exposure to language and opportunities to use language meaningfully. Such a holistic perception of the process of language acquisition is supported by Norris's (2009) argumentation in support of holistic nature of tasks and task-based teaching. He conditions achieving the benefits of task-based practice on acknowledging the perception "that language develops not as accretion of discrete bits of knowledge but through a series of holistic experience" (p.591). For him, "crucial cognitive and emotional mechanisms are triggered through learning by doing things holistically…" (p. 579).

From a psycholinguistic perspective, the outperformance of TBS group could be attributed to the inherent properties of tasks. In this frame of thought, a task is perceived as a device that guides learners to engage in certain types of information-processing that are believed to be important for effective language use and for language acquisition. This perspective assumes that there are properties in a task that will predispose learners to engage in certain types of language use and mental processing that are beneficial to acquisition.

On the other hand, the almost unchanged listening ability of SBS group in the pre-test and post-test could be associated with the nature and content of syllabus they happened to be instructed through within the semester. Robinson (2009) cites Long (2000) as pointing out that the system of linguistic grading, as required by many synthetic structural syllabus, is prohibiting learners' exposure to language that learners might be ready to learn, in that linguistic grading and sequencing produces a language which is artificial and functionally and linguistically impoverished and un-authentic.

V. CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

The findings of this study, though small in scale, suggest that the typology of syllabus could affect the listening comprehension ability of students. *Expanding Tactics for Listening,* representing task- based syllabus, proved to be more effective than *American Kernel Lesson,* representing structure-based syllabus, in augmenting listening comprehension ability of the students. Therefore, this study could be another reconfirmation for Prabhu's (1987) idea that effective learning occurs when students are fully engaged in a language task, rather than just learning *about* language.

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Interviewers' Gender and Interview Topic in Oral Exams

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Abstract—Nowadays, language schools tend to include more of oral exams as part of their course completion assessment instruments in addition to traditional written exams. The major purpose of this study was accordingly to investigate the relationship between interviewers' gender, interview topic and oral performance. Thirty female upper-intermediate students were selected. All the participants were interviewed twice, once by a female and once by a male interviewer and each time they were required to talk about two topics, one gender-neutral and another gender-biased. All the performances were scored twice with an inter-rater reliability of +.88 and +.89 for two interviews respectively. A comparative analysis of the interview scores indicated that students achieved higher scores when interviewed by a female interviewer. With respect to interview topic, students performed better on gender-neutral topic.

Index Terms—interviewer's gender, interview topic, gender-neutral, gender-biased, oral performance

I. INTRODUCTION

There are a lot of variables which may affect language learners' performance in oral tests. The age, status, personality-type, acquaintance-relationship, topic area, and the gender of the participants are among these variables (Porter, 1991a). In this regard, various studies have been conducted to show the influence of the participants' characteristics on their performance in tests of spoken language.

One of the variables that may have a relationship with test takers' performance in oral exams is the gender of the person with whom they interact (O'Sullivan, 2000). Interviewers usually differ from each other based on their test behavior like, how much support they give to interviewees, how friendly they behave towards interviewees, and to what extent they act their role following relevant instructions (O'Loughlin, 2002). As male and female conversational styles are completely different, many researchers (e.g., Maltz & Borker, 1982; Tannen, 1990; Coates, 1993; Thwaite, 1993) believe that gender differences in communicative style can be one reason to explain the differences between interviewers (O'Loughlin, 2002). Male and female interviewer's different styles and their different behavior towards male and female interviewees can be one possibility of gender effect in oral interviews and may affect the results of the interview by helping or preventing the candidates from performing well (Sunderland, 1995). Hence, the interviewer's gender can affect the students' performance positively or negatively (O'Loughin, 2002).

Another variable which may affect interviewers' performance is the topic about which they should talk in oral exams (Lumley & O'Sullivan, 2005). Sunderland (1995) believes that "Topic", "Task" and "Tester" are among the variables that may favor male or female interviewees. There is a possibility for a particular topic to be more familiar to males or females, so it makes the interviewees perform better and in a more comfortable way in oral exams (Lumley & O'Sullivan, 2005).

In his exploratory study on a small group of male Arab students, Lock (1984) found that when the students were interviewed twice, once by a man and once by a woman, they got higher scores with the male interviewer. Porter (1991a) followed this study while focusing on the gender and personality of the participants and their degree of acquaintanceship. Based on the results of this study, the only variable that had a significant effect on the students' performance was the 'gender' variable, and participants obtained higher scores when interviewed by male interviewers.

Porter (1991b) examined the effect of interviewers' gender and participants' perceived status of the interviewers on a group of Algerian participants' (12 men and 4 women) oral performance. The researcher controlled the statues of the interviewers and they were introduced to each participant differently, in terms of the manner, physical proximity, and the introducer's tone of voice, i.e. their dress, the formality of the introduction and the introducer's respect while introduction marked them as high/ low status. The results showed that students got higher scores when interviewed by a man and by a person who had not been marked for higher status. In a different study, Porter and Shen (1991) focused

on the effect of gender; status and interaction style (male/female) and found no significant relationship between these factors and the students' performance. However, based on the findings of this study, students got higher scores when interviewed by a woman.

O'Sullivan (2000) studied the effect of the interviewers' gender on students' oral performance. The results of his study supported the findings of Porter and Shen (1991) that interviewers' gender affected the interviewees' performance. The results also showed that participants had produced language more accurately when interviewed by a woman. Lumley and O'Sullivan (2005) examined the effect of the test-takers' gender, the gender of the audience and topic on test-takers' performance and claimed that the task topic might have an effect on test-takers' performance especially if the gender of the audience varies. They hypothesized that males might outperform females if the task topic is male-oriented especially when the audience is male while with female audience there can be slight advantage to males, i.e. male-oriented topic along with male audience makes the topic harder for females.

As English education in Iran tend to improve Iranian English learners' communicative ability, testing methods has been changed in recent years and most of the language institutes try to assess students' language proficiency using oral exams, however one of the problems which most of the Iranian English learners are facing with during oral exams is the presence of some factors like audiences and tasks which may act as barriers.

Thus, this study takes an aim to investigate the relationship between interviewers' gender and interview topic with students' oral performance. The correlation between interviewers' gender and interview topic with students' oral performance was calculated respectively. More specifically, the study reported in this article addressed the following questions:
1. Is there any relationship between interviewers' gender and EFL learners' performance in oral exams?
2. Is there any relationship between the nature of the topic and EFL learners' performance in oral exams?

II. METHOD

A. Participants

Thirty Iranian EFL learners studying at Jahad Daneshgahi Language Institute in Urmia, Iran, participated in this study. All the participants were female with upper-intermediate proficiency level. Their language proficiency was rated as upper-intermediate based on the institute's in-house placement test and final exam results. The participants were preferred to be female because of the women's socio-cultural status in Iran which may have relationship with their performance when they interact with the opposite sex. The mean age of the participants was 20. Two interviewers (one man and one woman) also participated in this study. They were experienced English teachers who had interviewed students for many years at this institute.

B. Instruments

Two series of interviews (one by a female and one by a male) were conducted in this study to ascertain the relationship between interviewers' gender and test-takers' oral performance.

C. Procedure

This study was conducted at Jahad Daneshgahi Language Institute in Urmia, Iran. All students with intermediate level of proficiency who study at this institute are required to take part in a two-phase final exam (a written test and an oral interview) if they want to continue their studies in upper levels. In fact this exam can be considered a placement test which determines whether students are eligible to enroll at upper-intermediate level classes or not. In order to have participants with the same proficiency level, the researchers chose 30 students who were successful in passing the written exam, so all the participants were considered upper- intermediate.

All these 30 students were asked to take part in oral interview as their part of final exam assessment. All the students were interviewed twice, once by a female interviewer and once by a male interviewer and each time they were asked to talk about two topics (one gender-neutral and one gender-biased). The topics were chosen based on a consensus by 10 experienced teachers. 18 gender-neutral and 18 gender-biased topics which had been used in IELTS interviews in the past were chosen. At the same time 10 experienced teachers who had taught at this institute for several years were selected and asked to choose the topics that were the most appropriate ones for the interview regarding participants' proficiency level.

The topics which were chosen by most of the teachers were selected as the interview topics. In order to for the results to be comparable, it was necessary for the interviews to be similar, but not in a way that the second interview would be considered as a mere replication of the first one. As a result, two similar, but not identical interviews were conducted. In other words, both interviews followed the same structures with the same general topic area, but with different specific content. As participants were required to take part in two interviews and as talking about the same topics twice may have provided the possibility for the better performance in the second interview, two other topics which were similar to the first ones and which required the same amount of knowledge and proficiency as the first ones were chosen. All in all, in this study 4 topics were used in total (two gender-neutral and two gender-biased).

Considering Iranian culture, in which it is embarrassing for a woman to speak with an opposite sex and taking into account the additional embarrassment which may be caused by the topics that are embarrassing by nature, in this study

gender-neutral topic refers to the topics which are not embarrassing to both genders, while gender-biased topics are considered as the topics that are embarrassing and make female students feel uncomfortable, especially when talking with a male interviewer.

All interviews were conducted under similar conditions in a pair of adjacent interview rooms. The first interview was conducted by a female interviewer and students were required to talk about two topics, i.e. first, gender-neutral one, namely: *How do you spend your weekends?* secondly, gender-biased: W*hat is your idea about engagement period?* All the performances were scored at the time of the interview by the interviewer discretely, i.e. she awarded scores using a four scale criteria (vocabulary, grammar, fluency and pronunciation, see appendix).

Each test-taker was awarded two scores, one for gender-neutral topic and one for gender-biased topic and the mean score of two topics was obtained. Meanwhile, all the interviews were audio taped for further reference. In order to establish inter-rater reliability, the performances of five students were scored once more by one of the researchers to be compared with the score given by the interviewer himself/herself. The value of correlation coefficient ($\alpha= +0.88$) showed that there was a high degree of agreement between the scores given by two raters, and it was concluded that the scores awarded by the interviewer were reliable and the rest of the performances were scored only by the female interviewer.

In order to see whether interviewers' gender has any relationship with students' performance, a parallel interview (with similar topics as the first interview, i.e. first, gender-neutral: How do you spend your free time? Second, gender-biased: What is your idea about marriage?) was conducted by a male interviewer. All the interviews were audio taped and all the performances were scored in the same way as the first interview. In order to establish inter-rater reliability, like the first interview, the performances of 5 students were scored by one of the researchers. As the coefficient of correlation was +0.89, it was concluded that the scores awarded by the interviewer were reliable and the rest of the performances were scored only by the male interviewer.

III. RESULTS

A. Descriptive Statistics for the Oral Test Grades

This subsection reports quantitative findings for students' oral test grades considering interviewers' gender and interview topic.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR STUDENTS' ORAL TEST SCORES CONSIDERING INTERVIEWERS' GENDER AND INTERVIEW TOPIC

	M	D
Female interviewer	65.86	7.76
Male interviewer	60.86	8.63
Gender-neutral topic	63.86	6.47
Gender-biased topic	62.86	7.63

Note. M= mean   D= standard deviation

B. Interviewers' Gender and Students' Oral Performance

In order to see if there is a relationship between interviewers' gender and students' oral performance, correlation between two variables was calculated and since one of the variables, i.e. interviewers' gender was dichotomous and the other, i.e. oral performance was continuous, Pearson correlation was used for this purpose (Pallant, 2007). Tables 2 indicate the corresponding coefficients.

TABLE2.
PEARSON CORRELATION FOR INTERVIEWERS' GENDER AND STUDENTS' ORAL TEST SCORES

Pearson Correlation	r	p
Interviewers' gender and oral test grades	.44	.01

Note. P<.05

As it is shown in table 2, the Pearson correlation between interviewers' gender and students' oral test scores was statistically significant (r-.44, p=.01), and as it was shown in table 1, students obtained higher scores with the female interviewer.

C. Interview Topic and Students' Oral Performance

To investigate the relationship between the nature of interview topic and students' oral test grades, another Pearson correlation was run between interview topic and students' oral test grades.

TABLE 3.
PEARSON CORRELATION FOR INTERVIEW TOPIC AND STUDENTS' ORAL TEST GRADES

Pearson Correlation	r	p
Interview topic and oral test grades	.96	.00

Note. P<.05

Table 3 indicates that the correlation between interview topic and students' oral test grades was statistically significant (r=.96, p=.00), and as it was shown in table 1, students obtained higher scores on gender neutral topic.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. Interviewers' Gender and Oral Performance

Investigating the relationship between interviewers' gender and students' oral performance showed that students performed better when interviewed by a female interviewer. As it was mentioned earlier, considering Iranian culture, it was expected to find a relationship between interviewers' gender and students' oral performance, that students were expected to perform better with the female interviewer.

There have been a number of studies which have investigated the possibility of a gender effect in oral interviews. Like the present study, most of these studies showed that there was a relationship between gender and test scores, but the findings differed from one study to another one. In other words, some studies reported that students obtained higher scores when interviewed by a male interviewer (Locke, 1984; Porter, 1991a; 1991b) and some others found that students got higher scores when interviewed by a female interviewer (Porter and Shen, 1991; O'Sullivan, 2000). Buckigham (1997) is among the researchers who claimed that women might feel more comfortable talking to a female interviewer; she found the same-sex effect on Japanese EFL learners' oral performance.

On the other hand, the findings of the present study contradict with the outcomes of the study which was conducted by O'Loughlin (2002), according to which there was no gender effect in interviews. He tried to find not only the impact of interviewers' gender, but also the impact of the gender of test takers and raters on test scores in IELTS interviews, and found that gender did not have a significant effect on the IELTS oral interview.

To explain the contradiction between the findings of his study, and other recent studies, we can refer to O'Loughlin (2002) who stated that the inconsistency of the findings might result from social identities of the test-takers and interviewers, i.e. their age, gender, and ethnicity as well as the characteristics of the testing context, like the country where it is administered, and the purpose of the test.

B. Interview Topic and Oral Performance

Another focus of this study was on the relationship between interview topic and students' oral performance. As it was expected, students obtained higher scores when they were required to talk about gender-neutral topic. There are many topics which are embarrassing for Iranian women to talk about; engagement and marriage are two examples of these embarrassing topics which are difficult for Iranian women to talk about and they prefer not to talk about such topics.

A study conducted by Lumley and O'Sullivan (2005) investigated the impact of topic on students' performance, but gender-biased topic in this study refers to topic which is more interesting and familiar to males, like horse racing which is male-oriented and housing and places to visit which are gender-neutral. They reported that males might outperform females if the task topic is male-oriented especially when the audience is male while with female audience there can be slight advantage to males, i.e. male-oriented topic along with male audience make the topic harder for females.

V. CONCLUSION

Interviewer' gender and interview topic are among the variables which have been investigated by many researchers and it was found as a variable which may have a positive or a negative relationship with students' oral performance. Based on the findings of the present study, interviewers' gender has a relationship with students' oral performance and students performed better with female interviewer. Considering interview topic it was found that students performed better on gender-neutral topic.

APPENDIX. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS.

Name: **level:**
Topic 1
How do you spend your weekends?
Do you spend your weekends in different way from weekdays? How?
Where do you go?
Who do you spend your weekends with? Why do you prefer this person?
Fluency   and   coherence: 1-25

Vocabulary: 1-25

Grammatical range and accuracy: 1-25

Pronunciation: 1-25

Total score: 1-10

Topic 2
What is your idea about engagement period?
Do you like to get engaged before getting married?
Do you think that being engaged affects marriage? How?
Is being engaged for a long time good? Why?
How long do you like to stay engaged?
What are the advantages and disadvantages of engagement period?
Fluency   and   coherence: 1-25

Vocabulary: 1-25

Grammatical range and accuracy: 1-25

Pronunciation: 1-25

Total score: 1-100

Name: **level:**
Topic 1
How do you spend your free time?
What is the most enjoyable activity you do in your free time? Why?
Do you like to spend your free time alone? Why?
Who do you like to spend your free time with? Why do you prefer this person?
Fluency   and   coherence: 1-25

Vocabulary: 1-25

Grammatical range and accuracy: 1-25

Pronunciation: 1-25

Total score: 1-100

Topic 2
What is your idea about marriage?
Do you like to marry or remain single?
Do you like to marry young?
When is the right time for marriage?
Do you like to have right to propose to your favorite boy for marriage?
Talk about your expectations of marriage.
What are the characteristics of your ideal husband?

What are the advantages and disadvantages of a successful marriage?

Fluency and coherence: 1-25

Vocabulary: 1-25

Grammatical range and accuracy: 1-25

Pronunciation: 1-25

Total score: 1-100

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Translation of Constant Rheme Progression in *Mencius*

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Abstract—As a key theory of functionalism, thematic progression lays stress on the sequence of sentences for the construction of a coherent discourse. *Mencius,* the gem of Confucianism, impresses the readers with its profound philosophy and the meticulous logic. A striking feature in the text is the application of many constant rheme progressions which reinforce the information unit in the rheme and enhance the meaning potential in the text. On the basis of the comparison and descriptive study of three authoritative English versions of *Mencius*, this thesis attempts to suggest the translation strategies of constant rheme progression in the Chinese canon.

Index Terms—constant rheme progression, reproduction of structure, substitution and ellipsis, focus permutation

I. INTRODUCTION

As a way to fulfill the metafunctions of language, thematic progression focuses on the language system and the interconnection among its subsystems. *Mencius,* a canon of Chinese classics strikes the readers not only with the eloquent argumentation but also the various sentence structures which cover almost all the thematic progressions. The constant rheme progressions applied in the book have evolved into many popular idioms and proverbs in Chinese. Therefore it is of great value to probe the translation strategies of the special sentence structure.

II. CONSTANT RHEME PROGRESSION

The concept of theme and rheme goes back to Vilem Mathesius(1939) of Prague School in his work *Functional Sentence Perspective*. Theme serves as "the point of departure of the message (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2008, p.64)" and rheme the rest of the clause as an elaboration of the theme. In his *On Linguistic Analysis of Text Structure*, Frantisek Danes (1974, 1989) postulates three main types of thematic progression as simple linear progression, TP with a constant (continuous) theme and TP with derived theme. M.A.K. Halliday (1994) analyzes a full investigation on thematic structure from the perspective of functional grammar. Xu Shengheng (1982) proposed focused TP and crossing TP. Downing (2001) applies thematic progression into text analysis. Thomas Bloors(2001) proposes the new TP of split rheme. Geoff Thompson (2008) further develops Danes' Thematic progressions with several special thematic structures. Although definite thematic progressions are still controversial in the field, they are generally classified into five basic types of constant theme, constant rheme, linear progression, derived theme and split rheme.

Constant rheme progression is also known as focused rheme progression in which the rheme is shared by various themes. Diagrammatically, the pattern can be represented in Figure 1 below:

$$T_1 + R_1;$$
$$\downarrow$$
$$T_2 + R_2(=R_1);$$
$$\downarrow$$
$$T_n + R_n(=R_1)$$

Figure 1. Constant Rheme Progression

Take Nelson Mandela's inaugural address as an example: "The time for the healing of the wounds **has come**. The moment to bridge the chasms that divide us **has come**." is a typical illustration of constant rheme progression, in which different themes are arranged according to the priority of time, space, and meanings etc. The information unit is a structure composed of two parts: the Given and the New. In most cases, the theme is the Given and rheme the New. While in constant rheme progression the theme is loaded with something unknown and the rheme is the Given which is repeated for the purpose of emphasis. The clauses are organized with similar sentence structures to elaborate the same feature of different themes. The information unit is reinterated by the tide-like clauses with parallel, rising or falling themes dependent on each other. As a result, the constant rheme progressions form an impressive and cohesive chain.

Systemic Functional (SF) theory views language as a system network or meaning potential to analyze how people express meanings in context. The application of SF theory in the translation of Chinese canon can help the translator better understand the cohesion and textural organization both in the SL and TL.

III.   TRANSLATION OF MENCIUS IN WESTERN WORLD

Known as "the second sage", Mencius is one of the principal interpreters of Confucius. He proposed many ideas such as the innate goodness of the individuals, benevolence, humane government and people as the foundation of the country. In Song dynasty, Zhu Xi compiled it as one of the *Four Books* representing the core of orthodox Neo-Confucian thought.

In Ming Dynasty, *Mencius* was first translated by the missioners into Latin and later into many European languages and 15 full and abridged versions in English. In 1828, David Collie translated *Mencius* into English for the first time. In 1861, the Scottish sinologist and Congregationalist, Dr. James Legge published *Chinese Classics*, among which *Mencius* was listed volume II and has been regarded as the standard version for decades with the loyal translation and numerous detailed notes. In the 20th century, more and more western and Chinese scholars joined in the translation of the Chinese canon, such as Leonard Arthur Lyall, Lionel Giles, Ezra Pound, W.A. Dobson etc. However, many of these English versions are abridged or rearranged, which are at variance with the original Chinese version. In 1970, D. C. Lau's version was labeled as the most influential one with concise English and lengthy introduction. Among all the English versions translated by the Chinese, the Zhao Zhentao version is the most influential one.

Till now, the studies on *Mencius* have been rare on either the ideology or the English versions. John Makeham (2001) elaborates the westerners' interpretation of Mencius' ethics. James Behuniak (2005) introduces *Mencius* from the viewpoint of cosmological background, feeling and moral development. However, the research of *Mencius*' sentence structure and text has been rarely carried out. I compare three authoritative versions of James Legge, D.C. Lau and Zhao Zhentao to explore the translation strategies of the constant rheme progression, a special sentence structure in the book and present some suggestion to the translation.

IV.   TRANSLATION OF CONSTANT RHEME PROGRESSION IN MENCIUS

Composed of seven chapters, *Mencius* is a recording of his dialogues with the kings on benevolence, kingcraft and virtuous administration. The text is intelligent and sharp with eloquent argumentation and filled with rhetorics such as parallelism, antithesis, anadiplosis, simile and metaphors and all the thematic progressions which are widely and flexibly applied. The thematic progressions distribution in the book is illustrated in the following table.

TABLE 1.
THEMATIC PROGRESSIONS IN MENCIUS

	Constant Theme	Linear Theme	Constant Rheme	Derived Theme	Split Rheme
Numbers	57	57	93	42	3
Percentage （%）	22.6	22.6	36.9	16.7	1.2

Through Table 1, we can find that constant rheme is rather frequent in *Mencius*. The progression is like epipophra or epistrophe in rhetorics, which are adopted in large number in each chapter. From the viewpoint of phonology, the sentences of constant rheme progressions sound sonorous and forceful. From semantic viewpoint, the relationship of different themes is presented to form an information chain to reinforce the rheme by the parallel structures of different themes.

The information unit in the rheme has been greatly emphasized as each clause is dependent on each other in the similar sentence structure. However, constant rheme progression is less explicit in English text. The translator is facing the dilemma of wordy literal translation or unfaithful free translation. I suggest several solutions to the problem on the basis of the translation versions of the sentence structure.

A.   Reproduction of Sentence Structure

The symmetric balance in sentence and phonology has been valued and constantly used in Chinese. The bamboo-like sentences in Chinese often share the recurrent structure without conjunctives to achieve cohesion and rhetoric effect. As a result, constant rheme progressions are more popular in Chinese. While in English, the constant rheme is applied for rhetoric functions and more likely to be found in poems, speeches and dramas like *Annabel Lee* by Edgar Allan Poe and Shakespear's *Tempest*. Take *The Grapes of Wrath* by John Steinbeck as an example: "The movement changed them; the highways, the camps along the road, the fear of hunger and the hunger itself, changed them. The children without dinner changed them, the endless moving changed them"(2002, p.510). The sentences are impressive because the information focus is stressed through the repetition of rheme. In the case of foregrounding, the translator can keep the original structure in the translation to stress the information in the rheme. For example:

1) 鱼，我所欲也，熊掌亦我所欲也；二者不可得兼，舍鱼而取熊掌者也。(Book XI)

Pinyin: Yu **wo suo yu ye**, xiong-zhang **yi wo suo yu ye**. Er-zhe bu ke de jian, she yu er qu xiong-zhang ye.

Fish is **what I want**; bear's palm is also **what I want**. If I cannot have both, I would rather take bear's palm than fish. (D.C. Lau)

Fish is **what I desire**, and bear's paw is also **what I desire**; if I can not have both, I will give up fish and take bear's paw.(Zhao)

The text develops in linear order and the readers receive the information sentence by sentence. The constant rheme progressions leave at each rheme a pause for the readers to digest and process the information and shift to next clause. In the three translation versions, James Legge keeps 54.3% of the constant rheme progressions into the target language, which is the most faithful to the original sentence structure. D. C. Lau maintains 38.1% of the constant rheme and Zhao Zhentao 38%.

B.   Substitution and Ellipsis

As the classical Chinese lacks systematic syntax and conjunctions, the context is constructed through the frequent repetition of the key words. Halliday(2008) holds that the system of cohesion is achieved by four ways of conjunction, reference, ellipsis and lexical organization. The translator can apply placeholding element such as "ones, the same, so" etc. to substitute the repeated information. For example:

2) 人知之，亦嚣嚣；人不知，亦嚣嚣。(Book XIII)

Pinyin: Ren zhi zhi, **yi xiaoxiao**; ren bu zhi, **yi xiaoxiao**.

If a prince acknowledge you and follow your counsels, be perfectly satisfied. If no one do so, **be the same**. (J. Legge)

You should be content whether your worth is recognized by others **or not**. (D.C.Lau)

George Kingsley Zipf (1949) suggested that language is subject to the least effort principle which states that an information seeking client will tend to use the most convenient search method, in the least exacting mode available. Information seeking behavior stops as soon as minimally acceptable results are found. Generally speaking, the repetition of the same rheme is not frequent in English. The survey on 43 English essays indicates that the application of constant rheme is only 0.7%. In the case of constant rheme recurring for over three times, the translator can use zero substitution or ellipsis to avoid that the information in the rheme repeats too intensively. For example:

3) 君子所以异于人者，以其存心也。君子以仁存心，以礼存心。(Book VIII)

Pinyin: Jun-zi suo-yi yi yu ren zhe, yi qi **cun xin ye**. Jun-zi yi ren **cun xin**, yi li **cun xin**.

That whereby the superior man is distinguished from other men is what he preserves in his heart;--namely, benevolence and propriety. (J. Legge)

A gentleman differs from other men in that he retains his heart. A gentleman retains his heart by means of benevolence and the rites. (D. C. Lau)

D.C. Lau applies zero substitution in 31.4% of the constant rheme progressions, while James Legge 16.2%, and Zhao Zhentao 25.7%. The application of substitution or ellipsis makes the version brief and conforms to the standard of the target language.

C.   Focus Permutation

English and Chinese are different in culture and thought patterns. Robert Kaplan (1966,1972 and 1988) claims that English-speaking countries use direct expressions while the oriental people prefer roundabout and indirect patterns. The Chinese culture has been characterized by the indirectness in language and communication. The Chinese are postulated as having their own valued, or preferred and specifiable rhetorical patterns in discourse; and that is inductive or delayed introduction of the first or main topic in discourse. Conversely, a deductive pattern, i.e. early introduction of the topic, is used in western culture. The indirectness is reflected in the processing of information focus which is loaded with the most important information and what the speaker wants to stress in the text. It is more likely for the Chinese to place the information focus in the end of the sentence while the English tends to put it in the begging of the utterance. For example:

4) "独乐**乐**，与人乐**乐**，孰**乐**？与少乐**乐**，与众乐**乐**，孰**乐**？"(Book II)

Pinyin: Du yue **le**, yu ren yue **le**, shu **le**? Yu shao yue **le**, yu zhong yue **le**, shu **le**?

Which is the more pleasant?- to enjoy music by your self alone, or to enjoy it with others? **Which is the more pleasant**,--to enjoy music with a few, or to enjoy it with many? (J. Legge)

Which is greater, enjoyment by yourself or enjoyment in the company of others? **Which is greater**, enjoyment in the company of a few or enjoyment in the company of many? (D.C. Lau)

The Chinese tends to apply inductive discourse pattern while the English deductive discourse pattern. When the rheme is a summary of the information, the constant rheme progressions can be transformed into constant theme progressions to stress the information focus in the very beginning. The focus permutation of James Legge, D.C. Lau and Zhao Zhentao are 17.1%, 19% and 24.8% respectively.

V.   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The functional analysis lays more emphasis upon the interrelationship between sentences in the text. The constant rheme progression forms a cohesive chain in which the information is reiterated and emphasized by repetition. The constant rheme progressions are rather common in Chinese classics such as *Analects*, *Zhuangzi* and *The Art of War* etc. The translator can apply different translation strategies on the basis of the intention of the author and the distribution of information to avoid information redundancy or undertranslation. The research on the constant rheme progression can help the translator organize the textual organization for the construction of a more coherent version of the constant rheme progression.

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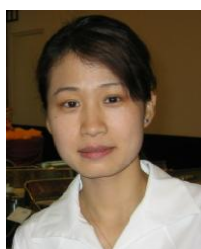
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Textual Reading Comprehension among the EFL Learners

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Abstract—**This paper focuses on enhancing comprehensive textual reading skills among EFL learners within an EFL atmosphere by the implementations of very novel techniques. We would like to resolve the concept directly from the reader's point of view instead of plainly preferring the meaning as written in the text, thus manipulating framework for a better reading so that we can be able to generate self-perception and self-motivation within the target readers.**

Index Terms—**textual reading, motivation, reading comprehension, language classroom, English as a foreign language**

I. INTRODUCTION

It is a well known fact that the textual readings are the most interesting and universally acknowledged tools of motivation and self-learning. The given context not only provides plenty of opportunities for a reader to understand the pretext but manipulates his own writing in a discourse way by a better concentrative reading. The students enjoy a liberty of expression very openly, thereby enhancing self-comprehension. We are thus supposed to give opportunities where they are able to put their thoughts without any assessment obligations. Obviously a reader is understood as a co-participant in the transformation of meaning of that text. Thus such a reading gives birth to consciousness (self-realization) of the reader's personal knowledge he has so far and thereafter its active interaction with the text, he is reading.

Here we shall primarily deal with certain theoretical aspects where overall textual reading is set in. Thereafter we shall throw light on different levels of textual reading. Finally, a conclusion is drawn on the basis of overall classroom assessment. With reference to the textual comprehension, readings are meant:
  - To locate problems behind the individual reading activity in an EFL atmosphere/classroom.
  - To make a constructive conclusion regarding the role of previous knowledge of the reader's activity.
  - To draft a method of reading in a foreign language enhancing the comprehension and interpretation of a text.

II. COMPREHENSIVE READING STRATEGIES

The recent tendency contradicts on the use of reading in a foreign language in improving the taste for reading and the student's literacy (Krashen 1993; Manson & Krashen 1997; Maley 1999; Kern 2000; Day & Bamford 2000, 2004; Brown 2001). With regards to the textual reading, grammar requirement has remained the basis of necessity besides it demanded nothing from the reader but a passive role in the construction of meaning from the written text. An amazing alternative gets originated within the comprehensive reading principles, the results thus focusing on enjoyment, reading abilities, learning, student's improvement, development of aesthetic taste, enhancing learner's vocabulary, and consolidating grammar like issues. Thus comprehensive reading invites the activity to developing reading skills, vocabulary, writing, linguistic competence and spelling.

In the view of Day and Bamford (2002), the top ten principles for teaching extensive reading are:
  1. The reading material is easy.
  2. A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics must be available.
  3. Learners choose what they want to read.
  4. Learners read as much as possible.
  5. The purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, information, and general understanding.
  6. Reading is its own reward.
  7. Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower.
  8. Reading is individual and silent.
  9. Teachers orient and guide their students.
  10. The teacher is a role model of a reader.

III. Reading Approaches at EFL Level

The fact that continuous efforts have been made to evaluate as to what happens to a reader while going through the foreign language reading is quite appreciable. The educationists of the fifties and sixties have concluded that the inclination is towards the mother tongue reading process though they threw light on the foreign language. This gave birth to cognitive theories of information after Goodman's publication (1967). "Reading: a psycholinguistic guessing game" Some advised a bottom-up approach of textual meaning in building from the smallest linguistic units to the largest ones. This way a reader is able to gather letters to form words, clauses, sentences and finally a paragraph to evaluate the overall meaning. Here the meaning is carried out for structure de-codification.

Bottom-up processing is decoding individual linguistic units [...] and building textual meaning from the smallest units to the largest, and then modifying preexisting background knowledge and current predictions on the basis of information (Carrel, 1998).

Rest was seen dedicated towards conceptually driven top-down approach encouraging the reader to develop more text predictions. The fundamentals are seen in the scheme theory in reference to which the stored knowledge of the reader helps in the reading comprehension. A Reader draws forecasts and assumptions based on his/her background knowledge. Simultaneously students compare recent information with the previously gained, confirming or refuting his/ her former hypothesis. Thus this approach puts emphasis on reading as comprehension and confirms that it is interpretation oriented as well.

A text contains many gaps; the reader must fill in those gaps, using background knowledge and inference. From this it follows that the result – the gist, or theme, structure – is a product of the text *and* the reader. (Gough, 1999)

Recently, research has shown interactive approaches with alternate strategies from both bottom-up and top-down approaches in an unpredictable order. The shift from one to the other is in close relation to the reader's interest and objectives followed and the text demands. (*Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*, edited by Patricia L. Carrel, Joanne Devine and David E. Eskey in 1998) An attempt to summarize main interactive approaches more than a decade before, have been developed by the researchers in the said field.

As Nuttall (2000) says it in this way "[...] in practice, a reader continually shifts from one focus to another, now adopting a top-down approach to predict the probable meaning, then moving to the bottom-up approach to check the authenticity of the writer."

IV. The Textual Readings

The impact of textual reading as a step towards learning a foreign language is taught as recourse to written text. Since the whole focus has been on comprehensive exploration of the given textual form through questions, grammar-based tasks, de-contextualized lexical items, etc., hence the positive role of a reader as a co-creator is sidelined since decades besides the meaning itself has been the result of decoding words significantly. Nowadays, research is carried out on the benefits derived from the implementation of excessive reading to develop reader's literacy. This way textual or article reading emerges as a resource to promote reader's self-perception of the reading (Krashen, 1993; Jiménez Jiménez and Ruiz Cecilia, 2004).The textual readings are mainly heading for expressing freely whatever comes out during the reading process interestingly to emphasize their artistic and self-reflective nature where intrapersonal expectations balance extra textual desires.

Assuming textual reading as motivating tools for the EFL learners, we ought to put emphasis on few arrears that strengthen our approach. Primarily we do acknowledge readers can feel a sort of freedom while reading. The reading turns as habit instead of a compulsion. Textual reading, in this way, emerges as a wonderful resource. Self-perception, innovative thoughts, cognitive conflicts and self-considerations originate freely through the reading process in collaboration of the previously acquired knowledge.

Textual readings are important tools for the overall monitoring of student's comprehension. I n contrast, a teacher cherishes the opportunity to access important information via the same. Thus provide some hints on how to overcome possible reader's problems what had been the most improving out of the text besides helps in keeping track of the reader's learning capabilities.

Furthermore, reading cultivates an enhancement of critical and metacognitive thinking from readers. They transmit their individual perception of the reading phenomena to the written form thus changing from the mental phenomena of reading to a recursive framework.

Conclusively, there is a desire to unfold the emotional and personal nature, which activates the process of writing and creation of the textual reading. It is absolutely an open model that offers readers the chance to express themselves.

Now let's discuss the phases of designing this textual reading:

A. Contextual Phase

This phase is totally on to revive the reader's mind and get him back to the original position of reading. This way they can retrieve necessary information and initiate already time-honored plans. We shall put it in four viewpoints space-time, reader's state of mind and bibliographic relevancies.

DATE
ORIGINAL POSITION OF THE DAY
STATE OF MIND
BIBLIOGRAPHIC RELEVANCIES

B. Pre-textual Phase

Here the focuses are to uphold student's interest in the text he/she is about to read. The reader utters precisely what he/she thinks would result in the development after textual reading. Meanwhile, they activate previous knowledge, if any, showing some references with the formal portions of the text.

BEFORE READING EXPECTATIONS
• What are your expectations from this reading?
• What do you understand from the title? Does it recall your previous knowledge?

C. Textual Phase

This phase is undoubtedly one of the best ideas of reading. Here the text is considered as a multiphase structure where reader's intentions, culture and background knowledge combine with that of the writer's. Here the main focus is on giving meaning to the text written accordingly that interacts with the writer's cognitive plan. The textual phase revolves round the following content fields:
► Formal difficulties
► Implications, experimentations and personal meanings, and
► Interpretations
READING ACTIVITY
○ How did you solve problems related to the vocabulary?
○ Did you suffer a lot and did you interfere in your comprehension?
○ During reading, did you translate in your mother tongue?
○ Regarding your reading of the text, did you face any sort of difficulty in understanding them?
○ What do you feel while reading?
○ What kind of feeling are you experiencing?
○ How did your previous knowledge help in the interpretation of the text?
○ What is your real interpretation of the story?

D. Post Textual Phase

This is the ultimate phase of textual reading. Here the aim is to put clearly whether the reading was beneficial or not. The readers lay down the contributions and reactions from their personal depth. The readers are supposed to feel free to answer more or less accurately to the questions in the graph. No doubt the reader might have taken pleasure at multiple occasions, but they might have faced problems in translating ideas into words.

WHETHER EXPECTATIONS ATTAINED OR NOT AFTER READING
- What feeling did it create?
- What are your inputs out of the reading?
- Would you really suggest this reading?

V. TEXTUAL READING ACHIEVEMENTS AT EFL LEVEL: DESCRIPTION OF PERSONAL EXPERIENCE

The program was experimented on 17 EFL students (10 girls and 07 boys aged 21 years) of intermediate level of students in Libya, under the recommended guidelines of the oxford university press. As an EFL instructor (2007-2009), he was fully satisfied of their achievements, which were greatly highlighted as they passed their intermediate examination and qualified for the advanced intermediate level. The learners were aimed to become future English teachers. They were asked to read a passage entitled "Importance of English language in Libya". Besides being guided in an open atmosphere, a plenty of time was given which they felt sufficient enough to complete the task. After handing over the written evaluation assignments, the results were outstanding as the feeling and innovative lexical meanings were interpreted reflecting their understanding of the text and enjoying their free and fair atmosphere of expression. The evaluations/examinations were continued for days and finally after about one month, the trial was successfully over.

Debate on Performance
The assignment thus carried out attentively and with sheer enthusiasm, we reached the following conclusions:
A very tranquil atmosphere for reading truly results in easing the interpretation with the complete involvement of overall feelings.
The main obstruction during a reading process arises from the lexical items. Any reading process seems weakening and slows down whenever students come across lexical items in that text. They use reading tactics repeatedly after recognizing the words (guessing 60%, consulting dictionary 30%, ignoring words 10%) so as to overcome lexical problems.

As soon as the reader carries on using past experiences and utilize them in the next reading, the interpretation accordingly improves and a new feeling is generated within the reader in the reading process.

The text translation seems inventive during a reading process. Obviously good readers accept it and continue their concentration on difficult passages or where it is demanded in a much comprehensive manner.

VI. CONCLUSION

Certainly it is a slow and gradual exercise which demands positive involvement and a sense of critical analysis from the reader. The text is a tool to translate ideas, cross-cultural interviews and the participation of reader's own environment. When learners recognize the link between the paragraphs and their own lives, reading turns interesting and understanding seems easier; thus overall reading revolves round different pivots through which reading approaches improve remarkably. New methodologies are born; enthusiasm increases and a habit of continuous reading gets created.

In this paper, we pinpointed certain important reasons as to why we should introduce textual readings in an EFL atmosphere of learning. Textual reading has thus concluded to be a useful method of motivation thereby enhancing and inculcating better reading opportunities of awareness towards learning a foreign language. Our experiment has given vivid feedback. We observed that the learners were very keen to take part in the future reading assignments. They both consciously and unconsciously depicted a sense of freedom during their active involvement in the overall phases of reading.

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Textual Glosses, Text Types, and Reading Comprehension

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Abstract—Studies conducted in the field of second language (L2) learning have revealed that the impact of gloss types on reading comprehension is an issue of debate. The present study investigated this issue across narrative and expository texts. The glosses applied in this study included single gloss in participants' first language (SL1G), single gloss in participants' second language (SL2G), and multiple-choice gloss (MCG) in participants' L2. A total of 108 undergraduate students majoring in English Literature and Translation at the University of Kashan in Iran read the texts under three conditions: SL1G, SL2G, and MCG. After reading, participants answered a multiple-choice (MC) reading comprehension test. To control the participants' reading proficiency, an MC cloze test was given to them a week later. One-Way ANOVA and follow-up post hoc Tukey's HSD tests ($p<.05$) showed that the most facilitative gloss type for the participants' reading comprehension of the narrative and expository texts were SL1G and SL2G respectively. When surveyed, participants showed their preference for marginal glosses in L2.

Index Terms—reading comprehension, single gloss, multiple-choice gloss, narrative text, expository text

I. INTRODUCTION

The attention to unfamiliar words in reading is a matter of high importance. Stahl (1983) described the connection between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension as a well-established relationship in reading research. This is because "vocabulary knowledge is fundamental to reading comprehension; one cannot understand text without knowing what most of the words mean" (Nagy, 1988, p. 1). Davis (1968) found that the most correlated factor with comprehension is word meaning knowledge. Researchers have studied glosses as one of the useful and practical devices in enhancing vocabulary and reading comprehension. As Nation (2001) puts it, gloss is "a brief definition or synonym, either in L1 or L2, which is provided with the text" (p. 174). Different scholars have pointed out to some advantages for using glosses while reading a text. The first benefit of applying glosses is that they can help readers understand new words more precisely through preventing incorrect guessing since deriving meaning from context can be difficult and risky owing to readers' lack of language or reading strategies (e.g., Hulstijn, 1992; Nation, 2001). In addition, glosses can help readers link the new information in the text with their previous knowledge. Moreover, glosses let learners gain greater autonomy and be less dependent upon their teachers since it is feasible for them to look up just the words they do not know (Jacobs, 1994; Nation, 1990). Hulstijn (1992) proposed the use of multiple choice gloss (MCG) to combine both advantages of vocabulary glosses and meaning inferring Since there was a diminishing long-term effect of glosses on vocabulary learning. The design of MCG was based on the *mental effort hypothesis*, that claimed inferring requires mental effort. The greater the mental effort, the better and learner's recall and retention of information acquired through that effort (Hulstijn, 1992; 2001).

There have been some studies done on the effect of glossing on enhancing L2 language reading comprehension. Holley and King (1971), Johnson (1982), Jacobs et al. (1994), Bell and LeBlanc (2000), Cheng and Good (2009) showed no significant effect for glossing in L2 reading comprehension, whereas Davis (1989), Jacobs (1994), and Ko (2005) showed that glosses did in fact enhance it.

On the basis the above, it is observed that research on the utility of glosses for EFL readers has been inconclusive. Some research has suggested glosses to be helpful for such readers, whereas others have challenged their efficacy. Taking into account the positive findings of the effectiveness of gloss, researchers have shifted their focus from gloss effects to gloss types (Nagata, 1999; Watanabe, 1997). In other words, there has been an attempt to determine what gloss types generate more positive learning effects. One of the issues on gloss types is which gloss facilitates students' reading comprehension the most.

Another issue that is of great importance but has greatly been ignored in literature is the issue of gloss type. As Joyce (1997) put it, "text type must also be considered when performing research on reading comprehension" (p.63). Joyce also referred to an empirical study conducted by Luo (1993). Luo found that marginal glosses in the participants' L1 facilitated comprehension of literary texts. Further, Joyce (1997) proposed that future research should compare the

impact of glossing on different text types. Present findings based on one text type restrict the extent to which research results can be generalized to other reading environments. However, the effectiveness of gloss types on reading comprehension has been a controversial issue. Some research revealed no significant difference between gloss types (e.g. Jacobs et al., 1994) and others indicated the superiority of one gloss type over another type (Hulstijn et al., 1996; Ko, 2005; Miyasako, 2002).

Surprisingly, most studies involving only one reading passage failed to cite the need for additional research investigating the effects of their treatments across other text varieties. Since there is a gap in the literature related to the effect of gloss types across text types, the present study aimed to investigate the effect of gloss types on reading comprehension across text types. Psychological models of text comprehension have distinguished between two types of texts: narrative and expository. Narrative texts include poems, short stories and novels. As Weaver and Kintsch (1991) stated, narrative texts are those texts "whose main purpose is to entertain" (p. 230). Expository texts are those texts whose main goal is to inform. Weaver and Kintsch (1991) argued that a text cannot be expository and narrative simultaneously. Hence, the researchers decided to select these two text genres for this study. Furthermore, few studies (e.g. Bell and LeBlanc, 2000; Cheng and Good, 2009; Jacobs et al., 1994; Ko, 2005) have taken into account the participants' preference for gloss types. Jacobs et al. (1994) and Ko (2005) stated that their participants favored L2 glosses, whereas Bell and LeBlanc (2000) and Cheng and Good (2009) pointed out that their participants preferred L1 glosses. Regarding the above-mentioned studies, more empirical evidence on the readers' preference for glossing is required.

Therefore, this study aims to show whether single gloss in students' first language (SL1G), single L2 gloss in students' second language (SL2G), and multiple choice gloss (MCG) in students' second language differ in facilitating Iranian university EFL students' reading comprehension across two major text types; namely, narrative and expository texts. To find the Iranian university EFL students' attitude toward glossing viz. the frequency of attention to the glosses and preferences for the use, location, and language of glosses, a survey was conducted. Within the scope of this study, the following questions were addressed:

Q1: Is there any difference among SL1G, SL2G, and MCG in facilitating Iranian university EFL students' reading comprehension in a narrative text?

Q2: Is there any difference among SL1G, SL2G, and MCG in facilitating Iranian university EFL students' reading comprehension in an expository text?

Q3: What is the Iranian university EFL students' attitude toward glossing?

II. METHOD

A. Participants

To collect the required data for the research questions, a total of hundred eight undergraduate students (31 males and 77 females) in four intact classes were selected for the study. The participants in the present study were fifty-two freshmen and fifty-six sophomores majoring in English Literature and Translation at the University of Kashan. All of the participants had been taught English for 6 years in junior and senior high school. The participants' age ranged from 18 to 22. Before data collection, the researcher explained the nature of study to the potential participants. Participants were informed that all the information collected during the study would be kept confidential, and their scores would not be shared with their teachers and would not affect their grades.

B. Instrumentation

Gloss Types— Based on the research questions, three different types of glosses were used: SL1G, SL2G and MCG. In other words, the participants read the texts under three different learning conditions: SL1G, SL2G, and MCG. Participants in the SL1G group read both narrative and expository texts with provision of Persian translations that only had one correct meaning. Participants in the SL2G group read both narrative and expository texts with provision of English synonyms or definitions that only enjoyed one correct meaning. The L2 synonyms or definitions which were provided in both texts were selected such that the participants could easily understand them. Participants in MCG group read the texts provided with MCGs which contained not only one correct meaning but also another incorrect one as a distracter. This device is based on the mental effort hypothesis (Hulstijn, 2001) that claims students have the opportunity to infer from context and undergo the process of mental effort in searching and evaluating the best word meaning. It must be noted that the criterion for MC glossing was polysemy, namely those words which had more than one meaning. However, those target words which had just one meaning were provided with SGs.

Reading Texts— In the present study, two texts were selected. A short story entitled "The Cellist of Sarajevo" was selected from the study conducted by Ko (2005). It is a story about a cellist in Sarajevo who played his cello on the street while bombs and bullets flew during the war in 1992. The length of text was 931 words and its readability was 10.4 on the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level readability scale. The expository text entitled "The Great Australian Fence" was selected from IELTS Practice Tests Plus (2001). This text is an interesting piece of writing about the existing marvelous fence in Australia and its ecological impact on the environment. It also describes dingo and kangaroo as vermin for Australian wool growers and grazers. The length of text was 901 words and its readability was 11 on the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level readability scale. To control the difficulty of texts, the readability level of the texts needed

to be almost at the same level. Similar to the narrative text, the expository text was administered under three conditions, namely text including SL1Gs, text accompanied by SL2Gs, and the story with MCGs.

Reading Comprehension Test— The researcher designed the comprehension test to measure the impact of glosses on reading comprehension. In developing the items for the reading comprehension test for each text type the following reading skills were considered: the purpose of the author, expression meaning, main idea, attention to details, implied ideas, and tone (of the author or passage). The comprehension test was administered immediately after the completion of the reading task. An MC reading test consisting of 20 items in English was given to the participants after the reading. Participants were expected to select a correct answer among four choices. Questions were matched to all parts of the text so that the test could check for overall understanding of the passage. Since the narrative text used in this study was adopted from Ko (2005), the comprehension questions were selected from Ko's study. For the expository text, the comprehension questions were designed by the researcher himself. Two TEFL professors who were adept at writing MC questions were consulted to check each item and to judge the plausibility of the distracters. It was tried that every detail in the texts be tested. Any type of production test was avoided because the texts were quite long and the time allocated to the researcher (60 minutes each session) for the treatment and data collection was not enough to administer other comprehension tests. For narrative and expository texts the comprehension tests enjoyed coefficient alphas of .77 and .81, respectively.

Cloze Test— The previous research has shown that cloze tests correlates well with dictation, reading comprehension tests, essay writing, and standardized proficiency tests. Like Pak (1986), the present study determined the participants' reading comprehension ability by a cloze test which was administered a week later. Two cloze passages with the same readability level were selected from The University of Michigan Examination for the Certificate of Proficiency in English by Briggs et al. (1997) in order to control the participants' comprehension ability. Each passage was followed by 20 MC items. Participants were given 30 minutes to answer the cloze test. One score was allocated to each correct answer. So the highest score was 40. The readability of both passages was 12 on the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level readability scale. After scoring the participants' papers, the mean and standard deviation (SD) of the scores were computed. The mean was 21 and the SD was 4. The researcher decided to exclude those who scored above +2 SD and below -2 SD. That is, the participants who scored above 29 and below 13 in the cloze test were excluded from the study. The number of participants who were excluded was 15 out of 108.

Target Words Selection— Target words were selected primarily based on presumptions made by the researcher that the words would be unknown, unfamiliar, or difficult for the participants in the study (e.g. Hulstijn et al., 1996; Jacobs et al., 1994; Knight, 1994; Watanabe, 1997). A pretest was utilized to assess vocabulary knowledge prior to each of the reading tasks, thus revealing participants' degree of familiarity with the target items. In each text 30 words were glossed. Twenty five words were target words and five words were those presumed to be crucial for comprehension. The frequency of the target words in both narrative and expository texts was strictly controlled through looking their frequency up in the Collins COBUILD English Dictionary (1995), which is organized based on the Bank of English. Bank of English is a corpus of over 200 million words of written spoken English. In the present study, in each text type 25 target words were selected including 1 word in ♦♦♦ frequency band, 10 words in ♦♦ frequency band, 13 words in ♦ frequency band, and 1 word in no diamond frequency band (see Table 1). Moreover, five words in the narrative text, i.e. *cellist*, *cello*, *shell*, *agonized*, *cellar*, and *Joan of Arc*, and five words in the expository text, viz. *dingo*, *conservationist*, *outback*, *topography*, and *carnivore* were considered to be crucial for participants' comprehension and thus they were glossed.

TABLE 1.
TARGET WORDS IN THE NARRATIVE AND EXPOSITORY TEXTS

NARRATIVE TEXT				EXPOSITORY TEXT			
♦♦♦	♦♦	♦	no diamond	♦♦♦	♦♦	♦	no diamond
grip (n)	accumulate(v) defy (v) dignity (n) fling (v) long (v) massacre(n) mortar (n) outrage (n) soothe (v) stark (adj)	anguished (adj) anticipation (n) beckon (v) crater (n) crushing (adj) exuberant (adj) flawless (adj) frenzy (n) furor (n) haunting (adj) mournful (adj) splendor (n) subside (v)	unassuming (adj)	excess (n)	descend (v) eccentric (adj) erect (v) expedition (n) flock (n) levy (v) outlaw (n) scrub (n) sovereign (n) vividly (adv)	barren (adj) bounty (n) cull (v) eradicate (v) futile (adj) horde (n) ingenuity (n) mesh (n) predator (n) prodigious(adj) supplant (v) terrestrial (adj) ubiquitous (adj)	vermin (n)

The meaning of glossed words was provided for the participants in the margin of both texts. The meaning of L1 glossed and L2 glossed words was according to their meaning in the text. The MC glossed words were provided for the participants with two meanings. One meaning served as distracter and another was the word meaning related to the text. The adoption of two options in each MCG follows the design adopted by Hulstijn (1992). Hulstijn (1992) found that many students did not infer correctly from contextual clues and thus many distracters were chosen, Hulstijn speculates that the four choices in MCG were too many. Therefore, the current study used two options instead of four in order to decrease the chance of wrong inferring by utilizing a fewer number of distracters. In addition, the distracters in MCGs were constructed based on polysemy. In other words, the words which were selected to be glossed for MCG group had more than one meaning and the meaning that did not refer to the text served as distracter (see Table 2).

TABLE 2.
POLYSEMOUS TARGET WORDS IN THE NARRATIVE AND EXPOSITORY TEXTS

NARRATIVE TEXT		EXPOSITORY TEXT	
accumulate(v)	mortar (n)	barren (adj)	supplant (v)
anticipation (n)	outrage (n)	bounty (n)	terrestrial (adj)
beckon (v)	soothe (v)	cull (v)	vermin(n)
crater (n)	splendor (n)	descend (v)	vividly (adv)
defy (v)	stark (adj)	erect (v)	ubiquitous (adj)
dignity (n)	subside (v)	expedition (n)	
exuberant (adj)	unassuming(adj)	futile (adj)	
flawless (adj)		ingenuity (n)	
fling (v)		levy (v)	
furor (n)		predator (n)	
grip(n)		prodigious(adj)	
haunting (adj)		scrub (n)	
massacre(n)		sovereign (n)	

Questionnaire— A four-item questionnaire was designed to gather information about participants' attitudes toward glossing, the location of glosses, and the language of glosses (Persian or English) in a reading text. In addition, a question regarding how much they looked at the glosses was included.

C. Procedures

Four intact classes including freshmen and sophomores (N=108) who majored in English literature and translation at the University of Kashan were selected. As there were three versions of glossed reading text (SL1G, SL2G, and MCG), participants were randomly divided into three groups. The number of participants in each group was 36. But after administering the cloze test a week later, the number of participants in each group decreased to 31. Fifteen participants were dropped since the researchers considered them as outliers, i.e. those who scored above +2 SD and below -2 SD. In data collection, first, three versions of reading texts were randomly distributed to each participant: target words aided by SL1Gs, target words aided by SL2Gs, and target words aided by MCGs. Each reading text followed a comprehension test including 20 MC items. Participants had to read the text and answer reading comprehension questions within 30 minutes. Then, a four-item questionnaire was given to the participants to examine the participants' attitude toward glosses in a reading text. One week later, a cloze test was given to all participants to determine their reading ability.

D. Data Analysis

Regarding the first and second research questions, participants' reading comprehension scores of each text type (narrative and expository) were analyzed separately with One-Way ANOVA to determine if there were statistically significant main effects for the differences in paired comparisons. The independent variable was gloss types, and the dependent variable was the participants' reading comprehension of narrative and expository texts. Following the ANOVA, post hoc comparisons were done using Tukey's HSD. A Tukey's HSD test (HSD stands for "honestly significant difference") is a post hoc ANOVA test that compares each mean with all others, separately. Therefore, the Tukey's HSD test reveals if the mean score of sample A is significantly different compared to sample B or sample C. In the case of this study, a Tukey's HSD test distinguished between the means of the three groups.

III. RESULTS

The results for the study are presented below. The descriptive statistics are presented first, followed by the inferential statistics. In the inferential statistics, the results are presented according to the research questions. For each question, there is a short description of how the results were obtained, followed by a summary of the results, and a brief statement of what the results illustrate.

A. Results of Descriptive Statistics

In this section, the descriptive statistics of the collected data are presented. This includes the mean, standard deviation, and the range of participants' scores of the comprehension test in each text type. The results were obtained from 93

participants who distributed randomly in each group (SL1G, SL2G, and MCG) (each group N= 31). Table 3 illustrates the means, standard deviations, and ranges of the comprehension scores for the narrative and expository texts.

TABLE 3.
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND RANGES OF COMPREHENSION SCORES FOR THE NARRATIVE AND EXPOSITORY TEXTS

Gloss Type	*NARRATIVE TEXT*					*EXPOSITORY TEXT*				
	N	*M*	*SD*	*max*	*min*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*max*	*min*
SL1G	31	**15.71**	2.73	19	8	31	13.41	2.22	17	10
SL2G	31	12.23	2.74	19	10	31	**14.77**	2.68	17	7
MCG	31	12.58	3.33	20	7	31	13.13	2.53	18	9

SL1G group obtained the highest mean score on the comprehension test of the narrative text (M= 15.71, SD= 2.73), and SL2G group had the lowest mean score (M=12.23, SD= 2.74). The results indicate that participants provided with SL1G were more successful than other groups in comprehension of the narrative text, whereas participants provided with MCG underperformed in comprehending the narrative text. In the Expository text, SL2G group (M= 14.77, SD=2.68) had the highest mean scores on the comprehension test, and MCG group had the lowest mean score (M= 13.13, SD= 2.53).

Questionnaire— To investigate the third research question, a questionnaire including four items was given to each participant. Then, the questionnaire data were analyzed. To analyze the data, frequency counts and percentages were recorded for the responses on the four items. The first three items in the questionnaire asked about the participants' preferences for the use, location, and language of glosses. The last item tried to elicit the participants' frequency of attention to the glosses in reading texts. On the questionnaire, 94% responded that they preferred glosses. Concerning the location of the glosses, 90% said they preferred them to be located in the margin, 8% at the bottom of the page, and 2% at the end of the passage. With respect to the language of the glosses, 35% preferred glosses in L1 (Persian), 65% preferred glosses in L2 (English). Regarding the frequency of attention to the glosses in the reading texts, 53% responded that they noted nearly all of glosses, 41% paid attention to the most of glosses, 5% observed half of the glosses, and 1% gave attention to few glosses. In brief, 94% gave attention to all or most of glosses while reading the texts.

B. Results of Inferential Statistics

To address the research questions, the collected data in each text type (narrative and expository texts) were analyzed through applying One-Way ANOVA and post hoc Tukey's HSD ($p < .05$).

Results of the Effect of Gloss Type on Reading Comprehension of the Narrative Text

First, the participants' reading comprehension scores in the three groups (SL1G group, SL2G group, and MCG group) were scored. To determine if there were statistically significant main effects for the differences in paired comparisons a One-Way ANOVA was conducted. Table 4 shows a significant main effect of gloss type on the participants' reading comprehension scores of the narrative text, $F (2, 90) = 16.05$, $p<.05$.

TABLE 4.
RESULTS OF ANOVA ON READING COMPREHENSION TEST OF THE NARRATIVE TEXT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	638.90	2	113.95	**16.05**	**.000**
Within Groups	227.89	90	7.01		
Total	866.79	92			

To show which differences are significant, a post hoc Tukey's HSD test was applied. As demonstrated in Table 5, the Tukey's HSD test on the pairwise comparisons revealed a significant difference between SL1G group and SL2G group and another between SL1G group and MCG group ($p< .05$).

TABLE 5.
RESULTS OF THE POST HOC TEST

Gloss Type	Gloss Type	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
SL1G	SL2G	**3.48**	.677	**.000**
SL1G	MCG	**3.13**	.677	**.000**
MCG	SL2G	.35	.677	.860

The mean difference between SL1G group and SL2G group is significant ($p= .00$), and the mean difference is positive (MD= 3.48). So it can be concluded that the mean in SL1G group is greater than the mean in SL2G group. In addition, the mean difference between SL1G group and MCG group is significant ($p= .00$), and the mean difference is positive (MD= 3.13). Therefore, it can be inferred that the mean in SL1G group is greater than the mean in MCG group. According to Table 5, there is no significant difference between MC Gloss and the SL2G group ($p> .05$).

Results of the Effect of Gloss Type on Reading Comprehension of the Expository Text

First, the participants' reading comprehension scores in the three groups (SL1G group, SL2G group, and MCG group) were scored. Afterwards, to verify if there were statistically significant main effects for the differences in paired

comparisons, a One-Way ANOVA was applied. Table 6 depicts a significant main effect of gloss type on the participants' reading comprehension scores in the expository text, F (2, 90) = 5.40, $p<.05$.

TABLE 6.
RESULTS OF ANOVA ON READING COMPREHENSION TEST OF THE EXPOSITORY TEXT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	47.81	2	23.90	5.40	.006
Within Groups	398.52	90	4.43		
Total	446.33	92			

A post hoc Tukey's HSD test was applied to show which differences are significant. As showed in Table 7, the Tukey's HSD test on the pairwise comparisons revealed a significant difference between SL2G group and MCG group and another between SL2G group and SL1G group ($p< .05$).

TABLE 7.
RESULTS OF THE POST HOC TEST

Gloss Type	Gloss Type	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
SL2G	MCG	1.64	.534	.008
SL2G	SL1G	1.36	.534	.034
SL1G	MCG	.28	.534	.850

The mean difference between SL2G group and MCG group is significant ($p= .008$), and the mean difference is positive (MD= 1.64). Thus, it can be concluded that the mean in SL2G group is greater than the mean in MCG group. In addition, the mean difference between SL2G group and SL1G group is significant ($p= .034$), and the mean difference is positive (MD= 1.36). As a result, it can be concluded that the mean in SL2G group is greater than the mean in SL1G group. Table 7 shows that there is no significant difference between SL1G group and MCG group ($p> .05$).

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Glossing has been recognized as one of the most effective instruments for facilitating L2 learners' reading comprehension and there have been controversial results regarding the effect of gloss types on EFL students' reading comprehension. Therefore, this study aimed to ascertain the effect of gloss types (SL1G, SL2G and MCG) on Iranian EFL students' reading comprehension across narrative and expository texts, as two major text types.

The results of the first research question which asked the effect of gloss types on reading comprehension in narrative texts showed that SL1G yielded the highest effect on participants' comprehension in the narrative text than did by SL2G and MCG groups. In other words, SL1G facilitated participants' reading comprehension in the narrative text the most. In fact, SL1G affected the participants' reading comprehension of the narrative text more than other gloss types, i.e. SL2G and MCG. The interesting point is that although this study adopted the short story used in Ko's (2005) study, the results were reverse. In other words, Ko (2005) showed that L2 glosses were more helpful in a narrative text, but this study by adopting the same reading text and comprehension questions, and with the participants in the same grade (freshmen and sophomores), concluded that L1 glosses were more facilitative in a narrative text. Hence further research is necessary to compare the effect of gloss types on learners' L2 comprehension across narrative texts.

The second research question raised the question of the effectiveness of gloss types in reading comprehension in expository texts. The results showed SL2G yielded the highest effect on participants' comprehension in the expository text than did by SL1G and MCG. That is, in the expository text SL2G facilitated participants' reading comprehension the most. The significant effect of SL2G on reading comprehension in the expository text is in line with Ko (2005) who concluded that L2 marginal glosses are more effective in enhancing learners' reading comprehension than L1 glosses. But the difference is that Ko conducted his study in a narrative text (short story), whereas this study found SL2G to be more facilitative in an expository text. In contrast to Lomicka (1998) and Bell and LeBlanc (2000) that found no significant difference between gloss types in the participants' reading comprehension, the present study found one gloss type to be more facilitative for the participants' reading comprehension in both narrative and expository texts. Moreover, comparing   SGs, there was no significant effect of MCGs on participants' reading comprehension. Therefore, more studies should investigate the effectiveness of MCG and mental effort hypothesis proposed by Hulstijn (1992) on EFL and ESL students' reading comprehension.

The results of the questionnaire revealed that most of participants preferred glosses in L2, and in the margin of a text. These findings are in line with those by Jacobs (1994), Jacobs et al. (1994), and Ko (2005). In fact, the surveys conducted in these studies showed that most of participants preferred marginal L2 glosses more than other gloss types.

A. Pedagogical Implications

This study indicates that textual glosses should be available to foreign language learners while they are engaged in reading tasks. When students are engaged in reading, their attention to new words is drawn by the gloss and their knowledge of the unknown words is enhanced by the rich context in the reading material. Moreover, the presence of gloss can alleviate the burden of dictionary consultation on students' shoulders and prevent students from making

wrong inference or assigning an inappropriate meaning for the unknown words in the particular context. Therefore, gloss can ensure students' exact understanding of the text as well as the meaning of the unknown words. In addition, teachers and material developers can benefit from the findings. They can enhance the quality of reading comprehension text-books through utilizing marginal glosses in both narrative and expository texts.

B. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

There are many external factors that should be further controlled in future research, such as language proficiency level and reading strategies used by students. Since the participants in the current study were not divided according to their level of language proficiency, their diverse knowledge of English lexicon might result in more insightful findings. Likewise, different strategies used for reading is one factor of students' decisions of meaning selection in MCG condition. A qualitative research such as adopting introspective techniques can be conducted to investigate individual reading strategy toward different types of glosses. Participants' comprehension of the reading material was tested at the recognition level with MC responses. A combination of MC and other forms of vocabulary tests may lead to different results at different levels of comprehension. The study only measured learners' receptive knowledge of the target words, so if future study can incorporate both the measurement of learners' receptive knowledge and their productive knowledge, there will be more significant findings. Furthermore, the present study utilized marginal glosses, by having learners read back and forth between the target words in the context and the gloss, so that the form-meaning connection become consolidated more (Rott and Williams, 2003). Therefore, a future study can explore the effects of SG and MCG at the foot of the page, or at the end of the text, to see whether location of gloss has any impact on learners' vocabulary learning. In addition, because the focus of the study was just on the gloss types no control group was adopted. Hence, further study can be conducted by adding a control group so that a better picture from the effect of gloss types on Iranian university students will be attained. The study examined the effects of different textual glosses on students' reading comprehension across narrative and expository texts. Further study can be conducted across other text genres such as journalistic texts so as to investigate the effect of textual glosses on those text types. To obtain more insightful results, similar studies with more narrative and expository texts can be conducted as well. In other words, researchers can administer two or more passages in each text type so that results become more generalizeable.

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On the Techniques of English Fast-reading

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Abstract—**With the deepening reform of English language teaching and English major talents cultivation and the application of new English exam module, English fast-reading plays a more significant role in life, work and learning. This paper points out the significance of English reading, in particular fast-reading, analyzes the problems existing in students' reading competence and proposes approaches and strategies to improve reading competence.**

Index Terms—**English fast-reading, techniques, strategies**

I. The Significance of English Fast-reading

With the coming of the new technology revolution and development of modernization, the world has entered an unprecedented era. Quick pace of life and high efficiency are the distinctive features of the era. To adapt to the current situation, almost all walks of life, governments at all levels have improved their efficiency. Should reading, one of the most important media to convey information and English reading teaching focused on cultivating reading competence improve efficiency? Can they be highly efficient? This is the challenge imposed by the times and reality. UNESCO statistics show that from 1750 to 1950, the world's population has increased twice, and books by 800 times. Besides, the information from books published between 1950-1970 has totaled that of the past 3000 years. In spite of slight authoritative statistics at hand, it is a fact that with advent of the 21st century, knowledge has been increasing and updating. It is learned through reality that people's reading speed and competence can hardly keep in pace with the development of informationized society. Gu Xiaoming (1985), a famous expert on sociology and reading science pointed out in his strategies of reading that the backward reading approach has weakened talents cultivation as well as the progress of the whole nation.

Favorable reading competence is of vital importance in the basic stage of university English teaching. The "New Syllabus for University English Teaching" maintains that the objective of university English education is to improve the students' reading, listening, basic writing and speaking competence to acquire more professional information with English as an instrument and further develop their overall English competence. And hence, it is urgent to intensify the training of reading on students.

The reading competence mainly lies in intensive reading and extensive reading. However, English reading speed has been one of the major concerns. Generally, in practical work and life, fast-reading takes up 80 %- 90 % in reading, through which we can read widely to obtain more information and broaden our horizons. In addition, frequent access to materials enlarges vocabulary and grammar, develops reading skills and comprehension capacity and enhances interest in reading. The basic knowledge mainly concerns English professional knowledge. Without certain professional knowledge, hardly can we gain a better understanding about the content.

II. Problems in Current English Fast-reading Learning

Over recent years, with great development of foreign language teaching methodologies in our country, outdated teaching methods have been eliminated. However, English teaching has left far behind with the current situation. Many teachers are still limited to grammar teaching and ignore training of reading. English words are formed by alphabetic, a set of symbols representing vocal sounds. These symbols convey certain thoughts or ideas. So it's easier for readers to associate printed letters with vocal sounds in disregard of the fact that words are not supposed to utter in reading comprehension. When doing the fast-reading, it is required that students be totally attentive and the classroom quiet, for any sound may distract students. But some students like reading out. The moving of lips affects the speed of scanning. "An efficient reader can catch the meaning at the sight of symbol rather than going through the verbal stage." (Edward,1963, P211). In order to "get focused", some students put fingers under lines and read each single word, in case of any strange words, they should stop and can't understand the whole passage. Some may re-read the whole the sentence or paragraph if new words or phrases come up. Others incline to translate the words and sentences so as to understand the text through Chinese. Still, some students tend to analyze the grammar structure, even if reading a novel, to get the general idea and study each word for its lexical and grammatical usage. These inadequate reading habits hamper students' sufficient time for expanding reading and detain their progress in study. Year on year buried in text books, they have no time for other relevant reading. We have failed to lead the students to read more and gather as much information in limited time to improve their reading efficiency. If any new word and grammar point, expansion of

reading can help to review and consolidate knowledge and cover new information.

For those who just start fast-reading, they may come across such a problem as enhancement of reading speed affects accuracy of comprehension. Some students often say we have read too fast to understand the whole passage. Even though we have finished reading, we don't know what it is about. The training record has proved this phenomenon. In fact, it is just proved otherwise in practice in that given limited time those students are incompetent for fast-reading. They simply focus on reading speed to cover as much words as possible to broaden recognition space so that each word comes in sight, but the brain is left no room for evaluating or reacting. Another case is that in spite of sufficient time for evaluating each word in fast- reading, the thinking intelligence can't follow the pace. Therefore, this results in disconnection of sentence comprehension as well as the confusion upon the main idea of the text which is hindered by the grammar and details. Under such circumstances, Wang Shibin (2007)fast-reading is in conflict with comprehension since students just care about the "speed" rather that "accuracy". The competence of fast-reading is achieved through long-term steady training and cultivation. Students are required to find out their problems and figure out passable plans to cover various books to broaden their knowledge based on their personal study.

III. TECHNIQUES TO IMPROVE FAST-READING

To cope with those improper habits of reading, we will instruct students in scanning in sense groups, not in an individual word; in gaining the main idea of the text, not of a single sentence; to grasp the significance of literature directly from the brain, not from translation. Above all, the key to improving fast-reading is extensive reading. As following are some approaches and techniques to improve reading speed.

A. Silent Reading

Silent reading, the prerequisite for fast-reading, playing an important role in accelerating reading speed, since silent reading goes faster than the verbal reading, and the process of the latter coincide with the cooperative activities of four organs—eyes, brain, mouth and ears, through which symbols are first reflected to the eyes, then delivered to the brain; the brain orders the mouth to articulate, with the ears monitoring. In the contrast, silent reading is faster, for it involves eyes and brain only, without the performance of mouth and ears.

B. Extensive Reading

Extensive reading is reading books on vast fields in a fast way. It is essential to grasp the main idea and fix a clear reading target, say, 50 pages per day, 100 books can be fulfilled in a year.

C. Timed Reading

To take 5-10 minutes as a unit for reading and get fully attentive in the unit, for reading overtime easily leads to fatigue and distraction. To take down the starting and finishing time and work out reading speed. If you keep at it, timing is a good way to improve reading competence.

D. Skimming

Skimming is reading fast to get the gist of the text. To skim newspapers, magazines, novels or whatever you are interested in can make you broaden your horizon and enjoy the art of language. A qualified skimmer can read 3000-4000 words per minute.

E. Scanning

Scanning is glancing over the text at the highest speed for the details-the name of a person or a place, a particular date or event, etc. For instance, here is a calculator advertisement providing a variety of information of models, functions and prices of calculators. Supposing you would like to buy a calculator with reasonable price and function, you should first scan the prices, find out the affordable one, then compare between functions and at last choose the best one.

F. Guessing the Meaning of a Certain Word from Context

a. Encounter with new words in reading, you are able to guess the meaning of the word from the context.
(1) Guessing a certain word through the linking verb
Example: Sociology is the term used to describe the scientific study of human society.
Supposing sociology is a new word, the link verb to be has given its definition that is the science of human society.
(2) Guessing a certain word through the attributive clause
Example: This set of books is for children. The first book of the sequence, which is one of the most popular of children's stories, is a group of stories about the inhabitants of a village.
In the attributive clause, sequence is the synonym of series, so sequence here means a series of books.
(3) Guessing a certain word through its apposition
Example: The modern age of medicine began with the stethoscope, an instrument for listening to a patient's heartbeats and breathing. The apposition gives an accurate definition of stethoscope, a device to check the heartbeats.
b. Grasping the general meaning of a word

The passage is likely to define to the key words, but for the unfamiliar ones. Sometimes, there is no need to get the exact meaning of such a word. It is passable to get its general meaning for reading and passage comprehension. To follow the rules to get the general meaning of such a word.

(1) Finding out the form of a word based on grammar. (noun, verb, adjective etc)

(2) Finding out the parallel term (usually of the same word class), they may be synonyms.

Example: Sally liked to concoct all sorts of stories, but her mother always knew when she is lying. "Concoct" here is used as a verb, and synonymous to "lie", for they both mean telling lies.

(3) Word building (compound, transfer, derivation) helps to define a word.

Observing the building of a word helps to identify the word and improve fast-reading. On one hand, readers don't need to refer to the dictionary and keep on reading; on the other hand, it will largely increase the reader's passive vocabulary. From the roots and affixes, readers can properly guess the word.

Example: Many cancers have been arrested with use of chemotherapy. Chemotherapy is the compounded by "chemical" and "therapy", which means the chemical treatment.

G. Inference

Generally, fast readers can infer the meaning of the whole sentence based on several words and it also applies to the paragraph. Therefore, an extensive reading can not only bring about a greater range of knowledge, a better understanding but also qualified inference capacity. It is this ability that contributes to catching the best-needed information. One approach of inference used in English reading is to learn to skip those insignificant words.

H. Grasping the Key Sentence

First of all, in order to improve reading speed, much more importance should be attached to the key sentence which serves as a bond in context. If the key sentence is within grasp, others problems will be easily solved. Catching the key sentence is to identifying the topic sentence, which is used to comprehend the main idea of the text. Usually, topic sentence comes in the first sentence of each paragraph and sometimes the last, and exceptionally in the middle. Generally, the main idea of each paragraph can be grasped quickly and accurately, by identifying the topic sentence, and then the central idea of the whole text is clear. Moreover, identifying and grasping the meaning of the topic sentence makes it easier to understand the author's thoughts, textual structure and logic between the lines. Consequently, therefore reading speed and accuracy of understanding are greatly promoted.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Apart from abovementioned, fast-reading boosts quick memorization. In fast-reading, the reader is highly concentrated. Continuous reading, an intensified activity strengthens and promotes fast memorization. To achieve the intensified memorization, here are three levels: first, cramming (which is necessary and indispensable level); second, the memory of association; third, the memory of comprehension. Say, reading modern narratives, what is requested to be crammed is the title, author, time, place, characters, names, celebrities and famous sayings, etc.; what should be memorized by association is the plot (causes for the event, development, the key plot, climax, outcome); what needs the memory of comprehension is the key sentence, key sentence of a paragraph, event nature, fate of the characters, author's attitude, change of personal subject, conception of word, meaning or gist of the article and so on. In short, fast-reading promotes comprehension, reading speed as well as instant memorization.

It's far from sufficient to learn the theory of fast-reading. To practice comes top important. Cultivation of reading competence is not achieved in a short time. It needs bilateral devotion from both teachers and students. Responsibility of English teachers does not only lie in imparting knowledge to students but also in instructing students in their capacity (Lou Heying, 2001). Thus in teaching, teachers are supposed to cultivate and inspire students in accordance with their personal levels with a clear target and help them expand their reading to get greater access to more English and American culture, broaden their horizon, grasp the adequate approaches of reading and endeavor to enhance their reading competence.

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Cognitive Semiotics Approach for Communication Development of Language Learners

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Abstract—**Communication is a two way mode of expression between the encoder and the decoder. The role of communication in the human society is sharing the affective and cognitive attributes to interact. Many times communicated message failed to understand or process by the receiver. Researches proved that lack of skills in communication results to false understanding. The language has four communication skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing) where the representations are in the forms of signs and symbols. The task of the language teacher is making the learner to construct meaningful semantic and syntactic representations by signs and symbols to enhance the communication competencies. The lack of thematic, vocabulary and grammatical structures insists the language learners to struggle in expressing their thinking in written and spoken form. Thinking depends on the cognition activities, i.e., Representation and Computation. Cognitive is an interdisciplinary study of the mental phenomena involving human mind in terms of perception, memory and language. Semiotics is the study of signs or symbols and Cognitive semiotics studies the relations between signs and language. This paper explores the role of cognition and semiotics in developing better and effective communication in spoken and written forms of Language learners by the Language teachers.**

Index Terms—**cognitive semiotics, communication skill, language learners**

In the present decade of modern Education, it is essential that the schools be places that help students for better understand of complex, symbol-rich culture in which they live in. A new vision of literacy is essential if educators are serious about the broad goals of education: preparing students to function as informed and effective citizens in a democratic society; preparing students to realize personal fulfilment; and preparing students to function effectively in a rapidly changing world that demands command over communication. It is not alone related to technologies or information and communication technology or electronic communication. It is also a simple way of interaction to express the thoughts and feelings using verbal and non-verbal communications.

I. SEMIOTICS

Communication does not happen all of a sudden, it needs a speaker, receiver and the known subject or object going to be discussed. Semiology (semiotics) is the study of science of signs. The signs may be verbal and nonverbal. It is a type of scientific inquiry that studies virtually everything we do, use to represent the world around us and to make messages about something. Semiotics or semiology is considered as a subject, a movement, a philosophy, or science. The example of the bird is Peacock (is a sign in semiotics). The semiotician refers to the meaningful location of the context, to its meaning in specific contexts as referred, to the ways in which it generates meaning as a code-based, and to the ways in which a message is understood as interpretation. (Danesi, 1994). The subject matter and the key concepts of semiotics has always been the 'sign'. Semiotics studies every sign, icon, or symbol from traffic lights to charts and graphics on a newspaper, from commercial advertisements to icons on the web pages, from gestures to dance movements.

"Signs" is not a recent concept. It has origin from Aristotle, Hippocrates, Locke and many others, have contributed to the study of signs. Medieval philosopher John Locke and many others have shown interest in signs and the way they communicate. The etymology of the term semiotics is from Greek word sema- "marks, signs" (singular: semeion). It is defined as the science of doctrine of signs. The English philosopher John Locke (1696) first used Greek word 'seemeiootikee',in the modern sense. The word *semeiotica* is still used in Italy to refer to the study of symptoms in medical science.

Modern semiotics emerged through the work of two linguistics theorists: Swiss Linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913) and American philosopher Charles Saunders Peirce (1839-1914). These two philosophers inspired Charles Morris, Thomas Sebeok, Umberto Eco, and Roland Barthes. Ferdinand De Saussure published *Course in General Linguistics* in 1915. For Saussure, a sign has two components, the signifier or "sound-image", and the signified, or "concept". The relationship between signifier and the signified is arbitrary. He used the term "semiology" to refer to the systematic study of signs. The most widely used definition of semiotics comes from Peirce who is considered to be the co-founder of the semiotics along with Saussure. He defines semiotics as the "doctrine" of signs "stands to somebody for something in some respect or capacity." (Peirce, 1958)

Although semiotics is both a sphere of inquiry and a meta-analytic tool that has been used in philosophy, anthropology, sociology and linguistics, examination of signs in an educational context is a relatively recent phenomenon. (Cassidy, 1982) The field of semiotics became popular since it has been used in theatre, medicine, architecture, puppetry, television, tourism, and now on the Internet. It includes study of how animals communicate (zoo semiotics), of nonverbal communication (kinesics), of aesthetics, of rhetoric, of visual communication, of myths and narratives, of anything that allows us to make meaning and sense of the world. (Danesi, 1994) Semiotics looks at how the meaning is generated in "texts" (films, television programs, fashion, foods, books etc.). The book we read conveys meaning beyond reading. It shows status, taste of reading and the style of writing, love towards the theme, integration, and so on. (Berger, 1982)

In his influential book, *A Theory of Semiotics,* Umberto Eco (1976) defines semiotics as "the discipline studying everything, which can be used in order to lie." Eco continues, "Semiotics is concerned with everything that can be taken as a sign. A sign is everything which can be taken as significantly substituting for something else." (Eco, 1976)

II. COMMUNICATION AND SEMIOTICS

Human beings talk, write, blink, wave, and codes of conduct. They put up signposts and erect barriers to communicate messages to other people. They produce and interpret signs. But even if no one intends to communicate anything, sign processes are taking place: A teacher interpreths the symptoms of the poor achievement of the learner and a police triggers an alarm when he saw the thief. Then, what is not a sign? Almost every action, object, or image means something to someone somewhere or sometime. From our gestures to what colour dress we wear is a sign that has meaning beyond the object itself.

III. CONSTRUCTION OF MEANING

The meaning of signs or representations is dependent on social, cultural, and historical contexts. We construct meaning based on the physical appearance of the sign; our previous personal and cultural experience; time to time we live in; and context or place it occurs. There is not one meaning or interpretation of an each sign. There are multiple sides and points of view to each sign. As in James Mangan (1981) doctoral thesis, *Learning through pictures* provides interesting examples to illustrate both communication and cognitive limitations to the ability to understand pictures. These limitations must be taken into account when designing learning materials not only for rural villagers but the global villagers in the world. Mangan says "communication differences in perception is more subtle and numerous than most educators suspect."

The greatest difficulty for international language of signs is that the same denoted sign can have many different connotations. When messages are transmitted across cultures -whether based on age, economics, gender, ethnic background, location, it is decoded differently. For example, in many cultures eye contact between two individuals talking to each other is a sign of interest. In other cultures, it may indicate disrespect, insult. In other words, for something to be a sign, the viewer must understand its meaning. If you do not understand the meaning in the context used, it isn't a sign to use. (Lester, 1995)

W. V. Quine's famous example shows the impossibility of learning a language. Imagine yourself as an adventurous linguist comforted in some unknown territory hosted by a tribe. You are trying to learn their language, and at some point your host points his index towards a rabbit running in the distance and says "gavagai", what could you deduce from that? That "gavagai" means rabbit? Or "in the distance"? Or "brown-grey"? Or "this is our meal for tonight"? Or that *this* rabbit is called "gavagai"? Or that it means, "Go home!" If the indexical sign is not clearly identified, (and how could it be identified?), this iconic way of learning a language (word meanings by analogy with existing things) cannot work (Codognet, 1990). Every single thing has meaning and gives a different message depending on where it is located and who sees it. For instance the colour Blue is seen as trustworthy, dependable and committed. The colour of sky and the ocean, blue is perceived as a constant in our lives.

The definition of communication literacy has been changing rapidly. As Ernest L. Boyer said "It is no longer enough to simply read and write. Students must also become literate in the understanding of visual images. Our children must learn how to spot a stereotype, isolate a social cliché and distinguish facts from propaganda, analysis from banner, important news from coverage."

Today, gaining communication Literacy skills is becoming more important. Preventing a new generation to see television or use Internet is not going to solve the violence, hunger, or world problems. The more we learn about

television, use the Internet, the more likely we see and understand the world. As Len Masterman (1985) says, "Media are symbolic systems; not simply reflection of reality which must be accepted, but with languages which need to be actively read, and interrogated." Acquiring communication via digital literacy for Internet use involves mastering a set of core competencies. The most essential of these is the ability to make informed judgments about what you find on-line. (Gilster, 1997)

Cornellia Brunner and William Tally (1999) places emphasis on the importance of effective research skills in education and encourage educators to incorporate new media literacy skills into the curriculum to impart advance communication skills. In addition to reading, writing, and arithmetic, Rich Thome (1996) adds another R (research) in his article, *Fourth R is Research.* In the information and communication age, even though reaching information on the internet seems to be in our finger tips, finding a reliable resource and ability to make informed judgments about what one finds on-line requires new skills." (Gilster, 1997)

The aim of the Educator is to develop awareness about print and the newer technologies of communications so that students can get the best out of each in the educational process. Without understanding of languages and grammars, we cannot hope to achieve a contemporary awareness of the world in which we live (McLuhan, 1967). Carmen Luke (1994) and Marshall McLuhan (1967) talk about "grammar" and "language" of moving images. Musicians use notes and scales to communicate, dancers use movement, scientists use mathematical notations and language teacher uses stress, pause, intonation, gestures, verbal symbols and non-verbal symbols to communicate or interact in the classroom situation. But in many circumstances, the Language teacher finds difficult over communicating with all the signs of the language. The language teacher requires assistive technologies to fulfil the required demands of the communication process. Therefore the language teacher inducted digital media into the language classroom. It does not mean, language classroom is solely depending on digital media and language teachers are not required. The digital media is a supplementing process. The language teacher should use digital media where the language teacher fails to communicate over language signs. Language laboratory, film, television, commercials, and the Internet are texts and have their own language and grammar. Language is a social institution that gives us the rules and conventions and speaking is the action part that is based on language.

IV. CONCLUSION: EDUCATION AND SIGNIFICATION

Kimberly J. Sloan (1995) wrote a reflection piece on her "teachable moment." While I was working as a media specialist in a high school, I had an interesting incident. Teachers were required to save students' progress reports on a floppy disk, and then upload the file to the registrar's office though a school wide information system. One day, one of the teachers told me that the registrar received her file without any data. She was sure she followed all the directions in the manual and even the computer said "OK." It took us a while to find out which step she missed and why she thought she was right. When she saw "0K" (zero kilobytes), she thought it was "OK" meaning the message transmitted safely to the registrar's office. The teachers' role in education is critical and important. For Paulo Freire (1993), "Education must begin with the solution of the teacher-student contradiction, by reconciling the poles of the contradiction so that both are simultaneously teachers and students." Although it is almost impossible to understand each and every students' background and culture and their interpretation of the signs and symbols, as Sloan (1995) suggests "We can use our various interpretations of signs as a starting place for discussion of our often opposing value systems, to create interesting juxtapositions, and to investigate others "personal structures" to broaden our own experiences." In the millennium, we are going to be surrendered by more and more images from bulletin boards to Internet, from advertisements and banners to book covers. The Internet and new technologies creates new images, icons, symbols, and metaphors to study for us to make sense of the Cyberspace.

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The Effect of "Bilingualism" on Iranian ELT Student's "Critical thinking ability" (CT)

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Abstract—This paper presents the results of a study of the effect of bilingualism on the critical thinking ability of two groups of Iranian university ELT, M.A students: one composed of Azeri-Turkish bilinguals and the other, of Persian monolinguals. The study attempted to ascertain whether bilinguals would do better than monolinguals on a critical thinking questionnaire and whether males and females would perform differently. Subjects were given the CT questionnaire to answer. The results were then analyzed, and it was concluded that while there was no statistically significant difference between males and females, bilinguals definitely outperformed monolinguals on the CT questionnaire. Given these results, bilingual education programs beginning in early elementary school were recommended for Iran.

Index Terms—critical thinking, bilingualism, gender differences, Turkish, Persian

I. INTRODUCTION

It has been observed that bilingualism as both a cognitive and social feature of a person is influenced by the details of the individual's life and also has effects upon language education and related domains ((Raymond et all, 2002).It would then be logical to assume that there must be some relationship between bilingualism and a cognitive or mental ability such as critical thinking. This article attempts to answer the question: does bilingualism affect critical thinking (CT)? In addition, since gender differences have been observed in many areas of linguistic and cognitive performance, the study aims to determine if there are any differences due to gender in CT.

Critical Thinking is the process of using reasoning to discern what is true and what is false in the utterances we hear and the texts we read every day. CT involves being familiar with logic and logical fallacies, those bits of false reasoning that are used to manipulate and mislead us, as well as being able to separate facts from opinions. CT also entails being fair and open minded, not dismissing anything without examination, and not accepting anything without examination. It further involves asking questions of yourself and others, because that is how we uncover the truth and the motivations behind the arguments, along with self-regulation, the ongoing process of making sure that you have not fallen into any of the logical fallacies or rationalizations yourself.

Ideal critical thinkers are open minded; ready and eager to explore all ideas and all points of view, including those alien or opposed to their own.

They are not threatened by opposing views, because they are looking for the truth; they know that if they have it already, it will stand any scrutiny. And if they don't have it, they are willing to drop the falsehoods they have, and embrace it.

Critical thinkers question everything; using their tools to ferret out the truth, wherever it may hide. The tools they use are Logic, Research, and Experience.

Critical thinking can not only make you manipulation proof, it can open new vistas for you, as things previously hidden become clear. Meyers (1986)

Critical thinking has been called one of the most important attributes for success in the 21st century (Hui_, 1998). Meyers (1986) argued that for students to reach their fullest potential in today's society, they must learn to think and reason critically. Paul (2002) contended that in a world of accelerating change, intensifying complexity and increasing interdependence, critical thinking is now a requirement for economic and social survival.

Minority students in Iran among them the Turkish, Armenians, Azeris, Kurds, ARABS, Baluchis, Turkmen, Assyrians, and Georgians) come to school speaking their own native languages and have to study in Farsi while most of the times they do not have enough command on Farsi as language of instruction and on the other hand they become compound bilinguals as the result of being exposed to Farsi before their critical period. After that in guidance school they learn English as their third language, but many students nowadays in modern Iran start learning English before guidance schools in language institutes and gradually English becomes their foreign language. If critical thinking is required for survival in modern Iran, then the question arises as to whether minority groups in Iran as bilinguals are more critical thinkers or not?

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Critical Thinking Defined

Critical thinking, a common term in educational, psychological, and philosophical circles, has been defined by researchers and theorists as a "set of intellectual standards" that can be used by individuals while thinking (Paul, 1995). Chafee (1988) defined critical thinking as "our active, purposeful, and organized efforts to make sense of our world by carefully examining our thinking, and the thinking of others, in order to clarify and improve our understanding" (p. 29)

Though it is difficult to find a universally accepted definition of critical thinking, there appears to be similar themes as noted in scholarly publications. Some even consider critical thinking as an essential skill, which is required to function in society (Celuch and Slama, 1999). Conceptually, this could show a difference in critical thinking skills among various age groups and those with greater life experiences.

Critical thinking definitions range from the simple to the complex. Robert Ennis (1991) simply defined critical thinking as "reasonable and reflective thinking focused on deciding what to do or believe." Paul (1995) wrote that the "master of critical thinking" uses a set of intellectual standards while thinking. These standards guide the thinking process as well as help individuals heighten their ability to think critically. "The ideal critical thinker is habitually inquisitive, well-informed, trustful of reason, open-minded, flexible, fair-minded in evaluation, honest in facing personal biases, prudent in making judgments, willing to reconsider, clear about issues, orderly in complex matters, diligent in seeking relevant information, reasonable in the selection of criteria, focused in inquiry, and persistent in seeking results which are as precise as the subject and the circumstances of inquiry permit" (Paul,1 995, p. 2). Extending from Facione's work, Rudd, Baker and Hoover (2000) defined critical thinking as: "A reasoned, purposive, and introspective approach to solving problems or addressing questions with incomplete evidence and information and for which an incontrovertible solution is unlikely" (p. 5).

Along the same lines, The Foundation for Critical Thinking (1997) states that:

"…critical thinking is associated with the following elements of reasoning: purpose of the thinking, key issue or question being considered, assumptions, point of view, evidence, concepts, and ideas, inferences or interpretations, and implications or consequences (Celuch and Slama, 1999, p. 2)."

Both of the above definitions require the critical thinker to identify a question and to gather information associated with the question. The critical thinker is then to draw on past knowledge and experience in order to evaluate a possible outcome in resolving the question. Possibly the most important aspect of the process is the ability of the critical thinker to foresee possible outcomes and apply the best solution to the question.

Peter Facione (1996) discusses the challenge and difficulty a group of subject experts had in developing a consensus when defining critical thinking. In doing so, he discusses the impacts, similar to those elements stated in the above definitions; have on the subject in which the critical thinker is undertaking. These, and other elements such as inquisitiveness, open mindedness, analytical, self confidence, sytematicity, cognitive maturity, and truth-seeking can also impact the dimensions of critical thought which have to be broken down into affective and cognitive strategies for critical thinking to take place (Facione, 1996, and Paul, Binker, Jensen, and Kreklau, 1990).

This is further evidenced in the definition provided by the American Philosophical Association. They state:

"…the process of purposeful, self-regulatory judgement. This process gives consideration to evidence, contexts, conceptualizations, methods, and criteria (The APA Delphi Report, 1990 cited in Facione 1998)."

The underlying theme of these definitions and the discussions that accompany them describe the formula for "problem-solving" and a process for "decision-making." The five steps in the problem solving formula are, identifying the problem, gather data, consider possible solutions, apply the best solution, and evaluate the consequences. Therefore, explaining the value and importance of critical thinking by managers (Guffey, 1996). After all, is this not the role of a manager? If it were not for the need to solve problems and make decisions, there would be no need for managers.

Similarly, hospitality managers are asked to draw on their education, life experience, and practical experience in the performance of their job. Moreover, many hospitality companies recruiting hospitality graduates require the prospective manager to have had some kind of field experience to draw from. Likewise, all, if not most, hospitality programs have made some kind industry simulation laboratory experience part of their curriculum. Each of these experiences establishes some base for the student to draw from when they are solving problems and thinking critically in the professional role of a hospitality manager. Demanding these educational experiences for students, academic institutions and hospitality management programs in particular, recognize the need for critical thinking skills in management.

B. The Need for Critical Thinking

A common complaint among educators is the generalization that students of today are lazy and lack the desire to investigate answers to questions. Instead, they would rather that the educators give them the answers and let them regurgitate that answer back to them on an exam. Not soon enough, the students realize that they will be paid to resolve problems and come up with the answer on their own with a more severe penalty than losing a few points on an exam (Bowmen, 1987).

However, corporate structure and leadership styles of many industries, the hospitality industry included, do not always foster or encourage critical thinking skills by lower level managers and employees. The autocratic leadership style of the boss making all the decisions does not promote problem solving or critical thinking by lower level workers. Furthermore, some industries, such as quick service restaurants, and other foodservice operations, have become so

procedure oriented that they do not allow for creative problem solving or critical thinking by workers. Instead, managers are asked to refer to the procedure manual to solve the problem at hand.

This is but one criticism of the "promotion from within" practice, taking place in many retail and restaurant operations. The concept that a senior hourly employee, who knows all the procedures, practices, and tasks to be completed in a business, will make a good leader and/or manager does not consider the critical thinking skills necessary for the position. This is further evidenced in a study by Kepner-Tregoe where business managers and employees said their companies limited the thinking necessary in problem-solving and decision making. In the study, nearly half of both managers and employees said it was difficult to obtain the information needed to solve problems, make decisions, and draw up plans. The development and utilization of critical thinking skills by the entire workforce is imperative for future success (Allnoch, 1997).

Other research suggests that employers are looking for critical thinking skills when recruiting new college graduates. According to a study by Mathew Mariani, those qualities rated as "almost always important as a job performance indicator" include sincerity, eagerness, decision-making skills, **critical thinking**, initiative, professional attitude, and oral communication and verbal skills (Mariani, 1994).

C. Bilingualism

Becoming bilingual is a way of life. Your whole person is affected as you struggle to reach beyond the confines of your first language and into a new language, a new culture, a new way of thinking, feeling, and acting (Brown 1994 p. 1).

The 'wholistic' view of bilingualism (Grosjean, 1992) provides an explanation of the different cognitive abilities of monolingual and bilingual individuals by taking their differential use of language into account. The approach states that 'the bilingual…has a unique and specific linguistic configuration' (Grosjean, 1992, p. 55) and proposes that by using two languages in interacting ways, the bilingual individual develops a distinct linguistic system not to be found in monolingual comparisons. According to this, the differing outcomes of the two language groups observed in tasks assessing cognitive functioning are thought to be caused by the difference in the bilingual's underlying composition of language.

As further argued by Bialystok (1999) the bilingual realises the arbitrariness of language and understands that one word may come to represent many things. In this way, the interpretation and association of words for the bilingual, requires an advanced representation because more abstract connections are made between them.

Indeed, it is apparent from many studies of the cognitive abilities of children that there is an advantage to be gained from the early acquisition of a second language.

Developmental differences in many aspects of cognitive control have been identified between bilingual and monolingual children, particularly in the completion of tasks which require a large amount of attention and selection. Bilingual children also demonstrate greater efficiency when switching from one task to another, showing evidence of many uniquely advanced skills in what is known as 'executive functioning' (Bialystok, 2005). To summarize the term, executive functioning involves an "awareness to operate intentionally and an inhibition mechanism to suppress the more automatic responses of the lower levels" (Bialystok, 1999, p. 637).

According to Baker (1993) bilingualism is not simply the ability to speak two languages but also must include the components of written expression. Most recent research into bilingualism focuses on oracy and literacy—the four basic abilities of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Cummins (2000) develops the concept of a cognitive competency, the ability to reason and think, as a fifth ability factor in bilingualism. This notion was first introduced by (Skutnabb-Kangas 1981, cited in website) who referred to the ability to use both languages as thinking tools. Cummins (2000) took it farther and included the ability to reason and create new cognitive patterns or neural networks capable of handling the abstract uses of language that make up the deep structure of communication. According to him, Bilingualism and multilingualism must include the ability to continue growth in low frequency, abstract vocabulary and linguistically complex structures.

According to (Linda Orr Easthouse, 2003), if we agree that bilingualism is the ability to read, write, speak, listen, and think in two languages, then we can see that most learners will not be able to gain all five competencies

- Pronunciation (phonetic aptitudes),
-vocabulary (lexical development),
-grammar (syntax and rule development),
-meaning (comprehension and discourse features), and style (context, register, function) in both languages within in a shortened time frame, especially given the kinds of programs offered.

But (Baker 2006) thinks; since a bilingual uses two languages for different purposes, in different domains of life and with different people, equal competence in both languages is a myth. It should be noted that language proficiency in both monolinguals and bilinguals consists of a diverse combination of skills (i.e., speaking, writing, listening and reading) that are not necessarily correlated. An individual's proficiency may vary across the different skills. While some bilinguals show very high levels of proficiency in both languages in the written and oral abilities, others' comprehension or speaking skills are related to the specific domains of experiences with using two languages. Therefore, proficiency needs to be assessed in a variety of areas.

Bloomfield (Romaine1995: 11) describes bilingualism as native-like control of two languages. This means that you have to presume the idea of a perfect bilingual person. According to Bloomfield, there should not exist any kind of shortcomings in the second language. In order to be considered as bilingual according to Bloomfield's definition, a speaker has to have an extensive vocabulary as well as perfect skills in reading, writing, listening and speaking. Assuming native control of two languages as a prerequisite for bilingualism means that there would be less people considering themselves to be bilingual.

Often people have knowledge gaps in their mother tongue since both a language and the individual develop over time. To be up-to-date with two languages is arguably impossible. Other linguists are less strict in their definitions of bilingualism.

Titone defines bilingualism as "the individual's capacity to speak a second language while following the concepts and structures of that language rather than paraphrasing his or her mother tongue" (Easthouse 2003). Titone maintains that people who have the ability to hold a conversation in a different language are bilingual. His definition includes people that manage to communicate in a second language without being perfectly proficient. This means that in order to consider someone as bilingual that person does not need to have perfect skills in reading and writing, for example, as long as he/she has the capacity to communicate in the language's different communicative modes. Other definitions are more open to interpretation.

Haugen states in his definition that "Bilingualism begins when the speaker can produce complete, meaningful sentences in another language" (Karosas: 2004).

Haugen does not imply native control and states that someone is already bilingual when he/she can make useful and meaningful utterances in another language. That means that almost anyone that acquires another language can be seen as bilingual, even though he/she would never consider him/herself as bilingual. Haugen's definition is questionable because people who manage to make meaningful utterances might still not be able to have fluent conversations in their second language. Furthermore, the definition does not take into account other skills such as listening or writing. An even looser definition of bilingualism is presented by Diebold.

Diebold sees anyone who knows a few words in another language as bilingual.

Diebold's term is *incipient bilingualism*. Incipient bilingualism means "the initial stages of contact between two languages (Leinyui:2006) Diebold's view on bilingualism is in other words very broad and open. For example, Diebold would consider a person who merely knows a few single content words without even being to able to link them together as bilingual. Diebold's definition has no clear criteria and leaves too many question marks to be of any practical use.

Similarly, Edwards considers anyone who speaks a few words of another language as bilingual. The degree of bilingualism develops as the individual's language competence improves.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

A total of 120 ELT M.A students in both monolingual and bilingual groups were chosen for this study. Each group consisted of 30 male and 30 female students. The range of age was between 23-33 and they belong approximately to the same social class. The students were asked to volunteer by their prospective instructor and given the exam instrument. All individuals were guaranteed confidentiality. The only information asked of the individual subjects was social class, gender, and age. Subjects were then asked to read a statement of critical thinking questionnaire (see appendix A). There was no time limit placed on the participants to complete the entire appraisal exercise. But it usually took less than 30 minutes to complete.

B. Instrumentation

For the purpose of measuring the subjects' CT ability, a critical thinking disposition and skills instruction manual By Irani. T, Rudd. R, Gallo. M, Ricketts. J, Freidel. C, & Rhoades.E (2007) (the manual can be found in Appendix A) was used to measure their CT.

C. Data Collection Method

The data used in this study represent the answers of 60 Persian and 60 Azeri Turkish, M.A students in ELT classes. The subjects were asked to volunteer for the study and then given the thirty- questions. The answer sheets were collected and given to the researcher. All the answer sheets were collected within a month in both bilingual and monolingual areas. And then answer sheets were returned to the researcher for final analysis.

D. Data Analysis and Discussion

After distributing the CT questionnaire (Appendix) among ELT students to each group, the questionnaires were collected about after half an hour, there were no pressure of time and the students had enough time to answer them. Then the researcher scored their answers out of the total mark 150. She calculated the average performance of each group once as a whole (both males and females within each group), and obtained the average Performance of each group as a whole to compare the performance of bilinguals to monolinguals (Table 3) then she compared the same

genders of each group; i.e monolingual females with bilingual females (Table 1) and monolingual males with bilingual males (Table 2) and then she argued the scores in this three way.

TABLE 1
AVERAGE PERFORMANCE OF FEMALES IN EACH GROUP

Monolingual female scores	Frequency	Bilingual Female scores	Frequency
60	4	82	2
70	2	86	2
74	2	90	2
82	2	95	2
84	2	98	2
85	4	99	4
90	2	100	4
95	2	102	2
100	4	108	2
105	4	109	2
110	2	134	2
€Xf=2408	2	135	2
€X/N=2408/30	2	150	2
€X/N=80.2	N=30	€Xf=3074	N=30
		€X/N=3074/30	
		€X/N=102.4	

Mono/F= €X/N= 93.99
Bi/F=€X/N= 106.46
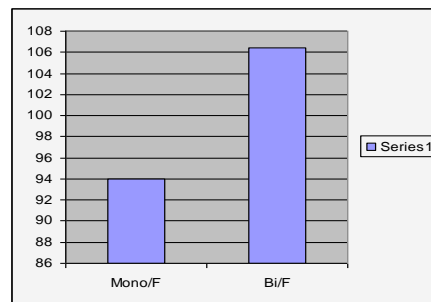
Chart 1

TABLE 2
AVERAGE PERFORMANCE OF MALES IN EACH GROUP

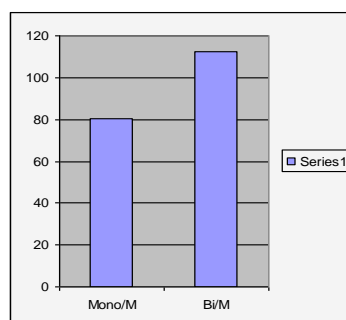| Monolingual male scores	Frequency	Bilingual male scores	Frequency
60	4	82	2
70	2	86	2
74	2	90	2
82	2	150	2
84	4	98	2
85	2	99	4
90	2	100	4
95	2	145	2
100	4	108	2
105	2	109	2
110	2	134	2
€Xm=2408		135	2
€X/N=2408/30		150	2
€X/N=80.2		€Xm=3372	N=30
		€X/N=3372/30	
	N=30	€X/N=112.4	

Chart 2

TABLE 3
AVERAGE PERFORMANCE OF EACH GROUP AS WHOLE (F &M)

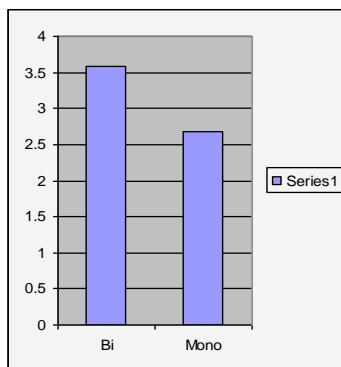| The average of Bilinguals' scores	€Xf+€Xm=€Xw 102.4+112.4=214.8 €Xw/N= 214.8/60=3.58
The average of monolinguals' scores	€Xm+€Xf=€Xw €Xw/N=80.2+80.2=160.4 €Xw/N=160.4/60=2.67

Chart 3

As shown in tables and in charts, bilingual group obtaining the total score of 214.8. In comparison to the mono group's 160.4 score, outperformed in CT manual. However, no clear superiority due to gender was found across the groups. In bilingual group males scored higher than females (112 in comparison to 102) and in monolingual group females and males gained the same score 80. Comparing subjects of the same gender in each group, it was found that both females and males of the bilingual group did better than the monolingual group. So it can not be concluded that there is any superiority due to gender in CT ability, but it can be demonstrated that Bilingualism apart from all its negative effects influences CT in a positive way.

IV. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

Critical thinking is an eminently practical goal and value. It is focused on an ancient Greek ideal of "living an examined life". It is based on the skills, the insights, and the values essential to that end. CT is a way of going about living and learning that empowers us and our students in quite practical ways. When taken seriously, it can transform every dimension of school life: how we formulate and promulgate rules; how we relate to our students; how we encourage them to relate to each other; how we cultivate their reading, writing, speaking, and listening; what we model for them in and outside the classroom.

Of course, we are likely to make critical thinking a basic value in school only insofar as we make it a basic value in our own lives. Therefore, to become adept at teaching so as to foster critical thinking, we must become committed to thinking critically and reflectively about our own lives and the lives of those around us. We must become active, daily, practitioners of critical thought. We must regularly model for our students what it is to reflectively examine, critically assess, and effectively improve the way we live.

So based upon the above mentioned statements, the review of the related literature, and the obtained results, we can conclude that if bilingualism has positive impacts on critical thinking, we should provide the students of Iran with bilingual programs beginning in elementary schools. Providing this opportunity to all Iranian students will improve their chances for a better life and perhaps help to cerate a more equitable society.

APPENDIX

EMI: Critical Thinking Disposition Assessment
Directions: Indicate how much you agree or disagree with each numbered statement by circling the appropriate number. 1 = Strongly disagree & 5 = Strongly agree.

	SD				SA
1. I listen carefully to the opinions of others even when they disagree with me.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I look for opportunities to solve problems.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am interested in many issues.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I enjoy learning about many topics.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I am able to relate to a wide variety of issues.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I ask lots of questions in a learning environment.	1	2	3	4	5

7. I enjoy fi nding answers to challenging questions.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am a good problem solver.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am confi dent that I can reach a reasonable conclusion.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I strive to be well informed.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I am likely to change my opinion when I am given new information that conflicts with my current opinion.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I enjoy solving problems.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I try to consider the facts without le_ ing my biases aff ect my decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I am able to apply my knowledge to a wide variety of issues.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I enjoy learning even when I am not in school.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I can get along with people who do not share my opinions.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I am able to explain things clearly.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I ask good questions when trying to clarify a solution.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I present issues in a clear and precise manner.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I consider how my own biases affect my opinions.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I search for the truth even when it makes me uncomfortable.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I keep on working on things until I get them right.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I will go out of my way to find the right answers to a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I try to find multiple solutions to problems.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I ask many questions when making a decision.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I believe that most problems have more than one solution.	1	2	3	4	5
27.. I listen carefully to the opinions of others even when they disagree with me.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I am likely to change my opinion when I am given new information that conflicts with my current opinion.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I try to consider the facts without letting my biases affect my decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I can get along with people who do not share my opinions.	1	2	3	4	5

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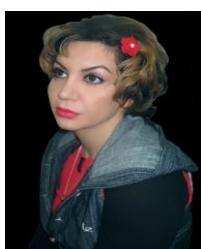
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The Relationship between Language Learning Strategies and Gender among Primary School Students

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Abstract—**Research on language learning strategies has been carried out extensively since mid 1990s in Malaysia. These studies have covered the language learning strategies among secondary and undergraduate students but not on primary school students. The main objective of the study was to identify and compare the language learning strategies used by male and female primary school students. Data was collected using a survey questionnaire with 60 students from two classes of primary 6, consisting of 30 male students and 30 female students. The instruments used in this study include a background information questionnaire and a bilingual Language Strategy Use Questionnaire adapted from Language Strategy Use Inventory by Cohen, Oxford and Chi (2002). Data was analyzed through mean, frequency and t-test. The findings revealed that there was a significant difference in the overall use of strategies between male and female students (p = 0.01). Female students tend to use overall language learning strategies more often than male students in learning English language. The pedagogical implications and suggestions for future research are further discussed.**

Index Terms—**language learning strategies, gender, primary school students, ESL**

I. INTRODUCTION

The Malaysian Ministry of Education has set English language as a compulsory subject in all primary and secondary schools. English, particularly in primary education, aims at providing students with the essential English language skills namely listening, speaking, reading and writing, and knowledge of grammar to enable them to communicate (orally and in writing) in and out of school for different purposes and in different situations (KPM 1995).

Over the years, the standard of English has declined in Malaysian schools. Therefore, measures should be taken to raise the standard of English proficiency in schools. Studies designed to investigate language learning strategies employed by school students learning English in the Malaysian context play a significant role since the understanding of what students do in the language learning process and how it affects language success is important to assist students in learning the English language (Mohamed Amin 2000).

The term language learning strategy has been commonly used by a number of researchers. Wenden and Rubin (1987) defined learning strategies as steps, plans and routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information. Richards and Platt (1992) stated that language learning strategies are intentional behavior and thoughts used by learners during learning to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information.

Language learning strategies is an extremely powerful learning tool according to O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, and Russo (1985). More than a quarter century ago, researchers such as Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) explored the possibility that success in language learning might be related to how learners approach a task. Other researchers such as Cohen (1998) and Chamot (2001) have suggested that learners might be able to learn a language more effectively by the use of language learning strategies. Politzer and McGroarty (1985) and Wong-Fillmore (1985) agreed that the use of language learning strategy is positively associated with language acquisition.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

There has been concern among politician, academician and parents with regards to the declining standard of English proficiency among students at all levels of education in Malaysia. Therefore there is a need for research to be carried out in the language learning field as language learning strategies influence the language learning process on the whole.

Local researchers who have shown interest to do research in the language learning field include; Mohamed Amin (1996); Radha Nambiar (1996) ; Faizahani (2002); Lau Ai Ting (2006) and Yoong (2010). Mohamed Amin (1996) identified language learning strategies among secondary school students; Radha Nambiar (1996) investigated language learning strategies of six first year undergraduate students when performing language activity; Faizahani (2002), Lau Ai

Ting (2006) and Yoong (2010) examined language learning strategies employed by successful and less successful students in secondary schools. These studies address learning strategies among secondary and under graduate students in Malaysia. These studies have not covered the language learning strategies among primary school students. Primary school students differ from secondary and undergraduate students psychologically and socially as well as their approach to language learning.

III. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives of this study are to identify language learning strategies used most frequently by male and female students as well as to examine if there a significant difference in the overall strategies used by primary school students in terms of gender.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A total of 60 respondents from two classes of primary 6, consisting of 30 male students and 30 female students were chosen as the samples for this study. The age of the respondents in the study ranged from 11 to 12 years old. These respondents have been exposed to target language for six years in this school learning English as a Second Language (ESL)

The instruments used in this study include a background information questionnaire and a bilingual Language Strategy Use Questionnaire adapted from Language Strategy Use Inventory by Cohen, Oxford and Chi (2002). The bilingual version of Language Strategy Use survey has been developed by Yoong Li Kuen (2010) and later translated by the experts in Malaysian National Translation Institut.

The actual questionnaire, Language Use Inventory by Cohen, Oxford and Chi (2002) comprises of 90 questions. These questions were categorized according to six language skills namely listening strategy, vocabulary strategy, speaking strategy, reading strategy, writing strategy and translation strategy.

The adapted version of Language Strategy Use Questionnaire consists of 40 bilingual statements concerning the four major English language skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing. There are ten statements for each language skill. This instrument has a strong reliability level as the Cronbach alpha coefficient is .91 (Yoong 2010). A 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 is used in this questionnaire. Students are required to mark each strategy according to the frequency of the strategy used to help them master English language. The 5-point Likert scale includes :1= Never true of me, 2=Usually not true of me, 3=Sometimes true of me, 4=Usually true of me and 5=Always true of me.

To determine the frequency of language learning strategies used, an interpretation mean score was employed. Students' responses were categorized into three categories, which is high, moderate and low frequency use of language strategy. Table 1.0 shows the frequency ratings for strategy use. These ratings were adapted from Oxford (1990).

TABLE 1.0
FREQUENCY RATINGS FOR STRATEGY USE

Frequency of use	Responses	Mean scores
High	Always true of me	4.5 – 5.0
	Usually true of me	3.5 – 4.4
Moderate/medium	Sometimes true of me	2.5 – 3.4
Low	Usually not true of me	1.5 – 2.4
	Never true of me	1.0 – 1.4

Independent sample t-test using SPSS version 11.5 was performed to see the differences between students' use of language learning strategies and their gender (male and female) with a significant level set at p< .05.

V. FINDINGS

Table 2.0 shows the overall language learning strategy use of students according to their gender. Male and female students in this school are high frequency users of the reading strategy. Female students' mean score of reading strategy is 3.754 while male students' mean score of reading is 3.513. The mean score for all the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing is higher for female students compared to male students. The overall strategies mean score for female students is slightly higher, 3.655 compared to male students with 3.411. This shows that female students are generally high frequency users of language learning strategy while male students are moderate strategy users.

TABLE 2.0
LEVEL OF STRATEGY USE ACCORDING TO GENDER

Strategy	Male			Female		
	Mean	Frequency	Rank	Mean	Frequency	Rank
Listening	3.386	Moderate	3	3.600	High	4
Speaking	3.256	Moderate	4	3.606	High	3
Reading	3.513	High	1	3.753	High	1
Writing	3.490	Moderate	2	3.660	High	2
Overall strategy	3.411	Moderate		3.655	High	

Table 3.0 shows the frequency and percentage of individual strategy use according to gender. Male students used 12 (30%) individual strategy with high frequency and 28 (70%) individual strategy with moderate frequency. Female students used 24 (60%) individual strategy with high frequency and 16 (40%) individual strategy with moderate frequency. There is no low frequency individual strategy use for male and female students. This shows that female students use learning strategies more frequently in their language acquisition compared to male students.

TABLE 3.0
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF INDIVIDUAL STRATEGY USE ACCORDING TO GENDER

Independent variable	High Frequency Strategy Use	%	Moderate Frequency Strategy Use	%	Low Frequency Strategy Use	%
Male	12	30	28	70	0	0
Female	24	60	16	40	0	0

It is also interesting to note that both male and female primary six students are high frequency users of 10 items namely A6, A8, A9, C1, C5, C9, C10, D6, D7 and D9. Table 4.0 explains the items used frequently by male and female students. Only three skills namely listening, reading and speaking were reported as high frequency strategies. Speaking skill is less frequently used by students. Out of the 10 items shown below, reading strategy is used most frequently by male and female students in learning English.

TABLE 4.0
HIGH FREQUENCY OF INDIVIDUAL STRATEGY USE BY MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS

Item no.	Individual Strategy	Skills
A6	Listen for key words that seem to carry the bulk of the meaning	Listening
A8	Ask speakers to repeat what they said if it wasn't clear to me	Listening
A9	Ask for clarification if I do not understand it the first time around.	Listening
C1	Read as much as possible in the target language	Reading
C5	Read a story or dialogue several times until I understand it	Reading
C9	Guess the approximate meaning by using clues from the context of the reading material.	Reading
C10	Use a dictionary to get a detailed sense of what individual words mean	Reading
D6	Review what I have already written before continuing to write more	Writing
D7	Use reference materials such as a glossary, a dictionary, or a thesaurus to help find or verify words in the target language	Writing
D9	Revise my writing once or twice to improve the language and content	Writing

Table 5.0 displays the strategies used most frequently by male students. Reading and writing strategies are shown to be used most frequently while listening and speaking strategies are used less frequently by students. The mean scores for reading and writing are 3.513 and 3.490 respectively while the mean scores for listening and speaking are 3.386 and 3.256.

TABLE 5.0
STRATEGIES USED MOST FREQUENTLY BY MALE STUDENTS

Strategy Use	Mean	Rank
Listening	3.386	3
Speaking	3.256	4
Reading	3.513	1
Writing	3.490	2

Table 6.0 shows the strategies used most frequently and least frequently by female primary six students. Female students are fond of using the reading and writing strategy when learning English. The mean score for reading and writing is slightly higher than male students with 3.753 and 3.660 while the mean scores for speaking and listening are 3.606 and 3.600.

TABLE 6.0
STRATEGIES USED MOST FREQUENTLY BY FEMALE STUDENTS

Strategy Use	Mean	Rank
Listening	3.600	4
Speaking	3.606	3
Reading	3.753	1
Writing	3.660	2

As can be observed from Table 7.0, there is a significant difference in the overall strategies used by primary six students. An independent t-test was conducted to compare the overall language learning strategies use scores for male and female students. On the whole there is a significant difference in scores for male and female students in listening (p = 0.013), speaking (p = 0.000) and reading strategies (p = 0.032). However, writing strategy (p = 0.100) is not significantly different for male and female students.

The overall mean score for male students is 3.411 while the overall mean score for female students is 3.655. The overall significant level is 0.001 (p< 0.05). This shows that female students use more strategies than male students in acquiring English language. Therefore, this finding corresponds to Oxford's (1990) assertion that gender is a factor that affects the strategy use in language learning.

TABLE 7.0
VARIATION OF STRATEGY CATEGORY USE BASED ON GENDER

Strategy Use	Male		Female			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Significant level	Pattern of Variation
Listening	3.386	0.2542	3.600	0.3787	0.013	F>M
Speaking	3.256	0.3616	3.606	0.3647	0.000	F>M
Reading	3.513	0.4407	3.753	0.4057	0.032	F>M
Writing	3.490	0.3799	3.660	0.4081	0.100	n.s
Overall	3.411	0.2625	3.655	0.2874	0.001	F>M

P<0.05   n.s = not significant

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Reading (M =3.513) and writing (M =3.490) strategies are shown to be used most frequently while listening (M =3.386) and speaking (M =3.256) strategies are used less frequently by male students. In learning the target language, the high frequency strategies used by male students consist of four listening strategy, five reading strategy and three writing strategy. The most frequently used strategy by male students was item C10: Use a dictionary to get a detailed sense of what individual words mean (reading strategy; M = 4.53).

Male students are not high frequency users of the speaking strategy. This could be due to their lack of vocabulary and self confidence. Furthermore, students learn English language only in the classroom setting most of the time and they do not practice the language out of their classrooms, so, it is reasonable they use speaking strategy least frequently.

Reading (M =3.753) and writing (M =3.660) strategies are shown to be used most frequently while speaking (M =3.606) and listening (M =3.600) strategies are used less frequently by female students. The high frequency strategies used by female students consist of four listening strategy, six speaking strategy, eight reading strategy and five writing strategy.

The most frequently used strategy by female students was item C10: Use a dictionary to get a detailed sense of what individual words mean (reading strategy; M = 4.70). This finding demonstrates that primary school students are generally dependent on their teachers in their language acquisition.

To examine the differences in the use of language learning strategies between male and female students, t-test was used. Based on the t-test results, there was a significant difference in the overall use of strategies between male and female students (p = 0.01). According to the total mean of male (M = 3.411) and female (M = 3.655) students, it could be concluded that female students use learning strategies more often than male students. This result is consistent with Mohamed Amin (2000), Kamarul Shukri et al (2009) and Green and Oxford's (1995) findings.

Gender differences in the classrooms might be related to biological and socialization factors (Green & Oxford 1995). Oxford (1989) asserted that females generally have greater social orientation, stronger verbal skills and greater conformity to linguistics and academic norms compared to males. Mohamed Amin (2000) posits that female students are generally more matured than male students therefore they perform better in their studies.

Zhou (2010) revealed that female students are more active in using language learning strategies and more motivated to do well in schools compared to male students. Female primary school students are also willing to work hard and use learning strategies to improve their learning while male students are more indulged in playing.

When examining the four categories of strategies, female students reported a greater use of listening strategies (p = 0.013), speaking strategies (p = 0.000) and reading strategies (p = 0.032). However, there was no significant differences shown in writing strategies (p = 0.100). Writing strategy does not show a significance difference due to primary school teachers' frequent emphasize on writing skills Overall, both genders used three similar strategies in enhancing their writing skills (item D6, D7 and D9).

The findings of this study indicate that female students use more strategies than male students in learning a language. Since language strategy use is closely related to students' performance (O'Malley & Chamot 1990), teachers should ensure that all primary school students, male and female, realize the importance of using language learning strategies in their learning.

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Attitudes of the Iranian EAP Students Majoring in Computer and Information Technology Regarding Authentic Materials

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Abstract—Authentic materials have many times been recommended to be introduced into the syllabus in order to simulate a real-world condition and also to teach the skills that students may encounter outside the safe environment of the classrooms (Graves, 2000; Shrum & Glisan, 2000; Paltridge, 2001; Guariento & Morley, 2001; Kelly & Kelly & Offner & Vorland, 2002; Khaniya, 2006). In this respect, from among all foreign language learning environments, ESP is not an exception. The present article tends to provide a report on Iranian EAP learners'(majoring in computer and Information Technology at university level) perceptions about some of the authentic materials recommended in the literature such as the articles as part of the literature, newspaper, scientific news, or advertisements. The findings of the survey suggest that from among ten different authentic materials, professional websites followed by scientific news were highly favoured; whereas, advertisements and product labels were the least preferred.

Index Terms—authenticity, adult motivation, EAP (English for Academic Purposes)

I. Introduction

Initial interest in authentic materials dates back to 1890s. Back then it was Henry Sweet, one of the first advocates, who favored the use of authentic materials and discussed the benefits of authentic materials over contrived ones. He was in the belief that natural texts "do justice to every feature of the language" while artificial materials comprise "repetition of certain grammatical constructions, certain elements of the vocabulary, certain combinations of words to the almost total exclusion of others which are equally, or perhaps even more essential" (Cited in Gilmore, 2007).

However, as Gilmore (2007) mentions including authenticity criterion reappeared as a result of the discussions of Chomsky and Hymes during 1960s and 1970s. They proposed that communicative competence does not only comprise the knowledge of the language and emphasized the need for contextualized communication.

Guariento and Morley (2001) also relate the use of authentic materials to the onset of communicative movements in which there was an attempt to simulate real world in the classroom. They believe that having had lots of implications in ELT, authenticity has been with English language teaching for almost forty years. Several language teachers (Shrum and Glisan, 2000; Richards, 2001; Kilickaya, 2004, etc) believe that authenticity has proved its beneficial effect in language teaching and there is no argument regarding this. However, Khaniya (2006) believes that.

In the course of the decade, the use of authentic materials has become increasingly popular in learning situations ranging from traditional intensive ESL to language training for professionals. (p.17).

For the case of EAP students in Iran, there is a consensus among EAP practitioners that these courses have not reached their objectives in the sense that students cannot use their knowledge in the outside world as a real language user after graduation (Tayebipour, 2005; Hassaskhah, 2005; Zohrabi, 2005; Soleimani, 2005; Hayati, 2008; Fathi, 2008; Amirian & Tavakoli, 2009, etc.). These scholars offer different reasons for this unsatisfactory outcome of ESP courses in Iran ranging from the problems associating with materials included in text books, instructors, teaching methodology, approach to ESP, exam-centeredness of courses, to ignoring future needs of learners. Correspondingly, other scholars (Eslami, 2005; Khonsari, 2005; Sayfouri, 2005; Shokouhi, 2005; Riazi, 2005) recommend the inclusion of authentic materials as a source of real language use to solve some of these problems. Thus, the present study seeks to find out about the students' perceptions about different kinds of materials that may fit in an EAP setting through a survey. Since students' participation in defining their needs and choosing what to study has been emphasized as a cornerstone of every ESP course (Dudley-Evans and St John's,1998), this study tends to provide some information regarding EAP learners' attitudes about authentic materials particularly those majoring in Computer and Information Technology.

A. Authenticity and Authentic Materials

Authenticity and authentic materials have long been discussed by different scholars (Wilkins, 1976; Morrow, 1977; Rogers & Medley, 1988; Nunan, 1989; Harmer, 1991) and each has viewed it from his own standpoint. Wilkins (1976) believes that "authentic materials are those originally directed at a native-speaking audience" (p.79). Morrow (1977)

defines authentic text as the language produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and which is expected to express a real message.

Rogers & Medley (1988) move further and look at the terms authenticity and authentic as used for describing oral and written language samples that are the reflection of language forms used naturally and appropriately based on the cultural and situational context. Nunan (1989), Jordan (1997), and Harmer (1991) concentrate on the issue of purpose and state that authentic is any material which has not been specifically produced for the purposes of language teaching. Lee (1995) also sees authenticity in texts which are not produced for teaching purposes but for a real communicative purpose. By this he means that the writer of a text intends to convey a message to the reader. Furthermore, MacDonald et al. (2006) contend that if there is a correspondence between the texts used in the classroom and types of texts used outside the classroom then it is possible to call such texts authentic. Unlike others, Mishan (2005) prefers to set some criteria for authenticity rather than defining the term. According to her "Authenticity is a factor of the:

· Provenance and authorship of the text.
· Original communicative and socio-cultural purpose of the text.
· Original context (e. g. its source, socio-cultural context) of the text.
· Learning activity engendered by the text.
· Learners' perceptions of and attitudes to, the text and the activity pertaining to it" (p .18).

B. Advantages of Authentic Materials

A variety of advantages have been attributed to authentic materials according to different authors in language teaching literature. One of the advantages that has many times been emphasized is the presentation of real language and real-world situation and the integration of culture (Murdoch, 1999; Shrum and Glisan 2000; Kelly et al., 2002; Martinez, 2002; Haley and Austin, 2004; Velazquez, 2007). Another advantage is mentioned by Little et al. (1988), Murdoch, (1999), Guariento & Morley (2001), and Oguz and Bahar (2008) as being more motivating, more interesting, and working as rich sources of language input. Guariento & Morley (2001) value using authentic materials since they believe that extracting real information from a real text in a new/different language can be extremely motivating, therefore increasing students' motivation for learning by exposing them to 'real' language. Moreover, it is believed that authentic materials can encourage independent language use (Gilmore, 2004), enhance comprehension and create a meaningful context (Shrum and Glisan, 2000), increase vocabulary storage (Macaro, 2003), develop learners' communicative competence (Rice, 1991 and Shanahan 1997 cited in Sonmez, 2007), produce awareness of language and its related skills (Paltridge,2001), introduce students to a full range of transactional and interpersonal speech (Burns and Seidlhofer , 2002) , and teach students that comprehension does not necessarily mean understanding every word but it means learning strategies that are important for oral or written communication (Swaffar,1981 cited in Maher Salah, 2008). Finally, Martinez (2002) is in the belief that besides exposure to real discourse and a wide variety of text types and language styles, authentic materials can keep learners informed about the current world situation and encourage reading for pleasure

C. Sources of Authentic Materials

Authentic materials can include audio, visual and printed materials. Multimedia materials involving audio, video and graphical presentations can also be included. Any of these types of materials which are used for communicating specific messages in real life will fall under this category. The messages may be addressed to native speakers or to those who use this language as a second language in their country for communication.

There is an abundance of authentic materials which are used in daily life of native speakers and which are recommended by scholars of English language teaching field such as best-selling essays/stories, TV news-magazines, and talk shows (Hwang, 2005), literary texts (Sonmez, 2007), short stories, poetry, plays, realia in everyday life such as advertisements, brochures, and newspapers Crossley et al. (2007), real newspaper articles and reports, advertisements, cooking recipes, horoscopes, and editorials (Awasthi, 2006 and Kilickaya, 2004), literacy excerpts, audio recordings, and videotapes (Shrum and Glisan, 2000), movie schedules, classified ads, and food packaging (Horwitz, 2008), best of all internet which unlike other sources is updated continuously and has the unique features such as authenticity, immediacy, and large scope (Berardo, 2006 and Bell 2005). Amongst these authentic materials the ones which seem to be better fit an ESP setting are the professional websites and advertisements (Vaičiūnienė and Užpalienė, 2010), catalogues, articles, newspaper, instructions, news, magazines, and product labels.

II. MATERIAL AND METHODS

A. Instrument

The data was collected through an oppinionnnaire which asked about the students' attitude towards ten authentic materials namely, catalogues, articles, newspaper, instruction for hardware, instruction for software, scientific news, professional websites, magazines, product labels, and also advertisements. It consisted of ten items each relating to an authentic material in the form of likert-scale which required the students to choose their own perception about these materials from among options which were perfect, average, good, and weak.

B. Subjects and the Context

The respondents to the survey included 75 students majoring in computer and Information Technology. However the number of the collected oppionnaires reduced to 68 because of the missing data. The subjects' age ranged from 18 to 23. They were taking their English for Academic courses at Mashhad Azad University, Iran. For their EAP course students are instructed using EAP course book for the students of engineering which mainly consists of three sections: pre-reading, reading for comprehension, and homework (Amirian and Tavakoli, 2009). Every unit begins with a pre-reading section which has different aims such as the pronunciation practice (Fathi, 2008), the introduction of technical terms in the text (word study), and the introduction of vocabulary by using them in the context of a sentence using definitions and exemplification. For technical terms teachers either use the definitions in the book or use their own definitions or synonyms. All this is done to provide the learners with some pre-understanding of the terms and vocabulary before the main text is practiced. A grammatical point is normally introduced deductively (Amirian and Tavakoli, 2009).

III. DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

Having collected the data, frequency analysis was performed using SPSS version 15. As is illustrated in table 1 the professional websites $\left[\bar{X} = 3.35, SD = 0.787, 52.9\% \right]$ followed by scientific news $\left[\bar{X} = 3.01, SD = 1.029, 41.2\% \right]$ are the most preferred choices among students. That is, 52.9% and 41.2% of the students respectively rated professional websites and scientific news as perfect to be taught as instructional materials. However, product labels $\left[\bar{X} = 2.24, SD = 0.90, 7.4\% \right]$ and advertisements $\left[\bar{X} = 2.38, SD = 0.99, 13.2\% \right]$ were the least desired items; that is, 23.5% of the students considered these materials as weak for instruction in EAP courses.

TABLE 1

	Weak	average	good	perfect	Mean	SD
Catalogues	9 (13.2)	25 (36.8)	21 (30.9)	13 (19.1)	2.56	0.952
Articles	7 (10.3)	14 (20.6)	23 (33.8)	24 (35.3)	2.94	0.991
Newspaper	11 (16.2)	22 (32.4)	19 (27.9)	16 (23.5)	2.59	1.026
Instruction for hardware	3 (4.4)	23 (33.8)	23 (33.8)	19 (27.9)	2.85	0.885
Instruction for software	5 (7.4)	19 (27.9)	23 (33.8)	21 (30.9)	2.88	0.939
Scientific news	8 (11.8)	11 (16.2)	21 (30.9)	28 (41.2)	3.01	1.029
Professional websites	1 (1.5)	10 (14.7)	21 (30.9)	36 (52.9)	3.35	0.787
Magazines	9 (13.2)	16 (23.5)	23 (33.8)	20 (29.4)	2.79	1.016
Product labels	16 (23.5)	25 (36.8)	22 (32.4)	5 (7.4)	2.24	0.900
Advertisements	16 (23.5)	19 (27.9)	24 (35.3)	9 (13.2)	2.38	0.993

IV. CONCLUDING REMARKS

By integrating the principles of needs analysis which emphasis a more learner-centred approach to learning when it comes to an ESP setting, it is possible to include students' perceptions and attitudes in providing ESP teachers with ideas that lead them for the selection and inclusion of different instructional materials. However, the results from an oppinionnaire may differ from field to field so ESP/EAP teachers are advised to involve their students in materials selection. Nonetheless, the results of the present survey indicate that there is a high preference for professional websites and scientific news among the students majoring in Computer and Information Technology. Moreover, it is found out that students show their desire to work with articles related to their field, and also instruction booklets for hardware and software.

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A Constructive Study of English and Chinese Double Negation

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Abstract—As a universally used linguistic structure, double negation has long attracted the attention of scholars in Chinese and foreign countries. But so far the research of double negation is limited to the study and analysis of negative words, negative markers and the surface structure of double negation, and is also restricted to one particular language. In this essay, based on contrastive linguistics and cognitive linguistics, I launch a comparison between English double negation and its Chinese counterpart from the cognitive perspective to identify similarities and differences between them, and furthermore I also attempt to elaborate the causes and motivations for its meaning.

Index Terms—double negation, cognitive, iconicity, M—Principle

What is the basis of the sense of double negation? Many linguists are interested in and concentrate on this issue. Palmer and Otto Jespersen are the most typical representatives of these scholars. Palmer said that two negative elements cancel each other to form a positive sense in a sentence. Otto Jespersen (1939) explains "All the languages seem to have a common law, that is, two negative makes a positive". In fact, this theoretical basis used the principle of logic that "two noes mean a yes".

As to the issue why double negation can strengthen the. negative tone Otto Jespersen (1939) gives an explanation as following "the reason why this situation happened is that the pronunciation of negator is short, and the speaker not only adds a negative word in front of verb, but also adds negative in other part of sentence repeatedly in order to make his negative tone understood by the hearer clearly, for fear that a negative word may be ignored by the hearers". As far as this problem is concerned, Evans Bergen (1957) interprets: "in English, two negatives in the same sentence generally reinforce one another. "I didn't say nothing is a emphatic denial and no one who speaks English can misunderstand it. This is normal way of strengthening a negative in all Teutonic languages, of which ours is one".

As to the issue why double negation conveys the weakening negative sense, Otto Jespersen (1939) explains in detail as following: "the expression with two negative is comparatively weak and implies some hesitation on the part of speaker".

To this issue, domestic scholars mainly concentrate on the logic point of view as "negation plus negation means affirmation". The study of the problem why the affirmative sense double negation expresses is different from the positive meaning affirmative sentence conveys is rare.

In summary, with regard to the causes of the semantics of double negation, language scholars have not yet found their commonness behind the language. In this essay, we will attempt to give a cognitive explanation from the perspective of cognitive linguistics.

I. ANALYSIS FROM COGNITIVE PERSPECTIVE

According to cognitive linguistics, language changes are based on human experience of speech, and it is likely that same cognitive mechanism toward similar linguistic phenomena exists across languages. What is the cognitive mechanism that guides double negative sentence in English and Chinese?

From the above comparison and analyses, we can conclude that there are both some common ground and individual features between English and Chinese double negation. The meaning expressed by double negative sentence is different from that of affirmative sentence.

There is a correlationship between the grammatical form and semantic structure of language. That is to say, each grammatical form is corresponding to a specific semantic structure. Semantics can not separate from grammar. Meaning is the reflection of the reality rules. The grammatical forms are motivated. The motivation mainly comes from three aspects, namely, the law of reality, the thinking of human and systematicness of language. We are not satisfied to tell people what the language laws are, but try to elaborate why these language laws are, and where they come from.

At first, we keen on the concrete embodiment of contradiction in antonyms. There do exist some antonyms that the positive of one implies the negative of the other, which we call binary pairs. Examples would include: dead/ alive, pass,/fail, hit /miss.

Using these words literally, dead implies not alive, pass implies not fail, and hit means not miss etc.

But there are large numbers of opposites that the positive of one term not necessarily imply the negative of the other, which we call gradable antonyms, e, g, rich/poor, fast/slow, young/old, beautiful/ugly. This relation is typically

associated with adjectives and has two major identifying characteristics: firstly, there are usually intermediate terms so that between the gradable antonyms hot and cold we can find: hot (warm, tepid, cool) cold. This means of course that something may be neither hot nor cold. Secondly, the terms are usually relative.

We think the concept of negation of affirmation does not contradict each other just like the relationship between gradable antonyms. The positive of affirmation does not necessarily imply the negative of negation. There are some intermediate terms between the concept of negation and affirmation: emphatic negation, negation, weakening negation, weakening affirmation, affirmation, emphatic affirmation.

That is to say, the concept of negation and affirmation are not against each other.

We will divide affirmation and negation into three levels:

The scale of — weak — intermediate — strong—

The scale of negation — weak — intermediate — strong —

Positive sentences and negative sentences carry the sense of general affirmative and negative meaning respectively, but how to convey the intermediate sense between negation and affirmation grammatically? Cognitive linguists suggest that semantics is not only objective true-conditions, but also related to -human's subjective cognition and unlimited knowledge system.

What is more, from the perspective of philosophy of language, every thought has a self-contradictory idea; this contradiction can be established through a negative word then. If there is an affirmative sentence, is there a negative sentence that parallel to it in grammatical structure and semantic content from a linguistic point of view? Here are some examples:

a.他昨天晚上回了北京。

He returned to Beijing last night.

b.他昨天晚上没回北京。

He didn't return to Beijing last night.

c.他昨天晚上已经回了北京。

He has already returned to Beijing last night.

d.他昨天晚上已经没回北京。

He has not already returned to Beijing last night.

e.我已经三年去了北京了。

I have gone to Beijing for three years.

f.我已经三年没去北京了。

I have not gone to Beijing for three years.

Observing the natural language phenomena, we can conclude both positive and negative are not necessarily mutually exclusive. The affirmative construction and negative construction are asymmetry, which is the result that the asymmetry of concept between affirmation and negation is mapped onto the affirmative structure and negative construction sentence. The use of law of structure is essentially like the use of words.

The intermediate sense between positive and negative can not be carried by general negative sentences or affirmative sentences in the grammar form, and thus gave rise to this particular form of language, namely, double negative sentence. Why can double negative sentence carry the meaning that differs from the sense of an affirmative sentence or a negative sentence conveys? We will give a detailed explanation in the later part based on the theory of iconicity.

II. ANALYSIS FROM THE PRINCIPLE OF ICONICITY

The principle of iconicity which is prevalent in all languages has a common cognitive basis. However, the cognitive psychology of all ethnic groups is affected by social and cultural constraints. We think that the reason why some English double negation can carry the negative meaning is their specific cultural background affected. Hence, this issue is out of our research in this paper.

So-called iconicity refers to that there is a necessary link between the form of language and its meaning, that is to say, the relationship between meaning and form is motivated and can be proved. Peirce maintains that the notion of icon to cover similarities between the structure of language and the structure of world, and the structure of language means that we are concerned with grammar and, more generally, with the arrangement of linguistic elements.

The structure of language reflects in some way the structure of experience. The structure of language is therefore motivated or explained by the structure of experience to the extent that the two match.

The theory of iconicity reflects that the more similar the forms are, the closer the meaning are. Haiman (1985) spreads the theory of iconicity from the lexical level to sentence structure, and gets the conclusion that the similar the structures are, the closer the meaning is. He classifies iconicity of syntax into isomorphism and motivation. Cognitive linguistics divide icon into two categories, namely, diagram and metaphor.

Diagram iconicity refers to the phenomenon that the structure of Language reflects the structure of cognition, that is to say, a linguistic expression (length, sequence and the relationship between the composition) is consistent with conceptual structure from the perspective of the speaker; he should adhere the principle that the outside world is mapped into language. To the hearer, he should understand different content according to different forms. .The simple

concept is generally expressed by short and small units such as words and simple sentences, while the complicated concept is conveyed by some complex units like compound words and complex sentences.

The iconic principles which have been proposed for this area are iconic sequencing, iconic proximity and the iconic quantity of linguistic material, especially the iconic quantity.

Iconic sequencing means the sequence of the two clauses corresponds to the natural temporal order of events. Iconic proximity states that elements which have a close relationship must be placed close together. Iconic quantity is a relationship between the length of the linguistic expression and the complexity of the cognitive model.

Let's try to compare Chinese and English double negation and the general semantics of certain sentences:

a. 她的生活使她不能不忘掉羞耻，可是遇到正经事，她还是个有真心的女人。

她的生活使她只能忘掉羞耻，可是遇到正经事，她还是个 有真心的女人。

b. 一切为人师者都不能不注意教授法的问题。

一切为人师者都要注意教授法的问题。

c. He doesn't lend his books to nobody.

He lends his books to anybody.

d. He did not deny that he had made mistakes.

He admitted that he had made mistakes.

Observing the above sentences, we could easily see that the double negative sentences are more positive than the accordingly affirmative sentences at the semantic level, and the tone is more powerful.

a.不是我们不想给乡亲们效劳，实在是没有法子

我们想给乡亲们效劳，实在是没有法子

b.我想我自己也不会没有特务嫌疑。

我想我自己也有特务嫌疑。

c. It is not uncommon for a teacher to make ridiculous mistakes.

It is common for a teacher to make ridiculous mistakes.

d. His argument is not really implausible

His argument is really plausible.

The meaning expressed by the double negative sentences is weaker than affirmative sentences semantically, and are indirect and euphemistic as far as the tone is concerned.

Obviously, there is a marked difference in the length between double negative sentences and affirmative sentences. This difference corresponds to the amount of information that the speaker refers to.

The theory of iconic quantity states that the more complicated and important the information the speaker conveys is, the longer and complex the syntactic components are.

As we discussed earlier, the syntactical structure of double negative sentences is more intricate, flexible than that of affirmative sentences. It is a marked language phenomenon by means of two negative elements, while affirmative sentences are unmarked. As far as the meaning is concerned, though both can express positive meaning, double negative sentences can carry more than affirmative meaning, to strengthen the positive meaning, or to weaken positive meaning with special pragmatic value.

Just as the theory of iconicity maintains, the larger the syntactic components are, the longer the sentence is, the richer and profounder the meaning and implication is. Accordingly, the expression is more indirect with a high degree of courtesy, which is easy for the hearer (reader) to accept. This cognitive feature is well reflected in the double negative sentences. Compared with double negative sentences, affirmative sentences are simpler in form, and shorter in the length of sentence. Hence, .the expression is rigid and direct.

From the above analysis, we can draw a conclusion that the meaning carried by double negative sentences is more complicated than that of affirmative sentences is mainly due to its complex syntactiCAL FORM.

III.   INTERPRETATION FROM M—PRINCIPLE

Considering the economy of language, double negation is a redundancy which is not in conformity with this principle. But double negation, being one of the most frequently used language forms in our daily life, plays an important role in communication. People use double negation not entirely out of consideration of logic, but out of certain pragmatic motivation. In our view, Levinson's M-Principle in his GCI can give a reasonable explanation to the phenomenon. Here is the definition and explanation of his M-Principle:

M—Principle:

Criteria of the Speaker: speakers use marked forms to refer to the unusual and uncommon situation, contrasting to the unmarked expression which describes the usual and common scene.

Criteria of the hearer: the Non-normal way of expression indicates abnormal scenario, or the marked speech refers to marked situation.

Horn (1984) in his pragmatic division of labor says: it carries marked information that the unmarked form can not convey in situation where it can be used by unmarked expression, but uses a marked form instead. The marked form is relatively complicated and tedious, while the unmarked form is less effort, complex and within expectations. Horn also

says: If two expressions have the same connotation, then, the marked expression is the supplementary of the unmarked form, for it carries more information. Double negative sentence is an marked expression, which use two negative forms as its markers, while affirmative sentence is accordingly an unmarked language structure. Let's look at the examples below first:

a. The teacher was not unpleased with his students.

The teacher was pleased with his students。

b. He is not unjust.

He is just.

c.我觉得我们的战士太伟大了，太可爱了，我不能不被他们感动得掉下泪来。

我觉得我们的战士太伟大了，太可爱了，我被他们感动得掉下泪来。

d.这马又不是不能治好的。

这马是能治好的。

According to our previous analysis, we know that the above sentences all carry positive sense, but differ in their affirmative degree. Take the first pairs of sentences as an example, the negative marker "not unpleased" means "neither pleased nor unpleased" and "pleased" from logic point of view. The speaker chooses the double negative sentence because he thinks that the students' performance does not reach degree of "pleased". To avoid the absoluteness of contents he conveys uses double negative sentence to weaken positive sense.

For the same reason, to strengthen the affirmative meaning, the speaker can also choose the marked form —double negation to express like sentence"我不能不被他们感动得掉下泪来"，rather than the unmarked form"我被他们感动得掉下泪来"

To sum up, we can not say double negation is a redundancy language phenomenon. Though it carries positive sense like affirmative sentence but the degree of affirmative is different. It can strengthen the affirmative, or weaken the affirmative, for its negative elements act as a marker.

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The Role of Background Knowledge in Foreign Language Listening Comprehension

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Abstract—The role of background knowledge and topic familiarity in second language reading comprehension has been the subject of much research. Although it is assumed that learners will react similarly to listening, it should be remembered that, they are not entirely parallel skills, and most importantly, relevant researches provided conflicting results in different contexts. Besides, there is no report of such a study with Iranian learners of a foreign language. Thus, this paper reports research that describes the effects of topic familiarity on the foreign language listening comprehension, and makes an attempt to find out whether proficiency level affects recall measures of listening comprehension. To this end, an experiment was conducted with 56 students studying English at one of Iranian universities. The results of the between-within analysis of variance clearly indicated that topic familiarity affected the scores of recall measures and the course-level groups revealed a consistent increase in comprehension scores. There was also no interaction effect: subjects regardless of their level scored higher on the familiar passage. The researcher has also left some relevant issues to some further research at the end of the paper.

Index Terms—recall measures, topic familiarity, schema theory, protocol analysis

I. BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE

In recent years, the fields of cognitive psychology, artificial intelligence and linguistics have combined efforts in developing theories of comprehension based on learner's ability to draw on their existing world knowledge (Long & Reseigh, 1989). Along the same lines, new models of listening consider *listening* as an active productive process in which background knowledge plays a significant role. Murphy and Cooper (1995) state that prior to the 1970s, listening was characterized as a receptive skill, and it was believed that listeners would passively assimilate the information presented to them, but during the 1970s cognitive psychology began to focus on the individual as an active processor of linguistic input (Long & Reseigh, 1989). So, the current models such as *interactional, cybernetic, and transactional frames of reference* have highlighted the background knowledge as a critical component of listening process (Murphy & Cooper, 1995). For instance, Lynch (1996) emphasizes that in many cases it is our unfamiliarity with the appropriate background knowledge that prevents us understanding something, rather than inadequate knowledge of the language. He and Anderson (1998, cited in Schmit-Rinehart 1994) refer to *schematic knowledge* as one of the information sources in comprehension. Also, Rost (1990, cited in Schmidt-Rinehart 1994) introduces *editing principles and procedures*, such as application of cultural schema and filling in schematic slots, for the construction of meaning.

Background knowledge has been defined in a variety of ways such as religious, technical and cultural knowledge or topic familiarity. Concerning the relationship between listening comprehension and prior knowledge, some studies have been carried out by Bransford, Johnson, Anderson and Steffensen et al. (Schmidt-Rinchart, 1994). Their findings supported the idea that prior knowledge would aid comprehension of the first language. This triggered the investigation of the same phenomenon for the second language.

Kintsch Walter and Van Dijk (1978, cited in Lynch, 1996) worked toward a model of text comprehension and production. They described the system of mental operations that would underline the processes occurring in text comprehension, in the production of recall, and summarization protocol. They concluded that familiarity might have effects on comprehension not only at the level of processing of the construction of a coherent text but also at other higher processing levels.

In order to determine the influence of religious background knowledge on the listening comprehension of EFL learners of different religions, Markham and Latham (1988) used passages describing prayer rituals of Islam and Christianity. The subjects recalled more information and provided more elaborations, but fewer distortions for the passage that was related to their own religion.

Muller (1980) investigated the effects of a contextual visual on recall measures of listening comprehension and the effects of varying the locus of the contextual visual in the sequence of events, before and after the passage, on recall measures of listening comprehension. He also examined the effects of a contextual visual with the students' aptitude as measured by prior achievement in language learning. He found out that the learners who had contextual visual before hearing the passage scored significantly higher on the recall measure than those in the Visual-After and No-Visual groups.

Bacon (1992) experimented the three phases of listening comprehension which were proposed by Anderson: perceptual, parsing and utilization (connecting what is heard with what is already known). The results showed that the subjects made little use of advanced organizers during the perceptual phase but effective use of previous knowledge during the third phase. Accordingly, the successful listeners used their world, personal, and discourse knowledge appropriately.

Chiang and Dunkel (1992) had an experiment with Chinese EFL students. The subjects listened to two lectures and their comprehension was measured by a multiple-choice test that had both passage dependent and passage independent items. The subjects scored higher on the familiar topic lecture than on the unfamiliar topic lecture. The results showed a significant effect on the passage-independent items. They concluded that the interaction between prior knowledge and test type might show that passage-independent items had provided a measure of background knowledge, but its effect on comprehension of information from the passage remained unclear.

Jensen and Christa Hansan (1995) investigated the effects of prior knowledge on English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in a listening-test performance. They reported findings which were not in accordance with the preceding findings. Their findings did not support the hypothesis that high-proficiency listeners who had indicated prior study of a topic would perform better on lecture comprehension. Although prior knowledge was a significant main effect for five of the eleven lectures, the effect size was trivial.

It has been assumed that comprehension is a general construct that applies to both modalities (listening and reading) and even the principles of reading comprehension can be imported to listening as well (Lund, 1991, cited in Lynch, 1996). Concerning the role of background knowledge and comprehension, more studies have also been carried out on reading comprehension. In a study, subjects from The United States and India read letters about an Indian and American wedding and recalled them following interpolated tasks. Subjects recalled a larger amount of information from the native passage and produced more culturally based distortions of the foreign passage. Whether recalling the native or foreign passage, subjects recalled more of the text elements considered as important by other subjects with the same cultural heritage. The results were interpreted as showing the pervasive influence on comprehension and memory of schemata embodying knowledge of the context of a discourse (Steffensen, Joag-Dev, & Anderson, 1979).

In another study done by Carrell (1983), three components of background knowledge in reading comprehension-contents, text transparency and familiarity-were investigated. She investigated native and non-native readers and reached almost different results. She reported that EFL readers did not process text as native speakers did. Neither advanced nor high intermediate EFL readers appeared to utilize context or textual clues, but only advanced EFL readers were affected by familiarity -the more novel and salient the text, the better recalled in short-term memory.

Carrell (1987) investigated the simultaneous effects on ESL reading comprehension of both culture-specific content schemata and formal schemata as well as any potential interaction between them. For each of two groups of readers (students of Muslim and Catholic/Spanish backgrounds), one text had culturally familiar content. Within each groups, one half of the subjects read the text in a familiar rhetorical format and the other half read the text in an unfamiliar rhetorical format. Results showed familiar content and familiar rhetorical form yielded good reading comprehension. In contrast, unfamiliar content and unfamiliar rhetorical form yielded poor reading comprehension.

In sum, the majority of studies on the effects of background knowledge have investigated second language reading. Although it is assumed that learners will react similarly to listening, it should be remembered that they are not entirely parallel skills. There is a difference between oral and written discourse, so the field of EFL research is in need of studies that investigate listening as a unique skill. Another point is that their results are not the same; sometimes they reached conflicting results in different contexts. Besides, there is no report of such a study with Iranian learners of a foreign language.

The present study whose main purpose is to investigate effects of topic familiarity on the second language comprehension is the replication of the research done by Barbara Schmidt-Rinehart with the University Students of Spanish in Mid-Western in the United States.

II. Research Questions

This study is designed to investigate the following questions:
- Does topic familiarity affect recall measures of listening comprehension of foreign language learners?
- Does proficiency level affect recall measures of listening comprehension?

It was assumed that foreign language learners, studying English at Najafabad Azad University, Iran, would comprehend better when the topic was familiar to them in comparison with the case that it was unfamiliar. Besides, one would expect that increased level of oral language proficiency (indicated by course level) would affect listening comprehension. In this study, the researcher has made no distinction between the second and foreign language and has used the term *"second"* for both.

III. Methodology

A. Subjects

The subjects were the first-semester and third-semester students of English (Teaching) at Najafabad Azad University. Respectively, they were enrolled in Lab classes of one and two. The study was conducted with subjects (N= 56). The number of the first semester subjects was twenty-three and the number of the third-semester subjects was thirty-three. This experiment was carried out with these subjects under natural school conditions because it was the situation which has already existed in the real world and was more representative of the conditions found in educational contexts.

B. Variables

Course Level: The first independent variable of this study consisted of two levels of English proficiency determined by their course level: level I (those who took part in Lab I) and level II (those who took part in Lab II).

Topic Familiarity: The background knowledge was defined in terms of topic familiarity as our second independent variable, which consisted of two levels as determined by previous exposure to the information contained in the passage and a questionnaire following the listening tasks; therefore, either the topic was familiar or unfamiliar.

Immediate Protocol Recall Test: The dependent variable was proficiency which was operationalized in terms of listening scores of language protocol test.

C. Instruments and Procedures.

Two passages were used for the experiment (Appendix I). Passage one was about a familiar topic "Madrid", and passage two was about an unfamiliar topic "The Lemming." The passage about familiar topic (Madrid) was from Interchange cassettes, and the second passage (The Lemming) was taken from *American streamline*. These two passages were transcribed into written form in order to determine the values for scoring based on "idea units". The idea unit analysis was based on semantic importance of propositions or phrases (Riley and Lee 1996). Therefore, the semantically-weighted scoring system was used. The total score for each passage was 40. In order to attribute the familiarity variable to the topic familiarity, efforts were made to choose passages which were equitable as much as possible in terms of length, difficulty, and word rate.[1] A comparison of the two passages according to six factors indicated that the passages were almost identical in each of the categories (Appendix II).

The text was conducted in the language laboratory during a regularly scheduled fifty-minute class session. The test for the first semester subjects was given in one session and the test for the third semester subjects was given in another session. The interval between the two sessions of tests was one day.

The test had three stages. First, concerning questions about the familiar topic, a questionnaire was distributed. Because it was very important that the subjects had already had background knowledge about the topic "Madrid", a pilot study had been carried out on this questionnaire to test the research instrument and their suitability.

Then at the second stage, the instructions were given to them. The subjects were informed that they were to listen to two passages separately, try to understand each of them, and then recall the passage in English. Because it was very important for subjects to clearly understand what level of details and original sentence structures they were to produce, their instructions were to write as much as they could remember. Each tape was played twice[2]. They did not write any information during the first playing of the recording. After the second playing, they wrote what they could remember. Enough time was given to them (15 minutes for each passage). After the completion of the second recall, their protocol papers were collected to prevent them from getting any information out of the post-listening questionnaire. Then at stage three, a post-questionnaire was distributed to check their unfamiliarity with "The Lemming" passage.[3] Any subject who indicated that s/he had prior knowledge with "The Lemming" topic was excluded from the analysis.

D. Data Analysis

The pre-listening and post-listening questionnaires were examined. Only two subjects from level one were eliminated because the topic of "Madrid" was not familiar to them. Then, the immediate recall protocols written by subjects were analyzed into units and were scored according to the value given to idea units. The scores of fifty-four subjects were arranged for an analysis of variance. A 2×2 way analysis of variance (factorial design) was performed on the recall protocol scores of fifty-four subjects. The results of analysis of variance by course level and familiarity are summarized in Table I.

TABLE 1
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BY COURSE LEVEL & FAMILIARITY

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
Between Familiarity (Factor A)	319.10	1	319.10	*16.85	.000
Course Level (Factor B)	144.96	1	144.96	*7.65	.007
Factor A by Factor B	21.91	1	21.91	1.16	.285
Within + Residual	1969.81	104	18.94		
Total	2488.77	109	23.26		
*P< .05					

The main effect of the independent variable of familiarity was highly significant at .05 level (P<.05), even at .001 level. As can be seen by the group means in Table II, subjects scored highly on the familiar topic than on the novel topic.

TABLE 2
GROUP MEANS & STANDARD DEVIATIONS

Course Level	Familiar Topic		Unfamiliar Topic	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Level 1	8.39	4	5.83	3.63
Level 3	11.64	5.10	7.26	4.27

The analysis revealed no interaction between the levels of familiarity and course level. In other words, familiarity effects did not vary according to the course level. The third semester subjects did better than the first semester subjects regardless of the background knowledge topic (Figure I).
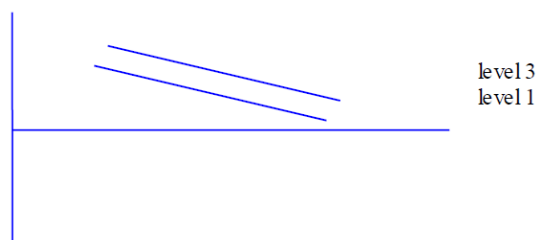
Figure I: Topic Familiarity Topic Unfamiliarity

The independent variable of course level (factor B) also reached statistical significance at P<.05 level. Because there was no interaction effect, a t-test was done between two levels of learners to ensure that the aforementioned difference between the means of the protocol scores of course level would be significant. The obtained value was t=.88 which was significant at .05 (*P<.05) level.

Later, in the examination of the post-listening questionnaire, 80% of subjects, as a whole, expressed that they understood "Madrid" better than "The Lemming". Among the first semester learners 74% claimed that "Madrid" was easier for them and only 13% said that "The Lemming" was easier. Among the third semester subjects 84% expressed that they understood "Madrid" better, while 13% claimed that "The Lemming" was easier for them.

In post-listening activity, the subjects also gave answers to their problems relating to comprehension and some of them wrote their comments[4]. Their answers were analyzed, and the results showed that almost 25% of subjects claimed that whenever a non-native speakers of English, whose first language was Persian were speaking, they could understand while they had difficulty in comprehension with native speakers of English. In other words, they indicated that they experienced difficulty making transition from understanding classroom talk to understanding natural language. Almost 26% of the subjects (of which more were the first semester learners) said that they could understand the meaning of single words, but they had problems with the whole concepts of the passage and they could not keep up with the speaker. Almost 41% of the subjects (of which more were the   third semester learners) claimed that they could get the whole concept or general meaning, but they had problems with detailed information of the passage, and almost 6% of the subjects claimed that they understood neither the general concept nor the details.

IV. SUMMARY AND SUGGESTIONS

In regard to the first research question of the present study, the results of the between-within analysis of variance clearly indicated that topic familiarity affected the scores of recall measure. Addressing the second question, the analysis of variance demonstrated that the course-level groups revealed a consistent increase in comprehension scores. Finally, there was no interaction effect: subjects regardless of their level scored higher on the familiar passage. There are some points to be taken into considerations. First, only one measure of comprehension was used in this study. In order words, the learners were asked to recall as much as possible. Shohamy (1984, cited in Riley and Lee, 1996) states that the methods of assessing comprehension influence and perhaps determine how readers perform on a test of comprehension. Therefore, there is a difference between summary and recall protocol. In this study a strict criterion was adapted in which distortions of the original text were not allowed. Moreover, elaborate inferences and paraphrases were not allowed. Riley and Lee (1996) reported significant differences in performance on two tasks. The summaries contain significantly more main ideas than recall protocols. Therefore, the low presentation of important idea units may be due to the listener's perception of the recall task itself. This may account for the problem of 28% of learners that could not get the whole concept or main ideas. Care should be taken because learners' performance on recall protocol may not be a true indication of their ability to understand the passage. The second point is that short-term memory may have been a factor in their demonstration of comprehension. This may account for the problem of 41% of subjects that could not retain or remember details. Another point is that some learners have problems with comprehension of authentic language (26% in this study). Their answers suggest that teachers should expose them more to the natural spoken language of everyday life as distinguishable from written language. The final point is that educators should advocate the use of advance organizers and other types of pre-listening exercises that can activate background knowledge. It is important for teachers to recognize that students' existing knowledge contributes significantly to the comprehension,

and listening is no longer a passive activity. The result of this study might show that learners should build a mental framework with which to link the new information to what they already know.

V. FURTHER RESEARCH

The researcher feels a need for several directions for future research: Do all learners at different levels (elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate and advanced) use the schema-based processing to the same degree? Do listening proficiency levels override the background knowledge at all levels? Besides, different response modes, especially the other authentic tasks, can be used to examine the effect of background knowledge on second language listening comprehension. The researcher leaves these issues to more future research in this area.

Appendix I

Madrid

Today I am going to talk about Madrid. Madrid is the capital of Spain and is located right in the center of the country. It is also the largest city in the Spain with over three million residents. Madrid is a center for government and finance and is an important manufacturing center with automotive and aircraft industries. In addition, it is one of the major publishing centers for Spanish-speaking world. The people of Madrid are called "madrilènes". Many madrilènes work from ten a.m. to two p.m. Then at two o'clock many stores and offices close. This custom started so that the people could take an afternoon nap or "siesta". Those who take a "siesta" go back again from five to eight o'clock. However, recently many businesses have stopped closing for the "siesta".

The Lemming

The Brown Lemming is a small mammal (4-7 inches long) found all over the Northern parts of North America and Europe. Lemmings usually make short, annual migrations in the spring, traveling by night and feeding and sleeping by day. Every three or four years, however, they make much longer migrations in large numbers. The lemming population seems to change over a three or four year cycle, from one lemming per acre to between 400 and 700 lemmings per acre. Migration seems to be a method of population control and is most spectacular in the well-known "mass suicides," where thousands of lemmings plunge over cliff tops into the sea and swim until they die of exhaustion. These "mass suicide" only occur infrequently and then only in Norway where mountains touch the sea.

Appendix II.

	Madrid	**The Lemming**
Length of the passage in seconds	51	53
Length of the passage in characters	653	650
Length of the passage in words	135	133
Lines of the passage	12	12
*Readability of the passage	34.50	39.46
Accent	American	American

....

*Schulz (1981, P. 53) introduces norms in the interpreting the Lix formula results and range 35-40 under one category (easy texts).

$$\text{Lix} = \frac{number\ of\ words}{number\ of\ sentences} + \frac{number\ of\ long\ words}{number\ of\ words} \times 100$$

Notes

1. Schulz (1981) believed that foreign language learners should not be exposed to authentic texts indiscriminately chosen without regard to linguistic difficulty and emotional maturity. Klare (1974-75) states three ways or solutions to recognize whether a particular test is likely readable to a particular group. One way is "guess" or instructor judgment. The second way is using a test (usually a cloze procedure developed by Taylor) and the third is readability formulas. In this study, although the instructor judgment is not ignored, the focus has been on the readability formula, which can be used for reading as well as listening skill, because the instructor judgment may vary from person to person and it may be subjective. Among readability formulas, the Lix formula (Schulz, 1981) has been used because this formula can be used for the second language as well as the first language and its results have shown the close relationship with other statistic formulas. The Lix device simply measures the sum of average sentence length and percentage of "long words" in terms of letters with the following formula:

$$\text{Lix} = \frac{number\ of\ words}{number\ of\ sentences} + \frac{number\ of\ long\ words}{number\ of\ words} \times 100$$

*A long word is the one that has more than three syllables.

2. The post-listening questionnaire contained three questions to illicit information about their problems, to probe prior familiarity with the topics and the learner's judgment about two passages.

3. Bernhardt and James (cited in Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994) claim that the passage should be played two times: once to familiarize the subjects with the text and once to establish a mental structure with which to retain aspects of the text needed for generating a protocol.

4. Some students commented that they could not concentrate on their task, and their attentions would be distracted. These issues should be discussed in psychological and affective domains which are beyond the scope of this study. However, those comments show the complexity of the issue and caution us against the definite generalization of results.

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