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Revising our Curriculum/Empowering Students: Teachers' Preparation and Perceptions about Bilingual Writing

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Abstract—While emphasis on writing instruction has been a main concern in teaching Spanish to bilingual students in the U. S., it is an area in which very few theoretical advances have been made; in Mexico's case the situation is even more challenging. Therefore, based on classroom observations, and individual interviews with both teachers and students, and on the collection of class syllabi, this paper seeks to describe the current state of affairs regarding Spanish and English writing instruction for bilingual students in both countries. The main objectives are: 1) the analysis and comparison of the diverse teaching methodologies that high school teachers use to teach Spanish and English writing; 2) the analysis of the effects that the specific observed writing instruction has on students' perceptions about their own writing in both languages; and 3) the analysis of the perceptions that teachers have about their students' writing.

Index Terms—bilingual writing, teaching Spanish and English writing, teaching methodologies

I. INTRODUCTION

Research on writing is mainly carried out in the United States and other English speaking countries, and most of this research is related to English as a second language. In fact, several researchers have mentioned the need for more studies in other languages (Reichelt, 1999; Silva & Matsuda, 2001; Spicer-Escalante, 2005; Spicer-Escalante, 2009). With respect to Hispanic bilingual students in the United States, even though the emphasis on writing instruction has been a main concern, it is, unfortunately, an area in which very few theoretical advances have been made (Martínez & Spicer-Escalante, 2004; Valdés, 1995; Valdés, 1997; Valdés, 2006). Moreover, in the Spanish-speaking world, there is a noticeable lack of research into more advantageous strategies related to the teaching of writing. In the specific case of Mexico, we do not have access to either the current teaching methodologies that high school teachers use to teach Spanish writing or to the rhetorical and linguistic features of the Spanish writing of monolingual students. According to the Secretaría de Educación Pública (SEP) —the office in charge of Mexico's educational plans for elementary and secondary education at the national level— reading, writing, and mathematics are the most important areas of the *Programa Nacional de Educación 2001-2006* (Secretaría de Educación Pública, 2001). Even though writing is considered an essential part of the national education program, this 270 page document does not specify which teaching methodologies are to be implemented to improve the writing of Mexican students.

II. SPANISH AND ENGLISH BILINGUAL WRITING

Research on Spanish and English bilingual writing indicates that their writing discourse displays certain specific characteristics at both the linguistic and the rhetorical level (Colombi, 2000; Colombi, 2003; Schleppegrell & Colombi, 1997; Spicer-Escalante, 2002; Spicer-Escalante, 2007). The most important features at the linguistic level are, for example: the simplification of the verbal paradigm, the use of indicative instead of the subjunctive, and the preference of simple sentences instead over more complex subordinate sentences (Spicer-Escalante, 2007). At the rhetorical level, bilingual writing shows a greater use of detailed descriptions and narrations; an incorporation of analogies, testimonies, and examples to construct their essays; along with the tendency to support their thesis statements with the incorporation of personal experiences, or general knowledge, instead of using bibliographic information (Spicer-Escalante, 2005).

The analysis of the rhetorical and linguistic features of bilingual students writing in both Spanish and English in the United States suggests that their bilingual writing has unique characteristics that may be the result of a process of cultural --and rhetorical--transculturation¹. That is, the writing of these bilingual students does not completely follow the rhetorical patterns and linguistic conventions of neither the English nor the Spanish languages. Regarding the specific case of their rhetorical strategies, for example, it is suggested that they find their own writing space between the

¹ This term refers to the reciprocal influences of modes of representation and cultural practices of various kinds. It describes how "subordinated or marginal groups select and invent from materials transmitted to them by a dominant or metropolitan culture" (Ashcroft, et al., 2000: 233).

two languages and they nourish their writing expression by borrowing rhetorical aspects that correspond to both the Spanish and the English language (Spicer-Escalante, 2005).

Due to the aforementioned situations of both the writing instruction in the United States and in Mexico and the results yielded by the studies on bilingual writing, since the Fall of 2005 I have been conducting an ongoing study in two bilingual high schools; one in Albuquerque, New Mexico, and the other one in Guadalajara, Mexico. This study seeks to observe and to analyze the specific Spanish and English writing instruction that bilingual students receive at these two high schools. Although the research looks at several aspects of writing instruction, this essay focuses only on: 1) the analysis and comparison of the diverse teaching methodologies that high school teachers use to teach Spanish and English writing to bilingual students; 2) the analysis of the effects that the specific observed writing instruction has on students' perceptions about their own writing in both languages; and 3) the analysis of the perceptions that teachers have about their students' writing in both languages.

III. METHOD AND SETTING OF THE STUDY

The results of the present research have been drawn from classroom observations and individual interviews with both teachers and students conducted in the two aforementioned high schools. The class observations in Albuquerque were conducted in two English courses, taught by two different teachers, and in two Spanish courses for Native Speakers, taught by the same teacher. In Guadalajara observations were conducted in one English and in one Spanish course. A total of 20 students, both male and female, from each institution, were interviewed. The students who participated in this study were enrolled in the ninth or tenth grade. Both teachers and students were asked the same set of questions. The two English and one Spanish teacher, were interviewed in Albuquerque; the English teachers do not speak Spanish but the Spanish instructor is bilingual. In Guadalajara, the interviews were conducted with two English and with two Spanish teachers. The English instructors do not speak Spanish, even though one of them has lived in Mexico for eight years. The Spanish teachers understand English but do feel comfortable speaking it.

The high school in Albuquerque, the "Albuquerque Charter High School" (ACHS) is a Charter school located in the southwest area of Albuquerque. Diverse ethnic groups populate this area but Mexican and Mexican-Americans are the majority. According to ACHS statistics, its student population is 92% Hispanic; 100% of the students is at risk of not graduating; and 100% of them receive free breakfast and free lunch. Due to the history of the Hispanic population, in New Mexico the population goes back five centuries and there is a great variety of Spanish and English language proficiency levels among students at ACHS. Therefore, there are students who speak mainly Spanish, because they have recently arrived from a Hispanic country; while there are also students whose main language is English because their families have been in the area for several generations.

The bilingual school in Guadalajara, on the contrary, is quite different. Since the main objective of this research was to analyze the Spanish and English writing instruction to bilingual students, it was necessary to observe classes in the "Guadalajara Bilingual School" (GBS), a private institution. Traditionally, in México, Spanish/English bilingual students belong to the middle-upper level class and attend private institutions. The GBS is the most expensive private school in Guadalajara and it is located in one of the most affluent neighborhoods of this city. The GBS is a pre K-12 school and, according to its information, 94% of the students are bilingual in Spanish and English. The remaining 4% is represented by new arrivals, who are monolingual English speakers. All the students at the GBS not only finish high school but they also attend college and 100% of them finish their college studies. Moreover, a high percentage of them attend foreign universities, mainly in the United States. Guadalajara, the capital city of the State of Jalisco, is the second largest Mexican city with a population of over 5 million inhabitants; as a major economic hub for western Mexico, it is a city that constantly attracts new people from all over the country. Jalisco is also the state that supplies the largest number of immigrants to the United States (INEGI, 2000).

IV. TEACHER PREPARATION AND TEACHING EMPHASIS

For the purpose of this essay, it is very important to underline the fact that teacher preparation on how to teach either Spanish or English writing is the key component not only to improve the students' writing skills but also, and more importantly, to empower both students and teachers with bilingual writing skills. Paraphrasing Kincheloe and McLaren, writing teachers should seek to empower their students by helping to raise their awareness of such systems so that they can challenge them (Kincheloe and McLaren, 1994; McLaren, 2007).

In other words, if teachers are aware of the complexity of the writing process and if they guide their students throughout this process, students will have a greater opportunity to become aware of not only the writing process but also the strengths and weaknesses of their own writing and on how to improve it. Only by being aware of the complexity of the writing process, will students be able to challenge it. The aforementioned claim is confirmed by the class observations and the individual interviews carried out for this study. However, before continuing with this discussion, it is important to describe the main characteristics of each school, as well as the similarities and differences in terms of the teaching practices in their Spanish and English courses.

Students in both schools take four 50-minute periods per week in their Spanish and their English classes. However, when comparing the pedagogical practices that teachers follow to teach Spanish and English writing, there are several

distinctions that go beyond the expected differences given the two languages and the nature of both institutions (a public in the United States and a private school in Mexico).

The main observed differences are found in the teachers' academic preparation on the teaching of writing, the content that teachers cover in class, the type of writing exercises in which students are involved, and the way in which teachers respond to their students' writing. First of all, I must point out that teachers' academic background preparation in teaching in general varies between the two schools. At the Albuquerque Charter High School (ACHS), for example, one of the English teachers earned a Bachelors in English and she also holds an ESL (English as a Second Language) Endorsement; the other English teacher studied a Bachelors in Business, and years later, when she was already an English teacher, she got an ESL Endorsement; the Spanish teacher graduated with a Bachelors in Spanish. At the Guadalajara Bilingual School (GBS) the two Spanish teachers completed Bachelors and Masters degrees in Spanish Literature, in Mexico. The two English teachers graduated, one in Canada and the other one in the United States, with a Bachelors degree in English, and both of them hold Masters degrees in English Teaching.

In terms of teachers' preparation on how to write, Spanish and English teachers from both institutions, three in ACHS and four in GBS, stated that they have learned how to write by writing. During their undergraduate coursework, all teachers took composition courses, in which they wrote different types of essays, but they did not receive specific instruction on how to write or on how to improve their writing. None of the seven teachers interviewed received instruction on how to teach writing during either their undergraduate, graduate, or while completing their ESL Endorsement coursework. Both of the English teachers at the GBS are creative writers and they are also involved in different study groups in which they have the opportunity to read, write, discuss, and practice different writing approaches and writing strategies. Even though they did not receive instruction on how to teach English writing during their undergraduate and graduate studies, they have continuously attended workshops on how to teach writing, and both of them are involved in the student magazine that is published by the GBS.

The situation regarding teacher preparation on how to teach writing with the rest of the teachers from both institutions is very different from the English teachers at GBS. The rest of the teachers attend several workshops on teaching, in general, but none of them has attended a workshop on the teaching of writing. They all stated that they had learned how to teach writing by observing other colleagues. However, what was observed during this study is that among the three teachers at the Albuquerque Charter High School (ACHS) and the two Spanish teachers at the Guadalajara Bilingual School (GBS) there is a misunderstanding on what it means to teach writing. That is, teachers conceive writing as the instruction, practice, and mastery of grammatical or lexical aspects of the language.

In the English classes at the ACHS, for example, students read and discuss literary passages in English. Both teachers provide students with a series of perfectly structured questions based on the readings. Teachers expose students to the reviews, explanations, discussions, and the practice of several grammatical or lexical aspects of the English language. In both classes students have to write essays that are reviewed by their teachers, and in which teachers indicate the different aspects that they have to correct for their final versions, such as misspellings, word order, or vocabulary. Sometimes, teachers also ask students to clarify or to extend some paragraphs. In one of the classes, students also have the opportunity to write free-writing pieces for the first five to ten minutes of class.

Historically, Spanish writing instruction to bilingual students in the United States has been focused on the teaching of the standard Spanish variety. Therefore, teaching reading and writing has involved instruction in spelling conventions, written accents, basic grammar explanations, and lexical practice (Spicer-Escalante, 2002). The Spanish teacher at the ACHS follows perfectly this traditional trend. Students in this class read short stories in Spanish and discuss them. Yet, most of the questions for these discussions were carried out in a random fashion; students had very few opportunities to actually write. All exercises were conducted in class because according to the teachers, "students at this school do not do homework"². Therefore, class time was spent reading short stories, explaining grammar and lexical conventions, and practicing vocabulary items and written accents.

The Spanish class at the GBS was a perfect grammar course. Students were exposed to very detailed and thorough grammar and lexical explanations of the Spanish language conventions, based on a series of readings. They also had to practice, in class and outside of class, the correct use of these different aspects; at the same time, they had to be able to recognize and explain these grammatical concepts. Students' writing was reviewed and graded by the teacher, based on the correct use of the Spanish language. The teacher pointed out the mistakes they had made in the essays, such as: word order, misspellings, written accents or word choice.

On the contrary, the teaching environment in the English classes at the GBS was very different. In this class, students had to read and discuss English literature. The teacher also provided them with grammatical or lexical explanations. However, students had the opportunity to be involved in the writing process. That is, they practiced on their own pieces the pre-writing, writing, and re-writing stages of rhetorical development. Students exchanged their essays with both their teacher and their classmates. During the review process, students had a series of structured questions to help them not only to better analyze their classmates' writing, but also to provide them with better, more structured feedback. Both teacher and student feedback focused mainly on the content and on the organizational aspects of the essays, not only on mechanical aspects. Students also had the opportunity to ask the teacher for clarification and to discuss, in class, some

² (Laura Garc ía, personal communication).

of the most salient components of the compositions reviewed, before the re-write phase. After the pieces were graded, the teacher read some students compositions to the whole class to show them how their peers had incorporated particular rhetorical or linguistic features in their essays.

V. TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ABOUT BILINGUAL WRITING

The present study suggests that there is a very close correlation between teachers' background preparation, the teaching emphasis in the classroom, and the way that both students and teachers perceive writing. In classes where the emphasis is on the mechanical aspects of the language or on the grammar and lexical issues, students identify the need to master these aspects in order to be successful writers. Most students from both Spanish classes, at ACHS and GBS, as well as students from the English classes at ACHS consider, for example, that their writing is deficient because they do not know how to identify a verb or a noun in a sentence or because they do not know what an adverb is. In the case of the Spanish language this perception is even more critical because students think that knowing how to write in Spanish is to know how to correctly place written accents. Students have these opinions and make these assessments about their own writing because this is the instruction that they have received. Teachers emphasize the instruction and mastery of these mechanical aspects of the language in the classroom and when reviewing their written works. When Spanish and English teachers were asked to describe their students' writing, the Spanish teachers from both schools and the English teachers from ACHS noted that students do not know how to identify, or how to explain certain grammar features or lexical items (Spicer-Escalante, 2009).

However, students who know how the writing process works and who conceive writing beyond the mastery of these grammatical or lexical features, have a different, more complex understanding of the writing process. They realize that being a good writer is a goal that you can reach not only by reproducing correct grammar aspects or by being able to define them. For example, 100% of the students from GBS recognize that their English writing is better after taking the English classes, while 80% of them express explicitly that their Spanish class has not helped them to improve their Spanish writing skills. As one of the students stated:

"We need more freedom to write in Spanish classes. For example, I do not want to be told to write a composition using all connectors that appear on a list. I want to use them correctly but in a free way. I spend my time trying to use all of them, instead of [...] thinking [...] how to express myself...I want to be able to express myself in Spanish as I do [...] in English" (Roberts, 2005)

In the English classes at ACHS and, especially in the Spanish classes at both High schools, teaching writing is not a priority; and it is not a priority because, as mentioned before, there is a misunderstanding on what it means to write. As Valdés (2002) says, our classrooms are full of good intentions. These teachers have wonderful intentions, but they have not received the appropriate instruction on how to write nor on teaching writing. When dealing with the teaching of writing, good intentions are not enough. It is urgent to better prepare our teachers to teach writing (Kaplan, 2008). With respect to the teaching of Spanish and English writing, we face multiple difficulties; the most important are the lack of a specific curriculum on the teaching of writing in both languages, and the lack of preparation of the Spanish and English teachers on how to teach writing.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

Based upon the results of this study, we can state that we need to see writing in a different way, beyond the mechanical aspects of language. As Connor (1996) and Silva and Matsuda (2001) have mentioned, we need to understand the importance of the development of the rhetorical strategies that students use when they write. This does not mean that the mechanical features are not important, but that they should be seen as an integral part of their written discourse. These aspects are highly important tools that help students to improve their writing but should not be the main objective of instruction.

In dealing with the teaching of writing to bilingual students in the United States, we need to learn from the research conducted on the teaching of English writing to minority students (Ball, 1992; Ball & Lardner, 1997; Delpit, 1988; Delpit, 2002; Elbow, 2000; Elsassner & Irvine, 1985; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Ladson-Billings, 2002; Smitherman, 2000, among others). When dealing specifically with Hispanic students, we need to avoid what Ladson-Billings (1995) has termed 'permission to fail'. We need to establish and put into practice high standards for all our students, including Hispanics; they need to be prepared to be successful in life. They need to do homework! By allowing them not to do necessary class work, we are giving them permission to fail. We need to implement a "culturally relevant pedagogy" (Ladson-Billings, 1995) that focuses on students' academic achievement and a pedagogy that supports student's cultural competence.

We also need to design a specific curriculum for the teaching of Spanish and English writing, as well as guide our English and ESL teachers on the rhetorical and linguistic conventions of the Spanish language. Spanish teachers, on the other hand, need to find a correspondence between the English writing instruction that students receive and the application of these strategies to their Spanish writing.

In summary, as Colby and Stapleton (2006) have stated: "Teachers need to be writers themselves in order to be effective writing teachers" (354). In other words, we will be able to challenge the system only by being familiar with it,

by being aware of how it works. As Gary Howard (2006) says “we can not teach what we do not know” or in the words of Ysabel Gracida, “if you do not write, you can not ask them to write. You cannot ask them to do something that you are not able to do” (2007). Only by preparing our Spanish and English teachers on how to teach writing, will we be able to provide students with the necessary tools needed to empower them to be better writers. Only by doing this, will they be able to express themselves in both languages and to believe in what they write.

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Teaching and Learning English at Tertiary Level: Revisiting Communicative Approach

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Abstract—This study aims to discuss students' and teachers' awareness of various aspects of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and in light of the results, consider the pedagogical implications. Participants consist of nine non-native English teachers and 286 students in Taiwan's universities. Data was collected through an attitude scale and interviews with the participants. Analytical results revealed that most of the students preferred the communicative-learning teaching approach as a means to improve their English proficiency. Both students and teachers showed positive attitude with some reservation toward four domains of CLT: group/pair work, grammar, student/teacher role, and peer/teacher correction. The results also showed that the difficulties—teacher-related, student-related, and educational-system related—encountered by non-native English teachers were complex. Teacher-related constraints included teachers' low confidence in spoken English, deficiency in strategic and sociolinguistic competence, unfamiliarity with the target culture, lack of proper training in CLT, and low willingness to prepare communicative materials. Student-related constraints were mainly due to students' insufficient proficiency, and educational-system related limitations consisting of large classes and grammar-based examinations. The findings of this study, which corroborated those of previous studies, suggest that many of the difficulties encountered by both Taiwanese students and English teachers over the past decades still persist to this day.

Index Terms—Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), attitude, NNEST, NEST

I. INTRODUCTION

Although many people are opposed to the idea of English as an international “lingua franca”, it is generally acknowledged that English has become one of the most accepted medium of communication. Language communication ability plays an important role in the global village, in which economists emphasize that English proficiency is a form of human capital in the workplace (McManus, 1985). Taiwan aims to be one of the major economic partners in the world; language learners are therefore highly expected to emulate the communicative skills of native speakers. The influence of English as a global language compelled the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Taiwan to reform its English education policy. In 2001, English programs were implemented in the elementary school curriculum, aiming to provide a natural and enjoyable language learning environment. Before that, students started to learn English as one of their compulsory courses in junior high school. Due to the pressure of entrance exams, most students' learning experience is far from being natural and enjoyable. Accordingly, the average English proficiency among students, ranging from junior high school to university students, is still quite low when it comes to communicative use.

Beginning in the 1970s, voice for improving students' communicative competence became louder; the thought of adopting another practical teaching method emerged. The Grammar-Translation and Audiolingual have been two of the most popular teaching approaches in Taiwan. As a result, communicative competence has long been neglected by Taiwanese teachers and students. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is one of the methods which accentuates its goal of language teaching on communicative competence (Hymes, 1972). It is seen as a teaching innovation and has widely spread over the past two decades. CLT is arguably today's most popular teaching method in the field of English language teaching (ELT). From its introduction into discussions of language and language learning, the term “communicative competence” has prompted reflection. Although it is extensively practiced in the English as a second language (ESL) setting, CLT is not successfully applied in the English as a foreign language (EFL) setting. English teachers from countries such as China, Greece, South Korea, and Turkey have made attempts to implement CLT; however, research has shown that English teachers from these countries have faced many constraints that have hindered them from fully adopting this approach (Burnaby and Sun, 1989; Eveyik-Aydin, 2003; Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Li, 1998). Some of the more common constraints include large classes, grammar-based examinations, teachers' low English proficiency and lack of cultural knowledge, lack of communicative teaching materials, and students' low English proficiency. The results from the above studies affirmed the importance of understanding and taking into account teachers' and students' attitudes toward an innovative teaching approach (CLT) when attempting to implement such an approach.

A. *Communicative Language Teaching*

Communicative Language Teaching is an approach which highlights communicative competence as the goal of

language teaching. It is one of the communication-based English teaching approaches emphasizing the pragmatic, authentic, and functional use of the target language for meaningful purposes. (Brown, 1994) According to Larsen-Freeman (2000), CLT consists of the following characteristics. Its primary goal is to develop communicative competence in language learners, enabling them to communicate using the target language, which requires not only knowledge of linguistic form and meaning but also function. Language learners acquire the ability to differentiate between the various functions that a form may have and to choose the appropriate form that is suitable to the given context. They learn to negotiate meaning in a conversation. In CLT, the role of the teacher is that of a facilitator, advisor, and 'co-communicator,' and the role of the students is to communicate by participating in meaning-negotiation activities and to manage their own learning. Students work, not only as a whole group, but also in pairs and small groups. Activities considered truly communicative are those that include an information gap, choice, and feedback (Morrow, 1981, as cited in Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Information gap refers to the need of one interlocutor to obtain an unknown piece of information from the other. Choice is being able to decide what one will say and how one will say it, and feedback from participants in a conversation ascertains that the communication is purposeful.

CLT focuses on language functions over forms; therefore, a functional syllabus, which is organized according to functions such as introducing oneself, making requests, asking for information, apologizing, and congratulating, is usually used and is accompanied by authentic teaching materials. Language activities take place at the discourse level (e.g., looking at the cohesion and coherence of paragraphs) and seek to integrate the four language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking). Language is for the purpose of communication, not just an object of study. Consequently, the target language is used not only for communicative activities but also for instruction, minimizing the usage of the native language.

CLT evaluates both fluency and accuracy. Informal assessment can take place when the teacher is being the advisor and co-communicator. Integrative tests with a real communicative function are used. Errors of form are seen as a natural part of developing communicative competence; hence, they are overlooked when the focus is on fluency.

B. Problems of Adopting CLT

English is one of the most widely taught foreign languages in Taiwan. Students, ranging from elementary school to university, are requested to learn English as an obligatory course for different lengths of time. The central argument lies on the fact that university students, who have usually learned English for more than six years, have difficulties both in understanding and in making themselves understood as they communicate with English native speakers. Huang (1990) noted that the majority of the language learners are capable of learning to read the target language with varying degrees of success, but when it comes to oral communication, most of them become hopelessly dysfunctional. The traditional translation-grammar teaching/learning approach has caused both teachers and students to neglect the value of oral communication. Training students to obtain good grades on English tests would be one of the most vital criteria for being a good English teacher. In short, teachers and students share one common and identical mission: how to get good marks in entrance exams in order to be admitted into the ideal university. It is generally acknowledged that the higher the marks, the higher the students' English proficiency. However, the negative impact that has emerged from this teaching/learning strategy cannot be overstated. Examination-guided instruction and the premium placed on lecturing on selected textbook materials have led to failure in learning real-life communicative English. Many university students with high marks on the TOEFL have difficulties communicating with English-speaking people. Due to such discrepancies, an oral section has been added to the TOEFL test. This dramatic change has caused language learners to rethink their learning strategies.

In 1984, an inciting and widely influential article came out in defense of the communicative approach (Li). It argued against the traditional methods and questioned Chinese teachers' beliefs in regards to the language teaching and learning process. Like Taiwan, the dominant teaching method in China was based on the audiolingual and grammar-translation approaches to language teaching, which emphasized pronunciation/intonation training and oral practice through pattern drills for the purpose of developing good verbal habits; there was also a strong focus on grammar analysis, use of translation, rote memorization of vocabulary, intensive reading skills, and writing (Hu, 2002). Calling into question the prevailing notion that the form of language must be acquired first before its usage, Li contended that to learn the target language, one must use it. He asserted that the language of study must be "authentic, appropriate, and 'global'," meaning that it ought to be relevant and context-sensitive as well as whole and multidimensional. Grading of materials ought to be based on students' control of tasks and not on grammar and vocabulary. He further argued against the principle of 'learning sparingly but well,' asserting that teachers should not hold back input from the students but rather, give them a large amount of it, unafraid that the students will not be able to digest all the language data. Calling for a focus on tasks rather than on text, grammar, and vocabulary, he also affirmed the strength of CLT in its integration, not compartmentalization, of all four language skills. He argued that language classrooms ought to be student-centered, based on student needs and goals, rather than teacher-centered. Furthermore, he challenged the traditional schools of thought which view language teaching as imparting knowledge and language learning as receiving knowledge; he maintained that language learning is an active development process where learners need to take initiative and be active in the learning process. Finally, he asserted that effective communication—linguistic accuracy and sociolinguistic appropriateness—should be the criterion for judging performance, not the ability to memorize grammatical rules and a large number of vocabulary words. As a result of such discontentment with the traditional teaching methods, the

Chinese government was compelled to begin reforming the nation's ELT. One of the major changes was the replacement of the structural syllabus by a functional one in 1992, which set communicative competence as its primary aim. This was to be accomplished "by training in listening, speaking, reading and writing, to teach students in order to gain basic knowledge of English and competence to use English for communication" (English Teaching Syllabus, 1992, as quoted in Liao, 2000).

However, despite the reforms, the traditional method has remained predominant in many classrooms, albeit to a lesser extent than two decades ago. Many articles have explored the reasons for this reluctance to adopt CLT (Anderson, 1993; Campbell & Zhao, 1993; Liao, 2000). Anderson (1993) identified the following as obstacles to the implementation of CLT: heavy demands (due to the lack of training, texts, and materials) placed on teachers, students' lack of readiness, the difficulty of assessing communicative competence, and the need to prepare students for grammar-focused examinations. Campbell and Zhao (1993) observed that this reluctance to change has to do with the highly centralized education system, perceptions of teachers and students, teachers' limited knowledge of the target culture, and the lack of attention paid to the cultural context. Liao (2000) noted that the difficulties are related to teachers' lack of language proficiency and familiarity with the new method. Moreover, the influence of Chinese educational traditions has been difficult to overcome.

The above-mentioned English teaching/learning problems are seen as a reflection of those factors which affect EFL/ESL teaching in Taiwan. Traditional EFL instruction in Taiwan focuses on teacher-centered, grammar-translation, audio-lingual, and exam-oriented approaches that rarely meet students' needs when they communicate with English speakers or study abroad (Wang, 1994; Yang, 1978). Finding the way to improve students' weaknesses while communicating with English-speaking people is of great importance for both teachers and students in Taiwan.

C. *Related Studies on Attitude toward CLT*

Of central importance in understanding the feasibility of implementing CLT is teachers' attitudes toward this innovative approach to language teaching. As Li (1998) puts it, "How teachers as the end users of an innovation perceive its feasibility is a crucial factor in the ultimate success or failure of that innovation" (p. 698).

In their study on the effect of language context on Chinese teachers' views of CLT, Burnaby and Sun (1989) found that teachers perceived the communicative approach as more suitable for those planning to study or live in an English speaking country (English as a second language (ESL) context), but not for those, especially English majors, who planned to remain in China (English as a foreign language (EFL) context). For the latter, the traditional methods were perceived to be more appropriate, given their specific needs and learning goals. The study also revealed that teachers viewed their non-native English speaking teacher identity as a limitation (e.g., lack of familiarity with authentic texts, lack of knowledge in regards to appropriate cultural contexts, and no target language "intuition"). Furthermore, the pressure to teach to the grammar-focused examinations, the clash of two different teaching philosophies, large classes, lack of resources, and the low status associated with teaching language skills were all seen as constraints on the application of CLT.

Karavas-Doukas (1996) examined Greek secondary school English teachers' attitudes toward CLT and found that most had mildly favorable to favorable attitudes towards this approach. However, upon observing some of these teachers in the classroom, the researcher found that their teaching practices did not correspond with their attitudes toward CLT. There was an emphasis on form, the classes were teacher-centered, and there were no group activities. In this case, the discrepancy was caused by a lack of understanding of CLT principles. The author made note of the importance of not neglecting teachers' beliefs and attitudes prior to the introduction of a new teaching method. Li's (1998) study on South Korean secondary school English teacher's perceived difficulties in adopting CLT showed results similar to the two studies above. Perceived difficulties specifically related to teachers included teachers' deficiency in spoken English and strategic and sociolinguistic competence, lack of training in CLT, limited opportunities for retraining in CLT, misconceptions about the approach, and lack of time and expertise to develop communicative materials. Perceived educational system constraints consisted of large classes, grammar-based examinations, and lack of funding and support. Perceived difficulties caused by CLT itself included an inadequate account of EFL teaching context and the lack of effective and efficient instruments for assessment. Finally, perceived difficulties related to students included low English proficiency, little motivation for communicative competence, and resistance to class participation. This last point is further supported by two studies investigating student's attitudes toward CLT. Matsuura, Chiba, and Hilderbrandt's (2000) study of Japanese students revealed that the latter preferred traditional methods—learning isolated skills, focusing on accuracy, and the teacher-centered approach. The Chinese students in Rao's (2002) study preferred non-communicative activities such as audiolingual drills and workbook type drills over communicative activities.

Showing similar results, Eveyik-Aydin's (2003) examination of Turkish secondary school English teachers' attitudes toward CLT indicated that most had a favorable attitude with some reservations. These reservations concerned constraints that were caused by the educational system—large classes and having to stick to the curriculum; teachers' beliefs and educational values; and the students—low proficiency, fear of making mistakes, and the pressure of having to pass national examinations. Because of the crucial role teacher's attitudes and beliefs toward CLT play in the ongoing reforms in ELT in Taiwan, this paper will attempt to conduct an investigation of selected teachers' and students' attitudes toward the implementation of this approach. Furthermore, it will explore the difficulties encountered by these

teachers in applying the principles of CLT.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Instrument

Data were collected through the Communicative Language Teaching Attitude Scale (COLTAS) that was developed by Eveyik-Aydin (2003). Although this instrument was intended for the Turkish EFL context, it is, nevertheless, applicable to the Taiwan EFL context because of the similarities in both settings and also because the statements are not so specific as to limit it to one particular setting.

This instrument is a five-point Likert type attitude scale consisting of 36 statements developed based on the fundamental characteristics of CLT and categorized into four domains: group/pair work activities, place of grammar, student/teacher role, and peer/teacher correction (see Appendix A). Of all the statements, half of them have been designated as “negative” because they support the traditional perspective on language teaching, while the other half have been designated as “positive” because they reflect the principles of CLT. In this instrument, the positive items on the scale, those that reflect the principles of CLT, were assigned a high score of 5 for “strongly agree (SA)” down to a low score of 1 for “strongly disagree (SD).” The negative items on the scale, those that reflect a traditional view of language teaching, were assigned a reverse score of 1 for “strongly agree” up to 5 for “strongly disagree.” Thus, the participants who were more in favor of the communicative approach would have selected a larger number of scores between 4 and 5, and those who were more in favor of the traditional approach would have selected a larger number of scores between 1 and 2. The higher the scores obtained on COLTAS, the more favorable were the participants’ attitudes toward CLT, and the lower the score, the less favorable the participants’ attitudes. Scores for each participant were calculated and placed within the following categories. Scores between 180 and 144 (36×4) revealed a very favorable attitude toward CLT, whereas scores between 36 and 72 (36×2) revealed a very unfavorable attitude. A score of 108 (36×3) revealed a neutral attitude toward CLT. Scores between 109 and 143 showed a favorable attitude with some reservations toward CLT, while scores between 73 and 107 reflected unfavorable attitudes with some reservations.

B. Research Questions

To enhance students’ communicative competence, it is important to develop student-centered learning; to cultivate a range of learning strategies and study skills; to develop skills in intercultural communication, and to increase cultural awareness. It is teachers’ mission to inspire students and to strengthen their confidence during the learning process in a foreign language classroom. But, it is more important to deeper understand students’ perception before implementing the innovative teaching approach. In recent years, language teachers have made effort to stay away from traditional teacher-centered, grammar-oriented teaching and move toward student-centered approaches. This shift from grammar-translation methodology to communicative approach has been one significant characteristic of language education. For this reason, the following two research questions were presented as follows:

1. What are the selected teachers’ and students’ awareness of the shift from grammar-oriented teaching approach to communication-oriented teaching approach?
2. What are the difficulties facing non-native English teachers in teaching English communicatively in the Taiwan EFL context?

C. Interview Questions

After completing COLTAS, closed and open-ended interview questions were sent to the selected teachers in order to determine the types of difficulties they face in implementing CLT in their classrooms. The interview questions were adapted from Li’s (1998) questionnaire in her study on South Korean secondary school English teacher’s perceived difficulties in adopting CLT. There are 12 “yes” or “no” questions related to common difficulties faced by EFL teachers in the implementation of CLT, an open-ended question asking participants to explain any “yes” responses, and a final question asking them to identify other difficulties not already mentioned (see Appendix B). Analysis of the interviews was conducted by placing the data within three main categories: teacher-related, student-related, and educational system-related difficulties in the implementation of CLT. These categories were derived from the questions themselves. Questions one, two, three, ten, eleven, and twelve ask about difficulties related to teachers; four and five inquire into difficulties associated with students; and questions six, seven, and eight solicit information related to the educational system.

As with the administration of COLTAS, to ensure that the participants fully understood the questions, they were also encouraged to ask for clarification through e-mail. In addition, terms with which the participants were less familiar were defined and included in the interview. As to students’ interview, most of the questions are based on the questionnaire (See Appendix A). Besides, they were also asked to express their perception toward non-native English teachers in the implementation of CLT.

D. Participants

In March 2010, COLTAS was administered to nine English teachers and 286 students. Both teachers and students are affiliated to three universities located in northern, central and southern Taiwan. All of the teachers are non-native

English teachers, six female and three male, who were born, raised, and obtained their Master or PhD degree in Taiwan. Three of them are associate professors, three assistant professors, and three lecturers. Their average teaching experience is over six years. They never studied abroad but had some experience traveling in different parts of the world. Some of the participants requested that the interview be conducted anonymously, thus the participants are labeled as F1, F2, F3, F4, F5, F6, M1, M2, M3 respectively. (See Table 1) As to students, all of them are seniors of English Department and have been taught by one of the nine English teachers in this study. They were studying in the universities located in northern (n=108), central (n=98), and southern (n=80) part of Taiwan; 201 of them are females, and 85 males (See Table 2). The main reason of choosing seniors of English Department as the selected participants is based on the assumption that they share one similar goal --- to improve their English proficiency. Besides, they are soon facing the challenge of demonstrating their communication skill and language proficiency in the working places. When asked about their previous learning experience in the language classroom, they showed stronger willingness to express their opinions.

TABLE 1
BACKGROUND OF THE TEACHERS

Participant	Gender	Years of teaching experience	Position	location of University
F1	Female	8	Associate prof.	Northern Taiwan
F3	Female	4	Assistant prof.	
	Male	11	Lecturer	
F4	Female	10	Associate prof.	Central Taiwan
F5	Female	5	Assistant prof.	
M1	Female	12	Lecturer	
F2	Female	7	Associate prof.	Southern Taiwan
F6	Female	3	Assistant prof.	
M3	Male	14	lecturer	

TABLE 2
BACKGROUND OF THE STUDENTS

Class	Gender	Number of student	location of university
Freshmen	Female	74	Northern Taiwan
	Male	34	
Freshmen	Female	62	Central Taiwan
	Male	36	
Freshmen	Female	47	Southern Taiwan
	Male	33	

III. DATA ANALYSIS

Results from the Attitude Scale

The results showed that both teachers and students had a favorable attitude toward CLT. For teachers, three of them had a very favorable attitude, while the other four had favorable attitudes with some reservations. Only two participants showed an uncertain attitude. For students, 98 of them had a very favorable attitude, 124 had favorable attitudes with some reservation, 43 showed an uncertain attitude, 12 had unfavorable attitudes with some reservation, and 9 had very unfavorable attitudes. Scores tabulated to determine participants' attitudes toward each of the four domains revealed that, overall, most of the participants had favorable attitudes with reservations toward all four domains (see Table 3).

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF THE SCORES OBTAINED BY THE PARTICIPANTS ON COLTAS

Participants	180-144 Very favorable attitude	143-109 Favorable attitude with some reservations	108 Uncertain	107-73 Unfavorable attitude with some reservations	72-36 Very unfavorable attitude
Teachers					
Number of Participants	3(33%)	4(55%)	2(22%)	--	--
Students					
Number of Participants	88(30%)	134(46%)	43(15%)	12(5%)	9(4%)

A. Feedback from the Teachers' Interview

Results from the interview were analyzed in light of three major categories of difficulties faced by EFL teachers in implementing CLT: teacher-related, student-related, and educational system-related.

1. Teacher-related Difficulties

The participants identified several constraints that were directly related to them as teachers. These included teachers' lack of confidence in spoken English, deficiency in strategic and sociolinguistic competence, lack of willingness to prepare communicative materials, lack of training in CLT, and lack of cultural knowledge (see Table 4). Of these, teachers' low confidence in spoken English and lack of cultural knowledge were selected most often.

Lack of Confidence in Spoken English

Eight of the participants indicated that teachers' deficiency in spoken English is a source of difficulty when attempting to implement CLT in the classroom. Reasons given to explain this included teachers' limited vocabulary, lack of attention to their own spoken English, and uncertainty about speaking the language correctly. The following are comments from M1, F2, and F4.

M1: I feel I have a lot of problems to speak English accurately. Sometimes I can speak it fluently, but I am not sure it is in an appropriate way. I feel frustrated and lack of confidence in the class sometimes.

F2: Although I know the definition of vocabularies, I have difficulties finding the suitable collocations as expressed by native speakers. Sometimes I even doubt if I am qualified to be an English teacher.

F4: I am not very satisfied with my own English proficiency, and I feel frustrated when I fail to answer students' questions.

TABLE 4
REPORTED DIFFICULTIES IN IMPLEMENTING CLT

Teacher	Number of participants
Lack of confidence in spoken English	8
Lack of sociolinguistic competence	6
Lack of willingness to prepare communicative materials	3
Lack of training in CLT	6
Lack of cultural knowledge	7
Students	Number of participants
Low English proficiency	9
Passive learning style	7
Educational system	Number of participants
Large classes	7
Grammar-based examinations	6
Lack of authentic teaching materials	3

Lack of Cultural Knowledge and Sociolinguistic Competence

Because cultural knowledge is part of sociolinguistic competence, these two constraints were combined under one heading. Six of the participants reported that deficiency in sociolinguistic competence was an impeding factor in their decision to apply CLT, and seven of them reported that their lack of cultural knowledge was also a constraint.

M2: I wish I have chance to study abroad to feel cultural difference.

F6: It is hard to explain idioms or some expression without exposure to culture different from our own.

F3: I feel guilty myself since I have limited knowledge about foreign culture; I did have some traveling experience, but I don't think it is enough.

Lack of Willingness to Prepare Communicative Materials

Three participants reported that having little willingness to prepare materials for communicative lessons was also an obstacle to the implementation of CLT. This was attributed to a heavy teaching load and having less proficient students in the classroom.

F1: Preparing teaching material is a time-consuming task, I have to teach different courses and I don't have much time left to do this job.

Lack of Training in CLT

Six participants indicated that lack of training was also a constraint. Their responses revealed that there was a lack of focus on teaching methodology in their teacher training. As can be seen, despite having had several years of teaching experience, participants revealed that they have had little training in CLT.

M3: Training is a must for all teachers, but I seldom find similar training program.

2. Student-related Difficulties

The second category of difficulties involved students. The participants identified two student-related difficulties in adopting CLT: low English proficiency and a passive learning style. The former was seen by the participants as more of a constraint than the latter (see Table 4).

Low English Proficiency

Nine of the participants considered students' low English proficiency a major obstacle in applying CLT. They reported that students were lacking in their ability to understand and express themselves in the target language, despite having a large vocabulary, and that this low communicative proficiency was due to the curriculum's strong focus on grammar. One of the female English teachers pointed out that teachers are asked to speak English throughout the entire class, but most of the time students can't understand what they say. Then they have to translate it into Chinese, so for half of the lesson teachers end up speaking Chinese. Though the students have a large vocabulary, they cannot express themselves properly. Most of them spend a large amount of time on grammar; they don't practice speaking a lot.

Passive Learning Style

Seven participants reported that students' passive learning style was a constraint on teachers' use of CLT. The main reasons expressed for this was the lack of opportunities for students to interact in English and again, the impact of a strong emphasis on grammar. Closely related to this issue of students' passive learning style is students' motivation,

which the participants also acknowledged as a constraint. One of the male teachers pointed out that students have very few opportunities to interact in English outside the classroom, and because of the examination system, they have to learn grammar and recite the words. At the very beginning, most of the students like to learn English, but later on, they lose interest.

3. Educational System-related Difficulties

The third category of difficulties faced by the teachers in applying the principles of CLT was the educational system. This included large classes, grammar-based examinations, and lack of funds to provide for resources such as authentic teaching materials (see Table 4).

Large Classes

Seven participants indicated that large classes were a major impediment to teachers' attempts at implementing CLT. In Taiwan's Universities, English is an obligatory course; however, the number of students in each class is usually about 50 students or so, which means that students' learning efficiency suffers.

Grammar-based Examinations

Six of the participants reported that grammar-based examinations presented a major challenge to the implementation of CLT. As noted earlier, English curriculums in Taiwan place a strong emphasis on grammar, which is also true of national examinations. Although teachers want to spend time developing students' oral proficiency in the target language, they find it difficult to do so because of the students' previous incorrect learning strategy, which valued more in paper tests than in oral communication.

Lack of Authentic Teaching Materials

Three participants indicated that the lack of authentic teaching materials was also a constraint on their use of CLT. As pointed out by them, this is also an issue of insufficient funds to provide resources for teachers. As a result, teachers have to either pay for materials out of their own pockets or be limited to the textbook.

B. Feedback from Students' Interview

Although over half of the students showed positive attitude toward CLT, there was still certain degree of reservation and uncertainty in their response. To further understand what students felt in the CLT classroom, 12 students (4 males and 8 females) were chosen for a ten-minute interview, four each from three universities. They were labeled as S1.S2.S3.....S12. S1 to S4 are male students. S5 to S12 are female students. The interview questions were primarily from the questionnaire and the focus was on the four domains--- teacher/student roles, peer/teacher correction, group/pair work, and grammar. Most of them agreed that language classes should be student-centered and that teachers should help students develop sociolinguistic competence as facilitators. But some participants expressed their worry about local teachers' English proficiency when interacting with students in the classroom. Four of the participants showed their strong willingness, if possible, to be taught by foreign teachers. One of the female students explained her expectations by saying that foreign teachers could teach authentic and standard English due to their language ownership.

S5: I wish all my teachers were all native speakers, because it provides me with more chances to use English. Most of the teachers are local teachers, I know they are very good teachers, too. But, I still hope that our department can employ more foreign teachers.

Six of the participants were dubious about non-native English teachers in terms of their pronunciation, accent, use of collocations and idioms, and cultural knowledge. They believed that native English teachers would provide them genuine "foreign models." Two of the male participants shared their perception toward local teachers.

S1: My English proficiency is not good. But I don't like my local English teacher's accent and pronunciation.

S4: Sometimes I ask my teacher the difference between English expression in formal and informal occasions. I have a feeling that he is not sure about his own answer.

In regards to peer/teacher correction, most agreed that teacher correction should be avoided when it interrupts the flow of communication; moreover, most favored allowing student-student correction to take place in the classroom. However, difficulties emerged when the latter was practiced in the classroom. Seven of the participants pointed out that they had trouble when conducting peer correction. One of the major factors was due to their low English proficiency. One of the participants noted that this was one of the main obstacles.

S7: I love to talk with my classmates in the class. As to peer correction, I don't think I have the ability to do it. Because my English proficiency is very low, and that is the main reason I take English as my major. Besides, will it be effective in developing our communicative competence?

As to group/pair work and grammar, most agreed that group and pair work creates a motivating environment in which explicit grammar is not the focus, and promotes a greater amount of student involvement. However, eight of the participants noted that the passive students tend to use the native language while working in groups. Two of the female participants revealed their observations in class.

S8: Group work is a very good approach to motivate students to be involved in the discussion. Some of the students are very shy and unwilling to speak in the presence of the class. It certainly increases their learning motivation and decreases their anxiety.

S12: Pair work or group work offer us opportunities to discuss in a more relaxed atmosphere, but I feel that grammatical accuracy is very important in spite of the focus being on fluency. I feel that group work is good because it is student-centered, with little teacher correction. But, I doubt its usefulness. You know, I don't know what mistakes I

have made during our practice. If no proper correction is given by the teacher, I am afraid that I will make the same mistake next time.

In summary, despite their reservations, most of the participants agreed that group and pair work is effective in developing students' oral conversational skills because it creates a motivating environment for students to use English, promotes a greater amount of student involvement, and increases the quantity of oral/aural language practice. Moreover, it helps those students not willing to speak in front of a full class. As to student/teacher roles, most of them agreed that language classes should be student-centered, not teacher centered, allowing for more student-student interaction than teacher-student interaction; that tasks and activities should be designed based on student needs; and that teachers should help students develop sociolinguistic competence. In regards to grammar, most agreed that to develop communicative skills, explicit grammar teaching is not necessary; though grammar may be included in a communicative lesson, it is not the main goal of teaching. In addition, most agreed that teaching should emphasize language use rather than languages rules and meaning-focused activities rather than form-focused activities. Finally, concerning peer/teacher correction, most agreed that teacher correction should be avoided when it interrupts the flow of communication; however, it ought to be provided when required for effective communication. They agreed that feedback should focus on the content of the activities and the appropriateness of student responses rather than on the form of the language. Furthermore, most favored allowing student-student correction to take place in the classroom.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results of this study on the perception of Taiwanese English teachers toward CLT reflect the results of similar studies on Chinese and other EFL teachers' perceptions of CLT (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Eveyik-Aydin, 2003; Karavas-Doukas, 1996). As in Burnaby and Sun, Eveyik-Aydin, and Karavas-Doukas' study on Chinese, Turkish, and Greek English teachers' attitudes, respectively, this study also showed that the participants had favorable attitudes toward CLT, despite the difficulties they encountered in adopting this approach. More specifically, analogous to Eveyik-Aydin's (2003) findings, this study also revealed that most of the participants had favorable attitudes toward these domains of CLT: group/pair work, the place of grammar, student/teacher role, and peer/teacher correction.

Although the importance of communication is generally accepted by teachers and students alike, researchers indicated that Asian learners seem reluctant or unwilling to communicate using the target language (L2) (Tsui, 1996; Wen & Clement, 2003). Educational traditions and Asian cultures would contribute to the problems of reticence in the classroom. Firstly, Hu (2002) pointed out the fact that learning strategies such as reception, memorization seem to encourage learners to be more passive. The job of teachers is to deliver knowledge, and the students are receivers. In their researches (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Flowerdew & Miller, 1995; Ferris & Tagg, 1996), Asian students were seen as passive and reticent learners in the classroom; the authors linked students' learning behavior to cultural values in which teachers were seen as unquestioned authoritarians and arbiters of learning materials. It is understandable that the traditional Asian teaching culture had an impact on language learners. But, will it be objective to conclude that Asian students are all reticent and passive learners? In the present study students were very critical of their teachers and expressed negative attitude toward the traditional teaching approach in the classroom; 76% of the participants expressed favorable attitude toward CLT. The significance of this result implied that most students can be active and participative if they are given the appropriate learning environment as well as proper learning strategies. Aoki and Smith (1999) argued that cultural stereotyping would only to limit students' potential for change.

In regards to the difficulties teachers faced in implementing CLT, the findings of this study also reflect many of the same constraints found in other studies (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Eveyik-Aydin, 2003; Li, 1998). For example, comparable to Li's (1998) findings in her study on South Korean secondary school English teachers' perceived difficulties in adopting CLT, this study also showed that selected Taiwanese English teachers' perceived difficulties were teacher related—deficiency in spoken English, strategic and sociolinguistic competence, lack of training in CLT, and little time to develop communicative materials; student-related—low English proficiency and a passive learning style; and educational-system related—large classes, grammar-based examinations, and lack of funding. In short, the similarities in the results of this and the aforementioned studies, which were carried out in various EFL settings, including China, South Korea, Greece, and Turkey, support the general notion that EFL teachers face comparable challenges in applying the principles of CLT.

Placed in the context of CLT in Taiwan, the findings of this study along with those of previous studies and reports on CLT (Anderson, 1993; Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Campbell & Zhao, 1993; Liao, 2000) suggest that many of the difficulties Taiwanese English teachers encountered during and since the appearance of Li's (1984) article defending the communicative approach still remain today. Grammar-based examinations, referred to as the "piper that calls the tune" by Li (1984, p. 13), was widely identified by this and all the other reports as a pervasive constraint on the adoption of CLT in Taiwan. Limitations associated with lack of resources and large classes identified in Burnaby and Sun's (1989) study was also found in this study. Teachers' lack of training and the lack of teaching materials reported in Anderson's article were corroborated by this study as well. Teachers' limited knowledge of culture as identified by Campbell and Zhao (1993), and teachers' lack of language proficiency as reported by Liao (2000) were constraints that most of the teachers in this study faced too.

In view of the persistence of these difficulties, the feasibility of adopting CLT in Taiwan is called into question. Is it

possible to fully adopt CLT in the Taiwan context? Considering that CLT is an western import rooted in the western culture of learning that is in many respects in conflict with the Taiwanese culture of learning—which values teacher dominance over student-centeredness, mental activeness over verbal activeness, and student receptiveness and conformity over student independence and individuality, etc. (Hu, 2002)—is a full adoption of CLT a pedagogically sound choice? If not, does this mean that CLT ought to be abandoned?

Researchers (Campbell & Zhao, 1993; Eveyik-Aydin, 2003; Hu, 2002; Li, 1998) have warned against a full, blind, and unbridled adoption of CLT and called attention to the need for considering the sociocultural milieu of the teaching context where CLT is being implemented. As Hu (2002) contends, “it is important for educational policymakers and teachers to take a cautiously eclectic approach and make well-informed pedagogical choices that are grounded in an understanding of sociocultural influences” (p. 103). Despite the aspects of the Taiwanese culture of learning that are incompatible with those of CLT, those practices of CLT suggested by Hu, such as collaborative learning and learning strategy training, that are compatible with Taiwanese traditional approaches can certainly be applied in the English classroom.

In addition, simultaneous team teaching could be one of the choices in the EFL context. It involves a NEST and a local teacher, and has proved to be effective in international school settings (Pardy, 2004). It has been implemented in TEFL or TESL situations, particularly in Japan (Tajino & Tajino, 2000) and Hong Kong (Lai, 1999). At the tertiary level, it could be one of the recommended teaching approaches in EFL classroom. The focus is on the cooperation between native and non-native instructors, and its main goal is to assist students learning the target language more efficiently. In the present study, students preferred communicative language teaching as a means to improve their English proficiency, but they also preferred being taught by native English Speaking teachers. In terms of language performance, native teachers show more self-esteem than non-native teachers (Mahboob, 2004). Through simultaneous team teaching, language learners will benefit from both native and non-native teachers.

Cook (1999, p.185) argued that language teaching would benefit by paying attention to the L2 user rather than concentrating primarily on the native speaker. Braine (2005) argued that one group of teachers should not necessarily be superior to the other group. Ryan (1985) noted that teachers’ attitude and beliefs strongly affect students’ behavior. The most important thing that teachers should be concerned about is finding ways to improve their teaching skills and to effectively handle challenges such as professional training, linguistic and sociolinguistic competence, and understanding of the students’ needs. To achieve this purpose, language teachers are encouraged to be engaging in such activities as self-monitoring their teaching, participating in team teaching and peer coaching. Besides, they are also encouraged to initiate an action research project, to participate in group discussions with other teachers, and to analyze case studies (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Therefore, it is of much importance to ensure that teachers are adequately trained in language teaching methodology appropriate to a range of learner ages and stages, that teachers’ own language skills are significantly enhanced, that classroom realities meet curricular rhetoric, and that students have sufficient exposure to English in instructional contexts (Nunan, 2003).

V. CONCLUSION

The applied linguistics community has moved on from general explorations of the applicability or difficulties of the communicative approach to task-based approach in language classroom. Language teachers throughout the world have been encouraged to reflect on their own professional development. Medgyes (1994) stated that an ideal non-native English teacher was the one who had achieved near-native proficiency in English, and an ideal native English teacher was the one who had achieved a high degree of proficiency in the learners’ mother tongue. It is not who implements CLT but which strategies are used during the process of implementation. This study revealed that selected Taiwanese English teachers and students had favorable attitudes toward CLT; however, this attitude was not without reservations and even a certain amount of uncertainty. Given the incompatibility of many of CLT’s practices with the Taiwanese culture of learning, it is not surprising that this should be the case. The results of this study showed that many of the difficulties encountered by the participants in implementing CLT are the same as the ones faced by Taiwanese English teachers over the last two decades. Constraints related to teachers, students, and the education system have persisted over the years and have been difficult to overcome. This state of affairs implies that there is still an urgent need for more teacher training that will prepare and equip teachers with the necessary language and pedagogical skills needed to apply CLT in the classroom. Moreover, it is of great importance for students in the EFL contexts to transform their grammar-based learning strategies into more communicative ones.

APPENDIX A: COLTAS

Please indicate your degree of agreement on the following statements:

		Strongly Agree 5	Agree 4	Uncertain 3	Disagree 2	Strongly Disagree 1
1.	Language classes should be student-centered, not teacher centered.					
2.	Pair work activities should be avoided as it is difficult for teachers to monitor each student's performance.					
3.	Teacher correction should be avoided when it interrupts the flow of communication via student interaction.					
4.	An orderly teacher centered class is necessary for students to get maximum benefit from teacher input in English.					
5.	Students need to have immediate teacher feedback on the accuracy of the English they produce.					
6.	Pair work develops oral conversational skills in English.					
7.	Group work creates a motivating environment to use English.					
8.	Teachers should allow opportunity for student-student correction in English.					
9.	The major role of teachers is to transmit knowledge about language to students through explanations rather than to guide them for self-learning.					
10.	Teacher feedback should be mainly focused on the content of the activity not on the form of language.					
<u>11.</u>	It is of great importance that student responses in English be grammatically accurate.					
12.	Teachers should be the initiators of most interactions in English in the class.					
13.	To develop communicative skills, explicit grammar teaching is not necessary.					
14.	Emphasis should be on language use rather than language rules while teaching English in the class.					
15.	Pair work provides a greater amount of student involvement than a teacher-led activity.					
16.	Group work helps those students who are not willing to speak in front of a full class.					
<u>17.</u>	Focus on communicative competence produces linguistically inaccurate speakers of language.					
18.	Teachers should make an analysis of student needs in order to design suitable tasks and activities in English.					
19.	Group work causes a noisy classroom atmosphere which prevents meaningful practice in English.					
20.	Teacher feedback should be mainly focused on the appropriateness of the student responses rather than the linguistic accuracy of the forms.					
<u>21.</u>	Teachers should not tolerate mistakes in English forms.					
22.	Meaning focused activities are more effective to develop communicative ability than form-focused activities.					
<u>23.</u>	Students' attention should be drawn to the linguistic system of English through direct teaching of the structures.					
<u>24.</u>	Group work cannot increase the amount of English practice because the students tend to use their native language while working in groups.					
25.	Teacher correction should be provided only when it is required for effective communication.					
<u>26.</u>	Pair work is not an effective means of improving communication skills in English.					
27.	Helping students develop the use of context-appropriate language should be the primary goal of language teaching.					
<u>28.</u>	Students' language performance should be primarily judged by their grammatical correctness.					
<u>29.</u>	To learn how to communicate effectively, a considerable amount of time should be spent on grammatical explanations.					
<u>30.</u>	Since students have little information about the language, they should not be allowed to correct their peers' mistakes.					
31.	Most of the interaction in the class should be from students to students, not from teachers to students.					
<u>32.</u>	A teacher-directed class will motivate students to work productively with English.					
33.	Grammar teaching may be included in a lesson as a means of communication, not as the main goal of teaching.					
34.	Group work increases the quantity of oral/aural language practice.					
<u>35.</u>	Correction should be mainly focused on the mistakes in language structures.					
<u>36.</u>	Pair work cannot create a motivating environment to use English.					

*Negative items of the scale are shown underlined here. However, no such designation was provided on the original instrument while collecting data.

APPENDIX B

Interview Questions

In most countries where English is taught as a foreign language, teachers have had many difficulties in implementing the principles of communicative language teaching (CLT). Have you had any of the following difficulties in adopting CLT in your classroom? Or do you think any of these might be difficulties for Taiwanese English teachers in adopting CLT?

1. Teachers' deficiency in spoken English? Yes or No
2. Teachers' deficiency in strategic and sociolinguistic competence (see definition below) in English? Yes or No
3. Teachers' having little time to write and prepare communicative materials? Yes or No
4. Students' low English proficiency? Yes or No
5. Students' passive style of learning? Yes or No
6. Lack of authentic (see definition below) teaching materials? Yes or No
7. Grammar-based examinations? Yes or No
8. Large classes? Yes or No
9. The difference between EFL and ESL context (see definition below)? Yes or No
10. Teachers' lack of training in CLT? Yes or No
11. Teachers' lack of cultural knowledge? Yes or No
12. Teacher's misconceptions about CLT? Yes or No

If you answered "yes", please explain and give an example from your own teaching experiences or from that of someone else you know.

13. Have you had or have you noticed other difficulties, besides those in questions 1-12, that Taiwanese English teachers have in adopting CLT?

Strategic competence: knowing how to carry on a conversation in English and not letting it die. This is done by using various communication strategies such as asking for help, asking for repetition, asking for clarification, paraphrasing, etc.

Sociolinguistic competence: knowing what to say, how to say it, and when to say it. It is the appropriate use of the language in a given social context. For example, when you see a professor, you might greet him by saying, "Hello, Professor Chen, how are you?" This is formal. But when you see a friend you say, "Hey! What's up!" which is less formal. It also involves knowing the culture.

Authentic: real-world, real-life materials. Something you would find in society. For example, a magazine in English, a TV show in English, a story from the internet.

EFL context: EFL stands for "English as a foreign language." In a typical EFL context, English is only used in the classroom, not at home or in society. Therefore, students have a limited amount of exposure to English.

ESL context: ESL stands for "English as a Second Language." In an ESL context, English is not only used in the classroom but also outside the classroom—in restaurants, businesses, schools, TV, etc. Therefore, students have an unlimited amount of exposure to English.

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Teaching Writing through Genre-based Approach

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Abstract—This research is an endeavour to examine the impact of genre-based approach on students' writing performance as well as students' attitudes towards the implementation of genre-based approach in writing learning. Research findings reveal that most of the students gained the control over the key features of the required recount genre in terms of social purposes, language features and schematic structure. The necessity and usefulness of the application of teaching-learning cycle into learning the recount genre was predominantly recognized among students.

Index Terms—genre-based approach, teaching writing, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing skill is deemed to be difficult for EFL students in the language learning (Richards, 1990). According to Richard and Renandya (2002), the difficulties include those in (1) generating and organizing ideas using an appropriate choice of vocabulary, sentence and paragraph organization and (2) putting such ideas into an intelligible text. As for Vietnamese EFL students, besides these difficulties, they also have to face many other obstacles when learning to write compositions in English.

The first difficulty rests in the fact that English in Vietnamese universities nowadays is treated primarily as a compulsory subject for studying and for exam-driven purposes rather than as a tool for communication. Students have been asked to do the multiple choice tests on their final exams which include several sections on grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension and writing. In the writing section, students are asked to "rewrite" some sentences in another way but keep exactly the same meaning as the given ones. They are also asked to repair word order in jumbled-word sentences or fill in the blanks with the suitable verbs or verbal phrases. As passing exams is vital for students' lives, most of the time in class, a large number of teachers may be in more favor of teaching such writing skills to help their students pass the exams.

Secondly, the "so-called" teaching writing approach of composition deployed by teachers at present may expose some difficulties for students in the performance of the compositional writing skills. In terms of teaching English compositions, most of the teachers just focus on providing their student writers with vocabulary relating to the required topic and some guiding questions in order to help them shape their ideas into the completed paragraphs. Teaching writing in this way only benefits them to an extent that it can assist them in producing the error-free texts following the models of correct language. However, it does not contribute to help students realize and master such features as purposes, audiences, context and linguistic conventions of text which are the important features of any text-types.

In other words, writing classes in university nowadays are still predominantly language-based writing classes that focus on sentence writing for exam-orientation rather than focus on writing-based classes that focus on creating compositions in order to serve for the purposes of plurality of real readers outside the classroom context.

This research is an endeavour to seek for ways that can both enhance students' writing skills and build up their positive perceptions towards learning this skill. The genre-based approach chosen in this research is to solve students' difficulties in learning to write English compositions. This research is guided by the ensuing questions:

1. To what extent can students' academic recount essays actually be improved with respect to social purposes, schematic structure and language features after their exposure to genre-based approach?
2. What are students' attitudes towards the use of the genre-based approach in learning to write?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. What is Genre?

"Genre" refers not only to types of literary texts but also to the predictable and recurring patterns of everyday, academic and literary texts occurring within a particular culture (Hammond and Derewianka, 2001). In the western countries, "genre" or "text-type", either spoken or written, is often identified/grouped according to its primary social purposes. According to Swale (1990), the genres which share the same purposes belong to the same text-types. Derewianka (1990) identified further six main school type-types according to their primary social purposes: (1) Narratives: tell a story, usually to entertain; (2) Recount: To tell what happened; (3) Information reports: provide factual information; (4) Instruction: tell the listeners or readers what to do; (5) Explanation: Explain why or how something happens; (6) Expository texts: Present or argue a viewpoint. These social purposes of the text-genres in turn decide the linguistic inputs of the text (i.e. their linguistic conventions, often in form of schematic structure and linguistic features). Specifically, schematic structure refers

to internal structure or text organization of the text-type in forms of introduction, body and conclusion while language features consist of linguistic aspects such as grammar, vocabulary, connectors and etc the writers have to use in order to translate information/ideas into a readable text.

B. Genre-based Approach

A genre-based approach placed great emphasis on the relationship between text-genres and their contexts (Hyon, 1996). In doing so, it aimed to help students become effective participants in their academic and professional environment as well as in their broader communities (Hammond and Derewianka, 2001). Following are some characteristics of the genre-based approach.

First, the genre-based approach emphasizes the importance of exploring the social and cultural context of language use on a piece of writing. The context decides the purpose of a text, an overall structure of a text in terms of language features and text features often in the form of linguistic conventions (Hammond and Derewianka, 2001; Hyon, 1996). This approach argues that students can only produce a composition to be successfully accepted by a particular English-language discourse community once they take context of a text into account into their own writing papers.

Second, this approach highlights the magnitude of the readers and the linguistic conventions that a piece of writing needs to follow in order to be successfully accepted by its readership (Muncie, 2002). According to this approach, any student who wants to be successful in joining a particular English-language discourse community, he or she will need to be able to produce texts which fulfill the expectations of its readers in regards to grammar, organization, and content.

Third, it underscores that writing is a social activity. This notion originated from the social-cultural theory initiated by Vygotsky (1978). According to this theory, knowledge is best constructed when learners collaborate together, support one another to encourage new ways to form, construct and reflect on new knowledge. In this case, social interactions and participation of group members play a key role in developing new knowledge. In the writing classes, students are encouraged to participate in the activities of meaning exchange and negotiation with their more capable people such as peers and teacher. Learning writing in this way, as it is believed, can remove the feeling of isolation which bothers many learners when writing and at the same time, help student writers have positive reinforcements about the knowledge of linguistics, content and ideas in the composing of texts.

Fourth, a genre-based approach to writing instruction looks beyond subject content, composing processes and linguistic forms to see a text as attempts to communicate with readers. This approach is concerned with teaching learners how to use language patterns to accomplish coherent, purposeful prose writing. Its central belief is that “we do not just to write, we write something to achieve some purpose” (Hyland, 2003, p. 18). In this approach, student writers are requested to consider the overall social purposes of a text into account when composing a text.

Fifth, this approach emphasizes the important role of writer-reader interaction on a piece of writing (Reid, 1995). Firstly, student writer in this approach is requested to specify or think about the intended and/or potential readers when writing in order to be able to select or anticipate appropriate content, language and levels of formality. He or she should always ask himself or herself some questions such as who will be my intended readers?, who might be interested in reading my text?, what are their beliefs about a good piece of writing?, what are their levels of English proficiency? and what are their educational and cultural backgrounds?, etc. Similarly, readers when approaching the text should also ask themselves some questions such as for what purposes does this writer write this piece of writing?, what is the writer’s viewpoint when writing the text?, what kinds of language features and organization does he/she use in the text?, and etc. To recap, there always exist an interaction between writer and its readers in the form of written communication despite the absence of readers.

Sixth, teacher’s role in this approach is viewed as authoritativeness rather than authoritarian (Rothery, 1996). As an expert in the classroom, the teacher provides students with systematic guidance and careful support through various activities so that students ultimately gain the control of written genres. At the same time, he/she also recognizes the importance of students’ contributions to the teaching-learning process.

Last but not least, the genre-based approach emphasizes the explicit teaching of the linguistic conventions of the genre for L2 novice student writers (Christie, 1990). It is argued that students cannot produce a particular text-type successfully if they are not taught explicitly about linguistic conventions of that text-type with respect to language features and schematic structure. Therefore, making known these conventions to student writers; especially at the first stage of the instructional modules of particular text-types is a very important task of genre-based teachers. In the classroom, teacher following genre orientation often employs the teaching-learning cycle which comprises the three phases, namely, modeling of a “sample expert” text, joint-negotiation of text with teacher, and independent construction of text by individual student (Cope and Kalantzis, 1993).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Forty five first-year students of Class 010C from Ho Chi Minh City University of Finance-Marketing were invited to take part in an experimental writing class in which the researcher used the genre pedagogy’s teaching-learning cycle in order to teach the student participants to write on biographical recount genre. This extra curricular writing activity was conducted outside their regular-class hours between February 2011 and May 2011 in order to offer the student participants

a lot of opportunities to practice more in the writing skills. Meanwhile, the four skills are still regarded as the key elements in the mainstream English coursebooks in the regular-class hours at school.

B. Data Collection and Analysis

Research data was collated through student essays and questionnaire for students.

Student essays

The essays collected were the ones written on the following topic “Write about a famous person”. the analysis of these essays were based on the three evaluative criteria of the recount genres developed and explained by Droga and Humphrey (2003). More specifically, the students’ text analysis focused on:

- Students’ control over the social purposes of the required recount genre: to give accounts of the most important events in the life of a specific character in history (for biographical recount genre).
- Students’ control over the schematic structure of the recount genre. These include: The orientation phase, the sequence of events in chronological order phase and the re-orientation phase.
- Students’ control over the language features of the recount genre. These include: focus on the main specific human participants, process types (i.e. material process, relational process and mental process), circumstantial adverbs of time, and the past tenses of verbs.

Questionnaire for students

A Vietnamese version of questionnaire consisting of two parts, part A and part B, which was designed to elicit students’ attitudes towards the genre pedagogy’s teaching-learning cycle and the recount genre was administered to forty five first-year students right after they had finished the instructional module of the recount genre. This questionnaire composed of close-ended questions which were designed on five agreement extensions, namely, strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree and strongly disagree as proposed in Likert’s work which was published in the late 1920s.

This questionnaire sought to gather information about students’ attitudes towards (1) the three phases of teaching-learning cycle and (2) the recount genre. It consisted of 33 items which were distributed in two parts in the form of close-ended questions (A, B). Part A with 26 items aimed at the three key phases of teaching-learning cycle and part B with seven items aimed at the recount genre.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Analysis of Students’ Biographical Recount Essays

TABLE 1.
STUDENTS’ CONTROLS OVER THE KEY FEATURES OF THE BIOGRAPHICAL RECOUNT ESSAYS

Essays	Social purposes	Schematic structure			Language features			
		Orientation	Sequences of events	Re-orientation	Main participants	Process types	Past tense of verbs	Circumstantial adverbs of time
No.	45	45	42	38	45	45	45	45
%	100	100	93.33	84.44	100	100	100	100

Table 1 indicates that more than 80% of the students were successful in gaining controls over the key features of the biographical recount essays.

With respect to the schematic structure, most student participants demonstrated all typical phases of a biographical recount essay, namely, an *orientation*, a *sequence of events* and a *reorientation*. Specifically, in the orientation, they identified a famous person as the *main participant* and then provided the reasons for his fame in their orientation. Thus, they succeeded in revealing the social purpose of their essays: *To give an account of a famous specific character in the history*. In the same vein, in the sequences of event phases, they demonstrated their good understanding and good execution of typical features of a biographical recount genre by unfolding the major phases in the famous person’s life in a temporal order, deploying proper circumstantial adverbs of time and proper tenses of verbs, and finally rounded off their essays by summarizing the famous person’s contributions to the society.

Moreover, they were also successful in deploying proper linguistic resources of the biographical recount genre by focusing on *one main participant*, using a variety of process types such as *Material process*, *Relational Process*, *Mental Process* across the *schematic structure of their essays*, using *proper past tenses of verbs and circumstantial adverbs of time*. Interestingly, they also know how to use the other adverb elements such as *cause*, *place*, *result*, *purpose* and *concession* to make their whole essays hang together.

In a nutshell, it was evident from their essays that majority of the students gained control over the features of the biographical recount genre.

B. Analysis of Students’ Attitudes towards the Teaching-learning Cycle and the Recount Genre

Students’ attitudes towards the teaching-learning cycle

This section displays the three themes which are the modeling of the recount genre, joint-construction of the recount genre and independent construction of the recount genre respectively.

• *Phase 1: Modeling of the recount genre*

This phase is subdivided into two subphases: context exploration and text exploration.

* *Context exploration*

TABLE 2.
STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE ACTIVITIES IN THE CONTEXT EXPLORATION OF THE RECOUNT GENRE

Student choice	SA 5	A 4	U 3	D 2	SD 1	M 3.0
The activities in the context exploration						
1. Realizing the social purposes of the recount genre.	20 44.4	20 44.4	5 11.1	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.3
2. Knowing the writer of the recount genre.	17 37.8	23 51.1	5 11.1	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.3
3. Knowing the intended readers of the recount genre.	17 37.8	23 51.1	5 11.1	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.3
4. Exploring the possible contexts of situation of the recount genre.	9 20.0	25 55.6	9 20.0	2 4.4	0 0.0	3.9
5. Realizing that the contextual factors can affect the production of the recount genre.	12 26.7	15 33.3	15 33.3	2 4.4	1 2.2	3.8
6. Activating their background knowledge.	15 33.3	25 55.6	5 11.1	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.2
7. Expressing their personal opinions or attitudes towards the recount genre.	12 26.7	15 33.3	15 33.3	2 4.4	1 2.2	3.8
8. Necessity and usefulness for them in the latter phases of learning writing.	27 60.0	14 31.1	4 8.9	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.5

SA= Strongly agree, A= Agree, U= Uncertain, D= Disagree, SD= Strongly disagree

As indicated in Table 2, the majority of student participants (91.1%) reckoned that the activities in the context exploration was necessary and useful for them in the latter phases of learning writing (M = 4.5). Concretely, 27 students accounting for 60% agreed that these activities really helped them in learning writing in addition to 14 students (31.1%) expressing their strong agreement towards this statement. As a result, most of the students expressed their positive opinions from approval to strong approval (M ranged from 3.8 to 4.3) to the 7 remaining items (from item 1 to item 7) with respect to realizing the purposes of the recount genre, knowing the reasons why writer writes the recount genre, the audiences of the recount genre, knowing the situations where the recount genre can be applied, helping explore the contextual factors affecting the production of the recount genre, helping activate their background knowledge and expressing their personal opinions towards the recount genre. Specifically, around 88.8% of the respondents affirmed that the activities in the context exploration could help them realize the social purposes, writer and the intended readers of the recount genre. In the same vein, nearly the same number 88% of them noted that these activities helped them realize in what situation this genre could be applied and roughly 90% of the respondents showed that these activities could activate their prior knowledge towards the recount genre. Although the criteria in terms of exploring the possible contexts of situation of the recount genre and expressing their personal opinions towards the recount genre were not warmly received with favorable opinions (i.e. the hesitation of the respondents dropped from high proportion 33.3% to low proportion 20%), 77.6% of them also expressed that these activities were really helpful for them. Finally, roughly 60% of the respondents, albeit still predominant, reckoned that these activities could help them realize that the contextual factors could affect the production of the recount genre and that these activities were the good chances for them to express their likes and dislikes towards the recount topics which they were learning.

In short, the students' attitudes towards the activities in the first subphase of the modeling of the recount genre were generally positive. Although there were some students showing their uncertainty and disagreement towards some options in the items in this subphase, they were just a few. Generally, all the activities in this subphase actually facilitated and prepared them in the following phases of the teaching-learning cycle.

* *Text exploration*

TABLE 3.
STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE ACTIVITIES IN THE TEXT EXPLORATION OF THE RECOUNT GENRE

Student choice	SA 5	A 4	U 3	D 2	SD 1	M 3.0
The activities in the text exploration						
1. Realizing how the information is structured in the sample recount genre to reach the purposes, audiences, content and text organization.	21 46.7	19 42.2	5 11.1	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.4
2. Picking up the salient language features of the recount genre thanks to the teacher's explicit analysis of these features.	27 60.0	13 28.9	5 11.1	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.5
3. Picking up the salient schematic structure of the recount genre thanks to the teacher's explicit analysis of these features.	27 60.0	13 28.9	5 11.1	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.5
4. Realizing that each recount genre has different writing conventional rules.	30 66.7	10 22.2	5 11.1	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.6
5. Realizing that these conventional rules of writing differ from culture to culture.	22 48.9	10 22.2	9 20.0	4 0.9	0 0.0	4.2
6. Realizing that conforming to the conventional rules of a particular recount genre is very important when writing.	30 66.7	10 22.2	5 11.0	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.6
7. Necessity and usefulness for them in the latter phases of learning writing.	25 55.6	15 33.3	5 11.1	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.4

It is obvious from Table 3 that the activities in the text exploration of the recount genre could facilitate students in learning writing in particular and in the latter phases of their learning writing in general. Indeed, 88.9% of them expressed their approval towards these activities with 55.6% higher percentage of strong agreement and lower percentage 33.3% of agreement. In turn, their strong belief entailed their agreement to the 6 remaining items (from item 1 to item 6). In addition, it was also noted that only 5 students each asked expressed their uncertainty in the items 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 and 9/45 students expressed their hesitation in item 5 along with 4/45 students expressing their disagreement. This indicated that almost all respondents expressed their positive opinions towards the activities in the text exploration. Specifically, 88.9% of these students expressed that, with the sample text offered and analyzed by the researcher, they could realize how the information was structured to obtain social purposes, language features and schematic structure of the required text. This entailed 27/45 students (60%), together with 13/45 students (28.9%) expressing their agreement, strongly agreed that they were able to pick up the salient language features and schematic structure which were suitable for the required recount genre thanks to the process the researcher analyzed the features of the required sample recounts for them. Interestingly, 88.9% of the respondents, which was albeit 88.9% of the respondents in the item 7, reported that, in their viewpoints, conforming to the linguistic conventions of a particular recount genre was very important for them to learn writing (88.9%). Finally, it was found in item 5 that 32/45 students (71.1%) agreed that the conventional rules of writing differed from cultures to cultures.

To sum up, the text exploration subphase was really useful and necessary for students in learning writing. This was confirmed in their positive responses towards the aspects of the social purposes, language features, schematic structure and etc. of the required recount genre. This was in coincidence with the researcher's expectations. As identified in the conceptual framework of the teaching-learning cycle, the first phase – modeling – aims at providing the novice students with the "tools" to construct the text with in terms of social purposes, language features and schematic structure of a particular text-type because in this phase students themselves are still unfamiliar with these conventional rules. It turned out that after being taught with this first phase of the cycle, almost all students (88.9%) expressed their positive feelings towards it. Similarly to the context exploration, it was found in this subphase that some of the students still expressed their doubtfulness and even their disagreement towards this subphase. Nevertheless, the negative reactions from the respondents were very small. On the whole, they acknowledged that this subphase facilitated them in learning writing.

• *Phase 2: The joint-construction of the recount genre*

TABLE 4.
STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE ACTIVITIES IN THE JOINT-CONSTRUCTION OF THE RECOUNT GENRE

Student choice	SA 5	A 4	U 3	D 2	SD 1	M 3.0
The activities in the joint-construction						
1. Applying the theories of the recount genre into practice.	21 46.7	18 40.0	4 8.9	2 4.4	0 0.0	4.3
2. Realizing that the preparatory phases are very important and necessary for constructing an effective recount genre.	32 71.1	13 28.9	0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.7
3. Knowing "what to write" in order to achieve the social purposes, language features and schematic structure of a particular recount genre thanks to the process teacher demonstrates the way of writing for them.	31 68.9	10 20.0	1 2.2	3 6.7	0 0.0	4.5
4. Knowing "how to write" in order to achieve the social purposes, language features and schematic structure of a particular recount genre thanks to the process teacher demonstrates the way of writing for them.	31 68.9	10 20.0	1 2.2	3 6.7	0 0.0	4.5
5. Necessity and usefulness for them in the latter phase of learning writing.	23 51.1	17 37.8	5 11.1	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.4

Table 4 shows that roughly 90% of the student respondents thought that the activities in the joint-construction phase were necessary and useful for them in learning writing ($M=4.4$). This was confirmed by the fact that nearly all of the respondents were of the opinion from agreement to strong agreement with (M ranged from 4.3 to 4.7, items 1-4 in Table 4). In particular, 86.7% of them expressed that they knew how to apply the theories of the recount genre in terms of orientation, sequences of events in chronological order and reorientation into practice. The figure 8.9% of uncertainty and 2% of disagreement in this statement did not indicate the big differences in terms of negative attitudes in this item. More interestingly, the preparatory phases such as researching information from many sources (e.g. from internet, textbooks, newspapers, teachers and peers) earned the most favorable opinions (71.1% strongly agree and 28.9% agree). Finally, roughly 90% of the student respondents agreed that they knew “what and how to write” in each phase to achieve the social purposes, language features and schematic structure of a required recount genre in the independent construction phase of the recount genre thanks to the process their teacher demonstrated the way of writing for them.

Briefly speaking, this phase was generally really helpful for students in learning writing. It was served as a transitional subphase of the first phase in transforming the theories they picked up into practice. This phase was successfully implemented thanks to the collaborative writing processes between teacher and students with teacher acting as a scribe. Although this phase was also received with unfavorable responses from the respondents like phase “modeling”, these negative reactions were just a few. On the whole, all of these activities were considered to be very necessary before the student writers were asked to write independently.

• *Phase 3: The independent construction of the recount genre*

TABLE 5.
STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE ACTIVITIES IN THE INDEPENDENT CONSTRUCTION

Student choice	SA 5	A 4	U 3	D 2	SD 1	M 3.0
The teaching writing techniques applied in the Independent construction						
1. Writing many drafts can help improve their own essays.	31 68.9	10 20.0	1 2.2	3 6.7	0 0.0	4.5
2. The constructive feedbacks of their friends towards their first drafts better their second drafts.	21 46.7	18 40.0	4 8.9	1 2.2	0 0.0	4.2
3. Their feedbacks towards their friends' drafts can help them review the knowledge of the recount genre and realize their mistakes (if possible) in their own recount essays.	25 55.6	12 26.7	6 13.3	1 2.2	1 2.2	5.1
4. Teacher's feedbacks can help them realize whether their recount essays fulfilled the contents of the required recount genre or not.	30 66.7	15 33.3	0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.7
5. Their final recount essays are much better improved after being given feedbacks and corrections by their friends and teacher.	18 40.0	21 46.7	6 13.3	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.3
6. These teaching writing techniques are necessary and useful for learning to write any text-types.	18 40.0	22 48.9	5 11.1	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.3

It is clear from Table 5 that the teaching writing techniques applied in the phase “independent construction of the recount” were really helpful for students (roughly 90%). From the Table 5, it was seen that most of the students responded positively to the issues of writing many drafts, peer feedback and teacher's feedback (M ranged from 4.2 to 5.1). In terms of writing many drafts, roughly 90% of the respondents expressed that it did really help them improve their writing skills. As for their friends' feedback, 21 out of 18 students in the scale agreement extension strongly agreed that this activity could help them improve their second drafts (86.7%). That meant that in giving constructive feedbacks of their friends towards their first drafts, their friends could help them locate as well as point out to them the mistakes or errors committed in their first drafts and at the same time suggested the ways of helping them revise their first drafts to become better. Also, they agreed that their feedbacks towards their friends' drafts could help them review the knowledge of the recount and spotted their mistakes and errors in their own papers (82.3%). More importantly, teacher's feedbacks received the most favorable opinions (100%) in which 66.7% expressed their total agreement along with 33.3% of agreement. As such, they were of the opinion that their final written products were better improved after being offered the constructive feedbacks and corrections from their friends and teacher (86.7%). Like phases 1 and 2 above, besides the positive responses offered by students, the researcher still received a relatively small percentage of other respondents who both expressed their uncertainty and their rejection towards the usefulness of these teaching writing strategies used in the cycle which needed paying more attention to.

In brief, the last phase of the teaching-learning cycle did contribute to the learning of writing of students in this study. This was expressed in the high proportion of percentage of agreements towards the teaching writing techniques used by the researcher. Certainly, the positive responses of students were not by chance. The statistical figures actually indicated these positive attitudes.

Students' attitudes towards the recount genre

TABLE 6.
STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE RECOUNT GENRE

Student choice	SA	A	U	D	SD	M
The recount genre	5	4	3	2	1	3.0
1. Suitability for their learning English at university.	17 37.8	28 62.2	0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.4
2. Suitability for their learning English in the near future.	12 26.7	22 48.9	11 24.4	1 2.2	0 0.0	4.0
3. Suitability and interest for them personally.	12 26.7	18 40.0	13 28.9	2 4.4	0 0.0	3.7
4. Suitability for their current English level.	20 44.4	20 44.4	5 11.1	0 0.0	0 0.0	4.3
5. Suitability for their age.	21 46.7	17 37.8	5 11.1	2 4.4	0 0.0	4.3
6. The biographical recount genre stimulates them to learn to write.	5 11.1	10 22.2	24 53.3	5 11.1	1 2.2	3.3

From Table 6, it was seen that all respondents agreed that the recount genre chosen for this study was suitable for their learning English at university (17 students agreed and 28 students strongly agreed). However, the following criteria regarding items 2-5 were not received with completely favorable opinions from the respondents although the positive responses in these items were found to be outnumbered than the negative responses. First of all, in terms of suitability for their learning English in the near future, there were 34 students expressing their positive feelings towards it (i.e. 12 students strongly agreed and 22 students agreed) while 11 of them expressed their uncertainty and the other one student rejected this criteria. Secondly, in the next item (suitability and interest for them personally), while 30 out of 45 respondents responded positively towards it (i.e. 12 strongly agreed and 18 agreed), 13 of them expressed their hesitation and the other two students expressed their disagreement towards it. Thirdly, despite the fact that there were 40 respondents agreeing about suitability for their current English level, 5 of them also expressed their doubtfulness towards it. Finally, with respect to suitability for their age, 38 out of 45 respondents expressed their approval while 5 expressed their doubtfulness and 2 expressed their disagreement towards it. These pointed out that there were fluctuations in the attitudes of the respondents ranging from strong agreement, agreement, uncertainty to disagreement towards the suitability and interest of the recount genre.

Finally, in reference to item 6 (i.e. whether they thought the biographical recount genre could stimulate them to learn writing or not), it was seen that there were only 15 students expressing their positive feelings towards the biographical recount genre (i.e. 5/45 expressing their strong agreement and 10 expressing their agreement) while the number of respondents which responded uncertainly and negatively to this genre was very big (i.e. 24/45 respondents expressing their uncertainty plus 6/45 students expressing their disagreement towards this genre: 5 rejection and 1 complete rejection). This indicated that the biographical recount genre chosen for teaching writing in this study did not meet the great expectations from most of the student participants.

All in all, students' attitudes towards the recount genre enjoyed both positive and negative reactions from the respondents, of which positive attitudes were outnumbered than negative attitudes. Apart/except from the criterion (suitability for their learning English at university), other remaining criteria (from item 2 to item 6) were not met with the great expectations from the researcher, especially in terms of stimulating them to learn to write the biographical recount and suitability for their learning English in the future.

V. CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

Research findings demonstrate that a genre-based approach based on the three phases of the teaching-learning cycle had created a great impact on these student participants. Indeed, most of the student participants gained control over the key features of the required recount genre and at the same time, expressed their positive feelings towards this cycle as well as the recount genre applied in this study. Although there were still some of the student participants who expressed their disapproval towards some activities carried out in each phase of the teaching-learning cycle and the recount genre, it was found that these negative reactions from these small number of participants did not affect much to the results of the research.

In order to implement successfully this teaching-learning cycle of the genre-based program into their own actual classroom, teachers of English should introduce many well-written sample reading texts which contain the features of the specific text-types into their own classroom. As identified at the outset of this study, one of the difficulties facing the EFL students when they learnt writing skills was that they lacked the knowledge of the text-type in terms of language features and text features; therefore, they did not know how to turn their ideas into their intelligible text. A sample "expert" and "selective" recount genre helped his students realize its purposes, its language features and its schematic structure and they could use this knowledge to produce their similarly own recount genre effectively.

Moreover, the flexibility of the genre-based approach teachers should be also summoned. In other words, they should not be too rigid in applying the three phases into their classroom. For more capable students who understand very clearly the modeling phase and want to practice more of writing skills, teachers can ignore their role as scribes. Instead, he or she should revise and correct their texts which approximate to the structure of the sample text. However, for those students

who have not yet mastered the structure of the sample reading text, the role of teacher as a scribe in the joint-negotiation phase is still considered necessary.

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Sociopragmatic Functions of Discourse Markers in International Law Texts

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Abstract—This paper is an attempt to clarify the status of discourse markers in International Law Texts. Discourse markers, also having been studied under various labels including discourse operators, pragmatic connectives, cue phrases, discourse connectives, and sentence connectives, are used extensively in both spoken and written language to signal the structure of the discourse. Research on this area has shown the importance of discourse markers in communication for marking discourse structure, but almost little attention has been paid to their importance in written language, especially in International Law Texts. This paper looks at the use of discourse markers in a corpus of International Law investigating what discourse markers signal, and when they tend to be used in International Law Texts. Therefore, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods, which ranges from macro-investigation by Wordsmith (Scott 1996) to a micro- discourse analytic examination, is used in the study. The results indicate that discourse markers serve as useful maneuvers to structure and organize International Law Texts. In the end, the study also discusses some possible pedagogical implications involved in preparing ESP learners to become communicatively more competent in their field of study.

Index Terms—discourse markers, pragmatic connectives, discourse operators, international law texts

I. INTRODUCTION

Discourse markers are expressions such as those in italics in the following sentences:

- a. John was late. *So*, I decided to leave without him.
- b. I can't drive a car. *And* Kim can't either.
- c. Jane can swim. *But* she can't ski.
- d. He'll probably enjoy water skiing, *even though* he prefers to ski in the snow.
- e. His voice was very weak, *yet* the students understood him.
- f. Dr. Jones couldn't lecture for the entire hour, *for* he had a sore throat.

Discourse markers (henceforward, DMs), having been termed differently by different crowds of researchers inclusive of cue phrases (Knott and Dale, 1994), discourse connectives (Blakemore, 1987, 1992), discourse operators (Redeker, 1990, 1991), pragmatic connectives (Van Dijk, 1979; Stubbs, 1983), pragmatic markers (Fraser, 1988, 1990; Schiffrin, 1987), sentence connectives (Halliday and Hasan, 1976), have been the subject of investigation in linguistics for the past ten years, with an abundance of articles publishing yearly.

DMs are a linguistic devise that speakers use to signal how the upcoming unit of speech or text relates to the current discourse state (Schiffrin, 1987) for instance, DMs can signal changes in discourse structure, as exemplified by 'by the way' to mark the start of a digression and 'any way' to mark the return from one. In human-human task oriented dialogues, DMs abound. Previous work shows the importance of DMs in dialogues, but very limited research has been undertaken on the range and diversity of DMs in International Law Texts. Drawing on the work of researchers working on DMs, this paper sets forth what DMs signal, and when they tend to be used in International Law Texts. This paper will first review past theoretical work on DMs to provide an idea of what main issues have been raised. Following this, by undertaking a corpus-based analysis of International Law Texts the research reviews definitions of DMs, by classifying them according to specific categorical framework. This study does not claim to offer detailed study of individual DMs; the main aim here is to offer a broader and wide-angled corpus-driven account of DMs in International Law Texts.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

"The analysis of discourse markers is part of the more general analysis of discourse coherence-how speakers and hearers jointly integrate forms, meaning, and actions to make overall sense of what is said" (Schiffrin, 1987, p.49). Coherence relations, discourse relations, or rhetorical relations are different means to achieve coherence in discourse. Despite some similarities amongst rhetorical relations, discourse relations, and coherence relations, there is some

dissimilarity amongst them, mainly in that rhetorical relations focus attention on the writer's intentions and the effect of the relation on the reader. An early reference to DMs as part of discourse coherence and a linguistic entity was made by Labov and Fanshel (1977). Levinson (1983), in his book named *Pragmatics*, viewed DMs as an independent class to be studied, although he did not entitle it. Within the past few years there has been an increasing interest in the status of DMs in the course of discourse, while focusing on what they are, what they mean, and what functions they fulfill. One of the most detailed efforts to study elements which mark "sequentially-dependent units of discourse" is made by Schiffrin (1987) who labels them "discourse markers". Schiffrin suggests that DMs do not easily fit into a linguistic class. In fact she goes so far as to suggest that paralinguistic features and nonverbal gestures are also DMs. Zwicky (1985) put into words an interest in discourse markers as a class when he stated that DMs must be separated from other function words, and that they routinely manifest themselves at the beginning of sentences, are prosodically autonomous, and are syntactically detached from the rest of the sentence in which they present themselves and construct no variety of unit with neighboring words. He also puts across that discourse markers all have pragmatic functions [e.g. the role relating the current utterance with a larger discourse] rather semantic ones [e.g. indicating sentence type]. Redeker (1991) puts down the notion of core meaning for DMs. There she calls DMs "discourse operators" putting forward that "the core meaning should specify the marker's intrinsic contribution to the semantic representation that will constrain the contextual interpretation of the utterance" (Redeker, 1991, p. 1164). She defines a discourse operator as a word or phrase that is uttered with the primary function of bringing to the listener's attention a particular kind of linkage of the upcoming utterance with the immediate discourse context. An utterance in this definition is an intentionally and structurally bounded, usually clausal unit (Redeker, 1991). Being the owner of the same attitude as Sanders et al. (1992), taking down that a coherence relation is an aspect of meaning of two or more discourse sentences that cannot be described in terms of the meaning of the sentences in isolation, she puts forward the following model of discourse coherence. Two discourse unites are related:

(a) **Ideationally**, if their utterance in the given context entails the speaker's commitment to the existence of that relation in the world the discourse describes. For example, temporal sequence, elaboration, cause, reason, and consequence (Redeker, 1991, p. 1168);

(b) **Rhetorically**, if the strongest relation is not between the propositions expressed in the two units but between the illocutionary intentions they convey. For example, antithesis, concession, evidence, justification, and conclusion (Redeker, 1991, p. 1168);

(c) **Sequentially**, if there is a paratactic relation (transition between issues or topics) or hypotactic relation (those leading into or out of a commentary, correction, paraphrase, aside, digression, or interruption sentence) between only loosely related (or indirectly related adjacent discourse sentences (Redeker, 1991, p. 1168). "When two adjacent discourse unites do not have any obvious ideational or rhetorical relation....their relation is called sequential" (Redeker, 1990, p. 369).

Blakemore (1987, 1992) considers DMs as a type of conventional implicature, bringing into focal point how "discourse connectives" (she calls them) impose constraints on implicatures. Blakemore (1987; 1992) submits that DMs do not have a representational meaning the way lexical expressions do, but have a procedural meaning, incorporating instructions about how to manipulate the conceptual representation of the utterance. Despite of different perspectives taken by different crowds of researchers, DMs impose a relationship between some aspects of the discourse they are part of. In other words, they serve as a linkage between the upcoming discourse and the current discourse with the aim of backing the interlocutors to interconnect the illocutionary intentions they convey.

The first stumbling block in probing these markers signaling coherence relations has to do with an exact definition of these markers. In the company of words we may be confronted with: discourse markers, discourse operators, discourse connectives, lexical markers, pragmatic connectives, cue phrases, and a bunch of other terms coined and used by different researchers. The definitions are also equally as miscellaneous as the terms used. Fraser (1999) puts forward that DMs are conjunctions, adverbs and prepositional phrases that connect two sentences or clauses together. Redeker (1990; 1991) proposes that DMs link not only contiguous sentences, but also the current sentence or utterance with its immediate context. Schiffrin (1987; 2001) has an idea that DMs can have both local and global functions. She also takes items such as *oh*, *y'know*, *I mean* as DMs. To Blakemore (1987; 1992; and 2002), working within the scheme of Relevance Theory (Sperber and Wilson, 1986), DMs impose constraints on the implicatures the hearer can extract from the discourse; that is, discourse without DMs is open to more than one type of implicature. Louwerse and Mitchell (2003) view DMs as cohesive devices that gesture coherence relations, pointing transition points in a sentence, between sentences, at the both local and global levels of discourse. Halliday and Hasan (1976) also see DMs as cohesive devices.

Different incentives have persuaded the study of DMS. By way of illustration, Sanders et al. (1992) were engrossed by the adequacy of taxonomy and by the psychological plausibility of coherence relations. Another aim of enquiries of DMs has been to come up with the most appropriate markers in a text system. Grote et al. (1997) concentrated on the possible ways to mark the Concession relation in both English and German. To achieve these goals, different procedures there are to move towards an investigation of DMs. One technique is to develop taxonomy of DMs, and then observe what sort of relations they signal. This is the approach taken by Knot et al. (Knot, 1996; Knot and Dale, 1994; and Knot and Sanders, 1998). Like others, this study is mainly concerned with the status of DMs, investigating what DMs are, and what functions they fulfill in International Law Texts. The present paper yields a characterization of

particular types of signaling the coherence relations that DMs provide. The paper strives for an answer to the question about coherence in International Law Texts: what kind of signaling is available to readers to process in International Law Texts?

The plurality of language bordering DMs casts back different research interests, as well as stumbling blocks in handling them sufficiently in theoretical terms. In the majority of the researches undertaken during the past few years, inclusive of this one, DMs are defined as linguistic units which satisfy to a great extent a non-propositional and connective function in the course of discourse. They gesture moves in the changing process of discourse, index the relation of an upcoming piece of discourse to the already-existing context and help the reader/speaker with the integration of forms, meaning, and actions (Schiffrin, 1987) in order to perceive the coherence within the text and figure out what the speaker or writer is trying to convey.

A Framework for Discourse Markers

With regard to DMs, using data from International Law corpus (see the Method section for details of the data), the aim of the present study is to put forward a wide-angled account of DMs in International Law Texts and to investigate what roles they have to play and what functions they have to fulfill.

The following criteria are used for a linguistic item to be identified as a DM.

Position

Most DMs happen to take initial position. Initiality brings to light loads of functions designated by DMs, such as *then* in (a) signaling sequence, and *thus* in (b) signaling consequence.

(a) **Then** the mode by which the parties claim to have established sovereignty over the territory will gain new relevance. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

(b) **Thus**, the possibility of the disputes over jurisdiction is minimized. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

The position occupied by some DMs is bendable. DMs can also be slotted in sentence-medial position for an attention-holding purpose or to shed light on meaning, such as *however* in (a) and *thus* in (b).

(a) Such observers remain, **however**, under the jurisdiction of their sending state rather than that of the “host” state. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

(b) The Agreement has **thus** been of minimal significance. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

Multigrammaticality

Grammatically point of view, DMs are distinct. DMs are diverse in terms of their categorical heterogeneity (Bazzanella and Morra, 2000). They do not make up a sole, clearly-defined grammatical class, rather are taken from various grammatical and lexical catalogues. By way of illustration, *yet*, *nor*, *for*, and *so*, etc. are coordinating conjunctions; *however*, *moreover*, *still*, etc. are conjunctive adverbs; *as soon as*, *although*, *until*, etc. are subordinating conjunctions; *by way of illustration*, *in the end*, *by the way*, etc. are prepositional phrases; *certainly*, *absolutely*, *surely*, etc. are adverbs; *this is the point*, *in other words*, and other expressions like those are meta-expressions. Not all the above-mentioned linguistic items can be viewed as DMs. The function fulfilled by DMs is context-oriented; that is, the status of a DM is contextually referenced. For instance, *so* can signal summarizing, or pinpointing consequences pending the context in which it is used.

Indexicality

DMs play the role of indexical expressions gesticulating the linkage between forthcoming pieces of discourse and the current discourse; that is, they assign the discourse unites a logical link. DMs are either conceptless, e.g. *oh*, *well*, etc.; partially conceptual, e.g. *so*-meaning ‘cause’; and conceptually rich such as *thirdly*, *honestly*, *I suppose*. As Aijmer (2002) states lexical words used as DMs have had a shift of function from propositional meaning to textual function through a process of grammaticalization.

Optionality

Optionality is another decisive factor in identifying DMs. They are both grammatically and semantically optional; this means, their being used has nothing to do with the truth value of the propositions. They even can be left out without syntactic impairment or semantic change. But readers or listeners lack sufficient hints as a result of which they cannot best figure out the relations among discourse pieces. Take the following example in which the presence or absence of all the DMs in bold can affect the signaling of the writer or speaker’s attitude.

If accretion occurs on a boundary river (i.e. between two states) **then** the international boundary changes, **whereas** with cases of avulsion the international boundary will remain where it was originally established. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

None of the above parameters in isolation will suffice to serve as a cornerstone based on which to decide whether or not a linguistic item is a DM. Instead, a combination of criteria needs to be taken into account. Calling attention to the descriptive worth for International Law discourse of recurring patterns and of frequency distribution, the study at hand implements a corpus-driven approach laying emphasis on the level of textual coherence. Thus, DMs are considered to be of pragmatic importance. The theoretical framework adopted here holds in arms a function-oriented account and is built upon Schiffrin’s (1987) notion of multi-dimensional model of coherence. Keeping in line with Maschler (1994, 1998) DMs can be classified in accordance with the following functional headings, while taking into account that any case in point is capable of performing more than one function (Lenk, 1998; Anderson, 2001).

Referential category

Working on a textual level, DMs signal relationships between former and subsequent activities in the course of discourse. An assortment of relationships are specified by conjunctions, for instance *both*, *and* designate coordination, *therefore*, *consequently* designate result (cause), *still*, *on the contrary* indicate contrast, *anyway* indicates digression, and *or* indicates disjunction.

Structural category

DMs in this class mark links and transitions between topics. As an instance DMs like *now*, *well*, *ok* signal launching or sealing of topics, while *second*, *thirdly*, *next*, are used to indicate sequence, and *now*, *so*, *how about*, are to signal topic shifts. DMs demonstrate the discourse in progress. Interactionally point of view, DMs can affect the turn-taking distribution. At this level, DMs can also display the continuation of the topic at hand (*so*, *yeah*), they can also serve as a device to summarize ideas, etc.

Cognitive category

At textual level, DMs are informants of the writers' cognitive state. Coherence and unity of the text may collapse if the writer does not have signaled topic shifts. Cognitive DMs guide the reader to create a mental image of the progressing discourse. DMs such as *I see*, *I think*, denote the thinking process and DMs such as *I mean*, *that is*, show the writer's intention to reformulate, *like*, *I mean*, signal the writer's willingness to elaborate, etc.

III. METHOD

A corpus of Law text from International Law (Wallace, 1986) was used in the present study. The International Law corpus includes data adding up to 10914 words, extracted from the book entitled "International Law" written by Rebecca M.M. Wallace (1986).

A. Data Selection

The present study was an attempt to deal with the issue of DMs in International Law Texts with the aim of providing a wide-angled account of what roles DMs have to play, and what functions they have to fulfill in International Law Texts. As a result, data from International Law was used as the basis for analysis. Such data can illuminate how far DMs go to contribute to the coherence and unity of International Law Texts. The analysis of such data gives ESP (English for Specific Purposes) learners working in the field of International Law the capability to pragmatically incorporate DMs in their both writings and discussions. In this respect, the study may be of particular value to ESP teachers, in particular those teaching International Law to EFL or ESL learners, while conveying broader pedagogic significance for the communicative teaching of International Law to these learners.

B. Design

As DMs manoeuvre inside and outside a clause, what is needed is an analysis which encompasses moves from lexical or sentential levels to discursal ones. As a result, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods ranging from a macro-investigation by Wordsmith tools (Scott, 1996) to a micro-discourse analysis is used in the study. To start the investigation, 28 lexical items being distinguished as DMs were selected. Then, the linguistic items were further studied by scrutinizing the text qualitatively in order to come up with regularities and frequent patterns in the data. A frequency list was also run for the 28 linguistic items to see how frequent each DM is in International Law Texts.

IV. RESULTS

This section deals with the functional paradigm of DMs in International Law Texts in accordance with Schiffrin's (1987) multi-functional model of coherence.

A. Referential

In written language, on the referential level, conjunctions are repeatedly used to mark the link between the-already-there discourse units and the upcoming ones. They actually provide indexical direction to different semantic relations. DMs at this level provide information about the ways in which units of discourse are sequenced, and how they are coordinated. They also indicate causal (*because*), contrastive (*whilst*, *however*, *but*), consequential (*consequently*), and disjunctive (*or*) relations. As exemplified discursal links can be demonstrated using this type of referential marker.

Indicating causal relationship

DMs are useful in indicating causal relations. Words such as, *because*, *since* can be used in discourse to signal this type of relationship. As illustrated below, in the corpus driven from International Law Texts, the word, *because* (line 2 and 4) has been used to communicate this type of discursal link.

<1> The fifth freedom which is the right to carry traffic between the grantor state and another state's territory has, **because** it is more extensive, not been so readily granted. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<2> "Lord Haw Haw" was found guilty of treason **because** of his pro-Nazi propaganda radio broadcasts from Germany to Britain during the war. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

Indicating consequences

DMs are repeatedly used to convey consequential links amongst discursual units. DMs such as ‘*as a result*’ and ‘*so*’ can indicate consequences in discourse. As shown below in International Law Texts words like *therefore* (line 2), *thus* (line 5) and *consequently* (line 6) have been drawn upon to signal consequences or results.

<1> The display of sovereignty required to establish title by occupation, for example, over territory inhospitable to habitation may, **therefore**, be minimal and in certain circumstances may be little more than symbolic. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<2> ...granting of independence to former colonial possession, involves the replacement of one sovereign by another and **thus** a derivative title to territory. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<3> **Consequently**, a number of states adopted a modified absolute immunity policy. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

Indicating contrasts

On the referential level DMs are recurrently drawn upon to signpost the relationship of an existing utterance with the preceding one. DMs such as *but* (line 3), *although* (line 4), *however* (line 6), *though* (line 7), *yet* (line 9), *whilst* (line 12), *while* (line 15), *albeit* (line 17) and *and* (line 19) are frequently used in International Law Texts to designate contrastive relationships amongst units of discourse.

<1> It shows that in the case of such territories the acquisition of sovereignty was not generally considered as effected unilaterally through ‘occupation’ of *terra nullius* by original life title **but** through agreements concluded with local rulers... (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<2> **Although** continuous in principle, sovereignty cannot be exercised in fact at every moment on every point of a territory. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<3> The United States, **however**, does continue to refuse recognition of the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania into the Soviet Union, **though** the Baltic States were conquered before World War II. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<4> The Convention, which is not **yet** in force, is based essentially on the 1961 Vienna Convention on Diplomatic Relations. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<5> The state from which the gun was fired has jurisdiction under the *subjective territorial principle*, **whilst** the state where the injury was sustained has jurisdiction under the *objective territorial principle*. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<6> The right to carry traffic from the territory of the state granted the right to the grantor state is guaranteed by the third freedom, **while** the fourth freedom is the right to carry traffic from the grantor state’s territory to the territory of the state granted the right. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<7> His duty of allegiance was founded on his having acquired a British passport, **albeit** fraudulently. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<8> Discovery, per se, does not establish a good title, giving only an inchoate **and** not a definite title of sovereignty. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

Indicating Comparison

Another function that DMs are exploited to signal is to indicate comparison. In the International Law corpus used in this study *likewise* (line 1) functions as a DM to designate comparison.

<1> Non-national service staffs **likewise** enjoy immunity only in respect of their official acts. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

Indicating Disjunction and coordination

Or and *and* are two DMs frequently used in the corpus to show discursual relations in International Law Texts. *Or* (lines 2, 4 and 5) was repeatedly drawn upon to signal disjunction and possibility and *and* (line 8) was also commonly used to designate coordination.

<1> The intermittence and discontinuity compatible with the maintenance of the right necessarily differ according as inhabited **or** uninhabited regions are involved, **or** regions enclosed within territories in which sovereignty is incontestably displayed **or** again regions accessible from, for instance, the high seas. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<2> Discovery must be reinforced by an intention (*animus*) **or** will to act as sovereign. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<3> A state’s territorial sovereignty extends over the designated land-mass, sub-soil, the water enclosed therein, the land under that water, the sea coast to a certain limit **and** the airspace over the land-mass **and** territorial sea. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

B. Structural

In this category DMs such as *right*, *alright*, *let me conclude the discussion* are to signal opening and closing of topics, others like *previously*, *before*, *finally* inform the reader of how units of discourse are sequenced. *So*, *now*, and *well* can be used to signal topic shifts. Other DMs are exploited to signal continuation of topics and summarizing topics.

Sequencing

In the corpus under study *previously* (line 1), *today* (line 1), *before* (line 3), *then* (line 4), *finally* (line 6), *third* (line 8), *first* (line 9) and *second* (line 12) have been used to signpost how successive units of discourse are sequenced. These DMs help the reader to figure out the logical sequence amongst segments of discourse in International Law Texts.

<1> **Previously**, force could legitimately be used. **Today**, diplomatic protests would have to be expressed... (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<2> As to the length of time required **before** prescription will give good title... (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<3> If accretion occurs on a boundary river (i.e. between two states) **then** the international boundary changes... (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<4> ...and title may **finally** only be established when an “acknowledgement of the facts” stance is adopted. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<5> **The third**, an action programme for 1982-86, was adopted late in 1981. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<6> **The first** four principles, *territorial principle, nationality principle, protective (or security) principle and universality principle*, were accepted by Harvard Research Draft Convention of 1935. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<7> **The second** principal exception to territorial jurisdiction is diplomatic immunity.... (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

Closing and opening of topics

DMs can mark the opening and closing of different discourse units. In the corpus of International Law Text used in this study *as has been said* (line 1) was drawn upon in the conclusion section to sum up and close the topic.

<1> **As has been said**, states enjoy territorial sovereignty. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

C. Cognitive

DMs on this level can reflect the interlocutor or writer's thinking processes. *Well*, for example signals delaying tactic to show the thinking process when an answer is not at hand (Svartvik, 1980, p. 171). DMs like *that is* and *in other words* while indicating a kind of reformulation can also be used to mark the writer's modification or clarification of the notions and concepts mentioned earlier. On the textual level, Muller (2005) observes *like* as a way to come up with an explanation, to introduce an exemplifier or to look for the right expression. *I mean*, as a DM, can be used to elaborate and clarify the propositional meaning in order to shed light on the intentions of the writer or to add to the meanings. Schiffrin (1987) claims that *I mean* can also be used to modify the writer's own opinions.

D. Reformulation

In the corpus under study DMs such as *that is* (line 2) and *in other words* (line 4) were used to mark the writer's intention to modify or clarify the notions and concepts mentioned earlier.

In fact the writer is to reformulate what he or she has put down earlier.

<1> The means whereby title to territory may be established is essentially of academic interest-until, **that is**, a dispute arises and competing claims have to be assessed. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

<2> The right of the state in which the crime was initiated is, **in other words**, not restricted from exercising jurisdiction. (INTERNATIONAL LAW)

To recapitulate, the analysis undertaken so far suggests that DMs can come to fulfill a large variety of discourse functions in the three multi-categorical categories as topic switchers, coordinators, sequencers, comparison indicators, etc. We are fully aware of the fact that a narrow corpus-based study offers only little scope for in-depth analyses of individual DMs; however, it is hoped that the study undertaken here may highlight the main functional paradigm that this range of DMs have in International Law Texts, which in turn can contribute to a range of possibilities for sociopragmatic instruction of DMs in ESP classes (see 'pedagogical implications' below).

The second part of the result section comes up with the frequency of the DMs used in the International Law Corpus. The list of 28 DMs and the data are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
FREQUENCY OF DISCOURSE MARKERS IN THE INTERNATIONAL LAW CORPUS (10914 WORDS)

Discourse markers	Frequency	International Law (%)
And	156	1.42
Or	66	.60
But	27	.24
Although	17	.15
However	15	.13
Before	12	.10
Second	9	.08
While	8	.07
Even though	7	.06
Thus	7	.06
Consequently	6	.05
Though	5	.04
Nevertheless	5	.04
Yet	5	.04
Today	5	.04
Then	4	.03
Therefore	4	.03
Previously	3	.02
Because	3	.02
Whilst	3	.02
Albeit	2	.01
That is	2	.01
So	2	.01
Third	2	.01
In other words	2	.01
As has been said	1	.009
Finally	1	.009
Likewise	1	.009

DMs drawn upon in the International Law Corpus tend to take place with a particularly heavy occurrence of referential and structural markers. As the Frequency Table indicates the range of DMs used is limited in and confined to a more frequent use of *and*, *or*, *but*, *although*, *however*, *before* and much less frequent use of *likewise*, *finally*, *whilst*, *as has been said*, *third*, *so*, *that is*, etc. Due to the limits of present computer software in differentiating the discoursal role of individual words, the words cited here may have other grammatical functions than those of DMs so making their classification sometimes difficult.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The range and the frequency of DMs used in the corpus reflect the nature of the linguistic input ESP learners in International Law are supposed to be exposed to and the pedagogic focus should be geared towards both the literal or propositional (semantic) meanings of words and their pragmatic use in International Law Texts. Many coursebooks locally-produced for ESP learners in International Law claim to focus on usage while they primarily focus on propositional content rather than on discoursal use. For example, words such as *while*, *because*, *previously*, *consequently*, etc are frequently emphasized in ESP classroom, whereas their pragmatic usages in International Law Texts to indicate the author's intention to draw a contrast, to show a causal relation, to sequence ideas, to signal results and consequences, etc are rarely focused upon. It is likely that the low propositional meanings of DMs have devalued their pedagogic significance, and hence contributed to their low status. It is only the propositional meanings of DMs that have been frequently attended to in the classroom. A general neglect of knowledge of DMs in the foreign language teaching curriculum seems to be a pedagogic reality (Romero Trillo 2002; Muller 2005). DMs which represent an aspect of pragmatic competence that forms the basis of one's ability to use language in culturally, socially, and situationally appropriate ways are useful devices not only for interpersonal and cross-cultural interaction but also for maintaining discourse cohesiveness and communicative effectiveness (Wierzbicka 1991). This study suggests a need to strengthen learners' pragmatic competence in International Law by creating space to improve their knowledge and use of DMs. Incorporation of DMs into ESP curriculum is necessary to help ESP learners enhance their communicative skills in their field of study and avoid misunderstanding in communication and this might provide learners with a sense of security in ESP courses.

VI. CONCLUSION

Drawing data from the International Law corpus, the present study suggests a core functional paradigm of DMs and considers different uses of DMs in International Law Texts, using both qualitative and quantitative methods. Although the small corpus of the International Law data does not allow us to draw any strong conclusions, we hope to have shed light on the research potential of this underexplored area. The listed items in the Frequency Table are observations of

frequently-occurring DMs in the International Law data and should not be considered as a comprehensive list of all the DMs in International Law. Since the study of DMs is still in its infancy, it is also premature to set up a full taxonomy of markers until there is greater agreement about the function of individual items, their meaning, their relevance for pedagogic contexts, and the actual number to be calculated as a genuine category. DMs mould a part of the basic composition of text in International Law and are informative contextual coordinates to construct and organize International Law Texts in referential, structural, and cognitive categories. On the referential level, DMs specify textual relationships foregoing and following the DM. These textual relationships comprise cause, contrast, coordination, disjunction, consequence, digression, comparison, etc. Structurally point of view, DMs are drawn upon to organize the discourse in progress and gesture links and transitions between topics, such as indicating sequence, topic shifts and summarizing opinions. Cognitively, they help in denoting the speaker's thinking processes, marking repairs such as reformulation, and elaboration. The results accord with evidence from a growing literature in pragmatics that they contribute to the management and development of discourse and perform important textual functions. Quantitatively, there is a considerable discrepancy between the use of DMs in different categories. Referential and structural markers such as *and*, *however*, *although*, *or*, and *but* tend to occur more frequently than cognitive markers like *that is*, *in other words*, and *as has been said*. Many common DMs used in the International Law Corpus are far less frequent: *likewise*, *finally*, *in other words*, *third*, *albeit*, etc. Within the kinds of DMs used in the International Law, there is a widespread use of referential and structural markers (*and*, *but*, *because*), but a very restricted use of markers to mark cognitive processes of the writer. Our analysis not only furthers knowledge of DMs; it also, we hope, has implications for teaching and learning, since inappropriate use of DMs can lead to misunderstandings, difficulties in coherent interpretation, and impediments to textual relations.

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The Effectiveness of Using Songs in YouTube to Improve Vocabulary Competence among Upper Secondary School Studies

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Abstract—This study investigated whether learners exposed to songs using YouTube would experience a change in vocabulary competence compared to those exposed to the traditional teacher-fronted approach. To fulfil this purpose, 68 Form Four students were selected from a government-run secondary school located in Kedah, Malaysia. These participants were then divided into two equal groups of experimental and control. The study was carried out over a six-week course (12 sessions). A vocabulary test was administered as a pretest for both groups prior to the treatment. There were twelve sessions of vocabulary lessons conducted with both groups in which the experimental group adopted songs and the control group underwent the traditional teacher-fronted approach. Data was gathered through a vocabulary pretest and posttest, on-going observations, and journal entries. Results revealed that the experimental group experienced a significant improvement in their vocabulary competence compared to the control group. Some recommendations are finally presented based on research findings.

Index Terms—song, YouTube, vocabulary competence, secondary school learner

I. INTRODUCTION

Songs have been a part of our lives for as long as we can remember. Guglielmino (1986, cited in Schoepp, 2001) mentioned adults sing at religious services, bars, in the shower and listen to songs on the car radio. Songs have become an essential part of our language experience and if used in coordination with a language lesson, they can be of great value. Fortunately, with the expanding prevalence of the internet and specifically the World Wide Web into both the classrooms and lives of students, access to music and lyrics has been made easier. This study focuses on the effectiveness of using songs in YouTube to improve the vocabulary competence among upper secondary school students.

Almost everyone loves music. It is part of our language and life from birth onwards. As babies, we hear lullabies. As young children, we play, sing and dance to a myriad of nursery rhymes. As adolescents, we are consumed by the beat of famous music artists throughout the world in our daily lives. Music permeates television, movies, theatre and even the news. When we exercise, work, play, worship, etc., music is there to support or change every mood and emotion. A likable tune is played, hummed or sung, at times in our heads, as we go about our everyday lives. So, why not include music and songs in language learning as well? Accordingly, this paper would be a great favour to show the effectiveness of using songs in YouTube to improve the vocabulary competence among upper secondary school students.

A. *Background of the Study*

In Malaysia, vocabulary learning is a neglected area in English language teaching and more research is needed in this field. Learning vocabulary is a very complex issue. According to Nation (2001), second language learners need to know very large numbers of words as this may be useful for them in the long-term as learning vocabulary should not be a short-term goal.

Vocabulary teaching and learning is an integral part in the Malaysian's English Language Curriculum. Most students face difficulties when they communicate in English because they lack the needed English vocabulary especially when it involves complicated words. Therefore, it is significant to explore deeper on these difficulties as well as provide innovative ideas in order to improve the teaching and learning of vocabulary. The first thing to be done is to look at the strategies that the students use to learn new English words and make them aware that there are many vocabulary learning strategies that they could use in learning new words, especially in a language other than their mother tongue. As a result, this study was conducted to find out the effectiveness of using songs in YouTube to improve the vocabulary competence among upper secondary school students.

B. *Problem Statement*

There is poor vocabulary competence among upper secondary school students in the school where the study conducted. This is due to the lack of reading and speaking in the target language. Words are the basic unit of language form. Without sufficient vocabulary, students cannot communicate effectively or express their ideas. Having limited vocabulary is also a barrier that prevents students from learning a language. If learners do not know how to expand their vocabulary, they gradually lose interest in learning. Many students consider learning vocabulary a tedious job. Generally, they have lack of interests in learning English language as they find it a dry and difficult subject to learn. As a result, most students dislike learning English; and although they attend English lessons, they are not interested in learning or speaking English properly.

C. *Objective of the Study*

The main objective of this study is to investigate the effects of using songs in YouTube to improve the vocabulary competence among secondary school students as a part of the learning process in the classroom. Vocabulary learning is considered by many teachers and students as an important factor in learning a foreign language. Thus, it is vital to find beneficial and interesting ways to teach vocabulary in the English Language lessons.

D. *Research Questions and Hypothesis*

Based on the objective of the study, the following research questions can be built:

- 1: Is there a significant difference in vocabulary competence between the method of using songs in YouTube and the traditional method of teaching?
- 2: Is there a significant difference in vocabulary competence between pretest and posttest mean scores for those who undergo the traditional method of teaching?
- 3: Is there a significant difference in vocabulary competence between pretest and posttest mean scores for those who undergo the method of using songs in YouTube?

Accordingly, from the above questions, the following null hypothesis can be derived:

H₀1: There is no significant difference in vocabulary competence between the method of using songs in YouTube and the traditional method of teaching.

H₀2: There is no significant difference in vocabulary competence between pretest and posttest mean scores for those who undergo the traditional method of teaching.

H₀3: There is no significant difference in vocabulary competence between pretest and posttest mean scores for those who undergo the method of using songs in YouTube.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Songs are one of the most captivating and culturally rich resources that can be easily used in language classrooms. Songs offer a change from routine classroom activities. They are precious resources to develop students' abilities in listening, speaking, reading and writing. They can also be used to teach a variety of language items such as sentence patterns, vocabulary, pronunciation, rhythm, adjectives and adverbs. Lo and Li (1998) declare that learning English through songs also provide a non-threatening atmosphere for students who are usually tense when speaking English in a formal classroom. Songs also give new insights into the target culture. They are the means through which cultural themes are presented effectively.

A. *YouTube and Songs*

YouTube is famously known as an internet video search website (USAToday, 2006). Kelsey (2010) defines it as a website where you can upload and share videos. It uses Adobe Flash Video technology to display a wide variety of user-generated content, video content, including movie clips, television clips and music videos as well as amateur content such as video blogging and short original videos. Unregistered users can watch the videos for free, while

registered users are permitted to upload an unlimited number of videos. Songs can be directly used to teach vocabulary in the English language lessons. This would instantly motivate students to learn the language as they are able to view the video clips as well as read the lyrics projected on the screen. While singing, they are able to read the lyrics and this indirectly encourages them to learn new words. As stated by Barska (2006), the most important factor in language learning is the motivation, which is why English language teachers have always tried to find new strategies in their lessons. Teachers should be vigilant in selecting appropriate songs in YouTube to be implemented in the teaching of vocabulary lessons.

Dowse (2009) expresses that the YouTube website provides a wide variety of content suitable for English teaching and it should be effectively manipulated by the teachers in the language classroom. He states that using successful techniques and appealing tools especially songs to teach new vocabulary items make students find words easier to remember and become more motivated in class. By engaging in a pleasurable experience, they are relaxed and their inhibitions about acquiring a second language are lessened. Those who are taught in a fun and creative way, love attending the lessons and this in turn becomes a great way for teachers to achieve success with their students. The use of internet technologies like the YouTube website to teach vocabulary is one of these experiences.

B. Songs and the English Language

For many people whose first language is not English or they did not learn English as a second language in school like in some European countries for instance Belgium and Moldova (Ottillie, 2010; Xmarabout, 2010), their first exposure to English may probably be through popular songs. Lynch (2005) points out in his article that language teachers should use songs as part of their English language teaching. Among the reasons given are that songs contain natural language, are easily obtainable, and are natural and fun. He also states that a variety of new vocabulary can be introduced as well as cultural aspects and even different types of English accents. Songs can be selected to suit the needs and interests of students. The lyrics of songs can be used in relating to situations of the world around the students. Overall, he concludes that songs can offer an enjoyable speaking, listening, vocabulary and language practice.

In addition, Orlova (2003) notes that for the last two decades, the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) methodology has been actively considering the possibility of using music and songs in class. Based on her 10-year experience of incorporating songs in the language teaching, she claims the use of songs in language classes puts students at ease, makes them more attentive and can increase their desire to learn a language. Music offers a versatile way to look at the language and can be used to reinforce and improve speaking, listening comprehension, vocabulary and phrasing. This is supported by Beare (2010) in his article on using music for the ESL (English as a Second Language) classroom. He reports that using music in the beginning of a lesson is a great way to introduce new vocabularies to students and get them thinking in the right direction, meaning that they will know what the lesson will be about.

Lo and Li (1998) offered similar suggestions. They suggest that songs provide a break from the normal class routine and that learning English through songs develops a non-threatening classroom atmosphere in which the four language skills can be enhanced. The belief that songs provide enjoyment and develop language skills is also noted by several authors as stated before.

C. Word Smart and Music Smart

The aspect of enjoyment in learning language through songs is directly related to affective factors. Students learn in many different ways. Smith (2008) states that Howard Gardner had come up with a theory of multiple intelligences in which he proposed that each person has several different intelligences that work together but exist with different strengths in different individuals. Among these intelligences, the word smart and number smart intelligences have dominated the traditional teaching and learning process in schools. The other intelligences have been overlooked or neglected. If teachers are able to develop ways to teach their students by engaging all the intelligences, the possibilities for the students' success will increase. One way is to use songs, which uses the music smart intelligence. Songs can be composed and sung related to the subject or theme being taught. Composing lyrics for songs will be associated with the word smart intelligence; therefore, students will be involved in more than one intelligence at a time as suggested by Gardner.

D. Theoretical Perspective

Apart from Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligence, another theory which can be related with the study is Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition. This theory consists of five main hypotheses. One of the proposed hypotheses is the Affective Filter Hypothesis. According to Schütz (2007), this hypothesis represents Krashen's view that a number of affective variables play a supportive role in second language acquisition. These variables include motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Krashen claims that learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, and a low-level of anxiety are better equipped to learn a second language compared with learners with low motivation and low self-esteem. The former become more successful to learn a new language while the latter create a mental block which prevents them to learn the language successfully.

Schoepp (2001) describes the Affective Filter Hypothesis in Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition as an explanation of how the affective factors relate to language learning. It is appealing to teachers since this hypothesis can support reasons as to why some students learn and why others do not. Teachers, of course, have long recognised the

need for students to have a positive attitude towards learning. With reference to this hypothesis, teachers need to provide an atmosphere which is conducive to language learning. Optimal learning occurs when the affective filter is weak. This results in a positive attitude towards the learning process. If the affective filter is strong, the students do not seek the language input and also do not be open for the language learning as well. Therefore, using songs in the teaching and learning process leads to achieving the weak affective filter and thus promoting language learning.

III. METHODOLOGY

In this study, the independent variable was the use of songs in YouTube. This is the treatment used with the experimental group. The dependent variable was the vocabulary competence which was measured by the difference in the mean scores between the pretest and posttest for both groups.

The study took the form of a quasi-experiment adopting the quantitative and qualitative methods in data collection. Therefore, there were an experimental group and a control group. The treatment carried out on the experimental group provided the quantitative data. The empirical evidence collected was used to explain the results of the effectiveness from the usage of English songs in YouTube to improve the vocabulary competence among secondary students. As for the data collected using the qualitative method, on-going observations were carried out and students were asked to write journal entries throughout the six weeks of treatment.

A. Research Operation Plan

This study was implemented in 8 stages and each stage contained specific tasks or programmes. In the first stage, the researchers reviewed literature associated with the field of study. In the second stage, findings from the first stage were gathered pertaining to the study in which the researchers desired to carry out. Next, the research objective and research questions developed in the third stage. In this stage, the methodology and measuring instruments to be used were also planned. The fourth stage involved in selecting suitable songs in YouTube to be used for the study. The songs were selected according to various criteria such as having comprehensible lyrics, moderate tempos, and not being popular among the students.

In the fifth stage, interesting activities related to the vocabulary competence based on the selected songs were planned out and included. Some of these activities were: sing-along, cloze text, sequencing words and phrases in song verses, guessing song-meanings through context as well as creating own lyrics using the same melody of the song used during the lesson. The lessons then were carried out in the sixth stage and data was collected through on-going observations and journal entries written by the participants in addition to vocabulary tests which served as pretest and posttest.

In the seventh stage, data analysis was performed using the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) program. The data analysis included an independent sample t-test and paired t-test to ascertain the change that occurred within the two groups. Qualitative data was analysed based on the researchers' observations and the journal entries written by the participants. The final stage included reporting whether the research questions have been answered or not based on the findings.

B. Sampling

A total of 68 Form Four students in the government-run schools in Sungai Petani, Kedah, Malaysia were selected as the participants for this study. In order to avoid any misinterpretation of invalidity, the researchers decided to use two heterogeneous groups from the arts stream. The only difference between the two groups was that one group – the experimental group – was exposed to the treatment of using songs in YouTube while the other group – the control group – experienced the traditional teacher-fronted method. There were 34 participants in each group.

For the purpose of qualitative data collection, nine participants were chosen from each group. Thus, a total of 18 participants were chosen from the sample. They represented three different proficiency levels: above-average, average and below-average. The reason of choosing the participants according to proficiency level was to ensure that the teachers had given equal attention to them all and did not just concentrate on participants with below-average proficiency level. This is especially important for the experimental group so that all participants in the experimental group would be given equal attention during the treatment of using songs in YouTube to improve their vocabulary competence.

C. Instruments

This study utilised three types of measuring instruments: vocabulary test, on-going observation and journal entries. The utilisation of these methods was to advocate the use of different methods of data collection and different data sources to ensure accuracy, validity, reliability and credibility of the information and data gathered. The use of the quantitative method was to provide an overall picture to the problem in the study while the two qualitative methods were used with 18 selected participants from the sample to provide in-depth information of the study.

1. Vocabulary test

A vocabulary test was conducted at the beginning of the study with both groups as a pretest before the start of the treatment. The purpose of this pretest was to ascertain the level of vocabulary competence of the participants in both

groups. Another vocabulary test was also administered after the sixth week of treatment as a posttest. This was to see if there had been any differences with the mean scores of the pretest.

2. On-going observation

On-going observation of the learners' vocabulary competence was guided by the research objective and research questions. Weekly observations were carried out with both groups. Each observation took an hour. The researchers focused on aspects relevant to the study. Events happening in the class were recorded in the order of which they occurred, documenting the participants' performances in the class throughout the observations.

3. Journal entries

The participants were asked to write journal entries regarding the type of lessons they received and how they felt about these lessons. Feedback gathered from these journal entries enabled the researchers to identify whether any change had taken effect after the implementation of the songs in YouTube to improve vocabulary competence.

D. Data Collection Procedure

The administration of the study began right after the school reopened. A vocabulary test, which served as a pretest, was given to the participants. Two weeks after the pretest, the treatment of the study was carried out for a six-week time period.

The experimental group received vocabulary lessons with the treatment of using songs in YouTube. The lesson implementations included choosing materials associated with the English syllabus and the cycles of experiential learning: briefing, running the session, debriefing and following-up.

The control, on the other hand, did not receive any treatment process. Instead, this group was taught using the traditional teacher-fronted method without the use of songs throughout the six-week study. However, the group did undergo vocabulary-based lessons such as knowing the meaning of words and guessing the meaning of words.

Both groups were observed by the researchers, examining the lessons taught by the teachers. Participants' preparations, behaviours, responses and class presentation were also observed. After the sixth week, both groups were given a vocabulary test which served as the posttest.

E. Data Analysis Procedure

The collected data was analysed according to the type of data. Quantitative data was analysed using the SPSS programme while qualitative data was interpreted based on the class observations and journal entries.

1. Vocabulary test

Data collected from the pretest and posttest was calculated in the form of scores. The scores were processed using SPSS using the same scale of measurement. The differences of the two tests for each student were computed. An independent sample t-test was used to compare the mean scores of the two groups. The t-test was employed to assess whether the mean difference or the change between pretest and posttest scores of the experimental group differed significantly from those in test scores of the control group.

2. On-going observation

For both the experimental and control groups, the participants' vocabulary performance was observed and evaluated by using the checklist which consisted of the salient components of the dependent variables in the study. The observations were intended to provide useful data related to the participants' vocabulary competence as the effect of undergoing the method of using songs in YouTube.

3. Journal entries

Eighteen journal entries from the participants were selected comprising of nine journal entries from each group. The participants were asked to write about what they thought and felt about the teaching methods presented to them as well as if these teaching methods helped them improve their English vocabulary competence.

IV. FINDINGS

The data gathered through vocabulary tests was tabulated using the SPSS programme and analysed using an independent sample t-test and a paired t-test. The results are represented in tables that follow.

A. Findings from Vocabulary Test

Table I shows the group statistics results from the pretest and posttest scores of the control group and experimental group. The results in Table I show that both groups had undergone changes in their vocabulary proficiency throughout the six-week study. This can be seen in the increase of the mean scores between the pretest and posttest of both groups. However, the mean difference in the control group is lower than the mean difference of the experimental group. This reflects that the experimental group had shown a far larger improvement in vocabulary competence as compared to the control group.

TABLE I.
GROUP STATISTICS

Group	Test	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Difference
Control	Pretest	34	55.50	14.769	0.85
	Posttest	34	56.24	16.360	
Experimental	Pretest	34	56.35	12.060	7.97
	Posttest	34	64.21	15.965	

1. Research question 1

The first research question aimed to find if there is a significant difference in vocabulary competence between the method of using songs in YouTube and the traditional method of teaching. The results can be seen from the independent sample t-test in Table II.

TABLE II.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Posttest	Equal variances assumed	1.537	0.219	-2.770	66	0.007	-9.971	3.599	-17.157	-2.785
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.770	64.467	0.007	-9.971	3.599	-17.160	-2.781

Table II shows that there was a significant difference between the methods of teaching used for the experimental and control groups, where the p-value was 0.007. This is lower than the set criterion where the hypothesis will be rejected if $p \leq 0.05$. Therefore, from Table II, the first null hypothesis is rejected and the first research question is answered, concluding that there is a significant difference in vocabulary competence between the method of using songs in YouTube and the traditional method of teaching.

2. Research question 2

The second research question intended to find out if there is a significant difference in vocabulary competence between pretest and posttest mean scores for those who underwent the traditional method of teaching. The results of the paired t-test can be seen in Table III.

TABLE III.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST

		Paired Difference					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Control Group Pretest – Control Group Posttest	-0.853	6.738	1.156	-3.204	1.498	-.738	33	0.466
Pair 2	Experimental Group Pretest – Experimental Group Posttest	-7.971	17.960	3.080	-14.237	-1.704	-2.588	33	0.014

Table III demonstrates a clear picture of the statistic scores for both groups. The mean difference for the pretest and posttest of the control group is -0.853. On the other hand, the mean difference for the experimental group is -7.971 which reveals a larger difference. However, the p-value for the control is 0.466 which is higher than the criterion, $p \leq 0.05$, therefore, it is not statistically significant. Thus, the second null hypothesis failed to be rejected, concluding that there is no significant difference in vocabulary competence between the pretest and posttest mean scores for the participants who underwent the traditional method of teaching.

3. Research question 3

The third research question intended to probe if there is a significant difference in vocabulary competence between the pretest and posttest mean scores for the participants who underwent the method of using songs in YouTube. The results can be seen in Table III above.

The p-value for the experimental group is 0.014, which is lower than the criterion, $p \leq 0.05$; therefore, there is a statistically significant difference. The third hypothesis is rejected, concluding that there is a significant difference in vocabulary competence between pretest and posttest mean scores for those who underwent the method of using songs in YouTube.

B. Findings from Observations

Throughout the six-week time period of the treatment, both groups were observed for a total of 12 times. Each group was observed using an observation checklist, which comprised of four components. In general, the observations were carried out to examine the changes in the participants' vocabulary competence through the implementation of using songs in YouTube.

It was observed that during the implementation of the songs, the experimental group was divided into pairs and small groups of four. Throughout the activities, participants were seen to be very enthusiastic in the lessons as they enjoyed listening to songs projected using the YouTube website. However, there were participants who showed some confusion during the lesson, especially for the activities where they had to guess the meaning of words using the context and rhyming words. Nevertheless, as the activities went on, they revealed positive changes in interest as well as in vocabulary competence. They were able to answer the tasks given correctly and able to provide oral responses as well.

On the contrary, the same did not happen with the control group. They took a longer time to improve on their vocabulary competence through activities such as reading comprehension and grammar exercises focusing on the vocabulary component. They did not show much interest in the lesson conducted although there were some improvements in their vocabulary competence.

C. Findings from Journal Entries

A total of 18 participants' journal entries were selected from the sample. Nine of the journal entries were from the participants in the experimental group, while the other nine were from the control group. These journal entries contained their responses and feelings towards the teaching methods in which they received.

The journal entries from the participants in the experimental group revealed positive feelings towards the method they received. They expressed that they were able to learn new words as well as ways of guessing meaning of words through the context of the songs provided. Most of them wrote that they enjoyed singing, listening to songs and viewing the video clips with lyrics, so they were able to follow the lessons well. Some mentioned that at first they could not capture the words while the songs were being played. However, after a few repetitions, they were able to hear the words thus improving their listening as well as reading skills.

As for the journal entries from the control group, some of the participants expressed that they felt the lessons were quite dry and monotonous. However, they were able to learn some new words. They felt that the teacher was more exam-oriented and focused more on techniques of answering questions for exam purposes.

On the whole, there were improvements in the vocabulary competence in both groups. The participants in both groups were able to participate in the activities. Nevertheless, the participants in the experimental group portrayed better enthusiasm in their vocabulary activities involving songs shown on YouTube as compared to the control group.

V. DISCUSSION

This study was formulated to discover the improvement in vocabulary competence by using songs in YouTube which were carried out over the course of six weeks and a total of 12 sessions. The vocabulary pretest and posttest were administered with both groups at the beginning of the study and at the end of treatment period respectively. The data obtained was used to show the changes between the experimental and the control groups. As to provide in-depth knowledge of the findings, observations were also carried out during the English lessons for both groups. Both groups were observed by the researchers guided by a checklist. In addition to observations, the participants were required to write journal entries where 18 journal entries of the participants from the samples were selected to be reviewed.

Based on the quantitative findings and data obtained from the pretest and posttest, it was derived that the participants who went through the method of using songs in YouTube to improve vocabulary for six weeks experienced more significant improvement in their vocabulary competence. This was prevalent when the paired t-test was conducted and the mean difference obtained was larger than that of the control group. Throughout the six-week observational period, the researchers noticed changes in vocabulary competence among the participants though it did not take effect immediately. In addition, the changes were more consistent in the experimental group as compared to the control group. The participants in the control group did not show much improvement in their vocabulary competence as compared to the experimental group. Besides, through their journal entries, it was revealed that they found the lessons quite monotonous, and that their teacher probed too much for the answers. In other words, the lessons were more teacher-centred.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the limitations the researchers have come across, there is a need for a further research to be conducted with a bigger sample size. It will help to obtain more data, confirm the findings and enable the drawing of a more concrete conclusion with regard to the effects of using songs to improve vocabulary competence. Furthermore, a longer experimental period is needed to enable the researcher to draw a more valid conclusion and to see whether the improvements are consistent. Apart from that, more efforts are needed to validate and confirm the findings especially in the transcription of data gained through observations.

VII. CONCLUSION

Like other learning activities, using songs to improve vocabulary competence among participants will only be effective if it is properly planned. There are several factors that contribute to the feasibility and effectiveness of such learning processes. The main focus of this study was to ascertain whether the implementation of songs in YouTube had any positive effects on the participants' vocabulary competence. As a matter of fact, the findings have shed light that the experimental group had far more significant improvement in their vocabulary competence as compared to the control group. This is because they went through the process of social interactions and discussions with their peers. They were given more opportunity to work independently in the target language as opposed to the control group. The control group, on the other hand, went through the traditional teacher-fronted approach and was given limited opportunity for interaction.

In conclusion, using songs in YouTube to improve the vocabulary competence among secondary school students is indeed an interesting and effective method. With proper planning and song selections, students will be able to learn more new words effectively.

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The Best Way to Teach Phrasal Verbs: Translation, Sentential Contextualization or Metaphorical Conceptualization?

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Abstract—This study investigates the metaphor's central position in the memorization, retention and prediction of the meaning of phrasal verbs. To this end, 45 Iranian EFL learners from Chabahar Maritime University were divided into three groups. In control group, the phrasal verbs were presented with their Farsi (students' mother tongue) equivalents and students were asked to memorize them on their own as it is the traditional method of teaching phrasal verbs. Experimental group I received the phrasal verbs in the context of a sentence, and students were asked to make new sentences with them in the class. And the experimental group II received the orientational metaphors underlying the meaning of the particles of phrasal verbs. All the three groups took three tests in which the correct particles of the phrasal verbs had to be provided. The first test, carried out just two hours after the instructions, dealt with the taught phrasal verbs. The same test was conducted five weeks later to measure the long term retention of phrasal verbs' meaning. But the third test dealt with 20 untaught phrasal verbs which had the same particles as the taught ones. One-way ANOVA results revealed that the difference between the groups' performances on the immediate test was not statistically significant, while the efficiency of metaphorical conceptualization, and sentential contextualization on the delayed test, and untaught test was considerable. There was a slight difference between the two experimental groups, but it was not statistically significant. The study ends with some suggestions for the teaching of phrasal verbs and the possible factors contributing to their difficulty.

Index Terms—translation, retention, phrasal verbs, sentential contextualization, metaphorical conceptualization

I. INTRODUCTION

Idioms are odd ducks. They seem to act very much like normal language, but they are quite different in many ways. It's been said that "If natural language had been designed by a logician, idioms would not exist". But exist they do, and not only that, they represent a rich vein in language behavior, and so they cry out for explanation. (P. N. Johnson-Laird in a foreword to a collection of works on idioms, cited in Tim Ifill, 2002). The category of idioms is a mixed bag. It involves metaphors, metonymies, and pairs of words, idioms with it, similes, sayings, phrasal verbs, grammatical idioms, and others. But where do idioms come from, and what kind of structure do they have, if any? (Kovecses & Szabo, 1996, 128).

In the "Traditional View", idioms are regarded as a special set of the larger category of words. They are assumed to be a matter of language alone; that is, they are taken to be items of the lexicon that are independent of any conceptual system. According to the this view, all there is to idioms is that they have certain syntactic properties and have a meaning that is special, and relative to the meanings of the forms that comprise it.

Developments in cognitive linguistics have led to improvements in descriptions of figurative language and facilitated our understanding of the interrelationships of many idiomatic expressions. Cognitive linguists are primarily interested in the underlying cognitive motivations for language comprehension (Black, 2002). Although there is no complete predictability, it can be suggested that there is a great deal of systematic conceptual motivation for the meaning of most idioms. Many or perhaps most idioms are products of our conceptual system. An idiom is not just an expression that has meaning that is somehow special in relation to the meanings of its constituent parts, but it arises from our more general knowledge of the world (Bilkova, 2000). The cognitive linguistic notion of conceptual metaphor is highly valuable in undertaking studies of idiomatic expressions, and therefore can facilitate their teaching (Black, 2002).

Conceptual metaphor is clearly a powerful tool for helping us understand a great deal of idiomatic language, so it is reasonable to believe that it will also help us to unravel the mysteries of phrasal verbs, one category of idioms, and their particles (Rundell, 2005a).

Although it is impossible to generalize with confidence about language in general from a restricted study such as this one, the fact that cognitive devices are at work in the comprehension and interpretation of idioms would suggest that metaphorical thinking may also function in facilitating the learning of idiomatic phrasal verbs. It is hoped that this study will make a modest contribution to this goal.

A. Statement of the Problem

Idioms are omnipresent in the world's languages. Despite their pervasiveness, idioms are often a stumbling block to second and foreign language learners and helping learners to progress from the literal to the metaphoric meaning is a challenge for language teachers. Although some idiomatic phrases are usually included in first-level course-books, they are usually presented as exceptions to the rule. In later phases, students are often referred to specialized learner dictionaries of idioms, phrasal verbs, etc.

Phrasal verbs create special problems for students because there are so many of them and the combination of verb and particle seem so often completely random. These difficulties are sometimes increased by the way in which phrasal verbs are presented in course books or by teachers telling students that they will just have to learn them by heart, thereby implying that there is no system. However, if one looks closely at the particle, patterns start to emerge which suggest that the combinations are not so random at all (Side, 1990).

B. Purpose of the Study

In this study, the distinctive role of conceptual metaphor in explaining the underlying link between the parts of phrasal verbs and the meaning of these idioms will be given a sound analysis. In particular, this study aims to make a comparison between the three methods of Translation, Sentential Contextualization (seeing and using them in sentences) and Metaphorical Conceptualization, and to measure the degree of effectiveness with which the meaning of idiomatic phrasal verbs can be memorized, retained, and predicted through these methods of teaching. The implementation of the present study aims at addressing the following research questions.

- 1) Is there any significant difference between Experimental and Control Groups due to the effects of Translation, Sentential Contextualization and Metaphorical Conceptualization on the immediate test of taught phrasal verbs?
- 2) Is there any significant difference between Experimental and Control Groups due to the effects of Translation, Sentential Contextualization and Metaphorical Conceptualization on the delayed test of taught phrasal verbs?
- 3) Is there any significant difference between Experimental and Control Groups due to the effects of Translation, Sentential Contextualization and Metaphorical Conceptualization on the delayed test of untaught phrasal verbs?

As a result, the following three null hypotheses were formulated.

- 1). There is no significant difference between Experimental and Control Groups due to the effects of Translation, Sentential Contextualization and Metaphorical Conceptualization on the immediate test of taught phrasal verbs.
- 2). There is no significant difference between Experimental and Control Groups due to the effects of Translation, Sentential Contextualization and Metaphorical Conceptualization on the delayed test of taught phrasal verbs.
- 3). There is no significant difference between Experimental and Control Groups due to the effects of Translation, Sentential Contextualization and Metaphorical Conceptualization on the delayed test of untaught phrasal verbs.

II. PREVIOUS STUDIES

It has been shown that the constituent parts of many idioms systematically contribute to their overall figurative meanings (Gibbs, 1997). This view demonstrates that the way people conceptualize the world around them is actually projected into the idiomatic language they use to express their ideas or feelings. Gibbs and O'Brien (1990, cited in Bilkova, 2000) have shown in a number of experiments that individual words systematically contribute to the overall figurative interpretations of idioms. Lakoff in his famous publication *Women, Fire, and Dangerous Things: What Categories Reveal About the Mind?* (1987) argues that metaphor permeates language to the extent that much of our thinking is metaphorical.

Skoufaki (2003) examined whether second language learners used conceptual metaphors to guess at the meaning of idiomatic phrasal verbs. Greek adult intermediate learners of English wrote their guesses of the meaning of unknown idiomatic phrasal verbs in the context of a sentence and described the type of conceptual metaphor that led them to verb interpretation. Results indicated the unlimited use of conceptual metaphors as a strategy for guessing of an idiomatic meaning.

Another research in this regard was carried out by Rundell (2005b) as regards the metaphorical meaning of a couple of particles (over and back). Referring to the basic, literal meaning of the particle over, he stated that we can see several further ideas that develop as metaphorical alterations on these spatial concepts, including: - being in a higher position (preside over) – powerfully affecting someone's emotions (swept over) – and trying to hide a truth (skates over). Rundell (2005b) by referring to one of the senses of back that is the idea of returning to a place you were in before, concluded that the more abstract notions of time is often conceptualized in terms of space.

Crutchley, A. (2007) analyzed the responses of a large stratified sample of 6- to 11-year-old children to a forced-choice picture selection task testing verb+particle constructions such as 'look up' and 'call off'. Distracter analysis revealed that children may not apply simple decompositional semantic strategies to comprehend unfamiliar verbs. They made use of the syntactic features of the verbs, and contextual information only in certain circumstances. Children's choices of distractors showed that they employed a holistic rather than an analytic approach to comprehension of unfamiliar particle verbs.

Yasuda, Sachiko (2010) examined whether enhancing awareness of orientational metaphors of particles helps the acquisition of phrasal verbs by Japanese English as a foreign language (EFL) students. The students in the control group

learned a number of phrasal verbs using traditional instruction, while those in the experimental group received the same input through a cognitive linguistic approach. The students in both groups were then asked to fill in the missing adverbial particles of the phrasal verbs. Results showed that the students in the experimental group performed significantly better than those in the control group, implying that when the target idioms are not stored as a unit in learners' mental lexicon, learners who are aware of conceptual metaphors may rely on metaphorical thought to produce an appropriate adverbial particle.

Nassaji, H. and Tian, J. (2010) studied and compared the effectiveness of two types of output tasks (reconstruction cloze tasks and reconstruction editing tasks) for learning English phrasal verbs. He wanted to see if doing the tasks collaboratively led to greater gains of knowledge of the target verbs than doing the tasks individually and also whether the type of task made a difference. The results revealed that completing the tasks collaboratively led to a greater accuracy of task completion than completing them individually. However, collaborative tasks did not lead to significantly greater gains of vocabulary knowledge than individual tasks. The findings, however, showed an effect of task type, with the editing tasks being more effective than the cloze tasks in promoting negotiation and learning.

Khatib, M. and Ghannadi, M. (2011) investigated the effectiveness of interventionist and non-interventionist approaches to the recognition and production of phrasal verbs. The results of the study revealed the superiority of interventionist groups over the non-interventionist group in both recognition and production of phrasal verbs. In addition, the interventional explicit group greatly outperformed the interventional implicit group in both recognition and production.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. *Setting and Participants*

Participants of this study were 45 Iranian EFL learners attending Chabahar Maritime University. They were marine engineering students who were doing their third year of at this university. They were all males, since this university does not accept girls in this field, and their age ranged from 20 to 24 years old. They were chosen from 57 students who were in three different classes. Twelve of the students were excluded from the study because they did not participate in all the tests. It is worth mentioning that the syllabus in this university is totally different from those of other universities, and students are required to attend special courses in grammar, reading and conversation. Besides, most of them have gone to English classes in Private institutes before being admitted to the university for at least two years. They attend English classes at least three sessions a week, each one lasting for 90 minutes.

B. *Research Design*

The research design of the present study is quasi-experimental, since intact classes are used, not randomly chosen students. It obtains 45 university students from three General English classes. The students are not randomly selected from a large number of students to represent the university students of Iran. They will receive three types of treatment, one traditional method and two modern methods. The first group is being taught by the traditional method of teaching phrasal verbs along with their translation, the second group is taught by sentence making, and the last one is taught through becoming familiar with the conceptual metaphors of the particles of the phrasal verbs.

C. *Instrumentation*

Four types of instruments including immediate test of taught phrasal verbs, delayed test of taught phrasal verbs, test of untaught phrasal verbs, and one-way ANOVA were utilized in this study to address the research questions. Two objective teacher-made fill-in-the-blank tests of phrasal verbs were used in this study. There was no pre-test in this study. The first test was administered just two hours after the completion of the treatment sessions. The first test consisted of 20 fill-in-the-blank items in which the particles of the taught phrasal verbs were missing, and the students were expected to complete the sentences with appropriate particles. This test was conducted to measure the ability of the students to remember the meaning of taught phrasal verbs after a short time. The same test was conducted five weeks later, because it was designed to measure the ability of the students to remember the taught phrasal verbs after a long time. The last test had 20 untaught phrasal verbs, but with the same particles, to assess the students' ability in guessing the meaning of untaught phrasal verbs. Finally, after recording the students' scores, a one-way ANOVA was used to measure the differences in the performances of the students of the three groups in the immediate test of taught phrasal verbs, delayed test of taught phrasal verbs, and the test of untaught phrasal verbs.

D. *Data Collection Procedure*

The study dealt with some idiomatic phrasal verbs in English. The number of phrasal verbs that have idiomatic meaning is very large in English. Although several hundred phrasal verbs exist in English, only those that have the adverbial particles **up**, **down**, **off** and **out** were included in this study. First of all, the participants were selected from among 57 students. The participants were randomly divided into three groups: one Control Group, and two Experimental Groups, each one with 15 students.

All the students took three tests. The first test, conducted just two hours after the treatment, involved filling in the missing adverbial particles of the 20 taught phrasal verbs in the context of a sentence (see appendix A). The second test,

which is the same as the first test, was conducted five weeks later to measure the students' ability in retaining the meaning of phrasal verbs after 5 weeks. And the last test included 20 questions, including 20 new phrasal verbs which were not taught in any of the classes, but had the same particles with the same meaning as the taught ones. These 20 phrasal verbs were placed in the context of a sentence (See appendix B). The adverbial particles up, down, off and out were left out of the resulting sentences. All the sentences were taken from Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Idioms; Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs and Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary.

In the case of Control Group, the procedure was as follows: The researcher conducted two training sessions for the students, each one lasting around 45 minutes. The 20 phrasal verbs were written on the board along with their Farsi equivalents (10 phrasal verbs per session). The meanings of these 20 phrasal verbs were explained to the students. Students were asked to memorize the meaning of each phrasal verb.

In Experimental Group I, the researcher had two training sessions. In each session, ten phrasal verbs were taught to the students. The phrasal verbs were written on the board, their meanings were explained to the students in the context of a sentence, and at the end, the students themselves made sentences with the phrasal verbs, and read their sentences aloud in the class to check if they have got the meaning correctly.

In Experimental Group II, the 20 phrasal verbs were grouped according to the conceptual metaphors they manifest (see appendix C). Again, the researcher conducted two training sessions for this Experimental Group each with a 45-minute block of time. As a result, 20 orientational metaphors (five for each particle) were identified. The twenty orientational metaphors with examples were put on the board and explained to the Experimental Group students, 10 orientational metaphors per session.

Two hours after the completion of the explanation by the teacher/researcher and memorization of the phrasal verbs by students, all the three groups were asked to fill in the missing adverbial particles in all twenty sentences. This test was called immediate test of taught phrasal verbs, because it was just two hours after the instruction, and it tested the verbs that were taught in the classes. All the groups were tested separately in their regularly-scheduled language classes. Students were given 20 minutes to complete the 20 sentences. Five weeks later, students were provided with the same 20-item fill-in-the blank test in which they were again required to supply the particles up, off, down and out. This test was exactly the same as the first test, but administered 5 weeks later to measure their ability to remember the meaning of the verbs after a longer time. The third test consisted of 20 untaught phrasal verbs, but with the same particles as the taught ones. The rationale for the administration of the third test was to see whether students can cope with a more creative task in the long term in which the adverbial particles of previously untaught phrasal verbs have to be provided. The researcher then measured the effectiveness with which the completion task was performed in terms of the number of correct responses to the questions in both Experimental and Control Groups. The answers to the tests were either right or wrong, and scored accordingly. A subject's score was the number of correct responses.

E. Data Analysis

The scores of the students on the Immediate Test of Taught Phrasal Verbs, Delayed Test of Taught Phrasal Verbs, and Test of Untaught Phrasal Verbs were recorded. Each test had 20 questions, so the scores ranged from 0 to 20. The results were analyzed using SPSS version 17. Descriptive statistics and one-way ANOVA were exploited to see if there were differences between the three groups' performances on the tests.

IV. RESULTS

After the administration of the Tests of phrasal verbs, the results obtained from these three groups on the production of phrasal verbs were compared by using a one-way ANOVA. Then in order to ensure where differences reported by ANOVA exactly occurred, a Scheffé test was used. The results of the study are divided into three sections, each section relating to one research question.

A. Immediate Test of Taught Phrasal Verbs

This section deals with the results of the first test, and it is related to the first research question. After the administration of the Immediate Test of Taught Phrasal Verbs, the scores of the students in the three groups of Translation Group (Control Group), Sentential Contextualization Group (Experimental Group I), and Metaphorical Conceptualization Group (Experimental Group II) were recorded. Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics on the Immediate Test of Taught Phrasal Verbs that were administered to students just two hours after the instruction. As the table indicates, there is a slight difference among the means of these three groups of participants. The Control Group which was taught through the traditional method of providing mother tongue translation and were asked to memorize the phrasal verbs themselves got the highest mean in this test, 15.80. The lowest mean belongs to the Experimental Group II that is quite new to the students.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF IMMEDIATE TEST OF TAUGHT PHRASAL VERBS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Error Mean
Control	15	15.80	3.00	8	19	0.77
Experimental I	15	15.33	2.28	11	18	0.59
Experimental II	15	15.20	2.42	11	19	0.62
Total	45	15.44	2.54	8	19	

A one-way ANOVA was run to compare the mean scores of the three groups on the Immediate Test of phrasal verbs. The F-observed value is .222 (Table 2). This amount of F-value at 2 and 42 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical value of F, i.e. 3.22. Based on these results, it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the three groups on the Immediate Test of Taught Phrasal Verbs. That is to say, the three groups were homogeneous in their performances on the Immediate Test of phrasal verbs, and the three different methods of teaching phrasal verbs in these three classes did not have any influence on the performances of the students in this test, even though, the control group did slightly better than the other two experimental groups. However, all the groups had high means; the reason might be that students can remember the meaning of phrasal verbs just because they have learned them hours ago.

TABLE 2:
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE IMMEDIATE TEST OF TAUGHT PHRASAL VERBS

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.978	2	1.489	0.222	0.802
Within Groups	282.133	42	6.717		
Total	285.111	44			

B. Delayed Test of Phrasal Verbs

In order to answer the second research question, the same test was administered 5 weeks after the instruction. It was called the Delayed Test of Taught phrasal verbs, because it had the same questions, but it was designed to measure the ability of the students to remember the meaning of taught phrasal verbs after 5 weeks. Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics of the Delayed Test of Taught phrasal verbs. As it can be seen, the mean of the control group is lower than the first test, but the means of the two experimental groups are higher than the first test. However, the overall mean of the three groups has fallen around .50. Whereas the control group has forgotten the meanings after this period, it is surprising that the two experimental groups have improved. However, the difference between the means of the three groups has increased from .60 in the Immediate Test to 3.53 in the Delayed Test. So, the difference is 6 times as much as the first test. The last point is that the ranking of the groups has radically changed. The highest mean belongs to the experimental Group II, and the lowest mean belongs to the Control Group. This is exactly opposite what happened in the first test.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DELAYED TEST OF TAUGHT PHRASAL VERBS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Error Mean
Control	15	12.73	3.36	6	17	0.86
Experimental I	15	15.86	2.06	11	18	0.53
Experimental II	15	16.26	1.57	13	19	0.40
Total	45	14.95	2.88	6	19	

In order to compare the results of the three groups on the Delayed Test of Taught phrasal verbs, a one-way ANOVA was run. The F-observed value is 9.30 (Table 4). This amount of F-value is greater than the critical value of F at 2 and 42 degrees of freedom, i.e. 3.22. Since the observed F-value exceeded its critical value, it can be concluded that there are significant differences between the performances of the students taught through the techniques of Translation Equivalents, Sentential Contextualization, and Metaphorical Conceptualization. Thus, the students are not homogenous after receiving these types of instruction. In other words, the way of teaching phrasal verbs does affect the ability of the students in retaining the meaning of phrasal verbs after a long time. In other words, we can safely decide on the superiority of metaphorical conceptualization and sentential contextualization techniques in aiding the foreign language learners while learning the idiomatic phrasal verbs in the case of a delayed test. This can mean that mere memorization might equal the methods of sentential contextualization, and metaphorical conceptualization, but for a short time.

TABLE 4:
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE DELAYED TEST OF TAUGHT PHRASAL VERBS

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	112.311	2	56.156	9.300	0.000
Within Groups	253.600	42	6.038		
Total	365.911	44			

The post-hoc Scheffé test was run to compare the mean score of the control group with the two experimental groups (Sentential Contextualization and Metaphorical Conceptualization) on the delayed test of taught phrasal verbs. According to the results displayed in Table 5, the mean difference of 3.13 ($p < .05$) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the Translation and Sentential Contextualization groups on the delayed test of taught phrasal verbs. Thus, the Sentential Contextualization group outperformed the Translation group on the delayed test of taught phrasal verbs. Furthermore, the mean difference of 3.53 ($p < .05$) shows that there is a significant difference between Translation and Metaphorical Conceptualization groups on the delayed test of taught phrasal verbs. So, the Metaphorical Conceptualization group outperformed the Translation group. However, the mean difference between the two experimental groups of Sentential Contextualization and Metaphorical Conceptualization was not statistically significant. Therefore, the second null-hypothesis, stating that there is no significant difference between Experimental and Control Groups due to the effects of Translation, Sentential Contextualization and Metaphorical Conceptualization on the delayed test of taught phrasal verbs, was rejected.

TABLE 5:
POST-HOC SCHEFFE'S TEST FOR THE DELAYED TEST OF TAUGHT PHRASAL VERBS

(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	Experimental I	-3.13333*	.89726	.005	-5.4103	-.8564
	Experimental II	-3.53333*	.89726	.001	-5.8103	-1.2564
Experimental I	Control	3.13333*	.89726	.005	.8564	5.4103
	Experimental II	-.40000	.89726	.906	-2.6770	1.8770
Experimental II	Control	3.53333*	.89726	.001	1.2564	5.8103
	Experimental I	.40000	.89726	.906	-1.8770	2.6770

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

C. Test of Untaught Phrasal Verbs

For answering the third research question, a test consisting of 20 untaught phrasal verbs was administered 5 weeks after the instruction. This test, Test of Untaught phrasal verbs, was designed to measure the ability of the students to predict the meaning of untaught phrasal verbs which had the same particles, but were placed in a new sentence. Table 6 shows the descriptive statistics of the Test of Untaught phrasal verbs. The means of all the groups are lower than the first and second test, and this is not surprising since all the verbs are quite new to them. The overall mean of the three groups is 13.20, around 2.24 less than the first test. But the ranking of the groups according to the means is quite opposite the first test, and just like the delayed test. In other words, the experimental group II has the highest mean, followed by Sentential Contextualization and Translation groups respectively. The difference between the means of the three groups is 5.33. So, the mean difference is 9 times as much as the first test. Although the performances of the students seem to decline, it should be pointed out that the phrasal verbs are quite new to the students.

TABLE 6:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TEST OF UNTAUGHT PHRASAL VERBS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Error Mean
Control	15	10.20	2.24	7	14	.57
Experimental I	15	13.86	1.50	11	16	.38
Experimental II	15	15.53	2.03	12	18	.52
Total	45	13.20	2.95	7	18	

It is time to compare the results of the three groups on the Test of Untaught phrasal verbs, so a one-way ANOVA was employed in this stage. The F-observed value is 29.337 (Table 7). This amount of F-value is far greater than the critical value of F at 2 and 42 degrees of freedom, i.e. 3.22. Since the observed F-value is much more than its critical value, it can be concluded that there are significant differences between the performances of the students taught through the techniques of Translation, Sentential Contextualization, and Metaphorical Conceptualization in the prediction of the meaning of untaught phrasal verbs. In other words, different methods of teaching phrasal verbs influence the ability of the students in predicting the meaning of untaught phrasal verbs. Thus, we can safely reject the third null hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference between Experimental and Control Groups due to the effects of Translation, Sentential Contextualization and Metaphorical Conceptualization on the test of untaught phrasal verbs.

TABLE 7:
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE TEST OF UNTAUGHT PHRASAL VERBS

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	223.333	2	111.667	29.337	.000
Within Groups	159.867	42	3.806		
Total	383.200	44			

A post-hoc Scheffé test was run to make a comparison between the mean scores of the control group with the two experimental groups (Sentential Contextualization and Metaphorical Conceptualization) on the test of untaught phrasal verbs. According to the results displayed in Table 8, the mean difference of 3.66 ($p < .05$) indicates that a statistically significant difference was found between the Translation and Sentential Contextualization groups on this test of untaught phrasal verbs. Thus, the contextualization technique had been more helpful to the students in predicting the meaning of untaught phrasal verbs. Furthermore, the mean difference of 5.33 ($p < .05$) shows that there is a significant difference between Translation and Metaphorical Conceptualization groups on the test of untaught phrasal verbs. So, the students who knew the metaphorical meaning of the particles could retain and predict the meaning of phrasal verbs better than those students taught through the Translation method. However, the mean difference between the two experimental groups of Sentential Contextualization and Metaphorical Conceptualization, 1.66, was not statistically significant. Therefore, the third null-hypothesis, stating that there is no significant difference between Experimental and Control Groups due to the effects of Translation, Sentential Contextualization and Metaphorical Conceptualization on the test of untaught phrasal verbs, was rejected.

This gives us strong evidence in favor of the view that metaphorical conceptualization plays a much more active role in the teaching/learning of idiomatic phrasal verbs when students come across the untaught idioms with the same particles as the taught ones. A brief look at the Tables brings us to the conclusion that in the short run it makes no difference which method of instruction is used. On the contrary, the sheer efficacy of metaphorical conceptualization when compared with the memorization technique is thoroughly clear in the long run.

TABLE 8:
POST-HOC SCHEFFE'S TEST FOR THE TEST OF UNTAUGHT PHRASAL VERBS

(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	Experimental I	-3.66667*	.71240	.000	-5.4745	-1.8588
	Experimental II	-5.33333*	.71240	.000	-7.1412	-3.5255
Experimental I	Control	3.66667*	.71240	.000	1.8588	5.4745
	Experimental II	-1.66667	.71240	.076	-3.4745	.1412
Experimental II	Control	5.33333*	.71240	.000	3.5255	7.1412
	Experimental I	1.66667	.71240	.076	-.1412	3.4745

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The conclusion reached at considering the interpretation of results as regards the first hypothesis is that: if the teachers' focus of attention in teaching idiomatic phrasal verbs is on the immediate outcome of their instruction and the efficiency of teaching in a short and limited period of time is concentrated on, Translation technique is as efficient as Sentential Contextualization, and Metaphorical Conceptualization techniques. Prince (1996) and Qian (1996) obtained similar results from two experimental studies on the effect of different learning conditions on vocabulary acquisition. These studies suggested that presenting words in context does not have a more positive effect on learning vocabulary than the presentation of words in isolation along with their translation. Besides, the technique of metaphorical conceptualization is quite new to the students, and they have always been told to see the phrasal verbs as a whole, and learn them by heart. Students might not be accustomed to this method, and need more time than two hours to get the meaning of these particles. Furthermore, seeing and using phrasal verbs in sentences might seem an effective technique, but as it will be discussed sentential context is not that effective and richer contexts are needed to guide the students guess the meaning of the phrasal verbs. In conclusion, these studies show that the use of context in learning vocabulary cannot guarantee it superiority in learning and acquisition in comparison to other modes of teaching. Nevertheless, since inferring from context is a common strategy in vocabulary and reading courses, it will be wise to investigate the effect of context in learning phrasal verbs in future to give us more support in accepting or rejecting these findings.

In contrast, if the effectiveness of teaching in the long run is the main objective of the instruction and the easier and delayed retention of idiomatic phrasal verbs is the ultimate aim pursued by teachers, orientational metaphors and contextualization techniques are much more effective and beneficial to the learners. This result corroborates the findings of Cooper (1999) and Hulstijn (1992). They obtained the conclusion that using context clues to guess the meaning of words is a good strategy in lexical acquisition. This is reflected in ESL/EFL vocabulary textbooks as well as being explored by some researchers. Cooper (1999) showed that successful learners use an inferring strategy to learn idioms. The findings of his study can be interpreted as follows: using context clues is possibly a successful strategy in the teaching and learning of multiword expressions. Hulstijn (1992) found that the learners who inferred the meaning of target words remembered them better than the learners who were given the meaning of target words. This study showed that inferring helps learners retain the meaning of words, yet the technique of contextualization is not as effective as the metaphorical conceptualization. This might be due to the semantic idiomaticity of phrasal verbs. This means that

semantic idiomaticity of phrasal verbs makes it difficult for learners to guess the meaning, so the use of context cannot be a good strategy to infer the idiomatic meanings. Thus, the inferring of incorrect meanings from context was sometimes a drawback, especially when there were no context clues. Furthermore, the present study used the sentential context for contextualized learning as well as for the contextualized production of phrasal verbs, which does not provide the readers with enough contexts. As Nation (2001) pointed out one or two sentences may not provide sufficient context from which learners infer the target word meaning.

The problem of unpredictability of the meaning of idioms can be tackled by looking at the particles that regularly appear in phrasal verbs, and indicating what each of them means by reference to the orientational metaphors embodied in each particle. If learners are made aware of metaphorical domains, they are capable of identifying metaphorical themes and of categorizing idioms independently. If so, when learners of English are made aware of the cognitive structures which underlie idioms, they would be able to grasp the figurative meaning of idioms more easily and they would retain these lexical items in their memory for a longer time. Collecting of idiomatic phrasal verbs relating to a particular conceptual domain by the teacher, writing them up on the board, and making the students supply the correct figurative meanings which come to their minds when they see a particular phrasal verb would also make learning more effective and enjoyable.

Teachers can use such techniques in their classes to teach phrasal verbs as matching a phrasal verb to its synonym, matching them to a picture, or even matching two halves of sentences. Miming, drawing, describing phrasal verbs or making sentences with them are also some of the popular activities suggested for teaching phrasal verbs. Students can be given sentences in which the phrasal verbs are missing, and the students should fill in the blanks in groups after discussing the meaning together. Writing paragraphs or even stories in which the new phrasal verbs are used can be a promising task, since it provides a more interesting activity and offers a richer context for learning and retaining the meaning of phrasal verbs. True-false exercises and puzzles are also suggested techniques for a better learning of phrasal verbs. Semantic mapping and semantic feature analysis techniques allow students to employ known structures in new contexts with new meanings and collocations. One semantic mapping technique is teaching phrasal verbs by "sorting them out" (analogies). This technique basically involves grouping phrasal verbs together according to the particle rather than the verb. All in all, learning phrasal verbs can be made a less challenging task by utilizing the above-mentioned techniques of semantic mapping and semantic feature analysis. Such techniques are quite impressive because they all provide varying but reasonable means for the disentanglement of the complex bundle of patterns of phrasal verbs. Hence, instead of telling students that they just have to learn phrasal verbs by heart, a teacher can choose and then apply the technique most suited to his or her classroom needs.

APPENDIX A: IMMEDIATE TEST OF TAUGHT PHRASAL VERBS

Instructions: Fill in the blanks with prepositions up, down, off, and out.

1. It is time to wind my speech _____. I have a plane to catch.
2. It has been bucketing _____ all day. We can't go out in the afternoon.
3. I was flattered to be offered the job but wasn't sure if I could carry it _____.
4. We were off on Fridays. So, we didn't get _____ until lunch time.
5. Management has been playing _____ the possibility of job losses.
6. I must remember to dig _____ that book for you.
7. The official report plays _____ the likely benefits of the scheme.
8. We branched _____ from the main road and turned down a country lane.
9. Let me jot _____ your number and I'll call you tomorrow.
10. He blew _____ all the candles in the birthday party.
11. Tom peeled _____ his wet t-shirt and hung them on the hook.
12. The rocket blasted _____ at noon.
13. Fan the cards _____, and then pick one.
14. Come on man, buck _____, things aren't that bad! It is not the end of the world.
15. Paul's legs were sticking _____ from under the car.
16. Would you hose _____ the car for me? It is so dirty.
17. What time does the laser show kick _____? I am anxiously waiting for that.
18. I crossed _____ 'Miss' and wrote 'Ms'.
19. The car broke _____ just north of Paris, and we had to hire a taxi.
20. The taxi drew _____ outside the house, and we could see our parents coming.

APPENDIX B: DELAYED TEST OF UNTAUGHT PHRASAL VERBS

1. Instructions: Fill in the blanks with prepositions up, down, off, and out.
2. Don't use _____ all the milk, we need some for breakfast.
3. Please turn the volume _____. I am trying to concentrate.
4. Every night we wipe the tables _____ before we shut the restaurant.

5. I will be home after midnight, so don't wait _____ for me.
6. We cuddled _____ together and tried to get warm.
7. Where is everyone? They've all buggered _____.
8. The factory next to our house is due to be pulled _____ next year.
9. Cut _____ the part of research which is about racial prejudice.
10. It is pelting _____ with rain. We can't go out now.
11. Don't worry, we'll figure something _____.
12. I'll set _____ early to avoid the traffic.
13. She tried to bolster my confidence _____ by saying that I had a special talent.
14. Click on a photo of any student, and it zooms _____ to full size.
15. They managed to bring _____ the most daring jewelry robbery in history.
16. I am sure illnesses stand _____ in all childhood memories.
17. Microsoft beat _____ a rival company to win the contract.
18. She was ill, so I sent her some flowers to cheer her _____.
19. Note _____ the main points you want to include in your essay.
20. Joe was kicked _____ the committee for stealing funds.
21. Police handcuffed him and hauled him _____ to jail.

APPENDIX C: THE PARTICLES AND THEIR ORIENTATIONAL METAPHORS

Particle	Meaning	Examples
Up	Completion	Chew up, Use up, Give up
Up	More	Turn up, Play up
Up	Happy	Cheer up, Buck up, Feel up
Up	Approach	Draw up, Bump up, Cuddle up
Up	Out of bed	Wait up, Stay up, Get up
Down	Raining	Beat down, Bucket down, Pelt down.
Down	Less	Cool down, Play down, Turn down
Down	Failure	Break down, Get down, Step down
Down	Writing	Jot down, Note down, Pin down
Down	Cleaning	Hose down, Scrub down, Wipe down
Off	Departure	Back off, Blast off, Bog off, Hare off
Off	Removal	Push off, Kick off, See off, Slip off
Off	Separation	Block off, Box off, Cone off
Off	Success	Come off, Carry off, Pass off, Pull off
Off	Start	Get off, Kick off, Set off, Tee off.
Out	Exclusion	Chuck out, Cross out, Cut out, Miss out
Out	Solution	Big out, Drag out, Ferret out, Eke out
Out	Appearance	Bring out, Pick out, Slip out, Stick out.
Out	Extinction	Back out, Beat out, Blow out, Duck out
Out	Extension	Carve out, Fluff out, Hew out, Fan out.

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Reading Texts in Translation Classes: Discourse Analysis Perspectives

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Abstract—This paper aims at finding out what opportunities discourse analysis can offer in teaching translation. Specifically, it attempts to determine what areas of discourse analysis are relevant to teaching Arabic-English translation at college level as well as to identify what translation instructors and students can borrow from other related disciplines and make use of them in the classroom. A critical review of published theories and models was done to examine the main concepts in this regards. The paper concludes with emphasizing the role of discourse analysis in the shift from target text being purely equivalency-oriented text to a dynamic-oriented text.

Index Terms—discourse analysis, discourse, reading

The course syllabus for most translation course worldwide stipulates that the overall aim of the translation course is to enhance students' cultural awareness, and language and competencies. Among the specific goals, reading source and target texts is regarded as one of the priorities in teaching translation as learners are supposed to be critical readers who are able to decode and code texts in order to minimize what is called 'lost in translation.' This characteristic can help them view a given text from different perspectives.

Mastering critical reading abilities require efforts from both translation instructors and students. At this end, discourse analysis is regarded as an approach to do this. Although the theoretical bases of discourse analysis have been available since the 1950s, its use in teaching processes was brought up in the 1980s. Since Cook's *Discourse* (1989), discourse analysis has become an increasingly popular topic in language teaching research (McCarthy, 1991; McCarthy & Ronald, 1994; Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000; Wallace, 2003 et al.).

Although the field of discourse analysis is broad, it is categorized into five major areas in teaching contexts: cohesion, coherence, information structure, turn taking and critical discourse analysis (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). Furthermore, Fairclough (2003) believed that 'textually oriented discourse analysis' is as similar as the term 'discourse analysis,' where the latter is not concerned with the linguistic features of the text.

I. PURPOSE

The purpose of this paper is twofold: (a) to examine closely the theoretical evolution of discourse analysis in relation to teaching reading; and (b) to search what opportunities discourse analysis offers in reading texts in translation courses.

II. DEFINITION

A. Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is the study of the relationship between language and its intertextual, social and intercultural contexts in which it is used; i.e., it is the linguistic study of the interaction between text and discourse (Cook, 1989; Fairclough, 2003; McCarthy, 1991).

B. Discourse

Reviewing different schools of thought, Bloor and Bloor (2007) distinguished a number of uses of the term 'discourse' ranging from the understanding of discourse as all symbolic interaction and communication, written or spoken, between people to treating discourse as a particular text (for elaboration see, e.g., Bourdieu, 1997; Brown & Yule, 1983; Harris, 1952;). Cook's (1992) definition of discourse is still considered, however, as the definition encompassing the overall elements of its; it is "text and context together, interacting in a way which is perceived as meaningful and unified by the participants" (Cook, 1992, p. 2). The context here is used in the broadest sense, including sender and receiver, the situation, the function, the multimodality, and background knowledge. Blommaert (2005) added to connotation of context what he calls 'forgotten contexts.' These forgotten contexts include resources which

individuals cannot control, text trajectories (i.e. awareness that every instance of production, reproduction, circulation and consumption of a text involves shifts in contexts) and context data histories.

C. Reading

Anderson (2000) pointed out that in reading research, a distinction should be made between the process of reading and the product of reading. In respect to the current study, the process of reading makes up the primary focus. In order to put the text into the context, Lundahl (1998) defined the process of reading as "an active process that involves giving or constructing meaning provided that the text seems meaningful and we can relate the content to our previous experience and knowledge" (p. 9). According to this definition, it is argued that reading is embodied some kind of social nature which makes the process of reading not an individual activity, but also an activity reflecting the members of discourse communities (Wallace, 2003). Thus, the interpretation resulting from the process of reading done in a target discourse community can obviously detach the meanings intended within the original discourse community. Thus, the process of reading in the current study can be defined as a process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in the source discourse community language to be decoded within the context of the target discourse community language.

III. METHOD

The current study is based upon the synthesis of the ideas from a wide range of disciplines often studied historically. This approach is classified as a secondary research approach to fulfill the aims of a given study (Brown, 1988; Dörnyei, 2007). According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), the "best method is the one that answers the research question(s) most efficiently" (p. 167); this is the rationale behind choosing this secondary approach.

Materials and Procedures:

Due to the fact that the term 'discourse analysis' is used in a range of disciplines, it is imperative to limit the scope of the research. Such a measurement constituted the first step in the procedures. Disciplines included in the research were applied linguistics, language teaching, and social sciences. The second step was to search for relevant research literature, using keywords such as 'discourse analysis.' The third step was to critically, diachronically study the relevant concepts.

IV. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. Discourse Analysis

The concept of 'discourse analysis' dates back to the beginning if [of the]1950s when Zellig Harris (1952a) introduced it to the scientific community. Thus, he was the first to define discourse analysis as a method for the analysis of connected speech (or writing) that goes beyond the limits of a single sentence and correlates culture and language. Since Harris was primarily interested in so called 'equivalence classes,' however, discourse analysis, he argued, belongs to formal linguistics and does not take into account the semantics of the elements under analysis. The result of such discourse analysis is presented in the form of a double array, or succession of intervals, containing certain equivalence classes.

Although Harris did not intend to address teaching contexts, his suggestions provided [a] number of perspectives in the language teaching contexts. First, it alerts researchers to the link between language and culture, and that teaching language topics cannot be done only within linguistics proper. Regrettably, he did not propose guidelines on employing discourse analysis for that very purpose. For example, the only phrase he illustrated with was 'how are you?' and commented that this is obviously used for social function rather than a question about well-being. Second, Harris (1952a) suggested that a text is composed of a number of sentences that are connected with what he called 'equivalence classes.' To a large extent, this phenomenon is similar to the notion of cohesive devices discussed by Halliday and Hassan (1976). However, Harris did not provide tangible illustrations of how to employ discourse analysis in this regard. Third, Harris paid attention to the fact that each text is characterized by some kind of patterns which goes beyond mere grammar; these patterns constitute what he called the 'dialect' of a given sort of texts.

Harris (1952a) suggested that a discourse analysis should go beyond the boundaries of the sentence level; i.e., reading the whole discourse. In reading texts, to know the dialect in which the text is encoded helps readers to comprehend fast and deeply. This situation goes in line with what Swales (1990) labeled the 'discourse community,' the community that holds particular expectations about how and what to communicate. The most important impact of Harris' germ article is that reading is seen as a process stretching the boundaries of text implications.

What Harris (1952a) did has influenced trends in teaching reading and reading research within the next three decades. Lezberg and Hilferty (1978) pointed out that discourse analysis could have two applications in the reading class: pedagogical and class content. Unlike Harris, they attempted to move discourse analysis from theory to practice, albeit the validity of their case study they reported is questionable in terms of the situational context. They viewed discourse analysis as including learners in introducing, finishing-off, unfolding the topic where the readers can reach "the inner state of the speaker" (Lezberg & Hilferty, 1978, p. 50). The valuable recommendation they came up with to teachers on how to carry out practical work with reading as discourse in the class were skimming (looking for key words and main ideas) and scanning tasks (looking for details regarding the writing style, cohesive aids, specific information), before-reading activities (such as brainstorming, generating questions about the text, word association activities, discussing and

defining vocabulary, anticipation activities), after-reading activities (distinguishing between statements and opinions, paraphrasing, noticing language features and forms, matching, arguing discussions for possible bias and propaganda), and reading skill builders (practicing phrase reading and doing timed reading exercises).

Most of those recommendations are implemented in the reading tasks in contemporary language course books so as to be an action plan (McCarthy, 1991). However, it is a must to realize that Lezberg and Hilferty's (1978) ambition is to make learners adopt specific strategies while reading a text that in their understanding constitute discourse analysis rather than developing reading skills (i.e., reading skill builder). While a strategy is an action selected deliberately to achieve particular goals, a skill is a technique applied unconsciously (Hudson, 2007).

Since Brown and Yule's (1983) *Discourse Analysis* has appeared as the most cited work in the field of discourse analysis, the analysis of language in use has received attention by researchers (for more discussion, see, Blommaert, 2005; McCarthy, 1991). Although they admitted that the concept 'language in use' referring to discourse analysis is crucial in language teaching and provides a solid ground for teaching contexts, they did not provide plausible treatment of the possible application of discourse analysis. Cook's *Discourse* (1989) elaborated on the issue and outlined some significant trends, although he did not explicitly treat applying discourse analysis. Having defined discourse analysis as examination of "how stretches of language, considered in their full textual, social, and psychological context, become meaningful and unified for their users" (1989, p. ix), Cook set up a new paradigm in discourse analysis in language teaching. In this regard, Cook's is characterized by three significant themes.

First, Cook (1989) developed Harris's idea of the 'dialect' and pointed out that foreign language learners are 'social outsiders' because they lack the social knowledge that is essential to making text into discourse. Thus, he emphasized that the formal approach to language topics alone (i.e. dealing with facts inside the language system) is not enough for learners to be acquainted with a discourse community. By the same token, understanding lexis and processing grammar do not necessarily provide an adequate comprehension of the text. Second, since he considered foreign readers as social outsiders who lack the experience of typical discourses of source text community, he included knowledge schemata, mental representations of typical situations, in the context to predict the contents of the particular situation (cf. Carrell & Eisterhold's *schematheoretic*, 1983; Wallace's *taken-for-grantedness*, 2003). Third, Cook argued that discourse analysis could help learners adopt top-down approach in reading, where they can set a discourse in its textual and social context. As stated earlier, Cook and others' works on discourse analysis paved the way to teaching-oriented researchers to consider and include it in their works.

B. Language and Metacognitive Awareness

McCarthy (1991), and McCarthy and Carter (1994) were the first to examine discourse analysis in educational contexts. In contrast to researchers prior to them, especially Guy Cook (1989), McCarthy and Carter (1991) adopted an interactive approach in language teaching where of higher-order operations of language (i.e. cultural and ideological meanings) and lower-order forms of language that both contribute interdependently to patterning the meaning. That is, the readers should be interested not only in the macro-level of a discourse but in the micro-level as well in comprehending a text. The concept of intertextuality is included in analyzing discourse where both language teachers and learners are urged to pay attention to what other immediate texts (i.e., contexts) refers to in order to better understand the text. Following a schema-theoretic approach, McCarthy divided a text into content schemata (i.e., background knowledge), formal schemata (i.e., structures). However, McCarthy and Carter substituted content schemata by cultural frames which became then a parameter of language awareness, namely socio-cultural meaning. Formal schemata were also transformed into two other parameters of language awareness: form and function.

To increase language awareness within the parameters of form and function, learners are encouraged to look at language as a system and to examine what language does in the given context. The rationale behind this trend of research was due to the fact that a text does not exist in a vacuum but naturally refers to other texts that are essential for its understanding. The shift from a schemata-view to a language-awareness-view was an apt one in terms of pedagogy. Thus, language awareness, being defined as "the development in learners of an enhanced consciousness of and sensitivity to the forms and functions of language" (Carter, 2003, p.64) was seen as an ability, while schemata, described as "the previously acquired knowledge structures" (Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983, p. 556), were seen as factual information. Of course, they by no means meant to devalue the schemata theory in language learning and teaching, but rather they emphasized the potentiality of incorporating it in language education.

Based on what has been said so far, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) believed that discourse analysis is *an umbrella term* for all studies that concern text and discourse. Therefore, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain suggested that [that] discourse analysis studies have led to a transition from a grammar-oriented approach of language teaching to a discourse-oriented one, and, consequently to the goal of teaching language for communication. One feature that Celce-Murcia and Olshtain added to discourse-oriented approach of language education was, however, a metacognitive awareness where they refined the interpretation process. Metacognitive awareness is meant to connect top-down and bottom-up processing and, can, thus, be seen as an essential part of the interactive nature of language education, reading in particular.

C. Critical Reading

In all language education aspects, the most consistent application of discourse analysis is in done when reading materials. Wallace (1992, 2003) argued for critical reading that is based on critical discourse analysis, a study of how language and power are related (Fairclough, 1989), critical language awareness, an awareness of the ideological role of language (Wallace, 1992). Moreover, Wallace introduced metacritical awareness to indicate the challenge of separating oneself from one's interpretations.

Reading foreign texts is more sensitive to taken-for-granted knowledge; that is, foreign readers activate schemata that tend to reinforce taken-for-grantedness (Wallace, 2003). According to Wallace (1992; 2003), this phenomenon gives legitimacy to practice discourse analysis, including critical reading, in foreign language contexts where three goals can be achieved:

- reflecting upon the language choice;
- developing argumentative capabilities; and
- promoting cross-cultural awareness.

These three goals can be approached in theoretical and practical ways (Wallace, 2003). From a theoretical perspective, not only do all texts reflect certain ideology, but they are interpreted from another ideological standpoint. In another words, reading a text is a social process where its meanings are negotiated within discourse communities. On the practical level, however, as the meanings embodied in a text are negotiated, there is a balance of power distribution among all those who are concerned in the reading process.

Combining the theoretical and practical approaches to reading, readers, either language instructors or learners, who read a text, can divide the reading process into three stages (Wallace, 1992; 2003):

1. pre-reading: the topic of the text, the choice of the topic, the way the topic was written, alternative ways to cover the topic, and the relationship between write and reader;
2. while-reading: deciphering the implications of the text and negotiate them with other members of the discourse community; and
3. post-reading: what happened after reading the text; is there any change in attitudes or improvement of knowledge, for example?

These three stages can be used in parallel with the Hallidayan grammar. That is, readers can focus on the field of the text (i.e., what is going on), the tenor (i.e., interpersonal relations), and the mode (i.e., text organization); these three Hallidayan elements can and do help readers to focus on the effect of the writer's choice. The whole framework for textual analysis in critical reading is presented in figure 1 (see, Wallace, 2003, p. 39).

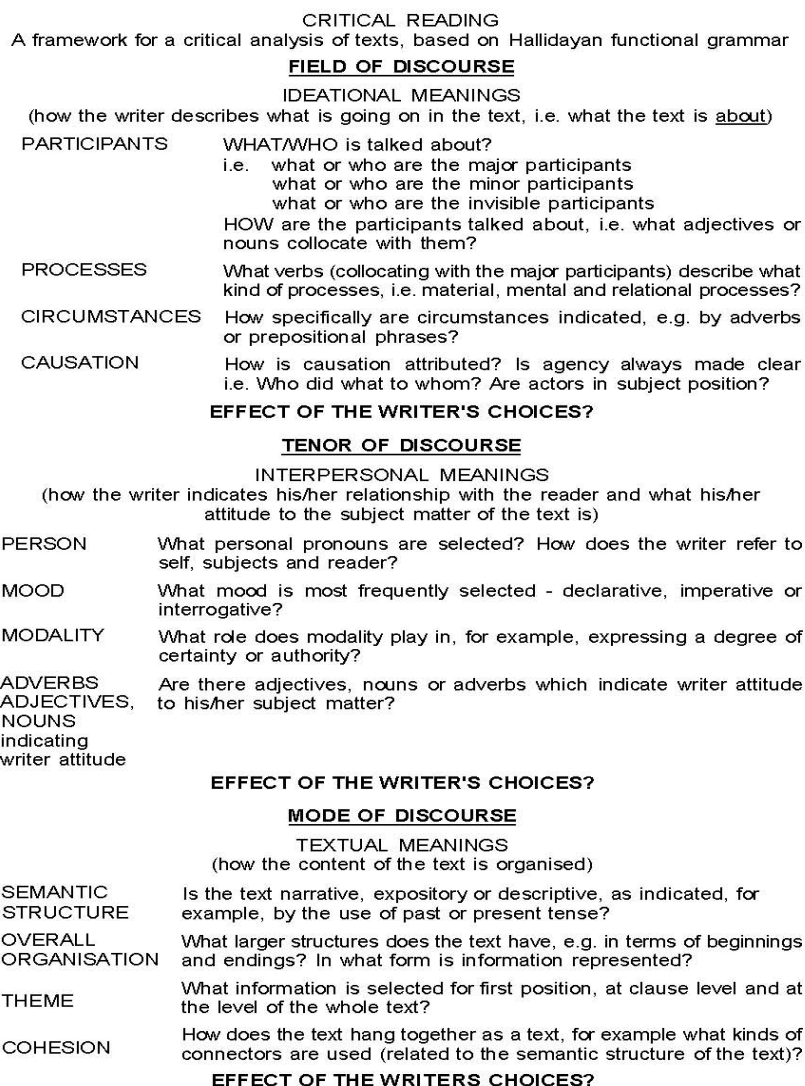


Figure 1. The framework for textual analysis in critical reading (Wallace, 2003, p. 39)

As shown in figure 1, Wallace (2003) proposed a practical application of discourse analysis in reading contexts, acknowledging the importance of language and metacognitive awareness. Although she tended to diminish the role of the author's communicative intent and is primarily concerned with the effect it causes, based on her belief that reading is a social process of negotiating the meaning in the discourse community, she still stressed the significance of metacritical awareness and critical language awareness in critical reading.

On the same line of argumentation, Cots (2006) believed that, in addition to using the conventional way in reading, he emphasized the use of critical discourse analysis at three levels: social practice, discursive practice, and textual practice. At the social level, the representation of the world is examined in the light of the influence of the writer's ideology on the text, and the effect of the text on the target readers (cf. the content schemata or taken-for-granted knowledge). At the level of discursive practice, the communicative situation of the text is studied: its genre, textual links, the structure of propositions and coherence (cf. formal schemata), all are in the light of readers' experience. Finally, at the textual practice level, the focus is on the formal and semantic features: connectors, modality, and vocabulary. This third level reflects how readers create the representation of the world while reading. In short, Cots proposed that discourse analysis helps deal with discovering and understanding the text by using sharp observational skills for informed choices and interpretation.

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The current paper attempted to explore, in general, the contribution of discourse analysis to the paradigm shift in reading. To accomplish this purpose, the models of discourse analysis proposed by Wallace (1992, 2003) and Cots (2006) were adopted to demonstrate how to place texts in their social, cultural and intertextual contexts in order to

become a more effective reader. At this point, it is possible to conclude with some discourse-oriented pedagogical implications for translation classes (McCarthy, Matthiessen & Slade, 2002).

When teaching translation is as a set of choices, reading texts are also seen as structures in different contexts of use. Thus, it enables language instructors and material designers to delineate genres that are essential and relevant to particular learners' needs and to include them in class content and textbooks. A discourse-oriented approach can encourage as well learners to develop language awareness, exploring relationships between form, meaning and use. From a cognitive perspective, Grabe (2009) argues for building awareness of discourse through several techniques, mainly through highlighting key words that signal text structure, identifying a paragraph's function, and finding patterns of discourse organization in a text. Finally, a discourse-oriented approach can allow instructors to evaluate interactions within the classroom (McCarthy, Matthiessen & Slade, 2002) in order to enhance understanding.

Although Harris (1952a; 1952b) did not provide clear guidelines on how to manage discourse analysis, he initiated the discussion about the correlation between stretches of language longer than a sentence and culture with the aid of cohesive tools in the text and the dialect in which the text is written (cf. genre). As a result cohesive aids and genres became a core component in teaching reading, focusing on longer language segments, which later made the top-down approach to reading possible.

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The Effect of Short Message Service on the Retention of Collocations among Iranian Lower Intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract—The rapid developments in information and communication technologies (ICT) have created new opportunities to enhance the reach and quality of education. Mobile phones are new addition to the ICT for learning. This study attempts comprehensively to investigate the effect of Short Message Service (SMS) on the retention of collocations among Iranian lower intermediate EFL learners. To this end, forty university students were assigned into experimental and control group. The participants received English collocations as well as definitions and example sentences either on paper or through SMS messages in a scheduled pattern of delivery two times a week during five weeks. After the third and the sixth session of treatment, students received two quizzes either on paper or via SMS in order to show whether the students progress during the treatment or not. Students were compared at the end of the study. The results revealed the fact that participants in SMS group could significantly outperform the ones in conventional group.

Index Terms—Global System for Mobile Communication (GSM), Short Message Service (SMS), Personal Digital Assistants (PDAs), Mobile Learning (M-learning), retention, collocation

I. INTRODUCTION

There is considerable interest from educators and technical developers in exploiting the unit capabilities and characteristics of mobile technologies to enable new and engaging form of learning, as Cavus and Ibrahim (2009) pointed out, "There is an increasing use of wireless technologies in education all over the world. In fact, wireless technologies such as laptop computers, mobile phones are revolutionizing education and transforming the traditional classroom based learning and teaching into anytime and anywhere education".

As Kukulska-Hulme and Shield (2008) defined, widespread ownership of Mobile and wireless devices means that learners are increasingly in a position to take the lead and engage in activities motivated by their personal needs and circumstances of use, including those arising from greater mobility. The anytime, anywhere capabilities of mobile devices encourage learning experiences outside of a teacher managed classroom environment (Sharples, 2003). As McNicol (2004) believed, the immediacy and portability of mobile phones allow students to learn in their proffered time and place.

According to Anohina (2005), SMS refers to the use of technology for learning in a broad sense and encompasses educational processes carried out in compliance with different theoretical models pursued using different educational methods and is based on activities that take place via any electronic medium.

In Iran there are only two hours per week for the English class in most universities and schools, so the English class becomes the only time to use English and learners face the challenge of lacking exposure to English. Teachers must make difficult choices about how to use the limited time to promote language learning and there is an urgent need for them to find an effective self-study approach for students to enlarge their collocations size, they also should make students aware of collocations and encourage them to store collocations in their memory by new methods and technologies. "Because of class time constraint and the importance of collocations, most of reinforcement and study is the responsibility of students outside the classroom" (Grace1998, p.8).

As Thornbury (2004) indicated, two factors determine retention. First; those words that are easy to learn are better retained. Second, those words that are learned over spaced learning sessions are retained better than words that are learned in concentrated burst. Teachers should find ways to promote their students to use English anytime and anywhere. With that in mind, the researcher examined the effectiveness of Short Message Service, benefits of personal, informal,

context-aware and situated learning, on the retention of collocations among Iranian lower intermediate EFL learners, and also estimated subjects' attitudes toward learning collocations via SMS.

Collocations are rarely learned and experienced and most of the times ignored in language classes in Iran. The startling fact here is that just the tiny percent of learners will ever pay attention to collocations. The result whatsoever, whether young teachers are not aware of collocations' important role or the students unconsciously ignore learning them, leads to incomplete English learning, which means that the students are not able to be fluent though they have passed several intensive courses.

Whereas the presentation of mobile phones in "Asian countries" keeps climbing and SMS is being widely used by youth today as a means of communication, few researchers have explored the application of the SMS in second language learning (Lu, 2008, p.1).

According to Thornton and Houser (2005), mobile phones enhance regular study, which in turn leads to more exposure than did the detailed presentation of the lessons. Their findings are in accordance with the empirical constant and distributed practice has a more beneficial effect on memory and learning than massed practice.

The integration of mobile technologies into teaching and learning has been more gradual, as educators have sought to understand how best to use their tool to support various kind of learning. Moura and Carvalho (2010) defined "we can deliver several learning activities to students easily and immediately via SMS technology". Moreover their findings show that students have positive perception about the use of mobile phones as a learning tool.

Using mobiles for learning can assist students' motivation, encourage a sense of responsibility, help organizational skills, act as reference tools, and help track students' progress and assessment (Savill-Smith and Kent, 2003).

The researcher in this study believed that SMS can help extend learners' opportunities in meaningful ways and provides better conditions for learning collocations. With that in mind, she tried to examine the effect of introducing collocations on the small screen of mobile phones on collocations retention of Iranian Lower-Intermediate EFL learners. She also investigated the participants' attitudes toward learning vocabulary via SMS.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Over the past two decades there appear to be a paradigmatic shift away from education and training to learning; from teacher-centered to student-centered education; from rote learning to learning as reflection; and from face-to face to distance and e-learning (Jarvia, Holford, & Griffin, 2003). The dominant features of this shift are the rapid growth of information and communication technologies, the innovative application of technology which enhances the delivery of education. The wave of interest in the educational potential of handheld technology is seen as a deliberate effort aimed at "domesticating" mobile devices for educational purposes (Bachmair, 2007, p.106). Mobile devices are today seen as offering new learning possibilities which represent a dynamic change in the strategies employed by learners and their production and consumption of learning products (Conole et al 2008). There is considerable interest from educators and technical developers in exploiting the unique capabilities and characteristics of mobile technologies to enable new and engaging forms of learning (Naismith, Lonsdale, Vavoula, & Sharples, 2004).

According to Geddes (2004), mobile learning is identified both by being available "anywhere, anytime", we learn across space as we take ideas and learning resources gained in one location and apply them in another. We learn across time, by revisiting knowledge that was gained earlier in a different context through ideas and strategies gained in early years providing a framework for a lifetime learning (Vovoula and Sharples, 2002).

The effectiveness of using SMS-based mobile learning to support classroom teaching of English phrases to high school students in rural Nigeria was carried out by Vivian Ogochukwu Nwaocha; at National Open University of Nigeria (2009). In order to determine if there were significant differences between students' success rate, pretests were administered to the experimental and control groups, after both received classroom instructions from the same Instructor. Subsequently, posttests were administered to both groups, after the experimental and control groups had received SMS-based instruction and extra classroom instructions respectively. The results clearly revealed that after receiving the SMS-based instruction, the experimental group performed better than their counterparts who had received additional classroom instructions.

Cavus and Ibrahim (2009) investigated the use of wireless technologies in education with particular reference to the potential of learning new technical English language words using SMS. The system, developed by the authors and called mobile learning tool (MOLT), was tested with 45 1st-year undergraduate students. During the experiment, new words and their meanings were sent to students throughout the day in half hourly intervals and their learning abilities were assessed by performing on tests before and after the experiment. The results showed that students "enjoyed and learned new words with the help of their mobile phones" (p. 89).

Lu (2008) examined the effectiveness of SMS vocabulary lessons of limited lexical information on the small screens of mobile phones. Students recognized more vocabulary during the posttest after reading the regular and brief SMS lessons than they did after reading the relatively more detailed print material. Levy and Kennedy (2005) created a similar program for Italian learners in Australia, sending vocabulary words and idioms, definitions, and example sentences via SMS in a spaced and scheduled pattern of delivery, and requesting feedback in the form of quizzes and follow up questions.

Yanjie Song (2008) explored the role of SMS in English as Second Language (ESL) vocabulary learning for mobile audiences. In his research, SMS was integrated into web-based vocabulary learning, and ten participants were involved. An online test system was set-up for recorded assessment data collection, and an open-ended questionnaire interview was

conducted via e-mail to collect qualitative data. The research findings showed significant improvements in the learner performance and in their attitudes towards using SMS in their vocabulary learning.

Thornton and Houser (2002; 2003; 2005) also developed several innovative projects using mobile phones to teach English at a Japanese university. One focused on providing vocabulary instruction by SMS. Three times a day, they emailed short mini-lessons to students, sent in discrete chunks so as to be easily readable on the tiny screens. Lessons defined five words per week, recycled previous vocabulary, and used the words in various contexts, including episodic stories. Students were tested biweekly and compared to groups that received identical lessons via the Web and on paper. The results indicated that the SMS students learned over twice the number of vocabulary words as the Web students, and that SMS students improved their scores by nearly twice as much as students who had received their lessons on paper.

Finally, since there is a paucity of research in the educational context in Iran in this field especially collocations, this study is aimed at analyzing teaching and learning in the context of education via mobile phones. In other words, it seeks to reveal whether Short Message service have any effect on the retention of collocations among lower intermediate learners. To this end, this study was implemented in order to understand the amount of collocations development and retention after five weeks.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS

To achieve the goals of the present quasi-experimental study, the following research questions were posed:

Q1: Does Short Message Service have any effect on the retention of collocations of Iranian lower Intermediate EFL learners?

Q2: What are Iranian EFL learner's attitudes towards learning collocations via mobile phone?

To come up with reasonable results on the basis of the aforementioned research question, the following null hypothesis was proposed:

H₀₁. Short Message Service does not have any significant effect on the retention of collocations among Iranian lower Intermediate EFL learners.

H₀₂. Iranian EFL learners do not have any positive attitude toward learning collocations via mobile phone.

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

In this study, sample population was selected out of 110 lower intermediate EFL learners who were studying five majors (Primary Education, Visual Arts, Educational affairs and Special Education) at Hashemi Nezhad Teaching Training Center (TTC) of Mashhad, Iran. Due to the gender segregation rules at TTC, only female students participated in this project. The participants' age ranged from 19-25. In order to homogenize the participant and make sure about their general proficiency level, a Nelson Test (series 200A) was administered to the participants. Having analyzed the data, 40 participants who scored more than 30 were chosen as the subjects of this study, therefore they were randomly assigned into experimental and control group with 20 in each group.

B. Instrumentation

First, the participants' general proficiency was assessed using the standardized 200A test of Nelson English Tests (book 2, Intermediate) developed by Fowler and Coe (1976) to ensure the homogeneity of the groups at the very beginning of the course. The reliability of the tests was estimated by Cronbach's Alpha which is ($r = .816$). It consisted of three sections: cloze tests, structure, and vocabulary in the form of multiple choice questions. There were, in all, 50 items and the time allotted was 45 minutes.

Second, a researcher-made collocation test was administered as pretest. It consisted of 40 multiple choice questions. These collocations were chosen from *"Essential Idioms in English, Phrasal Verbs and Collocations"* (by Dixon, 2003). Each collocation was checked again in 'Oxford Collocations Dictionary'. Since the time interval between the pretest and posttest was long enough, the same pretest was used as posttest too. Based on (Hatch & Farhady, 1982, p. 22), we can use pretest as posttest, if there is more than two weeks duration between them. This lower intermediate collocation test was conducted again as posttest at the end of the course in order to measure the progress of learner's retention of collocation. The reliability calculated through Cronbach's Alpha is ($r = 0.542$).

Third, participants in both groups took two quizzes without knowing the date of administration. On the fourth session when the students had learned 21 collocations via three messages or three papers, the first quiz was administered. Participants took the second quiz on the seventh session when they had learned 42 collocations via six messages or six papers. In experimental group, participants received the quizzes via SMS, whereas in control group the participants took quizzes on paper. Both groups had only ten minutes to answer the questions. Each quiz consisted of ten fill-in blank questions. The reliability of both quizzes was estimated by Cronbach's Alpha which were respectively (0.672) and (0.754).

Finally, participants in experimental group were requested to fill out an attitude questionnaire both before and after the treatment in order to collect students' language learning attitudes and insights for use of SMS in the retention of collocation. Having emphasized to avoid writing their names at top of the page, the researcher coded the questionnaire by

numbers so that the students could honestly respond the questions with no limitation. This questionnaire was formed in 5-point Likert Scale type questions, consisting of 15 items about learning collocations via SMS. Since participants were lower intermediate, the items were written in Farsi so that the students were able to answer the questions. It should be mentioned that items 7 and 9 were prepared to find out what improvements or modifications the students wishes to see in using SMS for learning collocations through SMS. This questionnaire was piloted by the researcher on the same level of participants. Having analyzed the data, the results showed that the reliability of this questionnaire was estimated through Cronbach's Alpha as (0.743).

C. Procedure

At first, a Nelson test was administered to 110 lower intermediate EFL learners who were studying five majors other than English. Having analyzed the data, forty students who scored above 30 were chosen for this study. Before the beginning of the experiment it was checked if all the participants had mobile phones. The model and the features of mobile phones were not important in this experiment because any mobile phone can receive and display short message texts. Then, they were randomly assigned into experimental and control group with 20 in each group.

Participants in both groups took pretest. In order to make sure that all the collocations were new and unfamiliar to both groups; we analyzed the students' responses on the pretest. When 80 percentages of students (32 students) answered one question correctly, we should omit that collocation because almost all the students could recognize the meaning. As a result in this test, there were no items that thirty two students or more could response correctly.

After that, participants in experimental group were asked to fill out an attitude questionnaire to collect their attitudes for the use of SMS in the retention of collocations before participating in the treatment. This questionnaire consisted of fifteen items. Each question was used to represent whether or not there is a positive response to the use of SMS in learning collocations.

During 10 sessions of treatment 70 collocations followed by definitions and example sentences were given to students. In the experimental group, SMS were delivered in a scheduled pattern of delivery two times a week on Saturdays and Mondays at 9.00 p.m. Each message contained seven collocations as well as descriptions and examples. Totally 10 messages were sent during five weeks. The descriptions and examples were chosen as short as possible, so that the students could read these messages on their small screens without having to scroll down many times. In order to make sure that all the students in experimental group received the messages correctly and completely, they were requested to send a text message including "OK". In control group, the participants were given a list of collocations on paper followed by definition and example sentences two times a week just like the experimental group.

Moreover, participants in both groups took two quizzes without knowing the date of administration. On the fourth session when the students had learned 21 collocations via three messages or three papers, the first quiz was administered. After that, Participants took the second quiz on the seventh session when they had learned 42 collocations via six messages or six papers. In experimental group, participants received the quizzes via SMS, whereas in control group the participants took quizzes on paper. Both groups had only ten minutes to answer the questions.

Having finished the treatment (5 weeks, 10 sessions), students in both groups participated for the posttest. The researchers administered the pretest as posttest to see the effects of the treatment during the study.

At the end, the participants in experimental group were asked to fill out the attitude questionnaire again in order to find out whether their attitudes for the use of SMS in the retention of collocations have changed or not. This questionnaire consists of fifteen items. Each question was used to represent whether or not there is a positive response to the use of SMS in learning collocation. Items 7 and 9 were prepared to find out what improvements or modifications were needed for further researches.

V. RESULTS

In order to answer the research questions regarding the difference between the two different instructions, this study carried out four independent sampled *t*-tests and three paired sampled *t*-tests. Each *t*-test compared the difference of means between the two conditions in the case of collocations in language ability test, pretest and posttest in experimental and control groups.

TABLE 1.
T-TEST FOR INDEPENDENT SAMPLES OF PRETEST

Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	P
Cont.	20	11.25	4.327	- .548	38	.587
Exp.	20	11.95	3.734			

As shown in Table 1, participants in experimental group ($M = 11.95$, $SD = 3.73$) didn't outperform [$t(38) = -.548$, $p = .587$ (two-tailed)] those in control groups ($M = 11.25$, $SD = 4.32$). That means there is no significant difference between the groups at the beginning of the treatment and they are homogenized.

TABLE 2.
T-TEST FOR INDEPENDENT SAMPLES OF QUIZ 1

Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	P
Cont.	20	4.6	2.30	- 4.41	38	0.00
Exp.	20	7.35	1.56			

As Table 2 reveals, participants in experimental group ($M=7.35$, $SD=1.56$) significantly outperformed [$t(38) = -4.41$, $p = 0.00$ (two-tailed)] those in control group ($M = 4.6$, $SD = 2.30$) in quiz 1.

TABLE 3.
T-TEST FOR INDEPENDENT SAMPLES OF QUIZ 2

Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	P
Cont.	20	4.0	2.24	- 4.83	38	0.00
Exp.	20	7.35	2.13			

As Table 3 reveals, participants in experimental group ($M=7.35$, $SD=2.13$) significantly outperformed [$t(38) = -4.83$, $p = 0.00$ (two-tailed)] those in control group ($M = 4$, $SD = 2.24$) in quiz 2.

TABLE 4.
T-TEST FOR INDEPENDENT SAMPLES OF POSTTEST

Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	P
Cont.	20	19	6.22	- 8.75	38	0.00
Exp.	20	33.05	3.57			

As Table 4 reveals, participants in experimental group ($M=33.05$, $SD = 3.57$) significantly outperformed [$t(38) = -8.75$, $p = 0.00$ (two-tailed)] those in control group ($M = 19$, $SD = 6.22$) in posttest section.

TABLE 5.
T-TEST FOR PAIRED SAMPLES OF CONTROL GROUP

Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	P
Cont.	20	11.25	4.32	- 9.75	19	0.00
Exp.	20	19	6.22			

As Table 5 reveals, after ten sessions of treatment, participants in control group ($M = 19$, $SD = 6.22$) significantly outperformed [$t(19) = -9.75$, $p = 0.00$ (two-tailed)] those before the beginning of treatment ($M = 11.25$, $SD = 4.32$). It can be concluded that control group developed learning collocations after receiving their definitions and example sentences on papers.

TABLE 6.
T-TEST FOR PAIRED SAMPLES OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	P
Cont.	20	11.95	3.73	- 30.67	19	0.00
Exp.	20	33.05	3.57			

As Table 6 reveals, after ten sessions of treatment, participants in experimental group ($M = 33.05$, $SD = 3.57$) significantly outperformed [$t(19) = -30.67$, $p = 0.00$ (two-tailed)] those before the beginning of treatment ($M = 11.95$, $SD = 3.73$). It can be concluded that experimental group developed learning collocations after receiving their definitions and example sentences via SMS.

Seemingly, both groups (control and experimental) achieved collocation knowledge after receiving different treatment based on the research aims. But the results revealed the fact that experimental group significantly outperformed control group on collocation test, these results showed that SMS improved learners' collocation knowledge more effectively.

TABLE 7.
T-TEST FOR PAIRED SAMPLES OF ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE SCORES

Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	P
Cont.	20	46.4	8.78	- 8.31	19	0.00
Exp.	20	65.2	4.22			

As Table 7 reveals, after ten sessions of treatment, participants in experimental group ($M = 65.2$, $SD = 4.22$) significantly had more positive attitudes [$t(19) = -8.31$, $p = 0.00$ (two-tailed)] than those before the beginning of treatment ($M = 46.4$, $SD = 8.78$). This illustrates a positive perspective toward learning via SMS.

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on the obtained results of this study, participants in SMS group could significantly outperform the ones in conventional/paper group, so SMS has effect on the retention of collocations among Iranian lower intermediate EFL learners. On the other hand, students have positive attitudes toward learning collocations via SMS. It was evidently shown in their posttest scores.

Besides, the findings of this study may have some hints for English teachers and educators. One of the effective implementation of mobile learning requires a pedagogical approach, identification of specific learning needs and goals. So, the teachers should be directly involved in decisions on planning and curriculum use (Perry, 2003). SMS can be a complementary teaching material that offers multiple learning opportunities. With support from technology advancement, other forms of SMS application in second language acquisition are around the corner, for example, quizzes via SMS and marking with immediate feedback, classroom monitoring and control using SMS, a classroom response system using SMS as a tool for conducting language activities, learning projects integrated with more 'game' elements (Naismith et al. 2005).

The second point is that the personal and collaborative nature of mobile devices can encourage participation and build social capital, which can be alternative instructional tool for learners of special needs, for example disengaged or at risk students. So, learning through SMS improves students' motivation and can involve them more actively and interactively.

The third point is that future technology developers should find ways to take advantages of m-learning to increase the students' exposure to the target language and ensure that this new learning is highly situated, personal, collaborative, and long term; in other words, truly learner-centered learning. Educators will need to adapt from a role as transmitters of knowledge to guiders of learning resources.

Finally, the anytime, anywhere capabilities of mobile devices encourage learning experiences outside of formal education. It should be mentioned that the beauty of this system is that the learning process takes place away from the classroom environment while the students are involved with their everyday activities. So, teachers can utilize SMS as a supporting learning tool to teach collocations and spend the constrained time of class to other skills such as listening or writing.

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Ibn Khaldun and Some Classic Views in 20th Century Linguistics

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Abstract—The *Muqaddimah* of Ibn Khaldun or the *Prolegomena* (in Greek), is a book written by the Arab North African's Ibn Khaldun who records an early view of universal history. We need to point out that some modern thinkers view it as the first work dealing with the: philosophy of history, or the social sciences of sociology, demography, historiography or cultural history, and economics. We need to add that the *Muqaddimah* also deals with Islamic theology, political theory and the natural sciences of biology and chemistry. Ibn Khaldun wrote the work in 1377 as the preface or first book of his planned world history, the *Kitab al-Ibar* (lit. Book of Advice), but already in his lifetime it became regarded as an independent work. The following article will try to make a comparison between Ibn Khaldun's linguistic work in his *Muqaddimah* and some Western linguists i.e., Chomsky and Bloomfield. We have found that it is really mazing and interesting to show that there are some ideas, concepts, etc., discussed by Ibn Khaldun, appears again by some linguists who live in the 20th century.

Index Terms—classical linguistics, sociology and sociolinguistics, syntax/grammar, Al-Muqaddimah/introduction, competence, performance, meaning, situation

I. PURPOSE

The purpose of my paper is to present an to make a comparison for some important work in linguistics by a person, who lived in 734 / 1333 AD to 780 / January of 1379 AD, before scientists like Chomsky, and Bloomfield..etc. This person came from Arabia (North Africa).

It should be pointed out that it is very difficult to the reader of Ibn Khaldun's book (The Introduction) to translate, or sometimes to understand what he meant exactly, because his language was somewhat cryptic, full of metaphors. Besides he wrote his book in five months in the year of 779 / 1358 AD.

I would like to point out to the section '7' I have discussed Ibn Khaldun's ideas and discussion about, 'language is form', and 'interconnection of language and history' but without any comparison between him and any Western linguist.

II. INTRODUCTION

It is an important contribution to the history of linguistics to show that some ideas and concepts reappear over and over again in the course of time. By presenting some of the central ideas of Ibn Khaldun and comparing them with the ideas of modern writers like, Chomsky and Bloomfield we may gain more truthful picture of the development of linguistic as a matter of science.

In the next section I will present the concepts which will be compared in this paper. I also find it necessary to give a presentation of Ibn Khaldun's work and ideas.

III. BACKGROUND: SOME IMPORTANT THEMES IN 20TH CENTURY LINGUISTICS AND IN THE WRITINGS BY IBN KHALDUN

A. Competence

Every science attempts to find some underlying regularities in order to formulate general knowledge.

In modern linguistics both Saussure and Chomsky have used the terms 'langue, and competence', respectively to refer to an abstract level of linguistic knowledge.

Interestingly enough, the Arabic writer Ibn Khaldun flourishing in the 14th century used the term *Al MalakaH* *AllisanyaH* to refer to a similar concept.

B. Performance

Both Saussure and Chomsky also postulated a purely observational level of language which they termed 'parole' and 'performance', respectively.

It seems that Ibn Khaldun in his use of the term *Al Ada Alluqawi* referred to a similar concept.

C. Meaning and Situation

Studies in pragmatics strongly suggest that the meanings of linguistic expressions are highly sensitive to the situations where they are used.

Bloomfield, in his behaviouristic view of meaning strongly emphasised this.

Ibn Khaldun also observed this interdependence between meaning and situation.

In this paper I will compare the above three concepts as they have been expressed in writing by Ibn Khaldun, Chomsky, and Bloomfield.

IV. IBN KHALDUN = [IBN KHALDUN]

Ibn Khaldun = (Ibn Khaldun) / (1333 to 1379 AD) was one of the strongest personalities of Arabo-Muslim culture in the period of its decline. He is generally regarded as: a historian, sociologist, and philosopher. Thus his life has given rise to the most varied and even the most contradictory interpretations.

The Arabic book I have used here, is "Ibn Khaldun's Introduction" republished in 1984. From reading this book I have become aware of similarities between Ibn Khaldun's ideas and Western ideas by the aforementioned writers.

Dr. Zakaria, M (1986), I have found it very useful to present here, and it was the main book I have used to deal with my topic. This book has discussed and demonstrated the main cases which Ibn Khaldun has talked about on one hand, and comparing these theories with the modern theories according to the Western linguists like, Chomsky, Bloomfield, etc on the other hand.

Zakaria (1986), also has chosen specific subjects from Ibn Khaldun's book, these subjects are concerned mostly with "Competence, Language, and the Grammar of competence", etc. Nevertheless, Ibn Khaldun's book dealt very much with sociology. Besides that Ibn Khaldun's book includes many other subjects which dealt with linguistic problems, dialects, solidarity, abbreviation, theology, etc.

Note, in addition to the book I have mentioned above I have also studied the original text too.

A. *His Life.*

Ibn Khaldun was born in Tunisia, in Ramadan of May 734 / 1333. From an 'Arab family' which came originally from the Hadramawt = (South Yemen before). He had a great grandfather, Abu Bakr Ibn Al-Hasan who wrote a treatise on Adab al-Katib = (literature of writer), (Lewis et al, 1971, p. 825).

Ibn Khaldun's life was divided into three parts:

1. The period up to 20 years was occupied by his childhood and education.
2. At the age of 23, continuing his studies, he started taking an interest in politics.
3. At the age of 31 he was established as a scholar, teacher and magistrate.

The first two periods were spent in the Muslim West and the third was divided between the Maghrib = (Morocco), and Egypt.

B. *His Work*

Ibn Khaldun was known primarily for his writing on morals in:

Al-Ciḥār [al-ḥiḥār] = (**The Morals**)

and his writing on language and sociology in:

Al-Muqaddimah = (**Introduction**)

But he wrote other works which have not all survived.

1. Al-Ciḥār = (**The Morals**)

This book contains an intelligent arrangement of facts and detail and the scope of the account, remains, in the opinion of the specialist who has made most use of it, an incomparable tool, particularly "for the two centuries nearest to our author, the 13th and the 14th". It should also be added that this work, often disappointing on the history of the East, is generally valuable especially for the Muslim West, and in particular for the Berbers. I have found it interesting to give an overview of this book, because it considers as the second main book to Ibn Khaldun, but the main book which I am going to deal with in the present paper is 'The Introduction' which will be discussed below.

2. Al-Muqaddimah = (**The Introduction**)

His main work has universal value; In the author's intention, and as the title indicates, it is an introduction to the historian's craft. It is presented as an encyclopaedic synthesis of the methodological and cultural knowledge necessary to enable the historian to produce a truly scientific work.

His Exposition in Al-Muqaddimah = (**The Introduction**).

Ibn Khaldun divided his introduction into six long chapters which in their turn are subdivided into many paragraphs of varying lengths and often mathematically arranged.

Chapter (1). A general treatise on human society. He made an outline of this study of the influence of environment on human nature, an ethnological and an anthropological study.

Chapter (2). On the societies of rulers, and generally speaking, fairly primitive civilisation.

Chapter (3). On the different forms of government, on states and situations.

Chapter (4). On the societies of urban civilisation. That is of the most developed and sophisticated forms of civilisation.

Chapter (5). On industries and economic affairs in general.

Chapter (6). On scholarship, literature and cultural matters (Lewis et al, 1971, p. 829) not inflectional rules by itself'.

Thus the atypical figure of Ibn Khaldun in Arabo-Muslim culture has been unanimously considered since his discovery in Europe, as that of an authentic genius, "un penseur genial et aberrant" whose *Muqaddima* represents 'one of the solemn moments of human thought'. (Lewis et al, 1971, p. 830)

Ibn Khaldun's life has been judged variously, and in general rather severely. There is certainly no doubt that he behaved in a detached, self-interested, haughty, ambitious, and equivocal manner. He does not attempt to hide this and openly describes in his *Taqwīm* = (definition), his successive changes of allegiance. He has been accused of fickleness and a lack of patriotism. Ibn Khaldun was an astonishingly clear thinker as he proves in his *Muqaddima* = (Introduction). It is true that his behaviour was dictated by ambition, the desire of power, a taste for adventure, and even a complete ruthlessness in political matters; but it is unlikely that this was all. It would be strange if the theoretician of *ʿAsabiyya* = (Purism) did not envisage a plan, perhaps rather vague, for the restoration of Arabo-Muslim civilisation which he clearly saw to be in its death-throes. (Lewis et al, 1971, p. 828).

V. COMPARISON AND THEORETICAL DISCUSSION

First of all I would like to mention the problems which have been discussed from some of Western linguists during the present century, then I will introduce Ibn Khaldun's ideas after each one of these problems.

These linguists are as follows: Chomsky, and Bloomfield.

A. Chomsky, and Ibn Khaldun; "Competence & Performance"

1. Chomsky

Chomsky is best known for his syntactic description of language (presented in 1965 in *Aspects of the theory of syntax*).

Chomsky (1965) uses his term competence to denote an individual's knowledge of language.

One of the most striking features of 'competence' is Chomsky's idea of underlying deep structures in syntax. This idea seems to be coherent with the abstractness of competence: competence is not directly open to inspection.

It is not quite clear how Chomsky thinks competence is reflected in performance. What he has pointed out is that mistakes in performance occur very often because of psychological reasons like, division of attention, and nervousness. So Chomsky disregards much data and every kind of grammar mistake.

It should be pointed out that such data occurs frequently in ordinary spoken language.

I have found it necessary to mention Chomsky's definitions of 'competence, and performance' and their connection with the terms, 'speaker, listener, and acceptability' according to Chomsky:

A) **Competence** is the knowledge of users of a language about the language.

B) **Performance** according to Chomsky, is the use of the language in practice or, in concrete situations.

C) I could say here that the performance is the direct reflection of competence. But this is not the case for there are so many false starts, deviation from rules, etc in natural speech situation.

D) On the other hand, according to Chomsky; All of the communications are effective!..because both: **speaker & listener** have competence of a language and are involved in performance.

E) The term of **Acceptability** refers to utterances that are perfectly natural and immediately comprehensible without paper and pencil analysis and in no way bizarre or outlandish. Acceptability is a concept that belongs to the study of performance and grammaticality belongs to the study of performance.

2. Ibn Khaldun [Ibn Khaldun]

Ibn Khaldun's idea here which had come before Chomsky is; *Almalaka* *lisan* means 'tongue's management', roughly, = 'competence', which is to have competence generally, and differs from how to show this competence in communication. The term of 'how to show this competence' is; *Al Ada* *Allug=awi* means 'linguistic performance' = 'performance'. Then competence is guiding performance. (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1083, 1081)

Ibn Khaldun added, 'the knowledge of inflectional rules like we find in syntax or in language rule is not an inflectional rule by itself'. (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1082)

Then competence is the ability to use language in the right way= 'the right and correct way', in different situations for speaking or writing, and it is not necessary to fulfil the inflection rules precisely. (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1082)

This shows that Ibn Khaldun had some general ideas about the importance of pragmatics.

1) Ibn Khaldun's definition of competence.

"Competence is characters, and colours which do not crowd at once or at the moment. And the best type of it which occurs by nature". (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 721).

He meant, that the competence does not come immediately, but gradually in the acquisition of language, besides his idea was that language should be learned in natural situations.

Observe, Ibn Khaldun warned against the mixing of languages both for, religious reasons and for protecting competence.

Ibn Khaldun gave also special definitions of competence:

a) competence is the knowledge of communication and expression

b) competence (lexicon quantity) can differ from one society to another.

c) competence consists of sounds which connected with meaning.

d) competence is tongue action.

e) competence is convention.

From the above five definitions according to Ibn Khaldun we can consider the advance, or the value of these definitions in modern linguistics.

2) Competence conditions

According to Ibn Khaldun, competence needs certain conditions to develop. Two very general conditions are:

(1). a good teacher,

(2). a good dialect area.

I think it is important to point out that, Ibn Khaldun is much more concrete in his discussion of competence than Chomsky. Chomsky's concept of 'innate ideas' is much abstract than Ibn Khaldun's. Since Ibn Khaldun thinks that a good teacher, e.g. can serve as a model for competence, then it is quite clear that performance and competence are two sides of the same coin: the good teachers performance is a model of competence for learning students. In the same way we could also understand Ibn Khaldun's ideas about 'good dialect area'.

Then Ibn Khaldun goes on to mention some more special conditions, I will try to translate them as much as I can:

AlmalakaH mustah4kamaH,

A). language must have much poetry.

AlmalakaH g&ayyidaH,

B). the individual must keep by heart the good quality of linguistic details.

AlmalakaH rasih=aH,

C). resistance against bad influence of language.

AlmalakaH tammaH,

D). increasing the conscious knowledge of language.

AlmalakaH mustaqirraH,

E). concentration on the form of the language.

Referring to the previous conditions of competence, Ibn Khaldun had explained an important factor without which the competence would not occur. That is: 'the competence depends on the one and only language, which is the mother tongue or the society language, which is grown up with the person since his/her birth. And it does not relate or connect only by sex = (nationality in Arabic expression), or to a special nation (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1053). Clearly, Ibn Khaldun was language purist.

Ibn Khaldun at the same page above, he discussed and meant the person who grown up in a society who speak only one language as native, and he did not discuss the society who speak two languages (bilingual), or more as native.

Also Ibn Khaldun added here, 'if the foreign tongue preceded the mother tongue for certain person in certain society, since childhood this decrease the level of competence in his or her mother tongue'. (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1053)

Ibn Khaldun's definition of competence consisted of six main statements:

(1). competence or (language) is the knowledge of communication and expression.

(2). competence or (language) form's which is vary from one society to another.

(3). competence or (language) consists of sounds which contains on meaning or (semantic).

(4). competence or (language) is tongue action.

(5). competence or (language) is convention.

(6). speaking (as the result of competence) is the main process.

Ibn Khaldun as we have seen above, has mentioned six definitions which are related to competence, and language descriptions, which have been discussed in linguistics during the modern time.

3) Destroying competence

According to Ibn Khaldun, there are certain threats against linguistic competence;

a) spoilt competence, Ibn Khaldun had explained how the competence may be spoilt, if a speaker is exposed to another language. And he had given an example about how the Arabic tongue spoilt gradually after communicating with non-Arabic people, then competence started becoming weaker, because of this foreigner tongue. (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p.1056-1057)

b) the mix of competence, also according to Ibn Khaldun the speaker's competence of his real mother tongue will be reduced = (competence according to Ibn Khaldun expression) because of some reasons:

(1). the interaction between the mother tongue and some other languages,

(2). this interaction will generate new competence, because of this mix which happened between two or more kinds of competence. e.g. the Arabo-Islamic domain conquered a big part of the world, and that time this interaction between the Arabic and the rest of the local languages took place (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1079)

c) competence change, Ibn Khaldun explained that this change could be observed morphologically in word inflection. However this competence (classic mother tongue according to Ibn Khaldun) was spoilt when Arabic spread to; As&s&am = (Syria, Jordan, Lebanon, & Palestine), Egypt, and North Africa= (Tones, Algeria, and Morocco), then the speaker's competence of this tongue changed into that of another language. (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1074-1075)

Later, Ibn Khaldun observed that, 'to keep this competence= (classic mother tongue) we can protect it from being mixed spoiling with other languages.

Then he also gave a definition of competence: 'It is a particular character that we can deal with in order to feed it and to make it rich'.

Then Ibn Khaldun ended up with performance which he characterized, as much as good= (the good knowledge) that each person keep in his brain or by listening, to use this language and this will expand his competence (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p.1112)

Ibn Khaldun wanted to concentrate on a very important point here, this point deals with high or the highest level of language. And he recommended us to concentrate our efforts to keep and to deal always with the highest level of language= (that is the language of Qur-an). And as much as each person keeps of language as much as he or/she serves his or/her language in the best way, then their competence becomes stronger. Also Ibn Khaldun has hinted to the variation of perception between persons and explained that it (perception) differs in degree between individuals, and this difference connected with what type of perception and competence affected on this person from outside.

3. The comparison between Ibn Khaldun and Chomsky

Competence and Performance

A) Similarities

The terms competence and performance

1). Chomsky (1965) uses the term competence to refer to the individual's knowledge of language. Chomsky also introduced the term performance for referring to observable behaviour on part of the language user.

Ibn Khaldun used the term Al MalakaH AllisanyyaH = 'competence' for referring to a similar concept as Chomsky has done. In a similar way like Chomsky, Ibn Khaldun also talked about observable behaviour and then used the term Al Ada Alluqawi = 'performance'

Both writers seem to postulate an abstract level of linguistic knowledge and one more observable level of language.

So far there are striking similarities between the two writers, but I will argue that there are also differences.

B) The Differences

1). Innate ideas

Chomsky's competence exists inside every human being and his innate idea much abstract than Ibn Khaldun.

Ibn Khaldun 'Innate idea' he thinks that e.g. a good teacher can serve as a model for competence, so he thinks you acquire language just by learn it.

2). Competence and language acquisition

Chomsky. Learning language is not necessary by natural situation.

Ibn Khaldun. Language should be learned in natural situation.

3). Conditions of competence

Chomsky. Competence do not require any condition.

Ibn Khaldun. To develop competence needs certain conditions: a good teacher, and a good dialect area.

Ibn Khaldun mentioned five conditions related to competence. Besides that he explained important factor too: 'the competence depends on the one and only language which is the mother tongue or the society language, which is grown up with the person since his/her birth. And it does not relate or connect only by sex = (nationality in Arabic expression), or to a special nation' (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1053).

4). Mixing language

Chomsky. Was not warred against the mixing of language.

Ibn Khaldun. Was warred against the mixing of languages for two reasons: religious reason (to keep Quran language), and to protect competence (the unmixed language).

5). Competence in general

Chomsky. Studied competence mostly.

Ibn Khaldun. Concentrated more on both competence and performance (for reasons have to do with 'language purism') and we see this in his 'Introduction' repeated several times.

The differs is that how to show this competence in communication. Ibn Khaldun hinted above to how to show to the individual style for the knowledge of language. Also his definitions of competence which are additional information corresponding to his definition above:

a) competence is the knowledge of communication and expression

b) competence (lexicon quantity) can differ from one society to another.

c) competence consists of sounds which connected with meaning.

d) competence is tongue action.

e) competence is convention.

6). Performance style

Chomsky.in performance. Disregards much data and every kind of grammar mistake.

Ibn Khaldun performance. Is to use language in the right and correct way, and in different situations for speaking or writing, and it is not necessary to fulfil the inflection rules precisely.

This shows Ibn Khaldun's idea about the importance of pragmatics.

7). Relation between performance and competence

Chomsky. Does not give account for the relation between performance and competence except for some remarks

about performance errors.

Ibn Khaldun. Said that performance and competence are two sides of same coin: the good teachers performance is a model of competence for learning students, besides his idea about 'good dialect area'.

8). Focusing their studies

Chomsky. Concentrated more on the concept of competence.

Ibn Khaldun. Concentrated on both concepts competence and performance in parallel.

9). Language purism

Chomsky. Was not language purist.

Ibn Khaldun. Was really language purist. The above discussion showed us this character of him.

10). Performance mistakes

Chomsky argued that mistakes in performance occurs very often because of psychological reason/s like, division of attention, and nervousness, etc.

Ibn Khaldun. referred under the section (5.B, 3) 'destroying competence' that there are certain threats against linguistic competence which mentioned above are:

a) spoilt competence, Ibn Khaldun had explained how the competence may be spoilt, if a speaker is exposed to another language.

b) the mix of competence, also according to Ibn Khaldun the speaker's competence of his real mother tongue will be reduced because of some reasons:

(1). the interaction between the mother tongue and some other languages,

(2). this interaction will generate new competence, because of this mix which happened between two or more kinds of competence.

c) competence change, Ibn Khaldun explained that this change could be observed morphologically in word inflection.

11). The term 'acceptability'

Chomsky defined and discussed the term of 'acceptability' as a concept that belongs to the study of performance and grammaticality belongs to the study of performance.

Ibn Khaldun his view was more to concentrate on performance, for reasons having to do with 'language purist'. Besides he did not discuss the term of acceptability in separate.

I think that Ibn Khaldun's discussion and definitions were wider and more precise than Chomsky's discussion in the aspects of 'competence and performance'. The above comparison showed us these differences clearly.

B. Ibn Khaldun [Ibn XHaldun] and the Connection between Syntax and Semantics

1. Chomsky

Chomsky has discussed this phenomenon and his view was, syntax and the structure of sentence says can be studied independently of meaning, and this is really strong claim.

Not all linguists, however, have supported Chomsky's claim. In formal semantics, for example, there is an assumption that syntax and semantics are dependent on each other.

2. Ibn Khaldun [Ibn XHaldun]

Ibn Khaldun classified "the Arabic tongue"= (Arabic language) into four parts or subjects: language, syntax, rhetoric, and literature. (It is a little mysterious to mention language and syntax as two different subjects . The explanation may be that he meant something more special by the term language) Then he explained, we can say here that syntax is very important, and by syntax we can recognize the main intention of semantics or (meaning), by intuitively observing syntactical relations like, subject and object, topic and comment, we will find out the meaning of the sentence. (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1059)

So, that means that they are not separated in Ibn Khaldun's theory of language.

Then Ibn Khaldun gave us examples from Arabic, and how when we change the subdivision movement positions (or anyone of them) this will change the whole meaning of the sentence, phrase, or even the word.

Another observation Ibn Khaldun made under 'rhetoric subject's'. He said, "For each occasion for the Arab, there was its own and suitable talk, this talk must be connected very much by this occasion, but this must occur after completing the inflection and its proper meaning". (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1064)

Also Ibn Khaldun referred to the corruption of the Arabic language, and explained, that this corruption was caused by insufficient knowledge of the Arabic rules (syntax). Then he gave an example, that is the same as the person who has only theoretical knowledge of some skill but no practical experience. (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p.1081)

Ibn Khaldun said that language needs two things:

1). Enough rules.

2). Language user who follow the rules. (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1085)

3. The comparison between Ibn Khaldun and Chomsky

Syntax and Semantics

A) The Similarities

1). Syntax and structure

Chomsky discussed the phenomenon of syntax and the structure of sentence independently.

Ibn Khaldun discussed the above phenomenon independently, and showed us through some Arabic examples how when we change the subdivision movement positions (or anyone of them) this will change the whole meaning of the sentence, phrase, or even the word.

2). Language rules (syntax)

Chomsky described the language rules (syntax) and showed the necessity of these rules in the language.

Ibn Khaldun discussed the importance of the language rules (syntax) and explained that language needs two things: enough rules, and user/s who follow these rules.

B) The Differences

1). Syntax and meaning

Chomsky distinguished between syntax and meaning.

Ibn Khaldun did not separate between syntax and semantics in his theory of language.

2). Language tongue

Chomsky did not classify the English tongue (English language)

Ibn Khaldun classified the Arabic tongue (Arabic language) into: language, syntax, rhetoric, and literature (the explanation may be that he meant something more special by the term language).

3). Syntax and semantics

Chomsky discussed the importance of syntax but not the main intention of semantics.

Ibn Khaldun showed the importance of syntax and add that, by syntax we can recognize the main intention of semantics, by intuitively observing syntactical relations like, subject and object, topic and comment, we will find out the meaning of the sentence.

4). Inflection and meaning

Chomsky did not discuss the connection between inflection and its meaning during e.g. specific occasion talk.

Ibn Khaldun under the 'rhetoric subject' said, "for each occasion for the Arab, there was its own and suitable talk, but this must occur after completing the inflection and its proper meaning".

5). Rules corruption

Chomsky did not discuss the corruption of the English rules and or the reasons behind them.

Ibn Khaldun discussed and exemplified the corruption of the Arabic language, and the reasons behind them which are according to Ibn Khaldun are: insufficient knowledge of Arabic rules (syntax).

I think that Ibn Khaldun did not fall in the same claim as Chomsky's did, when he (Chomsky) claim that syntax can be studied independently of meaning.

Also another point I would like to hint to, Ibn Khaldun's use the expression "occasion" shows that he understood that language is connected with the situation where it is used.

Ibn Khaldun as we see above has mentioned meaning, after syntactical analysis, and this may be a reflection of his idea that meaning rests on syntax.

C. Bloomfield and Ibn Khaldun, "Meaning and Situation"

This is the last point I would like to discuss, comparing between Bloomfield and Ibn Khaldun (our scientist in the present study).

1. Bloomfield

Bloomfield (1933) in his stimulus-response view of meaning in language argued that meaning depends heavily on the situation.

Bloomfield has said, that meaning is created by uttering a linguistic form, a speaker prompts his hearer to respond to a situation; this situation and the response to it is the linguistic meaning of that form. Then, and according to Bloomfield also, meaning depends on situation.

2. Ibn Khaldun [Ibn Khaldun]

On the other hand said, "The Arabs were putting things =(uttering expressions) which has meaning by general, then they have used for each particular situations its own particular forms, and this is what has made the variation and the distinction between convention =(to put, according to Arabic) and the use of it".

Ibn Khaldun, gave example; "They have put and used the = (the expression) 'white colour' conventionally and generally for everything which contains white colour. Then they have replaced this expression and this happened because they found that it is necessary to give specific expressions to specific words which depends on particular situation as we will see this in the examples below which Ibn Khaldun gave referring to this discussion, Ashab = (Ashab which is the horse who has the white colour as a property), and Amlah3 = (Amlah which is the sheep who has the white colour as a property), then the use of the white colour (as an expression) for all of the previous examples has corrupted (solecism) its meaning, and have lacked Arabic by using this expression later". (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p.1059)

However, we have seen from the previous explanation and examples, which Ibn Khaldun used, that the Arab used and still the aforementioned forms depending on particular situations.

Later, Ibn Khaldun argued that "competence in language should have a private form for private meaning too, and the difference only depends on the situation" (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1064, and Zakaria, 1986, p. 12)

3. The comparison between Ibn Khaldun and Bloomfield

Meaning and Situation

A) The Similarities

1). Meaning and situation

Bloomfield discussed the idea which says that, every meaning behind any expression depends on a certain situation.

Ibn Khaldun discussed the same idea and said that, the Arab have used for each particular situations its own particular forms, and this what has made the variation occurs between convention and the use of it.

2). Needs and situation

Bloomfield's theory about meaning and situation, still use until today and depends on the needs of certain situation.

Ibn Khaldun. The Arab used (in the past very much) and still (but not as before) his theory also depends on their needs of certain situation.

B) The Differences

1). The study of meaning and situation

Bloomfield discussed this phenomenon specifically.

Ibn Khaldun discussed and exemplified this phenomenon by general.

2). Theory of meaning

Bloomfield talked about the general theory of meaning.

Ibn Khaldun explained the historical change only.

3). What depends on situation?

Bloomfield. Only the meaning depends on situation.

Ibn Khaldun. Language is located in situations which requires:

particular forms to particular meaning. Ibn Khaldun also gave the examples.

4). How is the meaning create?

Bloomfield. Meaning is created by uttering the linguistic forms.

Ibn Khaldun. The Arab more putting things (uttering expressions) which has meaning by general.

5). The reason/s behind meaning and situation

Bloomfield said that there is not necessary to be certain reason/s behind occurring this phenomenon (meaning depends on situation).

Ibn Khaldun said that there must be certain reason/s behind occurring this phenomenon.

Here, we have seen that Ibn Khaldun anticipated Bloomfield's theory that, language is located in situations which requires:

particular forms → to particular meaning

And not only the meaning depends on situation according to Bloomfield.

VI. CONCLUSION

In my view Ibn Khaldun discussed competence in more details than Chomsky which has done. Furthermore, Ibn Khaldun suggested how performance and competence are related to each other, something which Chomsky has never discussed.

I have observed that Ibn Khaldun in his introduction book (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p.1064, and Zakaria, 1986, p.117) contradicted himself referring to what he has said, "that forms are more important than meaning", then he said, "that studying language depends not only on forms, but meaning is the most important", because the last words =(the main conclusion and result' refers to the meaning).

Ibn Khaldun was language purist but not Chomsky. The conditions of competence according to Ibn Khaldun Chomsky did not discuss it. Destroying the competence according to Chomsky is psychological reason/s, but three different reasons according to Ibn Khaldun are mentioned previously. Ibn Khaldun shown the important of pragmatics through his discussion about speaking and writing rules which according to Chomsky disregards much data and every kind of grammar mistake.

Chomsky's claim in studying syntax and the structure of sentence can be studied independently was faced contrastly from Ibn Khaldun's discussion who did not separate between both of them. Ibn Khaldun supported his discussion in examples from Arabic tongue (Arabic language), subdivision movement position, rhetoric subject, occasion's talk, and ended up to the reason/s for corruption the Arabic language. Ibn Khaldun related all the aforementioned elements to the role of syntax. The language according to Ibn Khaldun needs two things: enough rules, and language user/s who follow these rules. It is very clear that Chomsky's claim was a way of Ibn Khaldun's discussion.

Later, Corresponding to Bloomfield and Ibn Khaldun we noticed that Ibn Khaldun anticipated Bloomfield's theory that language is located in situation because of this it needs: a specific form for each specific meaning, but not the meaning depends on situation according to Bloomfield's theory.

"Western reasons for neglecting Arabic linguistics"

I have found it important to mention some of the reasons which have excluded Arabic linguistics from the general history of linguistics:

1. Western linguistics have ignored the Arabic language and its linguistic tradition, the evidence is, Ibn Khaldun's ideas in the present study.

2. They have also neglected the time period during the middle centuries in general, and we know that in precisely this

period the Arabic activities has appeared and developed in the mediaeval time of Europe!

3. Because of prejudice linguists, have no real interest of the civilisations of the other cultures which have no relation with Western society or culture.

4. Arabic linguists are rather weak in modern theory of linguistics nowadays. They have concentrated mostly on classics and traditional studies.

I have noticed also, that Ibn Khaldun connected his studies with the concept of competence very much, and from many perspectives, historically, geographically, accentually, and socially, etc.

VII. IBN KHALDUN 'LANGUAGE IS FORM, AND "THE INTERCONNECTION OF LANGUAGE AND HISTORY"

Under this section I will demonstrate Ibn Khaldun's ideas about 'language is form', and 'the interconnection of language and history' briefly.

A. "Language is Form"

As I have talked in the purpose of this paper that I am going to show Ibn Khaldun's ideas and discussion in both sections 5.2, and 5.3 and without any comparison between him and the other Western linguist.

Ibn Khaldun also discussed this phenomenon by connecting it with language. Language according to Ibn Khaldun depends on forms, which means that to know the linguistic = (syntactic and morphological) forms is the main thing in language, and Ibn Khaldun recognized the importance of forms which are more important than substance or meanings.

Ibn Khaldun said, "know! that making any type of speech depends on forms, not meaning. Meaning and forms always go together".

Here it is quite clear that Ibn Khaldun made a contradiction in his writings, if he says that forms are more important than meanings then form and meaning can not be equally important.

Then Ibn Khaldun exemplified, "the creator of speech deals with forms, and he is guided by his knowledge of high Arabic spoken language, to be understood in the future". (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1110)

Ibn Khaldun continued, "and what is running on our tongue (our communication of language), are forms, but meaning is hiding inside the forms. Moreover the meanings are still inside each person's mind and he could use it anytime he decides to. For a person it does not take efforts to create meaning. On the other hand, forms require more effort". Ibn Khaldun continued, "forms are pattern of meaning". (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p.1111)

The same contradiction as above appears again when Ibn Khaldun considered competence as able for creating new forms, and not new meanings. In addition to his more formal analysis of meaning he also used psychological insights - "psychological interest" - in his semantic analysis. He said "Meaning is always hidden inside human intention" (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1080). This explanation maybe has made him a pioneer in the linguistic field.

Ibn Khaldun ended up "if this forms competence was well controlled, then it removes the ambiguity between forms and meanings. And this is the relation between meanings and forms". (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p. 1052, 1053)

Ibn Khaldun pointed out the importance of the concept intention (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p.1080), and continued, "if the speaker gives the precise expression corresponding to a definite intention then he will remove ambiguity. And this is the real relation between meaning and forms" (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, p.1053-1052).

Then Ibn Khaldun distinguished between, form and substance, and he claimed; that competence is knowing the articulation or pattern which is the meaning content.

It is difficult to know precisely what Ibn Khaldun meant by this.

My interpretation is that competence is knowing how to perform.

B. The Interconnection of Language and History

It seems to me that Ibn Khaldun looked at history from two perspectives, from outside and from inside:

1. External perspective, means to look at history as a set of facts (countries, and past centuries, and books we have received, e.g. morals, celebrations, national change, civilisations, buildings, and destruction)

His idea was that, since everything changes language must also change.

Ibn Khaldun pointed out that the historical changes can be traced in language.

2. Internal perspective, represents a more analytical perspective of history, in this perspective there is a motivation to explain why and how these changes took place. (Ibn Khaldun, 1984, P.2-3)

It is clear that Khaldun's distinction between external and internal is not identical to diachronic and synchronic. Perhaps this distinction is only represents a gradual difference in the awareness that language change and world change are related to each other.

Finally, I would like to say that I have not covered all problems which Ibn Khaldun discussed in his book (The Introduction), but I have tried to translate his ideas and I have tried to analyse some of his ideas and views through the present study as possible. And I wish that this study is going to give to the reader an explicit idea about the role of them. I wish that this study will give the reader an explicit idea about the role of Ibn Khaldun in the history of linguistics

VIII. A NOTE ABOUT ZAKARIA'S AND HIS INTERPRETATION OF IBN KHALDUN'S WRITINGS

Michael Zakaria was born in Lebanon, He graduated from Paris university in linguistics, he has been a university

researcher in Arabic linguistics, he is currently working as a teacher of linguistics in Lebanon university.

His publications include:

1. Linguistics (the modern science of language), Birot, 1980.
2. Arabic grammar, transformation and generation in linguistics, a) the theory of linguistics, Birot 1982, b) the simple sentence.
3. Linguistics (the modern of science language), supplementary reading.
4. The theory of language acquisition, Birot, 1984.
5. Essai une Etude Generative de L'Arabe: syntaxe' Beyrouth, 1984.
6. Zakaria has done researches in:
 - a) comparative analyse between: Arabic and French.
 - b) preposition study in English and comparing it in Arabic preposition.
 - c) participated in teachers association in two activities:
 1. Arabic language activity
 2. teaching Arabic language.

A weak point in Zakaria's book, is that he has adopted and transferred much linguistic information from Ibn Khaldun's original text as it is and without enough or sometimes any interpretation. This is very difficult to understand for highly educated persons who speak Arabic as a native language. I myself have faced this problem in dealing with the original text, because translation is not the most important in these cases but to get to the writer's point of view is the most important, besides the translation from one language to another does not give always the exact meaning.

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A Many-facet Rasch Model to Detect Halo Effect in Three Types of Raters

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Abstract—Raters play a central role in rater-mediated assessment, and rater variability manifested in various forms including rater errors contributes to construct-irrelevant variance which can adversely affect an examinee's test score. Halo effect as a subcomponent of rater errors is one of the most pervasive errors which, if not detected, can result in obscuring an examinee's score and threatening validity and fairness of second language performance assessment. To that end, the present study is an endeavor to detect halo effect in L2 essays, using a relatively newly employed methodology, a many-facet Rasch model (MFRM) in language assessment. The participants in this study consisted of 194 raters—subdivided into self-rater, peer-rater, and teacher rater—who rated 188 essays written by 188 undergraduate Iranian English majors at two state-run universities in Iran. The collected data were rated using a 6-point analytic rating scale and were analyzed using the latest version of Facets 3.68.0 to answer the research question of the study. The results of facets analysis showed that, at group level, the raters did not exhibit any sign of halo effect, but, at individual level, all rater types displayed considerable halo effect. Further analysis revealed that rater types were unanimous about halo effect on four items and that self-rater showed more of a halo effect compared to the other two rater types.

Index Terms—rater variability, rating scale, MFRM, raters, halo effect

I. INTRODUCTION

Rasch models comprise a growing family of models (Fisher, 2007). The basic Rasch model was introduced by the Danish mathematician and statistician George Rasch (1960, 1980) and was later developed and made widely known by Wright (Wright & Stone, 1979). The basic Rasch model was a probabilistic model premised on the assumption that a person's score on a test is the result of the person ability and task difficulty and is mathematically expressed as the probability or likelihood of a particular person with a certain ability on a particular item to get a score right or wrong is the function of the ability of that person and the difficulty of that item (Baghaei, 2009). The basic Rasch model or standard dichotomous model handles dichotomously scored items such as multiple choice items.

Andrich's (1978) rating scale analysis extended the basic Rasch model in which data from likert-type scales could be handled. For Andrich's model, the estimation is based on the probability of a certain candidate with a certain ability of getting a certain score on a scale for an item. Masters's (1982) partial credit model was an extension of Andrich's model in which a range of marks could be awarded to a response depending on its quality. Partial credit model provides information for individual items on rating scale thresholds or steps; in other words, it states how easy or difficult it is for an individual candidate with a certain ability to move from one score point on the scale thresholds to another for an individual item (Bond & Fox, 2007). To put in a nutshell, "Rasch models allow one to make probabilistic statements about item difficulty, candidate ability, and rating scale thresholds. Such statements are expressed in terms of units called logits, the logarithm of the odds of a certain outcome" (McNamara & Adams, 1991, p. 3).

Technically speaking, we still have two facets: ability and difficulty. Linacre (1989/1994) went a step further. He added leniency/severity of judges as a third facet, hence a many-facet Rasch model. The many-facet Rasch model is an extension and generalization of the partial credit model.

In what follows, we will provide the requirements of the many-facet Rasch measurement followed empirical studies done on halo effect. We will then embark upon reviewing halo effect.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Requirements and Assumptions of the Many-facet Rasch Measurement

As was mentioned earlier, the many-facet Rasch measurement belongs to a growing family of Rasch models, which applies to a class of measurement models that aim at providing a fine-grained analysis of multiple variables potentially having an impact on test or assessment outcomes and is usually used for performances that are awarded subjective

ratings, such as essays or speaking assessments (Eckes, 2009). As such, it is no different from other Rasch models in that it must meet certain requirements and assumptions. These requirements include unidimensionality, invariance, additivity, ordering, and fit statistics. Our discussion will be very brief. For a detailed explanation, readers are referred to Baghaei (2009) and Baghaei and Amrahi (2009).

The many-facet Rasch model is unidimensional. In other words, all items on a test should measure the same single underlying variable or construct (Eckes, 2009). The many-facet Rasch measurement is invariant, which means that “parameters—person ability, item difficulty, and judge severity—should be independent of each other” (Linacre, 1989/1994, p. 42). In other words, examinee measures are invariant across different sets of items or tasks or raters and item, task, or rater measures are invariant across different groups of examinees. Invariance is also called specific objectivity (Rasch, 1960), measurement invariance (Bond & Fox, 2007), and parameter separation (Smith, Jr., 2004), which all express more or less the same conceptual notion in that the ability estimates of persons are freed from the distributional properties of the specific item attempted. Likewise, the estimated difficulties of items are freed from the distributional properties of specific people used in the calibration.

The many-facet Rasch measurement is additive, which refers to the properties of the measurement units expressed in logits which are equal-interval over the entire continuum of a scale. In Rasch models, persons and items conjoin to define the common interval scale and item characteristics curves which are based on the estimation and calibration of these two factors should never cross each other, but they should be parallel, the violation of which is unidimensionality (Smith Jr., 2004). This is technically known as ordering. Fit statistics which act as quality control indicators show how closely the data fit the model (Baghaei & Amrahi, 2009). Rasch models are prescriptive, ideal robust models, but data are messy and incomplete and may never perfectly fit the model. As far as the data fit the model usefully, it shows good data-to-model fit.

B. Conceptual Definitions of Halo Effect

Wells (1907) is generally credited with first identifying the effect (Myford & Wolfe, 2004a). Thorndike (1920, p. 25) coined the term and defined it “as a marked tendency to think of the person in general as either good or rather inferior and to color the judgments of the qualities by their general feeling. This same constant error toward suffusing ratings of special features with a halo belonging to the individual as a whole.”

In the field of language testing, Yorozuya and Oller, Jr. (1980) were probably the first researchers to investigate this “judgmental bias,” as they would prefer to call it, and defined it as “a tendency for judges to assign similar scores across the various scales ... For instance, a judge rating an interviewee high on, say, the Vocabulary scale might also assign a high rating on Grammar and each of the other scales quite independently of the constructs supposedly underlying the scales. This kind of judgmental bias could be called a halo effect—a kind of spillover across scales causing them to be more strongly correlated with each other” (p. 136).

In the context of MFRM analysis, the halo effect is defined as “a rater’s tendency to assign ratees similar ratings on conceptually distinct traits” (Myford & Wolf, 2004b, p. 209). In other words, raters fail to distinguish between conceptually distinct and independent aspects of ratees’ performances and give them similar ratings across those traits (Engelhard, 2002). More recently and in line with the above-two mentioned definitions in light of MFRM, Eckes (2009, p. 5) rightly noted that “this effect [halo effect] manifests itself when raters fail to distinguish between conceptually distinct features of examinee performance, but rather provide highly similar ratings across those features; for example, ratings may be influenced by an overall impression of a given performance or by a single feature viewed as highly important.” In this paper, when it comes to halo effect, it is this definition which we will be working with.

C. Approaches to Minimize the Halo Effect

There are many ways to employ to reduce the halo effect as it affects the learner’s performance. Myford and Wolfe (2004a) propose six approaches to minimize it, but we only quote one of them which we used in our study. To minimize halo effect, Myford and Wolfe (2004a, p. 396) recommend researchers to “train raters to be aware of the halo effect and the impact it can have on their ratings so that they can attempt to guard against this tendency.”

D. Studies Done on Halo Effect Using MFRM

Studies having employed MFRM to investigate halo effect are very rare. Below we will mention some of the studies conducted in this area. In a study of Georgia state writing assessment program for 8th-grade students in the USA, Engelhard (1994) employed 15 highly experienced, trained raters to rate 264 compositions, using a 4-point analytic scale on five domains or categories including. He investigated four rater effects: severity or leniency, halo, central tendency, and restriction of range. The results of the Facets analysis of mean square fit statistics showed that two out of 15 raters’ ratings were muted, indicating the presence of halo effect, which means that they tended to rate holistically and failed to differentiate among students. One of these raters rated 8 out of 17 students with uniform rating patterns and the other rater rated 14 out of 21 students with uniform rating patterns.

In L2 field, there are a couple of studies which have investigated halo effect. As early as 1980s in a pioneering work, Yorozuya and Oller, Jr. (1980) used 15 trained graduate and undergraduate native English speakers to rate the tape recorded performances of 10 students on an interview. The ratings were done on two different conditions, using four 10-point scales of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency. Under condition one, the raters rated only one of

the four scales. Under condition two, rated each interview on four scales at one hearing. Stronger higher correlations across scales rated on the same occasion than on separate occasions were indicative of halo effect. Halo effect was manifested under condition one in which all four scales were marked at a single hearing of each interview. Furthermore, the mean squared loading under condition one was .89 and under condition two it was .79. “[This] 10 (10%) difference can be read as a halo effect” (p. 146). Yorozya and Oller, Jr. (1980, p. 146) concluded that “scales rated on the same occasion are contaminated by a sizable halo effect.”

In Japan, in an endeavour to develop a criterion to recommend competent students as professional medical translators to a translation agency for which the translator training program was offered, Kozaki (2004) employed GENOVA and FACETS to set multiple standards on performance assessment. To that end, 9 performances of 20 performances of adult native Japanese speakers with mixed levels of performance in translation from Japanese medical papers to English were chosen. All nine examinees were either professionally or amateurishly involved in translation of Japanese into English. Four professionally and bilingual judges literate in both Japanese and English were chosen to judge the performance of the examinees on a 4-point rating scale on seven assessment categories. The judging consisted of three procedures to arrive at a cut-off score: assessing the categories independently, rank ordering the performances, and pass-fail ratings by at least three judges. Judge behavior was analyzed by Facets to examine judge severity, central tendency, and halo effect. The author showed that raters 1 and 4 assigned unexpectedly harsh ratings to the weakest examinee and unexpectedly lenient ratings to the most able examinee. She interpreted such unexpected ratings to be signs of halo effect, which “judges carry over the impression of competence... creating non-independence of assessment categories... grammar or vocabulary or both” (Kozaki, 2004, pp. 21-22).

In New Zealand, Knock, Read, and von Randow (2007) compared the effectiveness of on line and face-to-face feedback to individual raters within the context of a large-scale academic writing assessment of students entering a major English-medium university. Sixteen highly trained experienced native and non native English as a second language teachers were equally divided into online and face-to-face group. The study was done in four phases: pre-training, training, post-training rating, and post-training feedback. The raters used a 4-9-band rating scale on three categories fluency, context, and form to rate 70 candidates' scripts of the writing sections of the low-stakes test, DELNA. Four rater effects were investigated: rater severity, internal consistency, central tendency and halo effect. Using group and individual statistics indicators of Facets, the authors claimed that at group level there was no sign of halo effect either before or after training, but, at individual level, they argued that very low rater fit mean square indices could be an indication of halo effect. Three raters displayed a halo effect after training and three others rated in a more differentiated fashion after training.

III. THE PRESENT STUDY

The present study uses many-facet Rasch measurement (hereafter MFRM) to detect halo effect in self-raters, peer-raters, and teacher raters. The present study compensates the limitations of the previous studies in the following ways: it incorporates 194 raters, with 188 acting as students raters and six others as teacher raters, it employs English major students, it is conducted in a different EFL setting, Iran, and finally it employs a fully-crossed design which was lacking in the previous studies.

A. Research Question

In the present study, we were interested in how three rater types, namely, self-rater, peer-rater, and teacher rater, showed variability in terms of halo effect in relation to each other. The following research question was, therefore, generated: To what extent do self-rater, peer-rater, and teacher rater display halo effect when rating the essays of students using an analytic scale?

B. Participants

The participants in the present study consisted of 194 raters, who were subdivided into student raters and teacher raters. Student raters were 188 undergraduate Iranian English majors enrolled in Advanced Writing classes in two state-run universities in Iran, comprising three fields of study: English Literature, Translation Studies, and English Language Teaching. The student raters were labeled either self-assessors or peer-assessors. Teacher assessors were six Iranian teachers of English.

Student raters ranged in age from 18 to 29, with one over 30, and another with unidentified age. One hundred and thirty one student raters (69.7%) were female and 57 (30.3%) were male. Eighty-six (45.7%) were native Farsi-speakers, 68 (36.2 %) were native-Turkish speakers, four (2.1%) were native-Kurdish speakers and another four (2.1%) were grouped as “Other”. Ninety-five (50.5%) were sophomores, 29 (15.4%) were juniors, and 64 (34.0%) were seniors. Only three of them (1.6%) had the experience of living in an English-speaking country. The number of years they had studied English ranged from 1 to 24 years and most of them (61.7%) had studied the English language in language institutes before entering the university.

Teacher assessors were all male. They came from two language backgrounds: four teacher assessors were native-Farsi speakers, and the other two were native-Turkish speakers. They ranged in age from 23 to 36. None of them had the experience of living in an English-speaking country. They had taught writing courses from one to seven years.

Three of them were affiliated with a national university, one of them with a private university, and two of them were classified as “Other”. All of them had a degree in English: three of them were PhD students in ELT, two had MAs in ELT, and one had a BA in English literature.

C. The Rating Scale

For the purposes of the present study, we chose an analytic rating scale. The scale we developed for the present study is based on Jacobs Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel and Hughey’s (1981) ESL Composition Profile, but differs from it in many aspects (See the appendix).

To develop our rating scale, we also referred to writing textbooks in the literature because we wanted the scale to reflect the structure of a standard five-paragraph essay, so the following three books were consulted as a guide to compose the scale categories: *Composing with confidence: Writing effective paragraphs and essays*, *Refining composition skills: Grammar and rhetoric*, and *The practical writer with readings*. The scale contains fifteen items which comprise the elemental features of a five paragraph essay: substance, thesis development, topic relevance, introduction, coherent support, conclusion, logical sequencing, range, word choice, word form, sentence variety, overall grammar, spelling, essay format, and punctuation, capitalization, and handwriting.

A six-point rating scale was chosen because these are “the most common number of scale steps in college writing tests, and a larger number of steps may provide a degree of step separation difficult to achieve as well as placing too great a cognitive burden on raters, while a lower number may not allow for enough variation among the multifaceted elements of writing skills” (Schaefer, 2008, p. 473).

D. Data Collection

One hundred and eighty five-paragraph essays were collected over a span of a year and a half from 188 students enrolled in advanced writing courses in two state-run prestigious universities in two different cities in Iran. The students came from six classes taught by four instructors. The students in advanced writing classes are taught punctuation, expression, features of a well-written paragraph, and principles of a one-paragraph and five-paragraph essay. The students were taught these principles of writing for eight weekly meetings. Immediately after the eight weekly meetings, they were told by their respective teachers they would have to sit the midterm exam the following week.

At the exam they were given 90 minutes to write a five-paragraph essay ranging in length from five hundred to seven hundred words on the following topic: **In your opinion, what is the best way to choose a marriage partner? Use specific reasons and examples why you think this approach is the best.** This topic was chosen from a list of TOEFL TWE topics. All the students were given one topic in order to control for topic effect. Following the data collection, a rating session was held with all the student raters and teacher raters, in which they were fully instructed how to rate the essays. The latest version of Facets 3.68.0 (Linacre, 2011) was used to analyze data.

E. Data Analysis

To analyze the data from the rater-type mediated data in the present study, we employed the latest version of Facets 3.68.0, a computer software package designed and developed by Linacre (2011). We followed Myford and Wolfe (2004b) and Engelhard (2002) procedures for analyzing data on halo effect when MFRM is used. Engelhard (2002) proposes both individual and group indices as units of analysis, but he takes into account only mean square fit statistics (outfit mean square and infit mean square) to detect halo effect for both individual and group raters. Like Engelhard (2002), Myford and Wolfe (2004b) also consider two types of indices, but, unlike him, their methods of detection are more elaborative and all inclusive. Myford and Wolfe (2004b) recommend researchers to use both individual-level statistics indicators and group-level statistics indicators.

To determine the halo effect via individual-level statistics indicators, Myford and Wolfe (2004b) propose the following procedures: (1) the researcher should first look at fit indices—*infit mean square* less than 1 and *outfit mean square* greater than 1 indicate halo effect; (2) the researcher should always have an eye for rater’s observed ratings and the model’s expected ratings—any mismatch between the rater’s and the model’s is a sign of halo effect in light of fit indices; (3) the researcher performs a Rater x Trait bias-interaction analysis—*t. score* either greater than 2 or smaller than -2 indicates rater misfit; (4) and finally the researcher examines the observed and expected ratings for raters flagged as misfit.

To determine halo effect via group-level statistics indicators, Myford and Wolfe (2004b) propose the following four indicators. The **fixed chi-square** tests the “fixed effect” hypothesis that all traits share the same degree of difficulty measure. A non-significant value may indicate a halo effect in ratings of all raters. The **Trait Separation Ratio** is an index of the spread of the trait difficulty measures relative to their precision. A low trait separation measure suggests halo in the ratings. **Trait Separation Index** implies the number of measurably different levels, or strata, of trait difficulty. A low trait separation index suggests halo in the ratings. As Myford and Wolfe (2004b) state, this index may be large when the number of raters or ratees is large. **Reliability of the Trait Separation Index** provides information about how well one can differentiate among the items in terms of their levels of difficulty. Again a low trait separation may connote a halo effect. This index should be ideally 1.

IV. RESULTS

The present study employs a fully crossed design in which all raters rated all essays. The data was analyzed with Facets 3.68.0, a software program for MFRM (Linacre, 2011). Three facets were specified for this study: students, rater type, and items. The mathematical formula for facets is given below:

$$\text{Log}(P_{nirk}/P_{nir(k-1)}) = B_n - D_i - T_r - F_k$$

Where:

P_{nirk} = the probability of student n being rated k on item i by rater type r ,

$P_{nir(k-1)}$ = the probability of student n being rated $k-1$ on item i by rater type r ,

B_n = the proficiency of student n ,

D_i = the difficulty of item i ,

T_r = the severity of rater type r , and

F_k = the difficulty of scale category k , relative to scale category $k-1$.

A. Initial Analysis

Before answering the research question, we did a preliminary Facets run to test for data-model fit. The results of the analysis showed that Students 94, 101, and 160, Raters 22, 24, 27, 48, 74, 76, 95, 145, and 176, and Item 7(logical sequencing) were misfits. The common practice in the literature (See McNamara 1996) is to delete the misfitting elements. However, as the purpose of this study is to examine rater effects, and not to refine a test instrument, this approach was regarded as inappropriate, as we might end up throwing out the baby with the bath water. Valid but unexpected ratings may reveal valuable insights into rater behavior, and so a different approach was adopted, which may be called a “lazer strategy” rather than a “scalpel strategy” (Myford, personal communication).

First we identified and deleted individual cases of highly unexpected ratings. We then reran the analysis and this time found no misfitting elements. According to Linacre (2011), satisfactory model fit is indicated when about 5% or less of (absolute) standardized residuals are ≥ 2 , and about 1% or less of (absolute) standardized residuals are ≥ 3 . In our data, there were a total of 19,699 valid responses, that is, responses used for estimation of model parameters. Of these, 697 responses were associated with (absolute) standardized residuals ≥ 2 , and 45 responses were associated with (absolute) standardized residuals ≥ 3 , so the number of unexpected responses is much smaller than Linacre considers, indicating satisfactory model fit.

B. Reliability and Validity of Rating Scale

The category statistics (Figure 1) and the probability curves (Figure 2) provide the necessary information about the rating scale, indicating that the rating scale functioned reliably and validly with rater type. According to Linacre (2004), in order for a rating scale to function effectively, there should be at least ten observations in each category, average measures should advance monotonically with counts, outfit-mean squares should be less than two, and step difficulty or step calibration should advance by 1.4, but less than 5 logits. Figure 1 shows that the rating scale meets all these guidelines: there are more than ten observations at each point, average measures advance monotonically, outfit mean squares are almost perfect (1.0), and the categories are the most probable ones, showing that the steps are appropriately ordered and function well (the guideline that step calibrations should advance by 1.4 is only true when the categories are dichotomous; otherwise, it can be ignored, Linacre, personal communication). Myford also claims that for student achievement the levels are appropriately ordered (Myford, personal communication).

Category Statistics													
Model = ?, ?, ?, R6													

DATA		QUALITY CONTROL			RASCH-ANDRICH		EXPECTATION		MOST		RASCH-		THURSTONE
Category	Counts	Cum.	Avg	Exp.	OUTFIT	Thresholds	Measure	at	PROBABLE	from	THURSTONE	Thresholds	
Score	Used	%	%	Meas	Meas	MnSq	Measure	S.E.	Category	-0.5			

1	875	4%	4%	-.03	-.08	1.0	(-2.25)		low		low		
2	1877	10%	14%	.02	.05	.9	-.78	.04	-1.03	-1.64	-.78	-1.27	
3	3491	18%	32%	.17	.18	1.0	-.51	.02	-.34	-.65	-.51	-.58	
4	5132	26%	58%	.31	.31	1.0	-.14	.02	.24	-.06	-.14	-.08	
5	5317	27%	85%	.44	.44	1.0	.34	.02	1.03	.58	.34	.48	
6	3007	15%	100%	.60	.59	1.0	1.09	.02	(2.44)	1.76	1.09	1.43	

												(Mean)	(Modal) -- (Median) --

Figure 1 shows the reliability and validity of the rating scale.

Figure 2 shows the student probability curves and is a graphic illustration of Figure 1. The probability curves show the threshold at which students are likely to be scored at the next highest level. These should resemble a range of hills (Linacre, 2004). That is, as ability level increases on the logit scale, the probability increases of achieving the next highest score ranking. Figure 2 is also another means to help us decide whether the rating scale functions well.

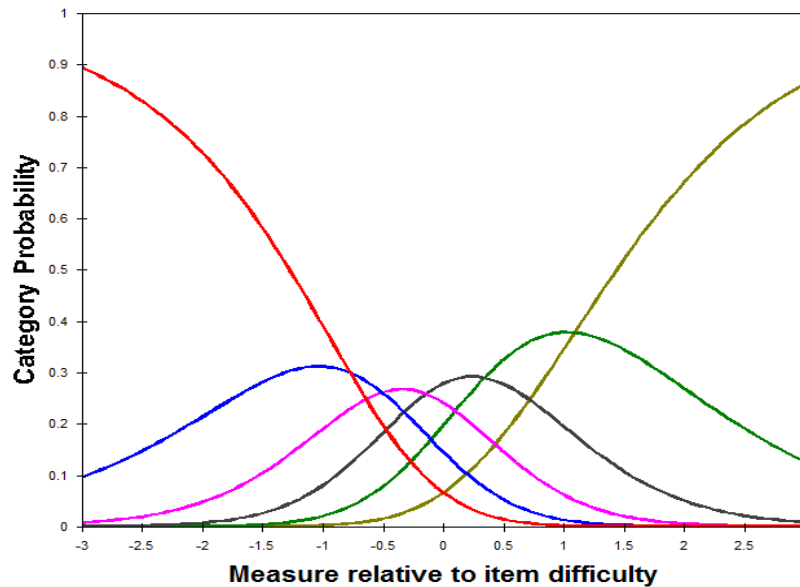


Figure 2 shows probability curves for students.

C. Research Question Analysis

To answer our research question (To what extent do self-rater, peer-rater, and teacher rater display halo effect when rating the essays of students using an analytic scale?), we first present the group-level statistics indicators and then go for individual-level statistics indicators as discussed in the data analysis section. Group-level statistics indicators could be obtained from table 7 of Facets output. Figure 3 shows the group-level statistics indicators for the assessment criteria or items of our rating scale. As can be seen, the figure contains a lot of information, but for our own study purposes, we only need the bottom of the table where those four statistics are shown.

Total Score	Total Count	Obsvd Average	Fair-M Avrage	Model Measure	Infit S.E.	Outfit MnSq	Estim. ZStd	Corr. Discrm	PtBis	Nu Items
5800	1320	4.4	4.53	-.21	.02	.87	-3.6	1.13	.21	1 Substance
5223	1312	4.0	4.13	.08	.02	1.06	1.6	1.05	.33	2 Thesis development
4829	1309	3.7	3.84	.26	.02	1.37	9.0	1.37	.23	3 Topic relevance
5301	1323	4.0	4.16	.06	.02	.94	-1.7	.94	.33	4 Introduction
5522	1310	4.2	4.36	-.08	.02	.82	-5.2	.82	.26	5 Coherent support
5252	1312	4.0	4.15	.06	.02	1.13	3.4	1.13	.21	6 Conclusion
5866	1291	4.5	4.68	-.32	.02	1.28	6.5	1.23	.22	7 Logical sequencing
5148	1320	3.9	4.05	.13	.02	.71	-9.0	.72	.20	8 Range
4241	1319	3.2	3.34	.54	.02	.96	-1.1	.96	.18	9 Word choice
5726	1299	4.4	4.55	-.22	.02	.87	-3.6	.85	.20	10 Word form
4687	1318	3.6	3.70	.34	.02	.77	-7.6	.78	.23	11 Sentence variety
5383	1308	4.1	4.26	-.01	.02	.76	-7.5	.75	.25	12 Overall grammar
6393	1319	4.8	4.96	-.59	.03	1.15	3.3	1.13	.14	13 Spelling
5797	1315	4.4	4.55	-.22	.02	1.16	4.0	1.15	.25	14 Essay format
5089	1324	3.8	3.99	.16	.02	1.22	6.1	1.23	.18	15 Punctuation
5350.5	1313.3	4.1	4.22	.00	.02	1.00	-4	1.00	.23	Mean (Count: 15)
516.8	8.8	.4	.40	.27	.00	.20	5.5	.20	.05	S.D. (Population)
535.0	9.1	.4	.41	.28	.00	.21	5.7	.20	.05	S.D. (Sample)

Model, Populn: RMSE .02 Adj (True) S.D. .27 Separation 11.91 Strata 16.21 Reliability .99
 Model, Sample: RMSE .02 Adj (True) S.D. .28 Separation 12.33 Strata 16.77 Reliability .99
 Model, Fixed (all same) chi-square: 2034.6 d.f.: 14 significance (probability): .00
 Model, Random (normal) chi-square: 13.9 d.f.: 13 significance (probability): .38

Figure 3 shows the group-level statistics indicators.

The results from the **Fixed Chi Square** test for the items are shown in the bottom line of Figure 3. The chi-square value of 2034.6 with 14 degrees of freedom is statistically significant ($p < .05$), indicating that at least two items are significantly different in terms of their difficulty. These results suggest that there is not a group-level halo effect present in our data set. As was stated in the data analysis section, a non-significant chi square means halo effect, but in our study chi square is statistically significant.

The **Trait Separation Ratio** of 12.33 as shown in the second line from the bottom of our Figure 3 signals that the spread of the item difficulty measures is about 13 times larger than the precision of those measures. This indicator does not suggest a group-level halo effect, because as was discussed in data section, a low trait separation ration was suggestive of a halo effect.

The **Trait Separation Index** of 16.17 suggests that there are over 17 statistically distinct strata of item difficulty in this sample of items. This index used to be calculated manually in the earlier versions of Facets and the formula for its calculation is $(4G + 1) / 3$, but in the later versions Facets gives us this index in its output. There is no evidence here of a group-level halo effect. In order for ratings to display a halo effect, this index should be low, but in our analysis it is large enough.

The **Reliability of the Trait Separation Index** is .99, which is very close to ideal 1. This high degree of reliability of the trait separation index implies that rater type could reliably distinguish among the items. Therefore, this indicator does not suggest a group-level halo effect in this data set because as we discussed in the data analysis section, the closer the reliability to 1, the more reliably the rater type could distinguish among items.

The group-level statistics indicators as was explained and illustrated in this section showed no sign of halo effect for rater type, namely, self-rater, peer-rater, and teacher rater. This might be an indication of good results, but at group level many individual characteristics are not shown and the ratings are averaged over the students across items, so individual-level statistics should be closely scrutinized to see if the same results will be obtained or not. Unfortunately in some studies, these individual-level statistics indicators are ignored to interpret the findings of their studies positively and favorably, hence giving an incomplete picture of the reality.

To determine the halo effect at an individual level, we performed a rater type x item bias-interaction analysis and the results are shown in Table 1. Such an analysis is in line with the explanations given at the data analysis section.

TABLE 1
SHOWS RATER TYPE X ITEM REPORT FROM FACETS OUTPUT ANALYSIS FOR HALO EFFECT.

Rater Type	Logits	Items	Logits	Obs. Score	Exp. Score	Obs-Exp. Average	Bias Size	Model S. E.	t.score	Infit MnSq	Outfit MnSq
Self	-.17	2	.08	704	625.2	.55	-.47	.08	-5.56	1.0	1.0
Self	-.17	3	.26	715	584.5	.92	-.77	.09	-8.63	.9	.9
Self	-.17	4	.06	711	628.9	.57	-.50	.09	-5.81	.9	.9
Self	-.17	6	.06	661	628.0	.23	-.18	.08	-2.36	.8	.8
Self	-.17	7	-.32	620	674.3	-.39	.33	.07	4.48	.5	.6
Self	-.17	8	.13	549	619.9	-.49	.32	.07	4.94	.6	.6
Self	-.17	9	.54	460	519.9	-.42	.25	.06	3.90	1.0	1.0
Self	-.17	10	-.22	615	668.3	-.38	.30	.07	4.21	.7	.7
Self	-.17	13	-.59	689	724.1	-.25	.26	.08	3.20	1.1	1.1
Peer	.05	2	.08	617	563.2	.39	-.28	.07	-3.70	.9	.9
Peer	.05	3	.26	621	515.0	.78	-.54	.08	-6.99	1.1	1.1
Peer	.05	7	-.32	594	642.4	-.35	.26	.07	3.71	.6	.6
Peer	.05	10	-.22	589	628.9	-.28	.21	.07	2.95	.7	.7
Peer	.05	15	.16	516	552.1	-.26	.16	.07	2.43	.9	1.0
Teacher	.12	2	.08	3902	4034.7	-.13	.08	.02	3.29	1.1	1.1
Teacher	.12	3	.26	3493	3729.5	-.23	.14	.02	5.72	1.4	1.4
Teacher	.12	4	.06	3989	4093.8	-.10	.06	.02	2.60	.9	.9
Teacher	.12	7	-.32	4652	4549.4	.10	-.08	.03	-2.83	1.5	1.5
Teacher	.12	10	-.22	4522	4428.8	.09	-.07	.03	-2.49	.9	.9

Fixed (all = 0) chi-square: 414.6 d.f.: 45 significance: .00: p < .00

Note: Items: 1=Substance, 2=Thesis development, 3=Topic relevance, 4=Introduction, 5=Coherent support, 6=Conclusion, 7=Logical sequencing, 8=Range, 9=Word choice, 10=Word form, 11=Sentence variety, 12=Overall grammar, 13=Spelling, 14=Essay format, 15=Punctuation.

Table 1 shows the individual-level statistics indicators. Column one shows the rater type—self-rater, peer-rater, and teacher rater. Column two shows logits or measure for rater type. Column three shows the items of the rating scale. Column four shows logits or measure for these items. Column five shows the observed scores, which are the sum of ratings the rater type gave across students on that particular item. Column six is the expected cores, which are the sum of the ratings across students on that particular item the model gives us. Column seven is the average between observed scores and expected scores. Column eight shows the bias size, which is the size of bias measure in logits relative to overall measures. Column nine shows standard errors which are low, indicating the good precision of our measurement. Column 10 is t.score, whose value greater than 2 or smaller than -2 shows bias. Columns 11 and 12 show fit indices: Infit MnSq, an abbreviation for infit mean square and Outfit MnSq, an abbreviation for outfit mean square. These should be ideally 1, below which shows overfit and above which shows underfit.

As is evident in the table, the standard errors (SEs) are low, and the mean square fit statistics are good, with no cases of misfit (for the purposes of the present study, following Wright, Linacre, Gustafson and Martin-Lof, (1994), we chose .5-1.5 range). Out of 45 bias terms, only 19 were statistically significant, with t-scores either greater than +2 or smaller than -2. Eleven of the significant interactions are positive (showing severity), and eight of the significant interactions are negative (showing leniency). Rater type showed statistically significant bias toward only 10 out of 15 items (items 2,3,4,6,7,8,9, 10, 13 and 15). Self-rater shows nine statistically significant interactions, teacher rater shows five, and peer-rater also shows five.

We can now very easily determine that at individual level rater type shows signs of halo effect. We first look at the t. score, which is either greater than 2 or smaller than -2 for ten out of 15 items. Next we look at the observed ratings and

expected ratings. As you can see, for negative t.score, observed scores are higher than expected scores, which implies that the rater type assigns higher ratings to students on those items, and for positive t.score, observed scores are lower than expected scores, which suggests that the rater type assigns lower ratings to students on those items.

On closer inspection, we discern that self-rater showed more halo effect, because this rater type showed nine cases of positive and negative t.score; the other two rater types—peer-rater and teacher rater—showed equal halo effect because they showed equal number of cases of either positive or negative t.score. The interesting point concerning this halo effect among rater type is that although rater type varied in terms of showing halo effect, the rater type unanimously displayed halo effect toward four items of the rating scales—items 2, 3, 7, and 10. This common pattern is worthy of attention.

V. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The present study set out to detect halo effect in three rater types—self-rater, peer-rater, and teacher rater, employing a relatively newly employed methodology, MFRM, in language assessment. To our knowledge, this is the first study which ventured to examine halo effect in a new way with distinct rater types. The results of our Facets analysis at group-level statistics indicators including Fixed Chi Square, Trait Separation Ratio, Trait Separation Index and Reliability of the Trait Separation Index showed that rater type displayed no sign of halo effect, but the analysis at individual-level statistics indicators including the rater type \times bias analysis revealed that all rater types showed considerable halo effect. The results also showed that self-assessor on the whole displayed more of a halo effect compared to peer-assessor and teacher assessor. The analysis of findings further revealed that the rater type displayed unanimous halo effect toward four items of the rating scale, providing us with a pattern concerning halo effect.

The halo effect as defined in the literature is the carry-over from one judgment to another, that is, assigning similar ratings to ratees across items. That rater type did not show halo effect reflects the very fact that at the group level rater type can distinguish between conceptually distinct items of the rating scale, which connotes that the rating scale as whole was functioning properly with rater type. Another plausible explanation is that at group level, ratings are averaged across students and across items of the rating scale. This summing up disguises many idiosyncratic features which might be disclosed at individual level. Group level analysis findings, though tentative, might not be suggestive.

Halo effect was shown at individual level among rater type in our study. Generally, our findings confirm those of previous studies (Engelhard, 1994; Kozaki, 2004; Knock, Read, and von Randow, 2007; Yorozuya and Oller, Jr., 1980). Engelhard (1994) found that two out of his 15 highly trained raters displayed halo effect, but he failed to explain why such halo effect occurred with two of his so highly trained raters. Comparing generalizability theory with many-facet Rasch measurement in determining halo effect, Kozaki (2004) also found that two out of his four professionally and bilingual judges showed signs of halo effect on two categories of grammar and vocabulary. She attributed this halo effect to powerful roles these two categories played in the assessment and judges carried over the impression of competence. Knock, Read, and von Randow (2007) attributed halo effect to lack of training and feedback to her raters because after training and feed back at least some of the raters did not show halo effect in the face-to-face group, but halo effect remained with raters in the on line group even after training and feedback. In Yorozuya and Oller, Jr.'s (1980) study, all 15 raters showed halo effect and the halo effect, according to the authors' explanations, could be accounted for the conditions under which the raters were rating. There were two conditions and the raters in condition one rated all four scales—grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency—at a single hearing rather than at separate hearings and this led to higher intercorrelations of scales, hence the appearance of halo effect.

We could argue for three main reasons why rater type exhibited halo effect in the present study. Firstly, it should be noted that in our study all the raters were inexperienced, having no rating experience in other contexts. This especially holds true about the self-rater and peer-rater who for the first time rated their own essays and those of their peers' essays. Therefore, it is no surprise that they would exhibit halo effect, given the highly experienced raters in previous studies did display it. Secondly, the amount of training which the rater type in our study received was very slight compared to other raters in other studies (cf. Knock, Read, & von Randow, 2007). Our raters got only one-hour training, but in the previous studies sometimes the raters were given hours of training; besides, some of the raters in the previous studies, although they were rater staff for prestigious corporations such as ETS, underwent retraining. Thirdly, lack of feedback could also account for the emergence of halo effect. Training followed by feedback could have helped raters in this study to improve and show less sign of halo effect just as it did in Knock, Read, and von Randow's (2007) study. Although group training has turned out to work to reduce rater errors such as halo effect, the effectiveness of individualized feedback is yet to be fully investigated, especially in longitudinal studies (knock, 2011).

Another pressing issue relates to the halo effect at individual level in the present study and previous studies, using MFRM. What does it connote? To answer this question, we should compare generalizability theory (hereafter G. Theory), which entered the scene to obviate the shortcomings of classical test theory and many-facet Rasch measurement, which was an extension of the basic Rasch model. These models have been compared and contrasted to examine if they could yield the same results and what differences, if any, could be revealed in employing these two techniques. (cf. Bachman, L.F., Lynch, B.K., & Mason, M., 1995; Lynch & McNamara 1998). Both G. Theory and MFRM strive for identifying the relative effects of variance attributable to facets and interaction among the facets, but while G. Theory does so at group level, MFRM not only does so at group level but also at individual level. Although, as

Kozaki (2004) claims that these two techniques are complementary, Linacre (1993) concludes that G. Theory provides a general summary with no implications for individual examinees apart from the number of observations that are made because for each examinee it is the raw score that matters most, but MFRM focuses on the individual examinees and for each examinee a measure is estimated which is statistically as independent as possible of the particularities of the raters, items, tasks and so on. G. theory is not capable of producing “a linear measure of each examinee’s performance level, qualified by its standard error and quality-control fit statistics” Linacre, 1993, p. 3). This is a quality of MFRM which makes it distinct from G. Theory.

Halo effect is definitely detrimental to the students’ test scores and could potentially distort their final test scores, especially when it comes to rater-mediated assessment (McNamara, 2000) or judge-awarded ratings (Linacre, 2004). Halo effect as a subcomponent of rater variability is a characteristic of raters, not tests and contributes to construct-irrelevant variance which adversely affects examinees’ scores. It has to be minimized as far as possible; otherwise, the students might be victim of this rater error rather than their true ability because when raters fail to distinguish conceptually distinct items or traits which have been designed to measure examinees’ abilities, they indirectly obscure these measures or abilities. The studies reviewed in this paper all unanimously emphasize the role of experience, training, and feedback which could reduce, if not eliminate, this potential error.

The present study has a number of implications. The first implication goes to the syllabus designers at higher education to introduce self-assessment and peer-assessment into higher education based on recent research. Hasty introduction of these assessment tools will have dire consequences because of the unwanted variability which they might bring into testing situation. This concerns mostly self-assessor who exhibited a larger number of halo effect than that of either peer-assessor or teacher assessor. Self-assessment should be used with special care because it is so idiosyncratic.

The second implication relates to rating purposes for summative purposes in language assessment because both self-assessors and peer assessors have been employed recently to rate their own products, so if they are going to be accurate and reliable raters alongside teachers, they should be given training. Rater training which includes familiarization activities, practice rating, feedback, discussion and monitoring, could lead to the fairness and reliability of these student raters. Although both self-assessor and peer-assessor showed halo effect in the present study, this does not preclude us from not allowing them to assess their own writing because we did not include all the elements of rater training.

The present study has some limitations too. The first one is the small number of teacher assessors, although our study employed more teacher assessors compared to previous studies which employed from one to four. Still this size is small, and future studies should strive for more teacher assessors. The second limitation concerns the number of essays each self-assessor and peer-assessor rated. This produces more model standard error which reduces reliability of ratings. Future studies should undertake to have self-assessors and peer assessors more writing products.

APPENDIX ESSAY RATING SHEET

Essay number:							
Rater's name:							
		Very poor	Poor	Fair	Good	Very good	Excellent
1.	Substance	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
2.	Thesis development	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
3.	Topic relevance	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
4.	Introduction	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
5.	Coherent support	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
6.	Conclusion	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
7.	Logical sequencing	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
8.	Range	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
9.	Word choice	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
10.	Word form	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
11.	Sentence variety	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
12.	Overall grammar	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
13.	Spelling	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
14.	Essay format	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
15.	Punctuation/capitalization/handwriting	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>

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Why the English Monolingual Dictionary is Under-utilised among Students

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Abstract—This paper mainly investigated English Monolingual Dictionary (EMD) use among second year students of Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur (UTMKL) International Campus. The researchers wanted to discover the students' habit and attitude in EMD use; their knowledge with regard to the language learning resources available in EMD; their skill in using EMD, and finally, to discover whether they received any formal instruction in EMD use when they were studying in their former schools and tertiary education. A total of 169 students took part in the survey by answering a questionnaire. The results of the study suggest that the respondents were poor users of EMD. They rarely consulted the EMD; their knowledge of the language learning resources in the EMD was limited; most perceived their EMD skill as average, and there was no instruction in EMD when they were at tertiary education and previously when they were at school.

Index Terms—English monolingual dictionary (EMD), habit, skill, attitude, vocabulary

I. INTRODUCTION

The English monolingual dictionary (EMD) is an important tool for learning the English language. From the EMD, students can learn many aspects of the English language, for example, meaning of words and phrases, pronunciation, word stress, spelling, words' part of speech, the use of target words in context, etc. As in the words of Berwick and Horsfall (1996), when used appropriately, the EMD can be a valuable learning resource for the ESL/EFL learners.

The EMD is particularly important for ESL/EFL students, because being in a non-native environment, ignorance and uncertainties about the correct meaning of words, pronunciation, stress and how target words are actually used in context, for example, are common. As students cannot always ask their teachers on those aspects of language they wish to learn, and as there is constantly the absence of a correct model to follow, the EMD can help. The EMD can therefore help them to assume some degree of independence in learning the English language.

Though few would argue against the importance of the EMD in helping students to have some degree of independence in learning English, we still do not know much about how it is being perceived and used by students. We are still not clear about students' knowledge of the EMD as a language learning tool, their skills in using EMD and their attitude towards EMD in language learning. According to Winkler (2001) and Hartman and James (1998), we still do not know much about the behaviour and preferences of dictionary users and the complex operations involved in dictionary consultations. Brumfit (1985) argues that dictionary use is quite often taken for granted and under-utilised. Tickoo (1989) maintains that the EMD is a rich learning resource, but it has been poorly used. Insufficient assistance given to students to optimise the use of EMD, he says, is the reason why students fail to exploit the immense information available in the dictionary.

Some research related to this study reveals the different behavior of students with regard to dictionary use. Sanchez (2005) reported that her research subjects used bilingual English-Spanish dictionary to look for equivalent terms, spelling and examples of words used. When looking up definitions of words and also spelling, her subjects would consult the EMD. Concerning difficulties in dictionary use, Sanchez reported that the problems her subjects mentioned when looking up words in the EMD include not finding words they looked for, difficulty to find the specific information they were looking for and inability to understand meaning of words. According to Sanchez, her subjects attributed the reasons for the difficulties to their lack of familiarity with the dictionary, lack of dictionary skills and unclear layout of the dictionary. Her study also indicated that the majority of them had not been taught how to use dictionaries.

Battenburg (1989) listed the information his research subjects would look up for when consulting the EMD. These include spelling, pronunciation, parts of speech and syntactic patterns, definitions, etymology, illustrations, derived forms, synonyms, cross references, usage labels, pictures and diagrams. Battenburg also reported that when the advanced, the intermediate and the elementary subjects were asked if they were ever taught how to use a dictionary in English class, half of the students from the elementary and advanced group said that they had not received such

instruction. The majority of the intermediate subjects said that they had received such instruction only because one ESL instructor had included the instruction in the curriculum for one of the academic terms.

Nesi and Hail (2002) looked at the problems which students faced when looking up words in the dictionary. Their subjects were asked to report on the way they had consulted their dictionaries based on 89 assignments given to them over a period of three years. Their study found that while the majority of the words were looked up successfully, more than half of their subjects were unsuccessful in at least one of five dictionary consultations. Of particular difficulty to the subjects was in selecting appropriate entries and sub-entries in their dictionaries and there were also some serious errors in entry interpretation which their subjects were not aware of.

Diab and Hamdan (1999) reported the findings of a case study which investigated how 50 Jordanian Arab university students of English interacted with words and dictionaries while reading a specialised text in linguistics. The results of their study showed that meaning and pronunciation were the prime purposes of dictionary use. It was also found that the overwhelming majority of the dictionary look-ups were not preceded by any pre-dictionary use strategy, suggesting that there was no instruction in dictionary use for the students. The study also showed that EMDs were used more frequently used than bilingual ones, and that they were also found to be more useful than the latter.

Winkler (2001) carried out a study to investigate the problems EFL learners encountered when using an Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, Fifth Edition, in book form and on CD-ROM. In the course of completing a writing task by her student participants who participated in her research, they had to seek assistance from the dictionaries above. The problems the students encountered suggest a lack of dictionary-using skills in certain areas. Some of the participants were not aware of the information that can generally be found in an English learner's dictionary. They were not only ignorant of the preliminary front pages and the appendices but also of the structure of individual entries. Even higher-level students had difficulty with scanning long entries or finding particular details and often gave up such searches.

Taylor (2004) commented that although the EMD is an essential and invaluable resource for ESL students at various levels, many of the dictionaries recommended to students were too sophisticated for students' vocabulary abilities. She was also critical of many ESL instructors who seem to have the tendency to assume that ESL students are generally equipped with the knowledge of how an EMD functions and is used. Commenting on the quality of dictionaries, in her opinion, a good EMD should contain a list of possible definitions of a word presented in order of frequency of use (most common to least common); definitions that show high levels of differentiation to enable students to become familiar with the various uses of a word in which some are polysemous; definitions which are followed by useful and clear contextual examples and finally entries that present multiple pieces of information in a clear, organised and non-intimidating manner for the user.

Petrylaite et al (2008) investigated 88 ESP students' use of the different types of dictionaries, the problems they encountered during dictionary consultations and the opinions they had about their own dictionary skills. Their study suggests that an overwhelming majority owned bilingual dictionaries while only a few owned EMDs. When asked about their frequency of dictionary use, more than half said they consulted the dictionary three or four times per week, and few consulted it every day. For the questions on reasons for looking up words, an overwhelming majority consulted the dictionary for meaning, followed by spelling, grammar, usage, phrasal verbs, derivatives, compounds, pronunciation, idioms, synonyms/definitions and finally, collocations respectively. For the question on the problems they encountered when looking up words in EMD, many were given, some of which were: words were not there, information needed was not given, entries which were too long and example sentences which were not helpful. The majority, however, gave definitions which were not clear as the most notorious problem. When asked for the reasons which they think caused the above difficulties, the subject responses were: lack of familiarity with the dictionary, lack of dictionary skills, unclear layout of the dictionary, difference between British and American English and too little information given in the dictionaries.

Besides investigating the effects of the use and non-use of dictionaries on their subjects' performance on EFL reading tests, Bensoussan et al (1984) also investigated students' dictionary use and preferences and their teachers' opinions of the students' dictionary use and preferences. Among others, their research suggests that less proficient students did show a greater need to use dictionaries than the better students. Whereas the better students indicated preference for EMD, the less proficient indicated their preference for bilingual dictionaries. With regard to the teachers' opinion about whether the students were effective dictionary users, they were generally critical of this, believing that the students were not, although the students thought they were effective users. Their research also suggests that less proficient students lack the language skills to benefit from the EMD, whereas more proficient students know enough to do without the EMD.

This study came about after we noticed the stark contrast in dictionary use between the local mainstream University Technology Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur (UTMKL) students and foreign students who both studied at the university. From our observation after teaching the foreign students for three semesters, we saw that the foreign students from China, Iran and Iraq were frequent and avid users of the pocket electronic dictionary. The local students, however, were clearly not dependent on the dictionary. Due to the stark difference in dictionary use between the two groups of students, this study was carried out to investigate the local students' perception and use of the EMD. This research was conducted to investigate the following:

1) To discover the second year UTMKL students' habit, attitude, knowledge and skill with regard to dictionary use, especially EMD.

II. METHODOLOGY

The respondents for this study were second year students of UTMKL. They were engineering students who took the diploma programme which lasted three years and they were about 19 years old. Cumulatively, they had learned English as a second language at schools and at UTMKL for at least 12 years before taking this course. The researchers would roughly grade them as slightly below average in terms of their level of English at the British's *GCE Ordinary Level* certificate.

The researchers received assistance from their eight lecturer colleagues at the university when administering the questionnaire. It was answered during the *English for Professional Communication* class made compulsory by the university. The lecturers explained questions in the questionnaire not understood by the students. Out of the total 253 students, the researchers got back only 169 (67%) of the questionnaire due to the high rate of absenteeism on the day it was administered. Nine of the questions in the questionnaire are objective questions, and only one is subjective (see appendix 1). The questionnaire was designed to obtain data on the following domains:

- 1) to discover the students' habit and attitude with regard to dictionary use, especially EMD,
- 2) to discover their general knowledge about the language learning resources available in EMD,
- 3) to discover their skill in using the EMD and
- 4) to discover whether there was formal instructions received by them in EMD use at their school/tertiary education.

III. RESULTS

TABLE 1:
LANGUAGE MEDIUM OF DICTIONARY PREFERRED

Language Medium	Percentage
Bilingual (English-Malay/Chinese/Indian-English)	60
EMD (English-English)	12
Both	28

Table 1 illustrates the language medium of dictionaries which the respondents prefer. More than half of the respondents surveyed preferred consulting the bilingual dictionary, i.e. English-Malay/Chinese/Tamil. 28% of the respondents preferred consulting both, i.e. EMD and bilingual dictionaries, while only a small percentage (12%) preferred consulting the EMD.

TABLE 2:
FREQUENCY OF LOOK-UP FROM EMD

Frequency	Percentage
Rarely	46
3-5 times per week	22
Once a week	20
Never	10
Everyday	2

Table 2 illustrates the frequency of look-up from the EMD. The majority (46%) said they rarely look up words from the EMD while 10% said that they never consulted it.

TABLE 3:
REASONS FOR NOT LOOKING UP WORDS IN EMD

Reasons	Percentage
Hard to understand definition in dictionary	45
Other information about words in dictionary are too technical to understand	27
It takes too long to find meanings of words from the EMD	23
Others	5

Table 3 illustrates the reasons why the respondents did not have the habit of looking up words from the EMD. Nearly half of the respondents said that they did not understand the definition of words given in the EMD. 27 % said that they found some information about words in the EMD too technical to understand. 23% said that it took too long to find the meaning of words in the EMD.

TABLE 4:
RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTION OF THEIR SKILL IN USING THE EMD

Skill level	Percentage
Average	71
High	13
Low	10
Very high	4
Very low	2

Table 4 illustrates the respondents' perception of their skill in using the EMD. The majority (71%) viewed their skill as average.

TABLE 5:
RESPONDENTS' EXPERIENCE IN ATTENDING CLASSES IN WHICH EMD SKILLS WERE TAUGHT

Attendance	Percentage
No	94
Yes	6

Table 5 shows the percentage of respondents who had attended classes in which explicit EMD skills were taught. An overwhelming majority (94%) had not had any such class before.

TABLE 6:
RESPONDENTS' OWN PERCEPTION CONCERNING THE IMPORTANCE OF EMD IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

The importance of EMD	Percentage
Important	85
Not sure	13
Not important	2

Table 6 shows the respondents' own perception of the importance of EMD in language learning. The majority (85%) agreed that it was important.

TABLE 7:
RESPONDENTS' KEENNESS TO ATTEND AN EMD CLASS IF IT WAS HELD AT THE UNIVERSITY

Keenness	Percentage
Yes	47
Not sure	46
No	7

Table 7 shows the respondents' keenness in attending a special EMD class if it was held at the university. The data shows that only about half of the respondents indicated their keenness to attend, and the other half were not sure. A small percentage indicated that they were not keen in attending.

TABLE 8:
INCREASED FREQUENCY OF USE IF RESPONDENTS WERE HIGHLY SKILLED AT USING THE EMD

Increased frequency of EMD use if respondents are highly skilled	Percentage
Yes	68
Not sure	29
No	3

Table 8 shows the respondents' perception on their frequency of EMD use if they were highly skilled in using it. The majority indicated that they would use the EMD more frequently if they were good at it.

TABLE 9:
THE REASON/S FOR REFERRING TO THE EMD

Reasons	Percentage
Learn meanings of new words	79
To expand my vocabulary	34
To see how words are used in the example sentences	20
To check spelling	17
To improve my English	16
To speak better	9
To improve my writing	7
To learn grammar	7
To learn pronunciation	7
To learn synonym	6

Table 9 illustrates the reasons why they consulted the EMD. It suggests that vocabulary learning seems to be the main concern of the respondents (e.g. learning meanings of words, to expand one's vocabulary and to learn synonym) for consulting the EMD.

TABLE 10:
THE TYPE OF DICTIONARY USED BY RESPONDENTS

Dictionary type	Percentage
Desk dictionary	47
Small pocket booklet non-electronic dictionary	31
Pocket electronic dictionary	9
Online dictionary	8
Other	5

Table 10 illustrates the dictionary types which were used by the respondents. The desk dictionary (half size A4 paper) was the most popular among the respondents (47%).

IV. DISCUSSION

Only a small minority of the second year students preferred using the EMD suggesting that the majority were not comfortable with the EMD. In terms of frequency of use, most students were infrequent and some were non-users of the EMD, suggesting their poor habit in EMD use. Data suggests that this was due to several reasons: they found it hard to understand the definition of words in the EMD; they found some of the information about words in the EMD too technical to understand, and it took them too long to find the meaning of words in the EMD. The majority perceived their skill in EMD use as average. The three reasons above emerged because an overwhelming majority of the students had not had any experience of attending classes where explicit dictionary skills were taught.

Nevertheless, the respondents' indicated that they were aware of the importance of the EMD in language learning, indicating their positive attitude towards it. However, although they were mostly aware of its importance in language learning, about half of them indicated their uncertainty about attending a special class for EMD skills if it was held at the university. A possible explanation for this could be due to their worry about having to attend extra classes besides the regular classes which they already had. It might mean an added burden for the students, hence their uncertainty on this.

In terms of frequency of use, the majority of the students indicated their willingness to use it more frequently if they were skilled at using the EMD. This again indicated their positive attitude towards EMD use. The Education ministry and Malaysian universities could thus take advantage of this by introducing EMD skills in the classroom so that some degree of independence in language learning and the great potential of the EMD as a language learning resource could be fully exploited.

From the responses given by the students when they were asked to list down the reasons why they consulted the EMD, their responses suggest that their knowledge of the EMD as a language learning resource is very limited. They consulted the EMD mainly because they wanted to learn vocabulary meaning. Although there are other equally important reasons for consulting the EMD, they were very rarely or not mentioned. Aspects like pronunciation, stress, grammar, spelling, collocation, word derivatives, idiomatic expression, taboo words, slang terms, etc. were generally unfamiliar to them.

Where dictionary type is concerned, the desk dictionary (half size A4 paper) is the most popular among the students. Compared to the foreign students who seemed to be habitual users of the pocket electronic dictionary, this type of dictionary was not popular among the local students although it was available in the market.

V. CONCLUSION

This study seems to explain the problem noticed by the researchers. The local students were not dependent of the EMD not because they were very good at English, but rather because they lacked the knowledge of the linguistic resources available in the EMD, and they lacked the skills in the use of the EMD. Because EMD skills were not taught, they found the EMD too difficult for them.

It is acknowledged that some information contained in the EMD explanation may be rather technical to students. For example, they may not be able to understand the phonetic symbols or the stress mark to exploit pronunciation information from the EMD. They may not see the value of grammar labels like preposition, pronoun, un/countable, conjunction, etc. Nevertheless, the researchers believe that teachers can do a lot to change students' misperception of the EMD. The argument is that if these were taught to students, they would no longer find the EMD information too technical anymore.

On the point that they found it hard to understand the definition in the dictionary, the argument is that students should be explicitly shown that EMD tend to use the common core vocabulary. For example, Hornby's (2000) desk EMD uses the 3000 defining vocabulary definitions which are not difficult because they are highly frequent, common, everyday words. They were carefully chosen because of their high frequency in the language. If this was demonstrated and explained to students, they may be less lukewarm towards the EMD.

On the point that they were bothered when looking up words in the dictionary because it was too time-consuming, the argument is that this is possibly because of lack of practice in word searching. Patience and constant practice develop skill, and consequently, word search may not be time-consuming anymore. The foreign students did not seem

to be bothered by this, suggesting that they were more comfortable than the local students in using the dictionary due to constant practice.

With respect to the local students' preference for the bilingual dictionary, although some language teachers believe that bilingual dictionary is also a helpful vocabulary learning tool, there are language experts who think otherwise, i.e. it can encourage students to habitually resort to translation when learning the second language. Translation may slow down the process of learning L2. Using the bilingual dictionary may also encourage students to think that there is always a one-to-one correspondence between words in L2 and L1, and that it encourages direct translation. The researchers therefore believe that the use of bilingual dictionary should be minimised.

The Malaysian Education Ministry might have neglected the importance of EMD skills, and it might have assumed that students would pick up the skills by themselves even without teachers' intervention. But this study suggests the contrary. EMD skills may not be something which comes naturally and that even after reaching the university level when students should have been learning English as a second language for 12 years, many still were not able to benefit much from the EMD. This study has also indicated that because of the absence of explicit EMD teaching in class, the respondents' knowledge of the dictionary as a language learning tool is also inferior, and this may result in poor vocabulary knowledge among students.

One of the language skills that could be adversely affected by poor vocabulary knowledge (brought about by poor dictionary skill) is reading comprehension. Research has shown that poor vocabulary knowledge may result in poor reading comprehension skill (Koda, 1989; Ulijn and Strother, 1990; Beck and McKeown, 1991; Haynes and Baker, 1993; Qian, 1999). Poor reading comprehension skill may put students in the vicious circle, where poor reading comprehension results in poor vocabulary gains. English language teachers could stop this ailment by explicitly teaching EMD skills.

In terms of dictionary type, the researchers are of the opinion that pocket electronic dictionary may promote frequency in use as it is more convenient than the desk dictionary due to its portability. The desk dictionary, which the students seem to prefer, in contrast, may limit frequency of use due to its bulk. Students may not be carrying the desk dictionary around. Pocket electronic dictionary is thus recommended so that they, like the foreign students, can increase their frequency in EMD use anywhere and at anytime. The convenient pocket electronic EMD may increase students' frequency in dictionary use, and hence expand their vocabulary amount, especially when the tool is in their pocket like their mobile phones.

Although the EMD is a very useful learning tool for vocabulary and language learning, it has not been optimally tapped by schools and universities in the country. Dictionary learning in Malaysian schools has apparently been taken for granted. Hopefully this study may open the eyes of educationists in Malaysia so that EMD skill is seen as an urgent necessity. A conclusion that can be drawn from this study is that there is a likelihood that EMD teaching may be well received by university students at UTMKL and perhaps elsewhere too in the country judging from their positive attitude towards it.

EMD publishers, for their part, should also think about making the EMD more user-friendly, less technical, easy and more attractive to students. The Education Ministry who is always very concerned with the present command of Malaysian students with respect to the standard of English should start promoting the electronic EMD to increase frequency of use among students. Some mobile telephone companies which have started incorporating electronic English dictionary features in their mobile phones, though on a small scale, should perhaps expand this feature further so that students, who generally seem to adore gadgets, could use them anytime and anywhere.

APPENDIX 1

This questionnaire is about dictionary use in learning English language. It seeks to find information on your general knowledge about the dictionary, your skills in using the dictionary, your attitude towards the dictionary, and your habit with respect to dictionary use. Please respond by circling the best options and/or by writing down your answers in the blanks. Please be honest when answering the questions and answer all questions.

1. In terms of language, what kind of dictionary do you usually refer to?
 - A. bilingual (Malay, Chinese, Tamil-English or vice versa)
 - B. monolingual (English-English)
 - C. both
 - D. other (please state) _____
2. How often do you use the English monolingual dictionary?
 - A. everyday
 - B. about 3 to 5 times per week
 - C. about once a week
 - D. rarely
 - E. never
3. If you feel that you don't have the habit of looking up words in an English monolingual dictionary, why is it so?
 - A. I find it hard to understand the definition in the dictionary
 - B. It takes too long to find meaning of words

- C. I don't think finding meanings of words are important
 D. Other information about the words which I look up are too technical to understand
 E. Other (please state) _____
4. Roughly, how would you grade your current skill in using the English monolingual dictionary? (The word skill means your understanding of all or most of the information about a word contained in the dictionary. These include, e.g., your ability to understand the word meaning, the word part of speech or class, your ability to understand the example sentences, your ability to understand and use the different dictionary symbols for a word, etc.).
 A. very high B. high C. average D. low E. very low
5. Have you had any classes given by your teachers/lecturers in which English monolingual dictionary skills are taught at any time when you were at school and/or at college/university?
 A. yes B. no
6. I think the English monolingual dictionary is important to me in learning English.
 A. strongly agree B. agree C. not sure D. disagree E. strongly disagree
7. If there is a special class held for students at University Technology Malaysia to teach English monolingual dictionary skills, would you like to attend it?
 A. yes B. not sure C. no
8. If you have good knowledge about the English monolingual dictionary and good skill in using it, would you use the English monolingual dictionary more frequently?
 A. yes B. not sure C. no
9. Please write down exactly the reason/s why you refer to the English monolingual dictionary. I refer to them because I want to learn...
 a. _____
 b. _____
 c. _____
 d. _____
 e. _____
 f. _____
- (You may add more reasons if you wish)
10. What kind of dictionary do you usually refer to?
 A. online dictionary
 B. pocket electronic dictionary
 C. desk dictionary (the big dictionary the size of half the A4 paper)
 D. small pocket booklet non-electronic dictionary
 E. other (please state) _____

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The Effect of Output Tasks on the Acquisition of English Verbal Morphemes

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Abstract—This paper aims to explore the facilitative effect of an output task on learning verbal morphemes by Iranian EFL learners. The main research question addressed whether engaging learners in output tasks can fill the gap between comprehension and production of verbal morphemes (*present progressive-ing* and *simple past-ed*) and promote learning of the target linguistic forms. Two groups of learners from young adult classes (all male students within the age range of 13-15) participated in the current study: an output group consisting of 20 learners and a control group consisting of 18 learners. All of them were administered a pretest and posttest. The learners in the output group worked on a text reconstruction task which employed an audio-text cartoon strip. The major findings were (a) the comparison of pre-test scores showed a significant difference between comprehension and production of target forms by the learners, (b) after receiving treatment, the output group outperformed the control group, (c) finally, the control group failed to show comparable improvement in their production although they had measurable gains in comprehending the target linguistic form. Considering the above findings, further support was found for the effect of output tasks on L2 learning. The findings contribute to the research that has examined type of task and level of processing in promoting L2 learning.

Index Terms—output tasks, verbal morphemes, reconstruction task

I. INTRODUCTION

Finding the most efficient way to teach grammar has been one of the most controversial issues in SLA over the past few decades (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Ellis, 2006). In search for the best way to teach grammar, the roles of input and output have received substantial attention in second language acquisition (SLA) theory and numerous studies have produced major insights in the field of SLA. Earlier studies gave the idea that acquisition is a natural outcome of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985). Such studies have chiefly focused on the significance of comprehensible input in developing learners' knowledge of the target language. Lately, however, several studies have suggested that the role of output is as important (if not more) for acquisition of a second language as the role of input. These studies' claim is mainly based on Swain's *output hypothesis* (Swain, 1985) which considers output as the cause of L2 acquisition, not just the product of it. Studies on output (e.g. Dekeyser & Sokalski, 1996; de la Fuente, 2006; Izumi, 1999; Izumi, 2002; Song & Suh, 2008) together with formal and informal observations of Canadian immersion program (Swain, 1985) provide empirical evidence that developing productive ability of learners and language acquisition requires more than mere comprehending the language.

Many research findings to date have explored the role of output and different functions of it in language learning (Bygate, 1999; DeKeyser & Sokalski, 1996; De la Fuente, 2006; Garcia Mayo, 2002; Geeslin, 2006; Izumi, 2002; Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Izumi et al., 1999; Izumi & Izumi, 2004; Newton & Kennedy, 1996; Kim, 2009; Kuiken & Vedder, 2008; Lyster, 2004; Mehrang & Rahimpour, 2010; Mennim, 2003; Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993; Qin, 2008; Reinders, 2009; Shehadeh, 1999; Shehadeh, 2003; Song & Suh, 2008; Storch, 1998a & 1998b; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Vickers & Ene, 2006; Yoshimura, 2006). Among the various functions of output proposed by Swain (1995), the *noticing function* has received substantial attention since many research findings show that noticing and attention play significant roles in language learning. Nevertheless, the studies which specifically have explored whether output tasks promote learning of target linguistic forms, as a result of *noticing function*, have produced mixed results (Izumi, 2002; Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Izumi et al., 1999; Izumi & Izumi, 2004; Song & Suh, 2008). Therefore, more research needs to be done to explore the issue. Besides, the possible effect of these tasks on learning grammatical morphemes has not been fully explored. This is despite the fact that many learners have problems in using these morphemes in natural settings – particularly in expressing the notion of temporality through verbs. The present study is an attempt to tackle this issue.

II. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

A. Swain's Output Hypothesis

As mentioned earlier, Swain (1985) considered an active role for output in L2 learning and believed that output is crucial to *push* learners to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing. She specified four functions for output: fluency, hypothesis testing, metalinguistic and noticing (Swain, 2005). Fluency function posits that by producing language in a meaningful context, learners can practice accessing L2 knowledge and as a result of recurrent practice, the speed of their access may increase. Another function of output is hypothesis testing function. Swain (2005) claimed that learners sometimes use their output to learn about the target language forms in a trial-and-error fashion. In other words, they use a target form and change it upon receiving feedback from their interlocutors. Modifying their output engages learners in processes believed to be part of the second language learning process (Swain, 2005). Metalinguistic function holds that we can use language to reflect on language, either produced by ourselves or by others. This act, Swain claims, can mediate second language learning. Producing output—written or spoken—also provides learners with opportunities for noticing the problematic areas in their interlanguage. As a result, they may pay attention to the things they have to learn. This raised attention prompts the cognitive processes happening while the learner is learning a new “linguistic knowledge or attempts to consolidate the existing one” (Swain & Lapkin, 1995, p. 384).

B. Output as an Attention-drawing Device

In light of the above theoretical arguments, several studies have empirically examined the role of output tasks in L2 learning (e.g. Colina & Garcia Mayo, 2007; Dekeyser & Sokalski, 1996; Izumi, 2002; Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Izumi et al., 1999; Izumi & Izumi, 2004; Mennim, 2007; Nassaji & Tian, 2010; Qin, 2008; Reinders, 2009; Song & Suh, 2008; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Yoshimura, 2006). One of the first studies of this kind was Swain and Lapkin (1995), which attempted to provide support for the “noticing” function of output. They gave young learners a writing task and tape-recorded their speech during task performance to check the cognitive processes involved in L2 learning. They found that young adult L2 learners do notice the gaps in their linguistic knowledge during language production and also engage in cognitive processes such as grammatical analysis believed to be effective for L2 learning. The role of output, especially its noticing function, was explored in other studies, too. Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara, and Fearnow (1999), for example, sought to explain whether an output task encourages the noticing of the past hypothetical conditional in English through two different tasks. In the first stage of the task, the output group had to remember and reconstruct a passage but the input group had to answer true /false questions on the same passage. In the second stage of the task, the output group had to revise what they have reconstructed while the input group had a free-writing activity in which the use of the target form was not required. The result of the study supported the output hypothesis partially in the sense that the difference between the two groups was statistically significant only on posttest of production for the second stage of the task but not for the first one. The researchers believed that this was because in the first stage of the task the output group had to remember and reconstruct the passage at the same time which was of great memory demand and prevented the participants to concentrate on the target form. Izumi and his colleagues concluded that beside considering how the task encourages noticing, we should take into account how it encourages further processing after noticing has taken place. Izumi and Bigelow (2000) conducted a similar study but found no improvement for the experimental group on any of the posttests—neither on the recognition test nor on the production test. In an attempt to revise the previous studies, Izumi (2002) conducted another study in which he found that the participants who took part in the output treatments showed greater improvement in learning the target form than the learners who received the same input just for comprehension. In the next study, Izumi and Izumi (2004) changed the modality of the output task and investigated the effect of oral output on the acquisition of relative clauses in English. The output group engaged in a picture description task while the non-output group engaged in a picture sequencing task. The two treatment groups were exposed to the same aural input for the same amount of time. Contrary to the expectations, the results illustrated that the output group did not outperform the non-output group while the non-output group demonstrated greater overall language gains. A careful post-hoc reconsideration of the treatment tasks showed that the output task failed to engage learners in the syntactic processing required for triggering L2 learning, whereas the task for the non-output group seemed to encourage form-meaning mapping better.

While most researchers were interested in finding the effects of engaging learners in output tasks on noticing and learning, Yoshimura (2006) examined the effect of foreknowledge of output tasks on noticing and processing of input. Put it simply, he told the participants they were going to engage in three types of tasks: exact reconstruction in which they had to memorize the text for later reproduction, content reconstruction in which the participants had to retell the content of the text and finally, reading for visualization (control task) during which they had to draw a picture based on the reading text. The interesting point was that, at the end of the study, instead of performing output tasks, learners took a posttest of comprehension and fill in the blanks. Yoshimura expected the participants to notice the gap in their interlanguage through the first two tasks. The analysis of the data suggested that the production groups were more successful in verb uptake than the control group. Yoshimura concluded that noticing of the language can happen not only during or after the output task but also before production of output if the learners consider input processing as a planning stage for subsequent output tasks.

Mennim (2007) also explored long-term effects of noticing on oral output. He reported on the effects of classroom exercises that promote noticing and conscious attention to form. During an academic year, records of the learners'

output were carefully examined for noticing and improvement in the use of the noticed forms. Initial analysis of the tracking of two students' noticing and subsequent use of the form revealed that they had much difficulty at the beginning of the year but nine months later, they showed much improvement in using the form accurately. Through this study, Mennim attempted to show how learners' noticing of the word might be related to this improvement.

C. The Effect of Output Task Types

A few studies have also compared the effectiveness of different kinds of output tasks on noticing and learning of target forms. Swain and Lapkin (2001), for example, engaged immersion students in two tasks i.e. a jigsaw task and a dictogloss task. They asked their students to reconstruct a content which was the same for the two tasks. The researchers hypothesized that the dictogloss task would foster greater attention to form. Contrary to their expectations, task differences did not lead to greater attention to linguistic forms. However, dictogloss students were more accurate than jigsaw students. In addition, dictogloss students attended to discourse structure but jigsaw students did not focus on logical and temporal sequencing. Furthermore, dictogloss students produced more complex linguistic structures and vocabulary. Colina and Garcia Mayo (2007) also examined the effectiveness of three types of output tasks: a text reconstruction task, a jigsaw task and a dictogloss task. The study showed the efficiency of all these tasks in drawing learners' attention to form. However, findings of the study seem to indicate that task type controls the nature of attention. That is, different tasks draw learners' attention to different features of language. For example, the text reconstruction task focused learners' attention especially on determiners, passive voice and verb form while jigsaw task focused their attention on a wide variety of linguistic features. Besides, the findings of their study indicated that the text reconstruction task caused the greatest attention to form. On the other hand, Song and Suh (2008) who compared the effectiveness of a reconstruction task with a picture-cued writing task in noticing and learning of English past counterfactual conditional reported that the efficacy of the two output tasks was the same in the posttest. In line with the study of Song and Suh (2008), Reinders (2009) explored the effects of three types of production activities on uptake and acquisition of negative adverbs in English. He found that the effect of the three activities — a dictation, an individual reconstruction and a collaborative reconstruction task— was almost the same on the acquisition of grammatical items. The result suggested that all three activities led to uptake. However, the collaborative reconstruction and the dictation activities resulted in greater uptake than the individual reconstruction activity.

While Song and Suh (2008) and Reinders (2009) reported no considerable effect of task type on learning, Nassaji and Tian (2010) reported significant effect in their study. They compared the efficiency of reconstruction cloze tasks and reconstruction editing tasks in learning English phrasal verbs. Furthermore, they examined the effect of performing the tasks collaboratively versus individually. The results revealed that accuracy of task completion was greater when learners completed the tasks collaboratively comparing with the time they completed them individually. However, collaborative tasks did not result in considerably greater gains of vocabulary knowledge than individual tasks. More importantly, the results suggested an effect of task type as the editing task was more effective than the cloze task in promoting negotiation and learning.

One conclusion that may be drawn from the above studies is that output tasks may facilitate noticing of the target forms, but they may not necessarily lead to better gains of knowledge in comparison to non-output tasks. Nevertheless, as Song and Suh (2008) stressed, studies in this area did not show a clear positive effect for noticing function of output. Besides, contradictory results were reported on the effect of text reconstruction task on the learning of target forms. Based on the foregoing discussion, the present study addressed the following research questions:

1. Would there be a difference (or gap) in the performance of the Iranian young adult EFL learners between their comprehension and production of verbal morphemes (present progressive –ing and simple past –ed)?
2. If it is so, would output task (i.e., text reconstruction task) fill the gap between comprehension and production of verbal morphemes (–ing and –ed) by Iranian young adult EFL learners?
3. Would output task affect Iranian young adult EFL learners' acquisition of verbal morphemes?

III. METHOD OF THE STUDY

A. Participants

The participants were chosen from among students (within the age range of 13-15) enrolled in the Iran Language Institute (Babol branch), an important language institute in Iran. The two selected classes were similar in their level and student population. The selection of the participants was based on the results of the pre-test on the target forms. The participants who demonstrated an acceptable knowledge of the target linguistic forms but had yet to improve their knowledge of the morphemes were invited to participate. During the pre-test, those students who showed sufficient knowledge of the aforementioned morphemes (scored 90% or above) and those who did not demonstrate any sign of knowledge of these morphemes both in their comprehension and production were eliminated from the participants' pool. Thirty-nine out of forty two students who participated in this study were assumed to be developmentally ready to learn the target form. All of these students agreed to participate in the study. One group was randomly chosen as the control group and the other one as the experimental group.

B. Procedure

The procedure of the study was as follows: first, one of the researchers administered the pretest and scored the test papers in each class to screen the participants meeting the requirements of the study. The pretest was conducted in three sessions - one session for comprehension test and the next two sessions for production tests all of which were in written modality. Two production tests were given to the learners to check their production of verbal morphemes both in and out of context. The reason for using two production tests was that the researchers were interested in checking the learners' production at sentence and discourse levels. The interval between the pretest and the first practice session was exactly one week. The practice sessions were also in written mode and included three successive sessions with a one-week interval between them. The students were told that the purpose of the study was to help them make progress in English writing. Before beginning the first session, the participants were made familiar with the procedures of the practice sessions. After the practice sessions, the posttest was administered in three sessions with the same order as employed in the pretest. There was a one-week interval between the last practice session and the first session of the posttest.

C. Instructional Treatment

1. Text reconstruction task

The task used in this study was a modified version of a text-reconstruction task used in previous studies on output. The whole treatment was done using an audio-text cartoon strip from a series published by Oxford University Press (Toyama & Rivers, 2005). The input was controlled for length, which helped the researchers have full control over the time of input exposure and succession of the activities which eventually made data collection easier. This cartoon strip was specially selected because it was expected to be reasonably, though not intimately, familiar to the participants. It was also expected that the content would constitute a feasible processing load in terms of understanding for the learners. After all, the story was suitable for the purpose of the study as it consisted of two parts: present and past. Following Izumi (2002), the whole text was divided into two parts to lighten the memory load on the learners. Then, the learners had to read and listen to two two-minute audio texts which were semantically related to each other. The pausing point was carefully chosen so that each part remained coherent and meaningful. There were about 20 sentences in each part so it was neither very long for the learners to forget the content of the story nor very short to memorize the sentences. An important modification in this text reconstruction task was the cartoon-strip accompanying audio-texts. The cartoon strip seemed to lighten the memory load on the part of the subjects when they were reconstructing the texts and to help them concentrate on the form rather than on recalling the story line. Audio text was selected instead of common texts, again to help the learners in reading, and as a result, to provide them with more time and attentional resources to devote to forms. The text was not artificially made for this task. Rather, it was an authentic text to give learners a chance to prepare for confronting with genuine texts in real life situation. Furthermore, the text was carefully selected to have sufficient amount of target forms to attract learners' attention.

2. Treatment procedure

At first, the goal of the task was conveyed to the learners in the output group. They were told to a) read and listen to the story carefully and try to understand it and b) reconstruct the text as accurately as possible. Then, the emphasis was on comprehension so that the real aim of the study does not become clear to the participants. Before beginning the task, the participants were told that they have to read and listen to the audio text carefully because it will not be repeated for them before they reconstruct it for the first time. They were instructed not to take any notes during input exposure phase. They were also informed in advance that they will have limited amount of time for production to account for time variable. After the first input exposure, the learners had to reconstruct the text as accurately as possible. Similar procedure was adopted and employed in the second and third sessions. When the learners reconstructed the whole text, the same procedures were repeated. At this point, the learners were instructed to make any changes they thought necessary to make their written productions as accurate as possible. Again, the learners were not allowed to take notes during input exposure. The same procedures were followed for the second input exposure. No feedback was given before or during the study about tasks or students' performance so that only purely task-based effects are gathered.

D. Testing Instruments

To assess learners' knowledge of the target forms before and after the treatment, three different testing measures were used. A multiple choice test of verbal morphemes was used to check receptive knowledge of the forms. To check their productive knowledge of the target forms, first, an individual picture description task was used. Next, a picture-description task in context was employed which included two parts: one aimed at testing learners' production of -ing morpheme (present progressive tense) and the other for testing their production of -ed morpheme (past tense). The tests were given in the order mentioned above. Equal number of items was allocated for each of the targeted morphemes in each test. In the context picture-description task, the number of items was also equal but each of them was aimed at specifically testing one of the morphemes. The exact time for each test was determined in advance based on the results attained from pilot studies. To avoid drawbacks of learners' fatigue due to taking several tests, the testing sessions were held separately— one test in each session in the above mentioned order (see Appendices A, B and C).

1. Recognition test

The recognition test consisted of 20 multiple choice items adopted from Bloor et al. (1970) (see Appendix A for sample items of the recognition test). Half of these items were to check learners' ability to recognize correct use of

present progressive –ing and the other half was allocated to simple past –ed. The participants were instructed to choose one answer which is correct. One point was assigned for each correct answer and no point was given when they chose incorrect answers or gave no answer. Then, the total score for all items answered correctly was 20.

2. Individual picture description task

Following Sung and Suh (2008), the individual picture description task was employed in the study (see Appendix B for sample pictures of the individual picture description task). The pictures were adopted from Toyama and Rivers (2005) published by Oxford University Press. In the present study, this test was used as a written elicitation measure to assess learners' productive knowledge of target forms. For each item in this test, learners saw the picture and described it in a simple sentence. In each picture, the time was clearly mentioned. The learners were asked to pay attention to the time mentioned in each picture and try to use it in their sentences. The test included 20 items and the time allocated for each item was one minute. Decisions about the time for each exam were made based on feedback received from the pilot studies.

3. Picture description task in context

The picture description task in context was specially made for this study as the researchers were interested in assessing the learners' ability to use verbal morphemes in context where discourse rather than isolated sentences was the unit of producing language. Two pictures were selected for this purpose— one indicating time in the past and the other one indicating present. The activities the characters were doing in each picture were numbered. Thus, the learners were expected to produce eight sentences for each picture. We thought that the learners might produce more than eight sentences for each picture since they were going to write at discourse level, but in scoring, just those eight items were taken into account for each picture. So, they had to produce at least sixteen items for the two pictures.

E. Scoring and Analysis

All the test data were scored by giving one point to a correct answer and zero for an incorrect answer. The data from each test were scored separately. Owing to differences in the number of items included in each test, scores obtained from each testing measure were changed into percentage. Finally, the composite score was calculated using the results of all three testing measures. It is worth mentioning that the composite score for the two production tests was also obtained to have a clear idea of output tasks on learners' productive knowledge. On all production tests, only the production of the targeted morphemes was considered as correct response. The errors related to spelling were ignored since the researchers were only concerned about using correct morphemes for the related tense.

IV. RESULTS

To answer the research questions, the statistical analysis of SPSS was performed to determine 1) whether there is a difference between the learners' recognition and production tests of verbal morphemes, 2) whether there is any significant difference between the two groups concerning their performance after the practice sessions and finally, 3) whether there are any significant changes within groups regarding their receptive and productive abilities over time. Before examining the effect of treatment, the knowledge of the two groups on the past and present progressive morphemes was examined. To do so, the composite test scores of the two groups on pretests of comprehension and production were submitted to independent-samples t-tests. It should be noted that the data from each testing measure were scored separately and were then combined to obtain a composite test score. The result of the analysis illustrated no significant difference on the knowledge of verbal morphemes (their comprehension and production) between the output group ($M=54.93$, $SD=15.96$) and the control group ($M=48.29$, $SD=15.13$) ($df=36$, $F=.000$, $p<.05$). Therefore, any difference between these groups on posttests or any gains from pretest to posttest can be attributed to the effect of the treatment.

A. The Difference between Comprehension and Production of Verbal Morphemes

Our first research question addressed whether there is a difference between comprehension and production of verbal morphemes (present progressive –ing and simple past –ed) by Iranian young adult EFL learners. The test results revealed a large gap between the mean scores of the learners obtained on recognition test and production tests, in the sense that they did considerably better on comprehension test than on production tests. To examine the statistical significance of the issue, the mean score of the comprehension test was compared with the mean composite score of the two production tests. The result of the comparison through a matched t-test indicated that there is a significant difference between the learners' comprehension and production of verbal morphemes ($df=37$, $t=14.77$, $p<.05$).

B. The Effect of the Output Task on the Gap between Comprehension and Production

The second research question addressed whether employing an output task would fill the gap between comprehension and production of verbal morphemes. To find an answer for this question, the difference between the learners' mean scores on comprehension test and production tests was computed on both their pretest and posttest separately and then, the difference obtained for posttest was subtracted from that of pretest. In this way, the amount of the gap remained as a result of the production task was computed. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for the mean scores of the output group on all tests before and after the practice sessions.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR RECOGNITION AND PRODUCTION TEST SCORES FOR THE OUTPUT GROUP

Test		Mean	SD	df	t	sig.	Mean of gap
Pretest	Recognition	88.50	6.70	19	10.1	.000	44.75
	Production	43.75	20.60	19			
Posttest	Recognition	90.00	7.60	19	4.49	.000	18.63
	Production	71.37	18.90	19			

Note. The scores are presented in percentage. $p < .05$

As it is clear from the table, the output task had major effect on filling the gap between the learners' comprehension and production of the target form. However, the remained gap was also considerable. In other words, although the output task was very effective in filling the gap between the learners' receptive and productive knowledge of the verbal morphemes, it did not live up to the expectation the researchers had based on psycholinguistic rationale of the output hypothesis.

To explore the statistical significance of the change brought about by the output task, the mean score of the comprehension test was compared with the mean score of the two production tests, on both pretest and posttest, using a matched t-test. This analysis was done for both pretest and posttest so that the statistical significance of the gap on both tests is compared. The result of the analysis showed that there was a significant difference between the learners' receptive and productive knowledge of verbal morphemes ($df = 19$, $t = 10.01$, $p < 0.05$), and the difference remained statistically significant even after the practice sessions ($df = 19$, $t = 4.49$, $p < 0.05$). However, the fact that the output task decreased this gap to a great extent cannot be denied.

C. The Effect of the Output Task on the Acquisition of Verbal Morphemes

The third research question addressed the effect of the output task on the acquisition of the target form. To find an answer to this question, the two groups were compared after the practice sessions. The overall test result indicated that the output group experienced greater improvement than did the control group since the increase in the mean score of the output group from pretest to posttest was around 21.09, which was considerably higher than the control group's gain (9.77). To test for the statistical significance of these differences, the posttest mean composite scores of the groups were computed and compared using independent samples t-tests. The result showed a significant difference in scores of the two groups ($df = 36$, $t = 3.06$, $p < 0.05$), which indicated significant main effect for the output practice. In other words, the output task employed in this study was effective for acquiring verbal morphemes.

As a further test to detect whether the output group has made improvement, the mean scores on pretests and posttests were compared using a matched t-test. The result revealed that they had made significant improvement ($df = 19$, $t = 5.57$, $p < 0.05$) from pretest to posttest.

D. The Effect of the Output Task on Productive Knowledge of the Learners

Though the comparison made between the mean scores on pretest and posttest for the output group showed positive effects of the output task, it did not provide detailed information on its effect on different aspects of their knowledge. This called for further analysis on different aspects of the participants' knowledge (i.e. receptive and productive). The result of preliminary analysis showed high achievement after practice sessions as the increase in the learners' production score from pretest to posttest was around 27.62. To gain detailed information on the issue, the mean scores obtained from the production tests in the pretest and posttest were compared using matched t-test. The analysis showed that the output group had significant improvement in their productive knowledge of the target forms after practice sessions ($df = 19$, $t = 5.49$, $p < 0.05$). Interestingly, a comparative result was reported when the mean composite score of production pretest and posttest of the output group and the control group were compared using independent t-test.

The results also suggest that there is a significant difference in the scores of production tests between output group and control group ($df = 36$, $t = 2.47$, $p < 0.05$). This indicates that the participants engaged in output task gained higher achievement on tests of verbal morphemes than did the participants in the control group. Considering the obtained results, it is clear that the output task had a considerable impact on the production of verbal morphemes by the learners.

E. The Effect of the Output Task on Receptive Knowledge of the Learners

To examine the effect of output tasks on receptive knowledge of the learners, the mean scores of the comprehension test by the output group in the pretest and posttest was compared. The result of the analysis using a matched t-test indicated that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of comprehension test on pretest and posttest. This means that no significant increase in the learners' receptive knowledge of verbal morphemes can be associated with the output task ($df = 19$, $t = .79$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, not all testing measures showed strong positive effect for the output task. It appears that the beneficial effect of output task was limited to productive ability of the learners. And it may be concluded that the output group was successful in learning and balancing the difference between their comprehension and production of verbal morphemes to a great extent. The control group, on the other hand, failed to show as much

learning of the form while their comprehension level was comparable to that of output group. This seems to be consistent with findings of previous studies which reported positive effects of output tasks on learning.

To present information on the magnitude of the treatment effect, the effect sizes were computed using 'Chen's *d*' which is a common effect size indicator for independent samples *t*-tests. The effect size is of great value to the study as it provides significant information on the effect of the practice sessions without being affected by the sample size of the study (Izumi, 2002). The result of analysis for Cohen's *d* was 1.01 for the total of one comprehension test and two production tests divided by three.

V. DISCUSSION

This study intended to explore two major questions: whether there is a gap between comprehension and production of verbal morphemes; and if so, whether an output task can fill this gap. Two major findings were reported in the current study. First, it was revealed that there is a significant difference between learners' scores on comprehension and production tests. Second, in terms of acquisition, it became evident that those engaged in the output task performed considerably better on posttest than did the learners in the control group. This finding reveals that having the chance of producing output in a meaningful way has positive effects in promoting learners' productive abilities on verbal morphemes.

Detailed analysis of pretest results suggested that there was a considerable difference between learners' performance on comprehension and production tests. While most of the learners achieved acceptable scores on comprehension test, many of them could not do well on production tests. Thus, it was concluded that there exists a gap between learners' comprehension and production of verbal morphemes. It is encouraging to compare this finding with a seminal study by Swain (1985). She found that in Canadian Immersion Program, there was a considerable gap between the learners' comprehension and production. This finding further supports the idea that providing learners with comprehensible input or even the existence of comprehended input is not adequate and will not guarantee automatic learning of the form present in the input.

Regarding the second research question, evidence to support the positive effects of producing output was observed in the posttest in the sense that the learners in the output group had significant gain in their productive knowledge of the target form. Considering the amount of gap in the pretest, the output task was successful in filling a great amount of it (almost 58%); however, the remained gap cannot be ignored. There are several possible explanations for this result. Firstly, this result may be explained by the fact that *time* matters when the learners are engaged in an activity. The learners in the present study participated in three practice sessions. During this period, they succeeded in filling around 58% of the gap. It seems possible that the remained gap might be filled if more practice sessions were included in the study. The positive effect of output tasks in long run is also reported by Mennim (2007) who detected much improvement in the learners' accurate use of the target form nine months after the beginning of the study. Also, it is not unlikely that the learners might show even better gains on delayed posttest than on immediate posttest as was reported by De la Fuente (2006). It is also possible that this gap might never be filled totally and always may remain some superiority of learners' receptive knowledge over their productive knowledge. Since comprehending a message may be easier than producing it, more mistakes in the produced message may be observed which may finally show up in better performance in comprehension than in production. To comprehend a message, people do not necessarily employ their linguistic knowledge. In fact, some researchers (Clark & Clark, 1977, cited in Izumi, 2003) claim that syntactic processing may be bypassed by the learners in comprehension processes and semantic or contextual cues may be used instead. In the process of production, based on Levelt's speech production model, learners have to go through different stages which are more demanding in quality, for example message generation, grammatical encoding and monitoring. So, it is not unusual to see that there remains a gap in favor of their comprehension. In general, this study has found that output, as an internal priming device, evidently worked well in promoting learning of the target forms. It succeeded in putting the learner in favorable situations which encouraged comparison between the forms in their interlanguage and the target language system.

The result of the analysis made on the means of overall test scores to detect the change happened within the output group also indicated that there was a significant gain for the output group. This prompted further analysis to detect the effect of the output task on the learners' receptive and productive knowledge separately. The details are as follows. The result of the analysis which compared the mean score of overall production test scores on pretest with that of posttest suggests that the output group had considerable gains on their productive knowledge of verbal morphemes after practice sessions. This is in line with Izumi (2002) and Song and Suh (2008) who reported similar effects on learners' productive abilities. It seems that providing learners to produce the target forms plays an important role in helping them notice the gaps in their interlanguage.

Though findings of the study indicate that the learners had considerable gains in productive abilities, no significant growth was found on the learners' gain scores on posttest of comprehension. This implies that output tasks may not be more effective than comprehension activities in promoting learners' receptive knowledge of the morphemes. As a result, it can be concluded that although output tasks had unique effect on development of learners' verbal morphemes, the effect was limited only to productive abilities and did not affect their receptive knowledge of the targeted forms to a considerable extent. This is exactly in contradiction with what Izumi (2002) found in his study. There, he found dual

effect for output tasks on comprehension and production of English relativization for the output plus input enhancement treatment and interpreted it as the effect of output treatment on learners' interlanguage development. It is worth noting that the learners in his study were exposed to input enhancement which is a comprehension-based activity. On the other hand, our findings support the findings of Song and Suh (2008) that reported learners' gains in productive abilities but did not detect such effect on their receptive abilities.

The result of comparing the two groups' means suggests that the output group outperformed the control group on learning verbal morphemes at a statistically significant level. Following some studies reported in Norris and Ortega (2000), Cohen's *d* was calculated to compare the output group with the control group. It became evident that the effect size for the present study is quite large ($d=.69$) compared to the effect sizes obtained in Norris and Ortega's study for focus on form implicit treatments.

VI. CONCLUSION

The results of the present study lend empirical support to the positive effect of output treatment on learning English verbal morphemes by young adult learners of English as a foreign language. Findings indicate that the output task had a significant effect on developing learners' acquisition of the verbal morphemes, particularly their productive knowledge of the forms. The first implication from the present study is that the output condition is very effective in increasing learners' noticing of the verbal morphemes. This is in line with research findings which state the importance of output tasks for learning (Swain, 1995; Izumi, 2002) and their significant roles in developing productive language skills (Anderson, 1996; de Bot, 1996; Song & Suh, 2008).

This study may also have some implications for designing output tasks in educational setting. Findings of the present study indicate that the text reconstruction task had significant effect on improving learners' productive ability of verbal morphemes. This means that a challenging problem for learners, in target language grammar, was tackled quite easily within the possibilities of classroom setting. Participants were engaged in output tasks which provided them with the opportunity to do some syntactic processing and notice the problematic areas which was usually bypassed. It is worth noting that all these were achieved by using a content which constituted a feasible cognitive burden in terms of content words and untargeted function words, but posed major processing load in terms of target linguistic feature. This kind of output task can be used as a supplementary activity in English classroom since it can draw learners' attention to grammatical features of target language internally and keep their focus on content at the same time. When input-based activities (input-flooding), feedback, and unfocused activities (written or spoken) prove unhelpful, this sort of activity can be of great help by having two positive points: being focused and engaging learners in deep syntactic processing.

Nonetheless, the study suffers from some limitations. Firstly, it involved a very small sample size, which limits the generalizability of the findings. A larger sample size in future studies can be very helpful in promoting the external validity of the study and its generalizability. Secondly, due to time limitation, the study involved few treatment sessions. Conducting a study with more treatment sessions will illuminate the effect of these tasks in a more efficient way. Also, employing a delayed posttest would be desirable since it may show the effect of the task in the long run. In the present study, only one immediate post test was employed. A longitudinal study in future can account for these limitations by including more treatment sessions and delayed posttests. Future research can extend this study by examining the relationship between output task type and different linguistic forms. Also, further research is needed to explore possible effects of other output tasks in terms of complexity and cognitive factors (Robinson, 2001) on the noticing and learning of the target linguistic forms.

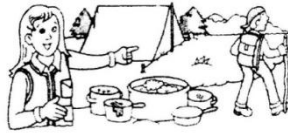
APPENDICES

A. Recognition test (Sample questions from the pre-/post-test)

1. Last night, Matt ----- a picture at the Amusement park.
A) have taken B) take C) were taking D) took
2. What are you doing under the table?
I ----- to find my pen.
A) tried B) had tried C) try D) am trying
3. Many years ago, people ----- dirty clothes with hands but today they use washing machines.
A) have washed B) had been washing C) wash D) washed
4. Now Ted ----- a book about sharks. I don't think he will finish it.
A) reads B) read C) has read D) is reading
5. When I was ten, I ----- a beautiful bicycle.
A) have had B) had C) have D) have been having

B. Picture prompt for the picture-cued writing (Examples from the form used in the pre-/post-test)

Now



1. Climb a mountain

9:00 A.M



1. Walk to school

Friday-15th

Friday 15



2. Watch TV

Now



4. Clean the tent

C. Contextualized production test (Sample questions from the pre-/post-test)

Part I. look at the picture, consider the context and then try to describe the picture using at least 8 numbered items.

1. Last Saturday, Annie and her family and friends went on a picnic.-----



2. Today is Monday. Everyone is busy. The barber is cutting the little boy's hair. -----



D. Picture cues and input passage for the reconstruction task (An example from the form used in the 1st treatment session).



E. Picture cues and input passage for the reconstruction task (An example from the form used in the 2nd treatment session)



F. Picture cues and input passage for the reconstruction task (An example from the form used in the 3rd treatment session)



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A Quantitative and a Qualitative Analysis of the Effect of Culture and Language on Arab Students' Response to Authentic Literature in English

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Abstract—Reading in a foreign language is laborious (Gorsuch & Taguchi, 2008), involving interaction between bottom-up and top-down movement in the process of creating meaning. When reading authentic literature, students must grapple not only with the text's linguistic code but with the cultural code as well. Thus, language and culture can have profound effects on how students respond to and comprehend literature. The aim of this article, therefore, is to investigate the effect of these two factors on Arab student response to authentic American literature. Part of a major study, the article analyses quantitatively and qualitatively the responses of 23 female students while reading the American short story "I Want to Be Miss America". The analysis shows clearly how students' native culture and language come into play during the process of reading and understanding the text. Appreciating the effect of these factors offers literature teachers an insight into the sources of student difficulties with native literature. This in turn enhances their ability to negotiate meaning with their students and arrive at a plausible understanding of the target text. A further consequence is improved language acquisition by the students (Cheon, 2003).

Index Terms—native culture, foreign language, authentic literature, reader response

I. INTRODUCTION

The importance for the reading process of foreign language students' cultural orientation and background knowledge has long been recognized. Schema theory acknowledges reading's interactive nature (Rumelhart, 1981; Bensoussan, 1998), which involves a simultaneous interplay of bottom-up and top-down processes. Given problems around culture and background, therefore, it is not only a text's linguistic features that can prevent comprehension but content-related factors too. Research found that when textual information matches a reader's background knowledge, greater comprehension and recall take place (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1988; Millan, 1999; Cheng, 2000). By contrast, mismatch between textual input and a reader's background knowledge creates difficulties, which also happens if incoming textual data is totally new. When recalling texts with information at odds with their pre-existing schema, readers tend to omit or distort the new input (Carrell, 1981). The conclusion seems to be that readers' personal prior knowledge is conditioned by their culture (Al-Seyabi, 2010; Millan, 1999; Al-Arfaj, 1996; Prichard, 1990). Put simply, texts containing familiar cultural content are easier to read and recall than, say, linguistically equivalent texts that contain unfamiliar information about a distant culture.

Reading the literature of a second or foreign language inevitably involves a struggle. As Uralab (2008, p. 26) puts it, "Reading literature across cultures is not only a reading process or a language process, but it is also influenced by the reader's cultural knowledge structures in the form of mental schemata". ESL/EFL readers experience difficulty because they naturally approach the literary text from a knowledge base within their own culture (Bouzenirh, 1991; Barnett, 1989). Scott (2001) holds that when students read texts with unfamiliar information they overcompensate for absent schema by reading slowly or by guessing, which of course may well cause a failure of comprehension (Nuttall, 1996; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

When students lack an appropriate schema, the teacher must help them to build it in order to achieve a plausible interpretation of unfamiliar literary texts. It should be done interactively with both teachers and students negotiating meaning by sharing background knowledge and cultural orientation. This kind of dialogue, while generating meaning, improves language acquisition and critical thinking. However, EFL literature classes are often highly teacher-centered, with the teacher's voice dominant, a practice which, research has shown, deters language learning (Fisher; cited in Akers, 2009). Dialogue, on the other hand, empowers students allowing them to put into the foreign language personal experience, so that the language acquires life and real significance for them. If their own cultural experiences are explored alongside the text's, misunderstanding is avoided and literary appreciation fostered. This view is firmly

supported by such reader response critics as Louise Rosenblatt, David Bleich, Wolfgang Iser and Stanley Fish (Harkin, 2005).

Rosenblatt sees literature reading as a transaction between reader and text in which the reader is actively involved in meaning making (Al-Mahrooqi, 2011). As the text evokes memories in the reader, the reader shapes meaning by checking the textual material against her background knowledge. Thus, a personal interpretation of the text is achieved. Rosenblatt thus affirms the validity of learner experience and its effect on literary text interpretation, making the unsurprising point that readers are influenced by past experience, current circumstance, regional origin, age, gender and upbringing, past and present reading.

Rosenblatt distinguishes two types of reading - efferent and aesthetic. Efferent reading is done simply to extract specific textual information. Aesthetic reading, however, focuses on personal involvement with text, which stirs personal feelings, attitudes, ideas and experiences (Arshed, 1998; Wang, 1999). All this gives the reader a literary experience that creates an intimate connection with the text and a measure of personal worth.

Because literature is aesthetic by nature and emerges from human experience, Rosenblatt calls for an aesthetic stance when engaging with it. And since literature can move readers by engaging their feelings, teachers should take advantage of this and allow students to respond accordingly (Probst, 1988; Lazar, 1990, 1996).

When adopting an aesthetic stance, readers' inclinations and experiences – their culture - find a place in which to be actualized (Probst, 1988). Readers, then, are not empty vessels; rather, they come to a text imbued with perceptions garnered from their own culture. When the text's culture resembles the reader's, the reader is likely to have an involving experience. Texts from a foreign culture might be difficult of access (hence a need for careful selection) and thus emotional involvement might well be thwarted. All texts contain multiple invisibilities: gaps, nuances about people, places and times, metaphors and vague references (Iser, 1980). These lacunae must be filled by the reader, who falls back on prior experience and searches his schema for information to render the text whole. The process prompts reader possession of the text (Mailloux, 1990; Selden, 1993).

Though applying reader response in the literature classroom has grown over the past twenty years, research has shown it happening largely with first-language reading and only rarely in ESL/EFL contexts (Al-Mahrooqi, 2011). This is unfortunate since, after all, this approach's principles are consonant with those of the communicative and student-centered approaches, which both call for emphasis on learners and their experience (Carlisle, 2000).

The present study endeavors to show how present learners' culture is in their response to authentic literature, and what personal input and experiences are projected into the text – information that could be used by the literature teacher in negotiating meaning with learners to increase their comprehension and involvement in literature.

II. THE STUDY

This present study constitutes part of a larger exercise seeking to show how native culture influences affect responses to authentic literature in English. Twenty-three female students participated in reading the American short story "I Want to Be Miss America" by Julia Alvarez. Its theme reflects the struggles of American minority women who try to survive in a society that places many demands and constraints on them. Beauty, color, and slimness are among the concerns of many young American women from diverse walks of life and ethnic backgrounds, and which the story's main characters share. Hailing from the Dominican Republic, and looking nothing like the participants in US beauty pageants, they nevertheless do everything to emulate their local counterparts and so acquire the American look. They are desperate to look beautiful in public and thus perhaps even assimilate into America's mainstream society and culture.

The researcher chose this story for Omani female students because she believed it would trigger responses that might highlight Omani cultural values different from those of American popular culture. For instance, while Omani women are encouraged to conceal their beauty, covering their body in public, except for face and hands, American popular culture emphasizes female freedom in terms of clothes and degree of bodily exposure.

A. *Quantitative Analysis of the Responses*

The story was divided into eight sections. Respondents wrote their responses immediately after reading each section in order to encourage detailed recording of their reactions and the avoidance of amnesia. After completing their responses, participants undertook a reflection task in which they were asked to reflect on the story they just read.

After collecting all responses, they were analyzed and tabulated according to Squire's 1964 response categories. These included:

1. Interpretational Responses. As the phrase suggests, this category includes attempts to arrive at the story's meaning by explaining events and characters' actions. The following sub-categories are included:

- 1.1 Text-oriented interpretation: Here the reader interprets textual information without attempting to hypothesize, predict, generalize, question or include didactic and religious comments.

- 1.2 Misinterpretation: This covers the failed interpretations the reader makes while attempting to comprehend the text.

- 1.3 Generalizations: Here, the reader speaks about what is in general natural, true or common among people and societies.

1.4 Questioning: Readers sometimes question characters' motivation and actions although they are not really looking for answers. They might be questioning merely as a way of being cynical and sarcastic about characters' actions and motives.

1.5 Inquiry: Here, readers ask questions to which they actually need an answer. They might have missed a point in the story and seek clarification about it. Such inquiries might indicate confusion or a lack of overall comprehension of the story and its elements.

1.6 Hypothesizing and reasoning: Readers sometimes hypothesize about what is going on in the story. This might take the form of a statement such as "I think this is happening because of this or that". Also readers sometimes list reasons for why they think the way they do, citing incidents or events in the story to support their interpretation. Reasoning may also involve pinpointing contradictions and events in the story that are at odds with the social norms and customs of the cultural context or with the setting and time in which the story takes place.

1.7 Moral and personality judgments: Readers sometimes pass judgment on the virtue or intellect of character because of the way they behave.

1.8 Didactic comments: Here readers turn to codes of religion and custom to support their interpretations and judgments. In this type of response, readers privilege the values and principles they believe in.

1.9 Prediction: Here, based on previous cultural knowledge, readers anticipate what will happen next in the story.

There is a second table that includes all of Squire's remaining categories. The second table, therefore, includes the following:

2. Literal judgment: This means judging the work's artistic quality, language, style or characterization. It might simply describe it as "good" or "obscure".

3. Narrational responses: Responses in this category merely retell the story's events.

4. Associational responses. These are responses in which readers establish links between the events, places, ideas or characters in the story and counterparts from their own experience and background.

5. Self-involvement: Here readers associate the way characters feel or think with the way they feel or think.

6. Prescriptive judgment: These are responses in which readers prescribe a course of action for the characters, giving them advice or saying what they should or should not have done.

7. Miscellaneous: These responses do not belong to any of the previous categories.

Inter-rater reliability of quantitative analysis.

To ensure the reliability of response analysis and categorization, some responses were randomly selected and given to another rater familiar with Squire's categories and with whom the researcher met to discuss the meaning of all the categories, and especially the new subcategories. The second rater analyzed the responses and categorized them. The categorization was correlated with the researcher's, resulting in an inter-rater reliability coefficient of $r = .97$ for the interpretational responses and $.92$ for the other categories.

B. Qualitative Analysis of Data

In order to achieve a clear idea about how the participants' culture affected their responses, the data obtained from both the free response and reflection tasks was analyzed qualitatively. Best and Kahn (1998) suggest three steps for analyzing qualitative data - organizing it, describing it, and interpreting it. Hence, the researcher first organized responses according to the categories into which they fitted. Then she described and interpreted them, checking the extent to which such phenomena as religion or beliefs, customs and traditions, family roles and relationships and other cultural indicators were present and affected participants' understanding of and involvement in the story.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As already mentioned, "I Want to be Miss America" was divided into eight sections and participants received one section at a time, responding to it without seeing the other sections. The responses obtained were analyzed according to the categories explained earlier and their distribution across these categories is presented in this section. Both quantitative and qualitative results are displayed in subsequent sections. The subcategories of the interpretational responses are displayed in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
TOTAL NUMBER OF INTERPRETATIONAL RESPONSES AND THE PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES IN EVERY INTERPRETATIONAL SUBCATEGORY

Category	Total number of responses and Percentages
Total number of responses	28.13
Textual Interpretation	56.0%
Misinterpretation	20.1%
Generalization	7.5%
Questioning	1.8%
Inquiry	1.6%
Hypotheses and Reasoning	1.0%
Moral Judgment	3.3%
Didactic Comments	7.7%
Prediction	1.2%

From this table it is clear that the textual interpretation subcategory accounted for a much larger percentage of responses than the other subcategories. However, qualitatively, most responses in this section were not specific. They were, in fact, superficial and fluid. Some participants included just one or two sentences in response to a particular section. An example of a response to section two is the following: "I understood from this section that they were not in America before and that they hoped to go to it and live in it for a while. It is a special place." Some responses included a large number of sentences and suggested that the main theme concerned the four girls' struggle to fit into American popular culture. A response in section three is an example of this:

This section shows us how people in America are concerned about appearances. These girls want everybody to pay attention to them and their beauty. They live in a dilemma because they cannot accomplish all of these things. But they dream about realizing them which leads to a psychological conflict inside them which in turn leads to their inability to live in serenity and calm.

In many instances, while reading and responding, participants seemed uncertain about their understanding of what they read. Many qualified their responses with "maybe" or "I do not know what this means but I think...." Here is one example:

This family no longer feels homesick and has started to live its life in a normal way in America... They are Hispanic, but the teacher and their classmates in school call them Puerto Ricans. I do not know the meanings of these terms, but I guess these are used to refer to the places they come from.

Another participant wrote in response to section six, "I did not understand this section very well, but maybe it is about the family's opinion regarding the American beauty pageants...."

Some participants simply focused on what they knew best when responding. They might be having difficulty in understanding a certain section and all its major ideas, but understand one minor point not very central to the story. Such participants might take that point, amplify it, and make it the major thrust of her response to the whole section. The following response to section three is an example: "This section shows how to take care of the outward appearance of a person and that is by taking care of makeup, straightening hair and using face make up and so on." Section six of the story mentioned fleetingly something about the four girls being groomed to be dutiful wives, and the response of one participant to the whole section was:

I understood how preparations for married life are done and how this stage differs from the stages preceding it because married life has responsibilities and duties that married people are obliged to fulfill.

This response is clearly general, too fluid and detached from the main theme. It is apparent here how the participant's schema is in play. When participants' inadequate linguistic skills prevent comprehension, they fall back on their own reservoir of knowledge. Here, however, personal schema did not match up with the text's schema – hence interpretational fluidity.

Some participants understood the story well and thus produced responses that contained well-defined textual interpretation. The following excerpt comes from one such response:

Their desire to be similar to the Americans made them change the way they looked step by step to achieve what they aimed for. From this passage we can see how the mother does not agree with them in this. That is why they do it behind her back. It is apparent from the passage how dazzled they are with America, with everything in it and how affected they are with its customs. This made them copy things as though their own customs and traditions and looks with which they came to America were shameful or frightening or incomplete and as though everything American was complete, flawless and has nothing negative about it. This attitude makes some people completely abandon their religion, traditions and customs.

As is apparent here, some participants stressed the importance of preserving one's own religion and traditions because this is vital in their own culture. It was amazing to see how many participants included the same sentence when addressing this issue. This sentence – "A person who has no past has no future" – is a famous quote from a Sultan Qaboos speech to the Omani people. The participants must have come across it on countless occasions during their education for Oman holds a massive annual festival to celebrate its traditions and history.

The second subcategory that contained many responses was misinterpretations. In fact, 20% of all interpretations were misinterpretations caused by the participants' unfamiliarity with the story's cultural content, their inability to establish connections between events, their being misled by wrong associations, and their inability to grasp the intention of the author. Furthermore, vocabulary and structure were obstacles that added to the text's difficulty.

The vocabulary problem was exacerbated by the differences in culture, which must have caused wrong associations and thus misinterpretation. Many participants were unfamiliar with the idea of beauty contests, and those who knew about them had never read about them in English. Hence, either the idea was completely absent from the participants' schema or the relevant language was missing from their linguistic reservoir. And so some participants interpreted the contest as a "festival" that "the queen" attends, showing that, other problems apart, they were unfamiliar with the system of government in the United States. This was not surprising, since many people in Oman have little knowledge of politics.

In the story, the elected beauty queen walks along "the runway" and is met with the cheers of the attending fans. However, some participants misinterpreted the word "runway" thinking that it meant "road." One wrote: "The beautiful woman walks on the road and the looks of admiration follow her." The word "decade" was misread as "day" by one

participant, who thus seriously misunderstood the plot's time frame. Instead of realizing that the girls had spent years in America, she wrote: "after spending three days in America, they still feel like strangers". And yet the narrator had described how the family moved to New York, how the four girls tried to adjust, and how they went to a school where their native country was not even known to the American students and teachers. One participant misunderstood "as for" in the following sentence from the story: "As for Miss America, we sisters kept our choices secret until the end." The participant thought "as for" meant "like" instead of "regarding and thus wrote: "Like Miss America, we had a small secret that we kept to the end". Another participant misinterpreted the word "cheap" in the following sentence: "But the dresses that we picked out made us look cheap, she [the mother] said, like bad, fat girls." Hence she wrote: "The mother implores her daughters to wear clothes that are more chic and expensive," which was totally at odds with the mother's disapproval of her daughters' choosing American clothes that made them look vulgar rather than the clothes associated with their native culture.

Participants seemed unable to understand sentence structures that were complex or unusual. The sentence "Mami did not even notice our Naired legs; she was too busy disapproving of other changes", appearing in the fourth section of the story, was interpreted simply as "The mother was so busy that she did not notice the changes that happened to her daughters." One participant interpreted the same sentence as "The mother did not care about the changes in her daughters." Still another offered a very confused account of the fourth section as a whole. She wrote:

In this section, the mother was so busy that she did not see what her daughters were doing. Her daughters were trying to copy American women in the way they dressed such as using the flower on the neck and other things of the Western clothing. The father too did not notice the changes his daughters were displaying. Most of the time, he would sit and repeat a song. He used to stop in New York whenever he heard girls singing that song.

Many misinterpretations of this section occurred. For example, the girls did not like to wear clothes that had flowers on the collar; their mother wanted them to wear dresses with flower prints and bows at the neck because this form of dress was the common one in their old country. The father did not stop to listen to girls singing; he sang to the girls walking by him in the streets of New York. Some participants misunderstood the actions of the father. One wrote: "the father was ashamed of his daughters' action", but the narrator actually says, "there will be a day when our father will hold his head high being proud of us." Yet of course, it was the four girls who felt embarrassed by their father's singing to women or girls passing by him in the streets of New York. One participant described the song as "sarcastic" when it was not. The participants' cultural view of a father figure as someone who is always the decent guide and role model for his children affected their interpretation.

Difficulty with both vocabulary and sentence structure made many participants misinterpret the following excerpt from section five:

I did not have a preferred feature, but I was often voted the cutest, though my oldest sister liked to tease me that I had that kind of looks that did not age well. Although she was only eleven months older than I was, she seemed years older and ages wiser.

Of this one participant wrote:

The narrator thinks that she does not have good judgment to decide which of the sisters was the most beautiful, but her sister who was only eleven months older was much wiser and more able to do that.

The mother's remark about "Americans believing in democracy even in looks" was understood to mean "American women believe in democracy more than looks."

Because many participants missed the story's theme, which was the four girls' struggle to fit into America, they misinterpreted many sentences. Three thought that the four girls wanted someday to be good wives and mothers. Another wrote: "The narrator wished in the last section that all women can find a way to look beautiful just like Barbie so that every girl can participate in the beauty contest." One participant missed the theme because she thought the narrator was 'a boy' not one of the four sisters. Clearly, linguistic problems and unfamiliarity with the story's culture produced all these misinterpretations.

Because of linguistic difficulties, participants could not establish connections between events or even between paragraphs in the same section. For example, section six has two paragraphs which are related because they talk about beauty contestants. In both the narrator compares her own and her sisters' upbringing and future expectations with those of the contestants. Then, she describes the reactions of her sisters and father to what they saw in the contest. About this one participant wrote:

I feel there is no connection between the first part and the second part. The only thing that I understand is that the first part discusses how a woman can be a wife, and the second part speaks about the women on the stage and what they wear. So I do not feel there is any connection between these two parts.

Because the total context of the story was lost on many participants, they read each section as a separate entity and thus fell into much misinterpretation.

To conclude this section, it is clear that the linguistic difficulties the participants faced in terms of vocabulary and structure inhibited their understanding of the story. And the unfamiliar topic seemed to exacerbate the linguistic problem.

Generalization responses ranked third following textual interpretations and misinterpretations. Since the story highlights the struggle of four teenagers to fit into a new society, the participants identified with what the adolescent

girls were doing. Thus, almost all their generalizations were about all teenage girls and how all fathers and mothers react to their actions. An example is the following: "These are natural incidents for all girls. They all want to be beautiful or at least not to look starkly different from those around them." An example of a generalization about mothers is "All the mothers want to feel that their children appreciate them very much." As for fathers we find: "This reflects a reality because we find that fathers are always busy with their work while mothers are the ones who care more about the children." These generalizations reflect Omani culture and the roles it prescribes for both mothers and fathers.

The fact that the story's main characters were immigrants with a native culture similar in many ways to Arabic culture left participants feeling confident about generalizing, not just about teenagers, mothers and fathers, but also about how all immigrants try to assimilate into their new culture and how their assimilation comes at the cost of losing their identity. Furthermore, the fact that all participants had gone through adolescence and had probably felt similar concerns about their appearance at some point also facilitated their generalizing.

Having been teenagers, participants felt able to offer advice to all women and teenagers about how it is more important to improve and perfect their characters than their looks. Hence, a plethora of didactic comments (7.7% of the total number of interpretational responses). Those who understood about beauty contests wanted to make moral comments about them, saying, for example, that they "demean the woman by making her body a commodity to be displayed without any respect in front of the eyes of spectators." Indeed, the story contained much material in which the participants' Omani moral code was broken. To illustrate, the four girls sought to change their looks using artificial means such as makeup; they did not listen to their mother's advice; they acted behind their mother's back; they were ashamed of their old country; and they competed with one another to see who was the most beautiful. Participants felt moved to contrast their own culture with its Western counterpart, where a woman's appearance is highly valued and celebrated. A growing tendency among Omani girls to search for ideal looks and participants' disagreement with this produced much didactic comment. Hence the following:

When we see world beauty queens... we say glory to God who divided sustenance for some people are beautiful, some are not so beautiful, and some are not beautiful at all. And we walk away with one conclusion that maybe we do not possess beauty such as these women, but beauty is not always the beauty of the face. The beauty of the soul is one of the most important things a person needs to possess and everybody has a feature that distinguishes him from others and that makes him beautiful.

Some didactic comments were very concise because participants cited a proverb or gnomic saying such as in "A person with no past has no present" or "Contentment is an everlasting treasure." All such comments reflected the norms of the participants' own culture and its values.

The categories following didactic comments included far fewer responses than those already discussed. Moral judgment responses accounted for only 3.3% of responses. Moral judgments that did arise focused on the girls' frivolity, their lack of character, self-respect and self-esteem. They were not severe because seeking beauty was regarded as a natural stage through which teenage girls go.

Due to the story's narrative nature and the fact that its plot contained no climax or obscurity, there were few inquiry responses. Examples included queries about the meaning of the song the girls' father sang and about the word "Hispanic" because some participants did not know its meaning.

Questioning responses, in which the participants interrogated the motives or actions of characters, were few (1.8%). This might be, again, because the story had no major climax and because participants were having difficulty with understanding it. For example, when the four girls wanted to shave their legs, one participant asked, "Why do they care about that? Who would notice their skin or legs anyway? Few people care about these things." Responding to the narrator's desire to look American, another participant asked, "Why isn't she content with her reality? Why does she aspire to something she cannot reach?" When, in the last section, the narrator discovers that she should never have been dissatisfied with the way she looked, one participant asked, "Why didn't she discover this earlier?" It is apparent from these examples that Omani culture is in play here. A woman's body is her own and nobody should have any business with it; also a woman had better accept her fate and be content with the way God has created her.

Responses around reasoning and prediction were the least numerous of all. What few responses emerged reflected the culture of the participants. They expected that the four girls would do something wrong due to their preoccupation with beauty. One participant wrote: "I expect that in the following sections the girls will break all the obstacles that prevent the woman from venturing outside her home. Later, disasters will follow because of neglecting and breaking free from traditions and customs." Another wrote: "Their beauty is fake, therefore, they will face a lot of problems." The idea of anticipating disaster after breaking custom is, of course, an import from the participants' native culture.

Having covered the results in the interpretation category, the following section displays results for the remaining six categories. Table 2 shows mean responses for each category.

TABLE 2:
THE MEAN PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES IN ALL THE CATEGORIES INCLUDING INTERPRETATION

Category	Mean Percentage	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Interpretation	55.32	19.36	20.00	100.00
Literal Judgment	5.17	10.03	.00	45.45
Narration	28.47	19.34	.00	62.96
Association	7.64	17.05	.00	80.00
Self-involvement	1.80	3.97	.00	15.91
Prescriptive Judgment	.32	.92	.00	3.70
Miscellaneous	1.27	2.61	.00	10.34

As shown in the table, narrational responses come after interpretational ones, having a mean percentage of (28.47%). When examining these responses, it becomes clear that many participants tended to focus on minor details without showing their connection to the major theme. Hence, for instance the focus on mentioning how the four girls Naired their legs, straightened their hair and so on, without saying why they did so or without connecting this to the girls' struggle to fit into their new culture. Whenever participants had difficulty with figuring out what was happening in the story, they resorted to either narrating fragmented details or to producing generalized interpretations that said little about the story and remained unsubstantiated by details or reasoning. In response to section one of the story, a participant wrote:

This story starts with the narrator talking about herself and her sisters. Then, she talks about her family while they were watching the annual Miss America festival. She started by describing all that happens in the festival from beginning to end. And she described the participants in the festival. This festival has no parallel in our customs and Islamic and Arabic traditions.

The last sentence was associational, but all the others simply comprised details without mention of how they were related to the major theme.

Some participants understood the story and produced comments that integrated all types of responses and connected them to the theme of the girls' struggle to become assimilated into American society. This can be shown from the following:

The struggle of people of color appears here again as it did in the previous story [The Abortion]. In this section, the sisters want to be like the American girls in beauty. However, their looks, their complexion prevent them from achieving that. They try hard to develop themselves in order to acquire even a little of the American beauty because it is a struggle in the American society....

Exceptionally, the participant here connected the attempts of the four sisters to improve their looks to the struggle of people of color to fit the standard American profile of beauty.

The mean percentage for associational responses was (7.64%). In general they were very personal, specific, emotional and varied since the story talked about experiences that the participants could relate to at one level or another, personally or otherwise. They included personal associations, family associations, associations with teenage attitudes in Oman, associations with stories they had read or movies they had seen, associations with a celebrity, and associations with ideas held in the community. Some participants remembered how homesick they felt after leaving their village or town to live in university hostels.

When the narrator said that her teachers and classmates did not know where her native country was, one participant remembered visiting her relatives in another town where the neighbors did not know where her original town was located. When the narrator talked about her sisters and herself being groomed to be dutiful wives, some participants recalled the opposition of traditional Omani elders to the idea of women working outside the home. The difference in culture here did not prevent an awareness of similarities. It could be concluded, therefore, that whenever a story depicts experiences corresponding to those of the learners, learner experience will be evoked and utilized despite cultural difference.

Some personal associations were specifically related to this story. Participants recalled how they used to be concerned about their own looks and how they searched for fashionable clothes. Some used not to like their skin color. For example, one participant mentioned that she had met a group of Kuwaiti girls who, with very light complexions, wanted to use tanning cream in order to look like her, yet she at that time did not like her own darker skin color. Much comment was made on what is currently happening among young women who concern themselves more with appearance than with character. One participant related how an Egyptian beauty queen refused to accept an invitation to attend a contest in a certain country because it required contestants to wear indecent clothes. The name Marilyn Monroe reminded one participant of the movie "M' is for Moon among Other Things", which she had watched and in which this film star was mentioned. The attempt by the four girls in the story to change the way they looked reminded one participant of Michael Jackson, the African American singer, who kept changing his looks because he was not satisfied with them.

Examining these associations, one can see how varied they are, an indication that the participants suffer from no knowledge deficiency, except in some areas around, say, some differences between their culture and the culture of the English language.

Literal judgment responses had a mean percentage of (5.17%). As far as quality is concerned, these responses disclosed the difficulty some participants were having with understanding the story. Among the words that were listed as new or difficult were gawk, chipmunk, Hispanic, preside, pom-poms, guinea pig, vacation spot, ex-cute, and ex-beauty. Some of the listed words were strictly related to the American culture and had no equivalent in the Omani culture such as guinea pigs, pom-poms and even Hispanic and chipmunks. Sometimes participants tried to figure out the meaning of new words by relating them to old words they knew. An example of that is the participant who tried to figure out the meaning of the words ex-beauty and ex-cute by relating them to ex-husband and ex-wife.

A participant who had difficulty with pom-poms and Hispanic thought that understanding the story is dependent on knowledge of culture. As the participant put it, "There are words that I do not understand such as pom-poms and Hispanic. I think this story is intended for an American audience so it is obscure to those who do not know much about the American culture." Thus, vocabulary difficulty was made worse by the participants' unfamiliarity with the American culture. The participants who had difficulty with vocabulary regarded it as the reason for their inability to understand the theme of the story and for feeling that it was vague.

In addition to responses related to vocabulary, there were responses related to the descriptions included in the story. Some participants did not appreciate the fact that the story included much description. In the reflection task, two participants asserted that description was not necessary and that it served only to distract the reader. One participant thought that the description of the sisters in section five was too unimportant for her to write about in the response and so she sufficed herself to mention general ideas about the passage. Another participant had the opinion that "it was not necessary to mention the father, mother, and bed because they do not relate to the theme in anyway. This is what is discouraging in such stories. They mystify the reader and prevent him from understanding."

Some participants' inability to see the connection between events due to their fragmented understanding of the cultural context convinced them that the story was not coherent enough to be understood. Two participants regarded section six of the story as vague because they thought it was not coherent. The participants' failure to understand the connection between events and descriptions is obvious in this comment: "I did not understand anything of this section. I feel it is not coherent. Sometimes it talks about the girls; sometimes it talks about the father, and sometimes it talks about the duties of the wives and mothers." The paragraphs in section six were, in fact, coherent in terms of content and language. However, the participants' lack of familiarity with the content or the topic coupled with the absence of clearly stated linguistic cues prevented them from perceiving the existing connections between events and ideas and hence the coherence of the whole section. It is clear that the participants needed to see some clear linguistic clues to signal the connection between events and descriptions in order for them to understand better the text that was unfamiliar in terms of content and language. Thus, coherence and cohesion are necessary to facilitate understanding.

The participants who had understood the story commented that this was a good story, that the ideas were clear and that the chronological order of events made it flow smoothly despite difficulty with vocabulary.

The mean for Self-involvement responses in this story was (1.80%). The participants had feelings for the four girls and their mother. They felt sad for, sympathetic with or disappointed in the four girls. They pitied them for wasting their time in frivolous things such as their looks. They were saddened when the girls forgot about their homeland quickly and were ashamed of telling the teacher and their classmates about the location of their home country lest they know it was a third world country. Concerning the mother, many participants identified with her because her perceptions were similar to those found in Omani culture. She represented all the traditional values that Omani women are brought up to believe in. Therefore, it was not strange to find participants who felt that the mother was interesting, dynamic, and enthusiastic.

It has to be noted here that self-involvement responses were not the only responses that indicated that the participants were engaged in the story. Among others, associational responses signify self-involvement too. The participants had many personal association responses, indicating the universality of human experience and emotions in spite of cultural differences.

Miscellaneous and prescriptive judgment responses were few. The mean percentages for these two categories were 1.27% and .32% respectively.

The prescriptive judgment responses, although not many, demonstrate the influence of the participants' culture. The daughters were asked to listen to their mother's advice; the mother was asked to have a stronger, more strict relationship with her daughters; the four girls were asked to submit to their fate and be satisfied with how God created them, to keep the love of their homeland alive in their hearts, and to go back to their home country because they were having difficulty in America. These responses correspond to the didactic comments the participants mentioned in their responses, all of which reflected the participants' cultural and religious beliefs.

IV. CONCLUSION

To conclude, there are a number of findings or observations that appear to be the most consistent and most important for the purposes of this research, which can tell us much about the reading process of foreign language learners. First, when the context of the story is unfamiliar and there is the additional complication of language, the readers' mental representation of the story will be incomplete and fragmented. The narrational responses in the story, "I Want to be Miss America" were made of isolated minor details that were not connected to the theme. When facing difficulty with

comprehension, some participants, instead of focusing on narrating details, chose to write very general and fluid interpretations. Both fragmented narration and fluid and general interpretations are indications of having difficulty comprehending the whole picture of the story.

An implication of this finding is that it is important to find out how familiar a text's culture is to the students in order to foretell the problems they might face. This could be done through asking them for a response to the text or to an aspect in it. To build cultural knowledge, advanced organizers can be used so when students commence reading, they would already have an idea about the context. Using story grammar (Amer, 2006) can ease comprehension of literature as the analysis of the different aspects can focus students' attention on important aspects of the story.

Another observation is that participants can have very personal associations when reading about a foreign culture provided that the text has some similarity with the readers' experiences. A third observation is that coherence and cohesion of ideas and sentences as well as the logical or chronological progression or succession of events can facilitate comprehension especially if the story is written in a foreign language while lack of coherence can stymie comprehension of unfamiliar content even if the story is written in simple language.

Furthermore, familiarity with content enables readers to discern connections between ideas and to perceive their coherence even when cohesive devices are not abundantly used in the text. If the story lacks linguistic cues that connects events or indicate shifts in them, the readers get confused and mystified by the events even if the story is written in their first or native language. If culture unfamiliarity is added to style complexity, then the problem is doubled and a good degree of comprehension becomes quite impossible. The implication of this is that students' language proficiency levels have to be considered when choosing literary pieces for them. Literary pieces written in clear language should be introduced to beginners, and ones with more sophisticated language should be given at higher levels. Students should enjoy the literary experience rather than be frustrated at it due to language complexity.

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Progress and Prospects of Non-literary Translation Teaching and Research in China*

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Abstract—The authors look to the future of teaching and research on non-literary translation in China by describing its current progress. The Chinese government has attached great importance to the problem, which shows that the postgraduate education of translation direction has been shifted from the academic type to the application one. Since the Chinese Economic Reform the research scope has been greatly widened, and consequently non-literary translation theories with Chinese characteristics have been developed. Now official discussion should be made to construct educational and theoretical systems of non-literary translation.

Index Terms—non-literary translation in China, teaching and research, progress and prospects

I. INTRODUCTION

From the perspective of stylistics, translation can be divided into literary translation and non-literary translation. Literary translation, which contains much artistic components, focuses on people's thinking and language, while non-literary translation, which contains much scientific elements, stresses realistic world (Li, 2009). Non-literary translation is widely used and almost consists of all translation activities except literary translation. Also known as pragmatic translation, applied translation or documentary translation, it is can be classified into professional translation and academic translation. Professional translation includes many aspects such as translation for foreign affairs (including diplomatic translation), news translation, economic and trade translation, business translation and tourism translation. Academic translation can be subdivided into general academic translation (such as academic writing, critical review of literature, academic discussion and academic reports) and professional academic translation (such as medical translation, engineering translation, financial translation and law translation). Most of the non-literary discourse possesses the informational, persuasive and anonymous characteristics (Fang, 2003). Various translation strategies are adopted according to different textual characteristics and translation requirements of the clients.

The translation activities in the world are mainly non-literary. Eugene Nida, American translation theorist, found that the proportion of literary translation in the all translation activities was less than 5% (Wang, 2009). At present, 90% of the translators are engaging in the non-literary translation activity (such as the translation of law books, diplomatic documents, scientific papers and business texts) and the proportion of literary translation in all the translation activities is less than 10%. Against such a background, people in all walks of life begin to appeal for redefining "translation masters" and believe that the field of non-literary also needs masters. Presently, Chinese non-literary translation shows the characteristics of specialization, informationization and networking. The criterion of measuring whether non-literary translators are qualified and excellent depends on whether the translators are conforming to the norms of the occupation. Compared with literary translation, current Chinese non-literary translation has the following characteristics: first, the proportion of scientific translation is declining while that of other non-literary translation is rising; second, the degree of commercialization has deepened and the trend of industrialization is getting obvious day by day; last, the forms of translation vary and translation aids equipments are widely used (Han, 2005). Different from literary translation, non-literary translation puts emphasis on information. Generally speaking, as long as the contents of the original texts of the non-literary translation can be accurately conveyed, it will be acceptable. Therefore, translators often adopt variation translation means such as rewriting, abstract translation and adaptation, or communicative translation. Assistant means used by the translators include parallel texts, e-tools and machine translation. Great progress has been made by Chinese researchers on non-literary translation. The present authors look to the future of teaching and research on non-literary translation in China by describing its current progress.

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II. THE PROGRESS AND PROSPECTS OF TEACHING ON NON-LITERARY TRANSLATION

The descriptive analysis (TABLE 1) of the curriculum structure of undergraduate translation major (or direction) offered by 14 institutes and departments of colleges and universities in China indicates that the situation of curriculum design concerning the courses of non-literary translation (or applied translation courses) in these institutes and colleges is imbalanced. 6 of the 14 institutes and departments offer non-literary courses; only 1 one the 14 offers 16 courses (College 8); 5 of the 14 offer 1, 2 or 3 non-literary courses; the institutes which have courses from zero to three account for 11/14 in the total courses (78.57%). Professors Jiang Qiuxia and Cao Jin (2006) believe that applied translation courses are few and that presently in the curriculum system of translation major (or direction), the cultivation of learners' ability in translation practice and application are lacking.

TABLE 1
STATISTICS OF APPLIED TRANSLATION COURSES FOR UNDERGRADUATE TRANSLATION MAJOR (OR DIRECTION) OFFERED BY 14 INSTITUTES AND DEPARTMENTS IN CHINA (JIANG & CAO, 2006, P.9)

College No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Applied Translation* (Quantity of the courses)	5	0	0	3	1	0	3	16	1	1	0	0	7	0

* Note: The "Applied Translation" courses in this table mainly refer to non-literary translation courses (noted by the present authors).

Authoritative survey indicates that the number of Chinese current translators and interpreters can not meet the needs of markets, and that although the shortage of competent translators and interpreters are obvious, the specialization and application of the translation are not paid much attention to (Li, 2007). The translation from Chinese into foreign languages (mainly from Chinese into English) is related to Chinese image. Thus from the perspective of foreign publicity, the shortage of competent translators and interpreters and low quality of translation have negative effect on Chinese national image. What is pleasant is that Chinese government has attached great importance to the non-literary translation and its teaching. Ministry of Education has officially approved Fudan University, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies & Trades and Hebei Normal University as experimental schools to set up translation undergraduate major in 2006. By the time of September 2010, 31 universities have been approved by Ministry of Education to set up translation undergraduate major, which is a milestone in the Chinese translation discipline construction and its development. In addition, the State Council Academic Degree Office has formally approved the establishment of "Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI thereafter)", aiming at cultivating the high-level, application-oriented and professional translators and interpreters. 15 universities (including Peking University and Fudan University) carried out the first experimental enrollment in 2008. By the end of January 2011, the total number of experimental universities is up to 158, indicating that the Chinese postgraduate education of translation direction has been shifted from the academic type to the applied one.

Both the establishment of undergraduate translation major and the increase of the educational bases number for MTI aim at cultivating applied translators instead of training talents only mastering pure translation theories. It is worthwhile to notice that some universities concerned has met the new period of cultivating applied translators in the environment of the original academic type, and pure literature and linguistics ones. These universities and their faculties are facing the problems of changing concepts for cultivating translators and innovating curriculum. According to what the authors have observed, so far we have not caught up with the change of the situation in general, especially in the aspects of the curriculum setting, textbook compilation, the arrangement and adjustment of the qualified teaching staff, which are more or less lagging behind or are not adapted. Qualified teaching staff and textbooks are the current bottlenecks for non-literary translation teaching (He, 2010). It is necessary to supply, recruit and absorb experienced professional translators or interpreters outside the universities as part-time translation teachers. The textbook problem, which is complicated, not only involves the whole country but different regions and subject areas, so a special discussion on it is needed.

The demand for and cultivation to the applied translators call for the non-literary translation teaching and research keeping pace with the times. All colleagues should work together to implement this task. On the basis of consensus, we should set out to our task from the following aspects. Firstly, active publicity of the importance and urgency of non-literary translation teaching should be made. In the newly-set translation major (including MTI), it should be stressed that translation education should be in line with nation's each policy and the need for translators or interpreters in every field. It is necessary to make more people including relevant leaders understand that knowing foreign language is unequal to doing the translation and that general translation teaching in universities can not be equated to pragmatic translation, which is needed by the society. Secondly, our colleagues should continue to create the atmosphere on the teaching and research of non-literary translation. The stable contact system should be established among different regions and universities in our country so as to communicate each other and realize the complementary advantages. In recent years, the regular "National Seminar in Applied Translation" is an influential national platform, which should be further strengthened and expanded. Thirdly, new evaluation system of non-literary translation products should be formulated because the existing evaluation system takes "academe" as the standard or direction, which in fact has negative effect and can not objectively reflect the real progress and need of the teaching and research on non-literary translation. In the research area of non-literary translation, slogans of "simultaneous development of theory and

practice” and “technique is more important than academe” should be advocated and researchers should be encouraged to write personal, thoughtful and practical papers. Lastly, a special journal for non-literary translation teaching and research should be started declaring that only papers concerning the “technique” of non-literary translation (or pragmatic translation) can be published rather than those about the “academe”.

III. THE PROGRESS AND PROSPECTS OF THE NON-LITERARY TRANSLATION STUDIES

The achievements of the non-literary translation studies at home and abroad are represented by German Functionalism (Zeng, 2008). Functionalism describes and explains the translation activities mainly from the perspective of text typology and its functions and the Skopos of the translational action (Nord, 2001). In 1977, Katharina Reiss describes and explains the translation of the textual function from the perspective of text types (classified based on the communicative functions such as conveyance, expression and causativeness) and discourse genre or discourse variation. In 1978, Hans Vermeer came up with *Skopostheorie* and its related conceptual terms such as goals, intentions and function. In 1981, the Theory of Translation Action developed by Justa Holz Manttari put special emphasis on the actional aspects of the translation process, comprehensively analyzing the roles of the participants and the situational conditions. In 2001, Christiane Nord created the function-plus-loyalty model and distinguished the documentary translation and the instrumental one. Although German functionalists could explain the non-literary translation to some extent, the limitations still exist in theory.

In China the research scope of non-literary translation has been greatly widened since the reform and opening up. Scientific translation studies gain great development first followed by the translation studies on the business, tourism and news. With the new century coming, studies on law translation and the translation of public signs have become hotspots. Professor Lin Kenan (2008) introduced the situation of China’s theoretic development in non-literary translation in the past decade based on his personal experiences of participating translation activities of World Table Tennis Championships in Tianjin and the Beijing Olympic Games.

Since the 43rd World Table Tennis Championships held in Tianjin in 1995, non-literary translation began to rise while the development of non-literary translation theory was correspondingly slow. At that time, Nida’s dynamic equivalence translation theory was widely cited in both literary and non-literary translation studies. Professor Lin Kenan used Nida’s translation theory in the process of his translation and deeply felt it did fully play the guiding role in the practical translation. When it was time to translate documents of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, the situation has changed a lot compared with that ten years ago. Non-literary translation has greatly increased in the quantity and its theory has gained great development correspondingly. China has introduced a large number of foreign translation theories, especially the *Skopostheorie*, the cultural turn theory and the text typology. Meanwhile, on the one hand, some Chinese scholars absorbed foreign translation theories; on the other hand, they tried to establish Chinese non-literary translation theories by combining foreign theories and China’s translation practice. These scholars include Huang Youyi (2004)’s three close principles on the foreign publicity translation, Li Xin (2003)’s pre-translation processing theory, , Lin Kenan etc. (2003)’s seeing, translating and writing theory, Ding Hengqi (2006)’s A-B-C model (imitation-borrowing-creating). Compared with foreign non-literary translation theories, theories developed by Chinese scholars are more practical. In the course of translating the documents on Beijing Olympic Games, Professor Lin fully made use of Chinese translation theories to guide the translation practice, overcoming many difficulties, solving cognitive problems which could not have been solved with traditional translation theories, finishing the translation task smoothly and passing the acceptance check of the Olympic Games Organizing Committee.

China’s non-literary translation studies over the past decade can be divided into three categories: the exploration of translation theories, language features and techniques of translation, and translation criticism (Chen, 2010). In the aspect of translation theories, the exploration of translation principles and standards are the domain part, and studies concerning culture and translation, linguistic theory and translation, and interdisciplinary studies should be improved. More than 60% of non-literary translation studies belong to discussions on language features and translation techniques, and in most of these discussions, words, sentences and discourse of only one text are analyzed. Quantitative and systematic studies of linguistic features of non-literary translation based on corpus are far from enough. Translation criticism should be enhanced in both quality and quantity although there are many discussions and comments on mistranslation.

The authors believe that the future research in non-literary translation field should pay sufficient attention to interdisciplinary studies, corpus-based and machine translation studies and studies concerning non-literary translation from Chinese to foreign languages reflecting the cultural characteristics of traditional Chinese style. Great importance should be attached to the interdisciplinary studies between non-literary translation and pragmatics, and corpus, and discourse studies, and cognitive science, and contrastive studies of languages and cultures. Relevant theories and special knowledge are involved in non-literary texts such as commerce and trade, law, finance and contracts. So it is difficult to make high-quality non-literary translation practice and research if translators are lack of necessary knowledge of related disciplines. Corpus-based non-literary translation, machine translation and the application of translation corpora lead scholars to raise the awareness that translation studies should transit from prescription to description. Compared with foreign countries, the future of China’s corpus-based translation studies is not optimistic. A few translation corpora are under construction or have been completed, of which only two or three can be directly used in translation studies.

Compared with economy and law translation studies, Chinese-English non-literary translation studies reflecting traditional Chinese culture are not sufficient, although Liu Fagong (1999), Lan Fengli (2003), Li Weibin (2004) and other scholars have studied the Chinese-English translation of Chinese recipes and Chinese medicine in-depth. Therefore, it is necessary to give priority to the translation studies of Chinese food, martial arts, Chinese medicine, architecture, drama, painting, tea, silk clothing, ceramics, folk art, ritual practices in the future.

IV. CONCLUSION

China's modernization, reform and opening up are the original impetus to develop the teaching, practice and studies of non-literary translation. The translation teaching is continuously oriented to cultivating applied translators with the overall development of the translation studies as well as the impetus from the large amount of practice in non-literary translation. Now official discussion should be made to construct educational and theoretical systems of non-literary translation.

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The Role of Vocabulary Knowledge in Iranian EFL Students' Reading Comprehension Performance: Breadth or Depth?

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Abstract—Two important aspects of vocabulary knowledge, namely breadth and depth, continue to play an indispensable role in vocabulary research. This study aimed to investigate the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension, and to find out which aspect of vocabulary knowledge, breadth or depth, has greater impact on determining reading comprehension performance. Hence, three language tests were used viz. a reading comprehension test, Vocabulary Levels Test revised by Schmitt et al. (2001), and Read's (1998) Word Associates Test. A total of 78 freshmen majoring in TEFL at Islamic Azad University of Najafabad, Iran, participated in the study. The results of the two-tailed Pearson Correlations and multiple regression analyses revealed that 1) test scores on vocabulary breadth, depth of vocabulary knowledge, and reading comprehension were positively correlated 2) vocabulary breadth was a stronger predictor of reading comprehension than depth of vocabulary knowledge and 3) breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge were closely interrelated ($r = .85$, $p < .01$).

Index Terms—vocabulary breadth, depth of vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

Many researchers believe that vocabulary learning is the most important facet of second-language (L2) learning (Knight, 1994) and “an essential part of mastering a second language” (Schmitt, 2008, p.329). Vocabulary knowledge is indispensable for reading comprehension as well. As Stahl (1983, p.33) proposed, the relationship between reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge is “one of the best documented relationships in reading research”. This relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension caused a good number of researchers to believe that a reader's vocabulary knowledge can be the best predictor of his understanding of text (Anderson & Freebody, 1981). However, researchers have differentiated between two facets of vocabulary knowledge, namely breadth and depth (e.g. Bogaards and Laufer, 2004; Read, 2000).

Nation (2001) stated that breadth or size of vocabulary knowledge is the number of words that language learners know. One of the measures widely used to assess the size of vocabulary knowledge is Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) which has a matching format (Nassaji, 2004). It includes different word-frequency levels ranging from high frequency (2000-word level) to low-frequency words (10,000-word level). This test has become widely used as a vocabulary assessment for L2 learners, and it has been accepted by a number of researchers (e.g., Laufer & Paribakht, 1998; Qian, 1999, 2002) as an appropriate measure of vocabulary size.

On the other hand, “depth of vocabulary knowledge refers to how well the language learner knows a word” (Akbarian, 2010, p. 392). Different types of knowledge associated with a word have been recognized such as knowledge of pronunciation, spelling, stylistic features, collocational meanings, antonymy, synonymy, and hyponymy (Nation, 1990; Read, 2000; Richards, 1976). Word Associates Test (WAT) developed by Read (1993, 2000) is a commonly used measure assessing some of these aspects. In this test, according to Read (2004, p. 221), the target word and associates have three basic relationships: “paradigmatic (synonyms), syntagmatic (collocates) and analytic (words representing a key element of the meaning of the target word)”. Since these components are important they appear frequently in discussions of vocabulary knowledge (e.g. Nation, 1990, 2001; Qian, 2002; Read, 1993, 2000).

There have been some studies focusing on the relationship between breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge. Schmitt and Meara (1997) found that correlations between vocabulary breadth and WAT (as a depth test) were relatively high (.61 for receptive knowledge and .62 for productive knowledge). In another study, Nurweni and Read (1999) reported that the correlation between the scores on the tests of breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge was .62 and the relationship became even stronger ($r = .81$) with high-proficiency students. In line with Nurweni and Read (1999), Akbarian (2010) found that VLT (breadth test) and WAT (depth test) had a great deal of common shared

variance for Iranian ESP graduate students ($R^2 = .746$). There is also some empirical evidence supporting the impact of vocabulary breadth and depth on reading comprehension. In Laufer's (1992) study, high correlations between vocabulary breadth and reading comprehension were revealed. Laufer (1992) reported that the scores on reading comprehension correlated with both scores on the VLT ($r = .50$) and those on the EVST (Eurocentres Vocabulary Size Test) ($r = .75$). Laufer (1992) concluded that vocabulary breadth is a good indicator of reading comprehension. De Bot et al. (1997) further found that different facets of vocabulary knowledge, such as word morphology and word associations are closely linked to reading comprehension processes.

Qian (1999, 2002) investigated the interrelationships among vocabulary breadth, depth of vocabulary knowledge, and reading comprehension across Chinese and Korean readers. Qian (1999) found that scores on vocabulary breadth, depth of vocabulary knowledge, and reading comprehension were highly correlated, and that depth of vocabulary knowledge made a unique contribution to the prediction of learners' reading comprehension performance. Later, Qian (2002) conducted a similar study with 217 participants from 19 different L1 backgrounds and obtained the same results, confirming the importance of the role of both depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension. Moreover, Huang (2006) found that breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension are positively correlated. Vermeer (2001), on the other hand, argued that too little is known about the relationship between breadth and depth of word knowledge. Vermeer (2001) concluded that there might not be a conceptual distinction between the two dimensions.

Regarding the above-mentioned studies, more empirical evidence on the role of vocabulary knowledge in EFL students' reading comprehension performance is required. The general purpose of this study was to investigate the role of vocabulary knowledge in Iranian EFL university students' reading performance. In the present study, the relationship between vocabulary breadth, depth of vocabulary knowledge, and reading comprehension was investigated.

Research Question

Within the scope of this study, the following questions were addressed:

- 1) What is the relationship between reading comprehension, vocabulary breadth, and depth of vocabulary knowledge for Iranian EFL university students?
- 2) Which aspect of vocabulary knowledge, i.e. breadth or depth, is the more powerful predictor of Iranian EFL university students' reading comprehension performance?

II. METHOD

A. Participants

To gather data, 78 freshmen majoring in TEFL at Islamic Azad University of Najafabad, Iran, participated in this study (32 males and 46 females). The participants' age ranged from 18 to 21. The participants were selected from two intact classes.

B. Instrumentation

The instruments used in the study included three language tests, viz. a reading comprehension test, Vocabulary Levels Test, and Word Associates Test.

Reading Comprehension Test—The reading comprehension (RC) test items for the present study were drawn from The University of Michigan Examination for the Certificate of Proficiency in English by Briggs et al. (1997). The test contained two reading comprehension passages with the same readability level (12 on the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level readability scale). Each passage was followed by ten multiple-choice questions. Thus there were 20 multiple-choice questions in total.

Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT)—We used version 2 of VLT, revised and validated by Schmitt et al. (2001). It contained 1000-, 3000-, 5000-, and 10,000-word frequency levels. Each level of the test included 30 items. The maximum possible score was 120, with one point for each item at the four levels.

Word Associates Test (WAT)—The depth of vocabulary knowledge test in this study was the Word Associates Test (WAT), developed by Read (1998). This test was devised to measure test-takers' depth of receptive English vocabulary knowledge in terms of three elements: synonymy, polysemy, and collocation. The test used in the present study was version 4.0 of the WAT. The split-half reliability of the test in the study by Qian (2002) was 0.89. WAT contains 40 items, each of which consists of one stimulus word (an adjective), and two boxes, each containing four words. Among the four words in the left box, one to three words can be synonymous to one aspect of, or the whole meaning of, the stimulus word. Also, there can be one to three words that collocate with the stimulus word among the four words in the right box. In scoring, each word correctly chosen was awarded one point. The maximum possible score, therefore, was 160 for the 40 items. The following is an example:

Original

careful	closed	first	proud	condition	mind	plan	sister
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C. Data Collection

The three tests, the RC, VLT and WAT, were administered to each participant in a single testing session. To eliminate the possibility of an order effect, the tests were administered in a counterbalanced order. That is, each participant took the three tests in one of six different orders. The orders are listed as follows:

1. RC- VLT- WAT
2. RC- WAT- VLT
3. VLT- RC- WAT
4. VLT - WAT- RC
5. WAT- RC- VLT
6. WAT- VLT- RC

D. Data Analysis

To answer the research questions, quantitative data (i.e., scores of the three language tests) was used (1) to reveal the relationship between reading comprehension, vocabulary breadth, and depth of vocabulary knowledge, and (2) to determine the more powerful predictor of reading comprehension from scores on vocabulary breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge. Two-tailed Pearson correlation and multiple regression analysis were the main statistical techniques chosen to meet the research purpose of the study. To explore the intercorrelations among the RC, VLT, and WAT, two-tailed Pearson correlations were calculated. In the multiple regression analysis, scores on the VLT and WAT were used as the predictors or independent variables and score on the RC as dependent variable, in order to determine the stronger predictor of reading comprehension. SPSS 17.0 was used for analysing the data.

III. RESULTS

To answer the research questions, correlation and multiple regression analyses were used. The procedure included three phases.

Phase 1: Descriptive statistics and test reliability

In the first phase of the analysis, descriptive statistics and reliability coefficients of the participants' scores on the three tests (RC, VLT, and WAT) were computed. The results of the descriptive and reliability analyses are shown in Table 1, which lists the score range, mean, standard deviation, and reliability (Cronbach Alpha) of the three tests. To make the three tests more comparable, the percentages for the score ranges and mean scores are inserted alongside in parentheses.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND RELIABILITY OF THE RC, VLT, AND WAT (N=78)

Test	Maximum Score	Score Range	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	Reliability (Cronbach Alpha)
RC	19	8 (40%) - 19 (95%)	13.2 (66%)	3.23	.72
VLT	108	54 (45%) - 108 (90%)	87.63 (73%)	8.78	.89
WAT	134	96 (60%) -134 (84%)	112 (70%)	11.14	.81

Phase 2: Correlations

To answer the first question, the correlations between the scores on the RC, VLT, and WAT were determined. A two-tailed Pearson correlation analysis was conducted. The results are displayed in Table 2. The intercorrelations among the three tests are all both positive and statistically significant. The correlation between the RC and VLT ($r = .78$) is higher than that between the RC and WAT ($r = .72$), and the correlation between the VLT and WAT is the highest ($r = .85$).

TABLE 2.
TWO-TAILED PEARSON CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SCORES ON THE RC, VLT, AND WAT (N=78)

Test	RC	VLT	WAT
RC	—	.78**	.72**
VLT	.78**	—	.85**
WAT	.72**	.85**	—

** $p < .01$

Phase 3: Multiple regression analyses

To answer the second question, multiple regression analyses were conducted. To determine the more powerful predictor of reading comprehension, scores on VLT and WAT were taken as the predictor (or independent) variables and score on the RC as the dependent variable.. Table 2 indicates that the predictor variable VLT has a stronger correlation with the dependent variable RC ($r = .78$, $p < .01$) than the predictor variable WAT ($r = .72$, $p < .01$). Therefore, the predictor variable VLT was chosen to be entered into the regression equation first. The first section of Table 3 (labeled A) presents the results where VLT was entered first into the equation, followed by WAT.

TABLE 3
MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSES USING SCORE ON THE RC AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE AND SCORES ON THE VLT AND WAT AS PREDICTOR VARIABLES (N=78)

Step	Predictor variable(s) involved	R ²	Adjusted R ²	R ² Change
A)				
1	VLT	.615*	.523*	
2	VLT, WAT	.652	.535	.037
B)				
1	WAT	.482*	.448*	
2	WAT, VLT	.652	.535	.170

*p < .05

As Table 3 shows, when VLT was entered into the equation first, the R² value at this step was .615 and the adjusted R² value .523. VLT alone accounted for 50.0% (R² = .615) of the variance in the dependent variable RC. Also, VLT, as a predictor, explained a significant amount of the RC variability. As VLT remained in the equation, WAT was then added at the second step. At this point, the R² value changed to .652 and the adjusted R² value changed to .535. VLT and WAT jointly accounted for 65.2% (R² = .652) of the variance in RC but the WAT measure did not predict significantly over and above the VLT measure (R² change = .037). The entry of WAT at the second step contributed only an additional 3.7% (R² change = .037) of the variance in RC. In other words, WAT did not explain a significant proportion of RC variance after controlling for the effect of VLT.

To further investigate the unique contribution made by the WAT measure, another regression analysis was carried out by reversing the order of entry for the predictor variables into the equation. The second section of Table 3 (labeled B) shows the results where VLT was entered after WAT. When WAT was entered into the equation at the first step, the R² value was .482, indicating that WAT alone explained 48.2% of the variance in RC. Next, when VLT was added to the equation at the second step, the R² value increased by .170 (R² change = .170) to .652. That is, VLT explained an additional 17% of the variance in RC above the 48.2% variance already accounted for by WAT. However, the VLT measure did not predict significantly over and above the WAT measure.

IV. DISCUSSION

This study aimed to investigate the role of vocabulary knowledge in Iranian EFL university students' reading performance. In the present study, the relationship between vocabulary breadth, depth of vocabulary knowledge, and reading comprehension was investigated.

To explore the intercorrelations among the RC, VLT, and WAT, two-tailed Pearson correlations were calculated. The result showed that the scores on the three language tests positively correlated with one another. The correlation between the RC and VLT ($r = .78$) was higher than that between the RC and WAT ($r = .72$). This indicates that the score on vocabulary breadth was more strongly correlated with the test-taker's reading comprehension performance than the score on their depth of vocabulary knowledge. In other words, vocabulary breadth appeared to be in a stronger relationship with reading comprehension than vocabulary depth. Furthermore, among the three tests, the highest correlation was between the scores on the VLT and WAT ($r = .85$). It shows that the two variables, vocabulary breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge, are themselves highly correlated. The strong relationship between breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge is found to be consistent with the results of previous studies (Akbarian, 2010, Huang, 2006; Nurweni and Read, 1999; Qian, 2002). The high correlation shown in the study ($r = .85$) leads us to suppose that the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge is closely interrelated and could be even interdependent. It can be inferred that one would not normally have vocabulary size knowledge without acquiring some depth knowledge. In addition, the overlapping concept of the two measures may have an impact on the results. Although WAT explores more and deeper facets of vocabulary knowledge, that is the synonymy and polysemy, WAT actually tries to measure the basic word meaning that the VLT requires, and the knowledge of collocation is more or less affected by knowledge of individual word meaning.

In the multiple regression analysis, the results suggested that both VLT and WAT contributed significantly to the prediction of RC. The analysis yielded results that the VLT measure alone accounted significantly for 61.5% of the variance in RC, while only 48.2% of the variance in RC was explained by the WAT measure. In other words, it turned out that vocabulary breadth is a more powerful predictor of reading comprehension performance than depth of vocabulary knowledge. The finding is in line with that of Huang (2006). The finding that the WAT made small but independent further contribution is similar to Qian's (1999, 2002) finding, apart from the further contribution the WAT measure made in Qian's studies.

V. CONCLUSION

The results of the study revealed that both vocabulary breadth and depth correlated positively with Iranian EFL students' reading comprehension performance. Although, in this study, vocabulary breadth appeared to be a stronger predictor of reading comprehension than depth of vocabulary knowledge, it was found that both aspects play very

important roles in reading comprehension. In other words, the results suggested that both breadth and depth are useful predictors of reading comprehension performance and even a combination of the two associates better with reading comprehension than either one alone. The findings may be applied to teaching new vocabulary and developing materials for Iranian EFL students.

Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Research

There are many external factors that should be further controlled in future research. The increase of the number of participants in future research may strengthen the reliability of the results. Investigating other Farsi-speaking EFL learners from different language proficiency levels should be considered in the future research. Moreover, the vocabulary tests used in the study measured only the participants' receptive knowledge. Further, the participants' productive vocabulary knowledge was not tested, and it may make the results of the study incomplete to some degree. Assessing productive vocabulary knowledge should be included in future research. To delve more into the depth of the learners' lexical knowledge, we need in-depth vocabulary measures. Although the majority of vocabulary tests concern vocabulary breadth, there are hitherto few test formats assessing depth of vocabulary knowledge efficiently. In other words, there is a gap between research and assessment in vocabulary studies. Hence, developing well-designed measures of depth of vocabulary knowledge is much needed. Also, it is hoped that more studies pursue other aspects of vocabulary breadth versus depth in the future.

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Teaching Reading across the Curriculum

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Abstract—Hand-in-hand with the current renewed emphasis on students' success and a resurgence of reading across the curriculum, teachers (instructors) in all disciplines need to refocus on reading across the curriculum to address students' needs to achieve instructional goals, and to prepare citizens for independent learning. It seems clear that a refocused emphasis on reading as a process of getting meaning from text to be used for analysis, synthesis and evaluation, in the context of critical literacy across the curriculum could potentially address the difficulties of students, the goals of teachers and the needs of the nation for an educated, informed, fully participatory, democratic population. These goals can be achieved through four specific strategies that can make faster, better reading possible for everyone, including, first an understanding of the nature of the reading process; second, a consistent focus on direct classroom teaching of critical reading skills that go beyond comprehension; third, opportunities for modeling and practising of these critical reading skills; and fourth, the development of an understanding of the conventions of disciplines and the particular strategy used in an array of academic areas. This is going to be the focus of this paper.

Index Terms—teaching, curriculum, reading, learners, skills, vocabulary

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the most important things that children learn in school is how to read. Teaching reading to younger ones can help prepare them for the rest of their academic career, and depending on the effectiveness of reading, it can set learners up to succeed or otherwise. Hence, teaching reading across the curriculum is critical to equip students with the skills they need in all areas of their education.

Reading is a key skill for learners and without it students cannot function efficiently and successfully in the world. Imagine how much better our students would be in reading if we all, no matter what subject we teach, take some time to re-enforce important reading skills everyday. Once students begin to see the application of reading in the classroom, especially the skills that hold sway, the teacher can now actively reinforce and practice these skills subsequently with the learners. Through constant daily use, these skills will be refined to the point where they are implemented fluently and without conscious effort.

In every society today, it is so important to be literate; and one cannot get an advanced education, unless reading skills are mastered. The ability to read is inherent in every human, so it is possible to teach anyone how to read. The struggling readers probably just need some extra attention, patience and motivation from the teachers and students themselves in order to succeed in reading.

As a teacher, when planning our lessons, think about ways you will incorporate vocabulary, textbook reading, and reading from other sources to enhance students' learning of the curriculum. As you write your instructional objectives, be sure to include the reading objectives that will be used in the lesson. For instance, a science teacher may have a lesson on photosynthesis. Before the textbook reading, the teacher may want to inculcate important vocabulary terms that students will encounter when reading the notebook. When discussing the vocabulary terms, it would also be easy to incorporate a discussion on how the prefix or suffix gives a clue as to the meaning of the word and this little bit of reading instruction won't take more than a few extra minutes in the discussion. The contribution and impact made in utilizing an important reading skill within the teaching of the science, curriculum cannot be overemphasized. In addition, the teachers could also point out to their students that the use of prefixes and suffixes will help them determine word meaning in everything they read. In the space of a few minutes, teachers will have reinforced reading skills, and applied such to the curriculum thereby helping students to become fluent readers. The time is minimal, but if every teacher in a school makes the commitment to apply at least one reading skill each day, the effects will multiply and we will see a surge in fluent readers.

By understanding the objectives of reading, teachers can very easily incorporate them into the instruction. For students who read at their grade levels, you can still help them to improve. Often, teachers focus too much on the students that are behind and they neglect the students that perform at average level. If teachers spend more time with those at the average level, they could become more advanced. A teacher should endeavour to motivate all manner of readers, and not only those that need it most.

A. *Definition of Reading*

Reading is generally defined as the fastest way to bring information into our body. Babies that are constantly read to grow to become great readers. As they grow up, they tend to love reading even more. To children, reading is pronouncing the letters and filling out workbooks. According to Schmoker (2008), children view reading from a unique viewpoint. It means putting sounds together; learning hard words; it is like thinking and understanding a story where things can be found etc.

Those working in the field define reading in the following ways:

Kelly, (2007) defines reading as an active process in which readers interact with text to reconstruct the message of the author. Printed symbols are signs which lead an active mind to reflect on alternatives during the process of constructing knowledge.

Palincsar, Peterson and Simington (eds) (2009) view reading as a process. It is strategic, interactive and its instruction requires orchestration.

Yusuf (2009, 2010) described it as the recognition and interpretation of symbols. It involves using both the information provided on the text by the author as well as the sources of information outside the text, and that Reading is the key to success in life.

Dechant (2006) in his study of "Reading: A Complete Guide" clearly sees reading as a process which is complete only when comprehension is attained. The critical element here is that the reader reconstructs the message encoded in the written language. Full comprehension occurs when the reconstruction agrees with the writer's intended message that understanding and or comprehension depends more on the information stored in the text.

The essential skill in reading is getting meaning from a printed message. As a mark of endorsement, Carroll (2009) agrees that reading involves the following:

- knowledge of the language to be read
- ability to separate words into component sounds
- ability to recognize and discriminate the letters of the alphabet
- understanding of the correspondence between letters and sounds
- ability to recognize printed words from a variety of cues
- ability to comprehend text etc.

According to Oyetunde (2009) reading is a complex process integrating all aspects of human behavior and demanding varied and continued instructional guidance to read accurately, and efficiently, to appraise what is read, and to relate what is read in a significant way to other areas of life. On the whole, one would agree that reading is key to wealth of experiences that links people in a way that is not limited by outside or time. Reading provides experience, through which the individual expands academic and intellectual horizons, identifies, extends and deals with personal interests and attributes that affect the task of reading. Reading is a psycholinguistic process involving the interaction of readers' thinking with the language of the text.

B. *The Reading Process/Students' Problem*

Most students see reading as a single act and not a process at all. In order to help students improve teachers (instructors) have to assist them become good readers. Every reader has a process and as the complexity of the text increases, students need to know what and how they are reading such texts. Reading is the realization of general interpretative process which underlines all communicative activity. Many definitions of reading make it clear that the fundamental reason why many students lack the skills they need to be successful is inadequate instruction and motivation. Their difficulties arise in part from the ideas that reading is some fundamental skill taught early in school and that little or no instruction is needed once the basic idea is mastered, usually in primary, secondary and senior secondary schools.

Another problem is based on the view that there is less need for reading now that everything is on the computer. Also, students' difficulty arises partly because while they engage texts and visual displays to an increasing degree (in games, blogs, text messages on cell phones), learners become less aware of the ways in which their attentions and responses are shaped by the media.

Students' difficulties arise in part because the tacit goals of reading including integration of ideas in a large context and application require a refocused emphasis on reading as a process. Getting meaning from print to be used for analysis, synthesis and evaluation, in the context of teaching across curriculum, could potentially address the difficulties of students, the goals of teachers and the needs of the nation for an educated, informed, fully participatory democratic population.

C. *Objectives of Reading*

Reading is a key skill for students. Without it, students malfunction and efficiency and success become far fetched. However, by taking some time to reinforce important reading skills daily, the exact outcome of reading objectives laid out will be met and the following are some of the basic objectives, that can be applied in the classroom.

- Identify main ideas
- Summarize a passage

- Distinguish fact from fiction
- Identify supporting detail in a passage
- Determine the meaning of words
- Compare/contrast ideas
- Make observations and analyze issues within a passage
- Locate specific information in a passage
- Use graphic sources to help interpret reading
- Make generalization and draw conclusion from passage
- Identify purpose of text

Once a student begins to see the application of reading skills, it can then be reinforced. Through constant daily use, these skills will be refined to the point where they are implemented with little or no effort.

II. TEACHING READING ACROSS CURRICULUM (AN OVERVIEW)

Following reading activities, teachers guide students to discuss the content, leading learners to higher levels of cognition with challenging questions and comments. An appreciation for people of different cultures from different academic perspectives should make for optimal students' growth in understanding others which is one of the objectives for reading across the curriculum.

Developing a love for reading is an important objective for all students to achieve. Individualized reading in which students choose which book to read based on interest and readability is hereby advocated. After reading a book, the student has a conference with the teacher to check comprehension and word recognition growth. The teacher and student discuss what changes and improvements, if any, must be made to make optimal reading progress. The teacher writes brief comments to use in future conference.

Reading is an important skill and being able to read has great impact on learning and achievement in every area of the curriculum and children, if they are backed up by good support throughout the school. Helping colleagues to understand the development of reading and enabling them to contribute to the process will be time well spent.

Most importantly, in this respect, teachers are the people who provide extra practice and encouragement for individuals and small groups of students. Make sure teachers know about:

- appropriate books, plays, poems for different ages, levels of ability and different interests in different versions of taking books.
- the importance of reading to children and young people whatever their age; taking turns with reading aloud can speed up this process, provide a good model of reading aloud and make the whole process more interesting.
- the value of encouraging pupils to read familiar books and stories, they will do well with these, boosting confidence and allowing them to focus more on expression and enjoyment.

A. Support for Teachers

Many teachers, especially those in the primary and secondary setting, feel that it is someone else's job to teach pupils to read facts. It is a shared responsibility that every teacher should know enough about phonics and other reading cues to be able to support pupils' reading development. At the very least, teachers need to be confident on how to prompt a reader effectively when he/she is stuck on a word.

The following points offer some generic advice on how to support pupils' reading across all areas of the curriculum:

- i. try to maintain a balance between providing regular reading and practice. Without it, learners will not improve; and thus avoid reading altogether which can be disastrous.
- ii. stressing reading across curriculum from basic science, social studies, mathematics and literature textbooks on different grade levels helps teachers to understand how important it is to be an excellent reading instructor.
- iii. according to Moats (2008), students will become proficient readers with a concerted effort. One must remember that quality method of instruction is highly essential.
- iv. teachers must try out ideas expressed at school/class contact hours and workshops and take note on how they work in classroom teaching.
- v. in addition to schools and staff, parents also need to perceive value in students' reading across the curriculum. School leaders should educate parents about the philosophy of instruction so they can aid in its implementation.

B. How Reading Should be Taught across the Curriculum

Teaching reading is an integral part of all content areas. Every teacher must be a reading teacher. The following are techniques and strategies in teaching reading across the curriculum:

- 1). Design lessons using a before, during and after format with which reading is a significant component
- 2). Have students respond to stance questions in writing: providing support from the text.

1. Teaching reading across curriculum in the primary school

- For primary phase children, make a game of word recognition using flash cards in newly-learned words. Three to five minutes each day for this activity can make a big difference in improving sight vocabulary.

- Make activities sheet accessible – short sentences, avoid extraneous text; using the first person pronouns where possible.

- Provide support for reading by placing pupils in pairs (a good reader with a less good reader) and groups.
- Be a good role model – talk about personal reading with parents to sit with pupils around the dinner to tell them about a really good story you read to your children: your son/daughter/nephew/niece some time ago.

2. Teaching reading across the curriculum in Junior Secondary Schools

There are a number of good guides to classroom activities that lead readers to read more efficiently and effectively, Thus:

- Introduce and explain technical vocabulary. Look at work together as a group or whole class using phonetics if appropriate to decode. Talk about the meaning and any related words; photosynthesis; photo (prefix) synthesis. Remember that there is also a whole bank of vocabulary that is not deemed technical but the understanding of which is critical to students' understanding of exam questions. Words like discuss, analysis, justify, review can confuse students who may actively be able to respond if only they understood the question.

- Use news items: Bring in newspaper cuttings that are relevant to your subject area or current topic and ask a pair of pupils to read it and report back to the class.... It might be a new discovery (science); someone finding a relic or report on floods. This can be a homework activity with article of different length and complexity given to readers of different abilities.

3. Teaching reading across curriculum in the Senior Secondary Schools

Reading across curriculum should be the real goal of all courses in the senior classes, in both public and private schools and in community programs. The need for reading is clear and it is growing as the world become increasingly digital with all forms of communication. We must therefore develop ways of making reading more attractive to out students in order to develop a life long love for reading. We must prepare students to find pleasure in reading.

The following reading strategies capitalize on adolescent needs in teaching reading in schools:

- Encourage students to create plays about materials they are learning and to present the play in class. Students get to hear how others use inflection pacing to convey emotions.

- Teachers should usually pair a fluent reader with one that needs help. Students take turns reading to each other and share what they have read so as to reinforce comprehension.

- Keep students focused always. In this strategy one student reads part of a selection which also helps content area teachers to cover text material in class but does not ensure that student comprehends the material.

- Guided reading typically involves the whole class in reading a passage together. It allows the teacher to expose children to a wide range of literature while teaching reading/vocabulary and comprehension strategies.

Teachers can also provide focused practice in reading in every assignment given, building readers' skills over the course of study through the use of carefully constructed set of reading guides.

III. CONCLUSION

The need for teaching reading across the curriculum cannot be under emphasized. It is effective reading that opens the windows of information to individuals and learners in the various content areas.

Teaching reading across the curriculum assists learners in good vocabulary knowledge development and intelligent sharing among one another. Learners are also able to explore and exploit texts and materials to their own advantage in the varied content areas. In this age of Information and Communication Technology, teaching Reading across the curriculum is very crucial for integrative and complementary as well as wholesome and meaningful learning.

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Vocabulary Teaching in English Language Teaching

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Abstract—Vocabulary is one of the three essential components that constitute language knowledge, and vocabulary teaching is an essential part in English language teaching. In this paper, we discuss some vocabulary teaching strategies, so as to help the memorizing of vocabulary and enhance the efficiency of vocabulary teaching and learning.

Index Terms—vocabulary, language knowledge, vocabulary teaching strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Human being's language is based on the vocabulary, which consists of three basic language units—pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. Grammar provides the overall patterns, and the vocabulary is the basic material to put into the patterns, cause there is no sentence, no essay, and even no language without vocabulary. As one of the famous English applied linguists Wilkins said "out grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed." (Wilkins, 1987, p.135) Therefore, to a great extent, students' ability of listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating is all influenced by the vocabulary. Vocabulary teaching is a process, but its aims are clear: not only make college students memorize words as much as possible, but also make them master their skills of vocabulary memorizing and train their ability of guessing words' meaning from contexts. In order to teach English effectively, strategies are very important.

Vocabulary is the most important element in learning well a foreign language as one of three basic parts (phonetics, vocabulary and grammar). In the conventional college English teaching, grammatical translation is a common way to teach new words. Usually, teachers teach words and phrases one by one in the list, giving several sentences that are far from students' comprehension. Both teachers and students make great efforts to learn and remember new words but the result is not satisfying. The problem makes us consider: what's wrong with our brain, or are our methods incorrect? According to psycholinguistics, learning should be as significant as possible so that it can be stored into long-term memory; learning will not be easily forgotten after deep processing; creating some certain settings can help our memory. Therefore, the words learning will be more effective if we are able to follow those cognitive regulations.

II. VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

In vocabulary teaching researches, vocabulary knowledge can be divided into internal knowledge and external knowledge, including the definition or conceptual meaning, its grammar, connotations, pragmatic rules and the socio-cultural message it carries. Vocabulary does not only refer to the single words but also the "chunks" such as phrases and idioms. Thus, integrated vocabulary teaching should include following parts:

A. Pronunciation and Spelling

In Standard pronunciation and correct spelling are the essential parts of vocabulary teaching and learning. The college students have to know what a word sounds like (pronunciation) and what it looks like (spelling). When teaching vocabulary, teachers should draw them attention to pronunciation and spelling together, and clarify the relationships between them.

B. Grammar

The grammar of new vocabulary will need to be taught if this is not obviously covered by general grammatical rules. An English word may have an unpredictable change of form in certain grammatical contexts or may have some idiosyncratic way of connecting with other words in sentences. For example, when teaching a new verb, teachers should give its past form if this verb is irregular (forbid, forbade), and teachers might note if it is transitive or intransitive. Similarly, when teaching a noun, teachers need to present its plural form if the noun is irregular (criterion, criteria), or draw them attention to the fact that it has no plural at all (people).

C. Word Formation

Vocabulary items, whether one-word or multi-word, can often be broken down into their component bits, and how these bits put together is another piece of useful information which may be worth teaching. If students know the meaning of sub-, un-, and -able, this will help them to guess the meaning of words like *substandard*, *ungrateful* and *renewable*.

III. VOCABULARY TEACHING STRATEGIES

According to the study of Hatch and Brown, learners' strategies for learning vocabulary fall into five essential steps: 1. having sources for encountering new words; 2. getting the forms of the new words; 3. learning the meanings of the words; 4. making a strong memory of the words; and 5. using the words. Based on the vocabulary acquisition theory, while teaching vocabulary, teachers should take into account the three important aspects of vocabulary learning—word form, word meaning and word use. In other words, vocabulary teaching should cover both the central features of lexical items and their relations with other words.

On the basis of above-mentioned theory, I have used the following methods in my lexical teaching, which have proved to be very powerful and effective.

A. Teaching Vocabulary in Context

Context means the words that come just before and after a word, phrase or statement and help you to understand its meaning. As Lu Shu Xiang put it, only by being in a context will a word be alive. Similarly, Stevick pointed out, vocabulary is easier to learn in contexts than in isolated word lists in that such meaningful contexts permit this more complex and deeper cognitive processing, which enhances storage in memory. Thus words should not be taught out of context. Moreover, context teaching caters to students' need for effective reading and communication by making correct use of the words learnt. More importantly, context teaching helps cultivate students' good reading habit of reading between the lines, thus improving their reading comprehension. For example, in Unit 1 College English Book 2, there is a sentence containing a new phrase: *That magazine story, and the person who wrote it, I have never been able to track down.* In light of the context, we can guess the meaning of track down, that is to find or discover. Then I added one more example: *It was almost two weeks before the police tracked down the facts they needed.*

Teaching vocabulary in the context is more helpful to learners to master a polysemy—word that carries different meanings in different context. Take the word means for example.

Only a man of means could afford to buy such a big house. (money, income or wealth)

Television is an effective means of communication. (a way of achieving sth)

— *Do you mind if I have a look?* — *By all means.* (certainly, sure)

The load was lifted by means of a crane. (with the help of sth)

She is by no means an inexperienced teacher. (not at all)

I don't particularly like the work but I see it as a means to an end. (an uninteresting or unimportant thing but is a way of achieving sth else)

He was too mean to pay for the work. (not generous)

He has the look of man who means business. (be serious in one's intentions)

I do not mean any harm to you. (have no intention of hurting sb.)

After experiencing the word means in its many contexts, students can get a complete understanding of its meaning. Meanwhile, they get to know the difference between means and mean. In a word, only if students are immersed in a context when learning new words will they be able to gradually develop a more accurate, structural framework in which they use these words.

As we all know, to memorize the isolated words is hard. So to convey the meaning of a new word exactly, it's better to present the word in the sentence or in the context. There are three advantages: Firstly, assessing the meaning of a word in context obliges the students to develop strategies, such as anticipating and inferring, which become increasingly profitable as learning progresses because they instill an attitude of self-reliance that is the hallmark of proficiency. Secondly, systematically meeting new words in context underlines the fact that words are indeed used in discourse for purposes of communication. Finally, context provides an indication of the way the words are used.

B. Teaching Vocabulary with Semantic Field Theory

The basic assumption underlying the theory of semantic field is that words do not exist in isolation: rather, they form different semantic fields, such as a "vegetable" field which contains all kinds of words that denote vegetables: spinach, cauliflower, cabbage, pepper, eggplant, onion, tomato, cucumber. Words that belong to the same semantic class are in the same semantic field. According to the theory of semantic field, the meaning of a word is decided by its relationships with other words in the same semantic field. There are various kinds of such sense relationships, for example, hyponymy, part/whole relationships, synonymy and antonymy. By association of words in the same semantic field, we can train our students to constantly deepen their recollection of words learnt and reinforce learning and retention of newly learnt words.

English is particularly rich in synonyms. As synonyms convey the same concept, we often use them to explain new

words in vocabulary teaching. In teaching the word *peer*, we can elicit from the students words bearing the meaning *look*, soon we get *glance, glimpse, stare, gaze, glare, watch*. Then more synonyms *peep, peek, squint* are introduced and the differences of these words are also explained.

C. Expanding Vocabulary by Word Formation

Word formation is an effective way to help students see words in the network of association. As Nattinger put it: “to know the meaning of a word becomes the task of knowing its associations with other words”. Therefore, to teach lexical items effectively, teachers must familiarize students with these common roots, prefixes, suffixes.

For example, in teaching the word *transplant*, students are told that the prefix ‘trans-’ means ‘across; beyond; into another place or state’. When they are aware of the meaning of organ (liver, kidney, heart) *transplant*, they are asked to tell the meanings of the following words with a given context: *transport, transform, translate, transact, transfer, transit, transatlantic, transparent, translucent*. While learning the word *scribble*, the root ‘-scribe’ is taught first. It means ‘to write’. Then more derivatives of ‘scribe’ are given to the students: *describe, prescribe, inscribe, proscribe, subscribe*. With the accumulation of common roots, prefixes and suffixes, I often encourage my students to guess the meanings of new words and to summarize the common roots, prefixes and suffixes. In this way, the students not only know how words are formed but also understand the motivation of English word formation. By and by, their vocabulary multiplies and they become increasingly interested in learning English.

D. Creating Mental Linkages by Association

When teaching vocabulary, the atmosphere of classroom setting must be active, it's good to consolidate and enlarge students' vocabulary. For example, teachers write a word tree in the center of the blackboard, and then ask students to brainstorm all the words they can think of that are connected with it

The circle of associated items is in itself a meaningful context for the learning of new vocabulary; the focus is on the meaning of isolated items. Of course, teachers can use other sorts of stimulus-words or connections: put a prefix sub- in the center and invite the class to think of words that begin with it. Teachers should make good use of time in the classroom and provide chances of word consolidation as much as possible.

E. Teaching Cultural Connotations and Cultural Differences

English vocabulary system is an open system; it consistently adopts variation, transformation and has been influenced by other languages in the world for a long history. So in vocabulary teaching, teachers should not neglect introducing the knowledge of culture background. It is said that, NEWS originated from the first letter of the four directions—N(north), E(east), W(west) and S(south), indicating that news comes from and spreads all over the world.

Vocabulary is the base of language. Meanwhile, language is a vehicle of culture, a tool to convey cultural information and to reflect the cultural life in human society. Many words have cultural connotations, that is, they are culturally-loaded words, carrying specific cultural information. Teachers should motivate students to enhance their information pertaining to western countries and their communities in every respect conceivable. Take ‘dragon’ for example. In Chinese culture, ‘dragon’ has positive connotation. It stands for ‘power, strength, and prosperity’. So the Chinese regard themselves as ‘the descendants of dragon’. The image of dragon can be seen in ancient Chinese buildings, in sculptures, in furniture---etc. However, in English-speaking culture, ‘dragon’ is a negative word, standing for ‘sth. fierce, ugly or monster’. So ‘a dragon lady’ is used in English to refer to a woman who behaves in a fierce and frightening way.

Interestingly enough, colors are used to express human emotions in English, which is different in Chinese culture:

feel/look blue (feel sad); *be in the blues* (be depressed); *be in a black mood* (be angry)

He is green with envy (*green-eyed*).

(In our culture, ‘red’ would be used instead of ‘green’.)

a blue film (a film about sex)

(In our culture, ‘yellow’ would be used instead of ‘blue’.)

In short, in teaching vocabulary, teachers should provide students with information about cultural background, customs whenever possible, which will not only broaden students' horizon, but also motivate their interest in English. As Harmer said, ‘Motivation is some kind of internal drive that encourage somebody to pursue a course of action.’ (Harmer, 1991, p.3)

F. The Use of Dictionaries

Usually we are sure that students want to know the meaning of many more words than teachers can teach them, the dictionary provides one of the best resources for students who wish to increase the number of words they understand. But it's better to use the monolingual dictionary. In it there are many more words than students will ever see in class. There is more grammatical information about the words. There is information about pronunciation, spelling, word formation, and metaphorical and idiomatic use---a whole profile of a practical word. It requires teachers to introduce to their methods of choosing and using a proper dictionary. This is fairly practical, just as the Chinese proverb goes “Teach me how to fish, rather than giving me fish.”

IV. CONCLUSION

We have seen the importance of vocabulary teaching in English language teaching, and we also talked about some practical strategies in vocabulary teaching. Vocabulary is to the Chinese learner as building materials are to the architect. Without a large English vocabulary, no one can claim a good command of the language. (Zhang Jianmin, 2003, p.53) In a word, the aim of the article is to make us, teachers and learners, both realize the importance of the vocabulary in the language and try to give some enlightenment to the teachers and learners on the way to becoming competent language users.

Vocabulary teaching plays an important role in English teaching, so to improve the effectiveness and efficiency, teachers should not only understand the students' difficulties of word study, but also use some useful strategies and methods. Only in this way they can help to improve the students' language competence and their ability to use English freely in communication.

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Discourse Markers in High School English Textbooks in Iran

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Abstract—Discourse Markers (DMs) are affective factors to connect sentences, hence making the text coherent. The purpose of this study was to investigate the reading comprehension sections of Iranian high school English textbooks (IHSETs) to find out the extent of using DMs and their types. To this end, the reading sections in IHSETs were analyzed to determine DMs. Fraser's (1999) category of DMs were used with 4 main classifications: a) Contrastive Markers, b) Elaborative Markers, c) Inferential Markers, and 4) Topic Change Markers. To make this investigation viable, parallel texts in internationally-developed English textbooks were compared with IHSETs in terms of the use of DMs. To insure the equality of the number of words and level of difficulty, the Flesch (1948) readability formula was used. The results showed that there was a significant difference between the frequency of DMs in the reading sections of IHETs and the authentic texts to the benefit of the authentic texts. Materials designers may find the results helpful in their work.

Index Terms—discourse markers, textbooks, reading comprehension, readability

I. INTRODUCTION

Course books are necessary tools in teaching. They can manage the process of teaching and learning. Razmjoo (2007) has considered textbook as a necessary resource for foreign language learning that has the main role in teaching and learning a foreign language. He has analyzed high school textbooks versus private institute books to see whether they are based on communicative teaching principles. His study has shown that textbooks in private institutes fulfill communicative language teaching (CLT) to a great extent whereas textbooks in high school are neither based on CLT nor fulfill language learners' needs. Dahmardeh (2009) has analyzed 20 Iranian English teachers and an author of the textbooks' perspectives about English materials in Iranian English textbooks. According to his research, the disadvantages of the current courses were determined as follow (Dahmardeh, 2009, p. 2):

- a. Lack of coherence
- b. A narrow curriculum
- c. Form-based exercises
- d. Lack of flexibility

He has added that the main focus in Iranian English book is on reading comprehension and presentation of reading strategies. Reading is an important skill because other skills are defined in the framework of reading. Reading is communication between reader and writer and the purpose of reading is making the meaning.

Jahangard (2007) has pointed out that listening and speaking skills are marginal activities in EFL materials in Iranian high schools. Reading skill, which seems to be the most important skill in books, is a tool to introduce grammatical points, and texts are manipulated to reinforce particular grammatical points included in the grammar section of the book. Gabb (2001) believes that reading is like watching a movie in your head. Rivers (1981) has believed that reading is the most important skill in language learning because it can represent lots of information and is a pleasurable activity, and it can also extend one's knowledge of the language.

According to Goodman (1967), reading is a selective process. It means that comprehending a text is based on the use of available language used in the texts that are selected from perceptual input regarding what the reader expects from a text. Widdowson (1979) believes written discourse as well as spoken discourse operates in accordance with Grice's (1975) cooperative principle. Language is used as a clue to correspondence of conceptual world in this interaction between readers and writers. He has added interpretation of written or spoken discourse needs as a kind of creativity. This creativity is done based on textual clues by the readers.

A. What Is Discourse Analysis?

Widdowson (1979) has also thought that teachers generally do not pay much attention to teaching how to relate sentences together to form stretches of connected discourse. Teachers rely on the grammarian to connect the sentences

and they consider sentences as distinct units. Louwerse and Graesser (2005, pp. 1-2) infer that, "Several years ago the term *discourse* was reserved for dialogue, and text was reserved for monologue. In contemporary research, *discourse* covers both monologic and dialogic spoken and written language."

According to Fraser (1999), DMs are conjunctions, adverbs, and propositional phrases that link different parts of a text like sentences and phrases together. Redecker (1991, p. 1168) calls them discourse operators and defines them as a "word or phrase, for instance, a conjunction, adverbial, comment clause, interjection that is uttered with the primary function of bringing to listeners' attention a particular kind of the upcoming utterance with the immediate discourse context." Mingliang and Dayon (2007) have also mentioned that students will know what and how to read and reading will be simplified if they know about textual functional DMs. So, students distinguish more important sentences, and in this way, their speed in reading will increase.

B. Fraser's Discourse Markers

Fraser (1999) has claimed that DMs have been studied under various labels like, *discourse markers*, *discourse connectives*, *discourse operators*, *pragmatic connectives*, *sentence connectives*, and *cue phrases*. Fraser (1999, p. 931) defines DMs "as a class of lexical expressions drawn primarily from the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbs, and propositional phrases." He has also believed that DMs represent a relationship between the interpretations of a segment that is known as S2 and the previous one, S1. He has shown the canonical form as <S1. DM+ S2>. DMs in Fraser's classification have been viewed as procedural meaning, and their linguistic and conceptual interpretation is 'negotiated' by the context. Fraser (1999) introduces two kinds of DMs. The first group relates to some aspects of S2 to S1 explicitly, and the second group relates the topic of S1 to S2. According to him, there are some important issues about DMs.

DMs relate some aspects of the message in S2 and S1. The first class in Fraser's category is Contrastive Markers. These kinds of DMs show that interpretation of S2 contrasts with an interpretation of S1. Consider this sentence that contains DMs:

- John weighs 150 pounds. *In comparison*, Jim weighs 155.

In this sentence, *in comparison* indicates that S2 is in contrast with S1. According to meaning, this subclass can be divided as (Fraser, 1999, p. 947):

- a. but
- b. however, (al)though
- c. in contrast (with/ to this/ that), whereas
- d. in comparison (with/ to this/ that)
- e. on the contrary; contrary to this/ that
- f. conversely
- g. Instead (of (doing) this/ that, in spite of (doing) this/ that, nevertheless, nonetheless, still)

The second subclass is called Elaborative Markers. DMs relate messages in S2 to S1. "In these cases, the DM signals a quasi-parallel relationship between S2 and S1" (Fraser, 1999, p. 948):

- You should be always polite. *Above all*, you shouldn't belch at the table.

• They didn't want to upset the meeting by too much talking. *Similarly*, we didn't want to upset the meeting by too much drinking.

Finer distinctions include:

- a. and
- b. above all, also, besides, better yet, for another thing, furthermore, in addition, moreover, more to the point, on top of it all, too, to cap it all off, what is more
- c. I mean, in particular, namely, parenthetically, that is (to say)
- d. analogously, by the same token, correspondingly, equally, likewise, similarly
- e. be that as it may, or, otherwise, that said, well

The third class of DMs in Fraser's is called Inferential Markers. These group of DMs shows that S2 is seen as conclusion for S1:

- The bank has been closed all day. *Thus*, we couldn't make a withdrawal.
- It's raining. *Under those conditions*, we should ride our bikes.

It can also be said that S1 is viewed as a reason for S2. Thus, it indicates that content of S2 is the conclusion of S1. Inferential markers can be placed in these subclasses:

- a. so
- b. of course
- c. accordingly, as a consequence, as a logical conclusion, as a result, because of this/that, consequently, for this/that reason, hence, it can be concluded that, therefore, thus
- d. in this/ that case, under these/those conditions, then
- e. all this things considered

As mentioned before, the first main class of DMs relates some aspects of S1 and S2; they are called Contrastive Markers, Elaborative Markers, and Inferential Markers. The second main class of DMs in Fraser's category is Topic Change Markers:

- The dinner looks delicious. *Incidentally* where do you shop?
- I am glad that it is finished. *To return to my point*, I'd like to discuss your paper.

In the first example, *incidentally* shows that S2 is a digression from the topic of S1, whereas in the other example, *to return to my point* indicates that the speaker intends to reintroduce the previous topic. They are:

back to my original point, I forget, by the way, incidentally, just to update you, on a different note, speaking of X, that reminds me, to change to topic, to return to my point, while I think of it, with regards to

C. Coherence and Cohesive Devices

Dulger (2007) has mentioned that a writer follows a coherent composition from word to sentence and from sentence to paragraph. Cohesive devices connect sentences, and Dulger mentions that a coherent text has a smooth flow in which sentences follow each other easily. He has added that readers make use of syntactic and structural relations to get the meaning of the text. In written discourse and above sentence level, besides punctuation and layout, discourse markers help writers to connect sentences to form a paragraph and paragraphs to form a text. Hussein (2006) has claimed that coherence group considers DMs as linguistic devices. He also adds that DMs cause coherence in the text by connecting different parts of a text.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) have viewed coherence of a text as well-formed text. They also believe that cohesion is a linguistic device through the use of which we can relate units of a text so that the text becomes coherent. A text can be coherent by using co-reference, ellipsis, and conjunctions. They have also represented five categories for English cohesive devices: 1) reference, 2) substitution, 3) ellipses, 4) lexical cohesion, and 5) conjunction. Halliday and Hasan have viewed conjunction or connective element as discourse markers; they are some categories for discourse markers:

1. Additive: and, or, also, in addition, furthermore, besides, similarly, likewise, by contrast, for instance, etc.
2. Adversative: but, yet, however, instead, on the other hand, nevertheless, at any rate, as a matter of fact, etc.
3. Causal: so, consequently, it follows, for, because, under the circumstances, for this reason, etc.
4. Continuative: now, of course, well, anyway, surely, after all, etc.

They have pointed out that if sentences are related semantically through the use of cohesive devices it can be known as a text. So, the terms 'texture' and 'cohesion' are extremely related together. Halliday and Hasan (1976) classified cohesion into two types: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. The most familiar group for grammatical cohesion is DMs. Hussein (2006, p. 3) has referred to some examples for DMs:

- a. He has got a very good mark in the math test.
- b. **And**, he has been the first in his class for the last. (additive)
- c. **Yet**, he failed his syntax test this term. (adversative)
- d. **Now**, he feels very frustrated and thinks of leaving school. (temporal)

Hussein (2006, p. 3) has mentioned that lexical cohesion can be achieved through repetition or reiteration. There was a great **woman**, who used to look after me when I was a kid. She used to feed me, play with me, and tell me nice stories. The **woman** was my **mother**.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A number of questions such as: How are DMs used in Iranian high school English textbooks? Are such important factors taken into consideration? Are students exposed to DMs sufficiently in reading comprehension sections in English textbooks? Were addresses in this study which aimed at studying how DMs are used in Iranian high school English textbooks for the first time. It also analyzed teachers' ideas about these books regarding using DMs, and whether students know about the influence of DMs on reading comprehension.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

According to what has been said so far, the following questions were raised:

1. To what extent are DMs used in the reading comprehension sections in high school English textbooks in Iran?
2. What kinds of DMs are used in the reading comprehension sections in high school English textbooks in Iran?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Materials

In this research study, some instruments were used with the purpose of collecting the information. One was Fraser's (1999) category of DMs, Iranian high school English Textbooks, authentic books which were written by native speakers of English a questionnaire based on Miekley's (2005) and Yannopoulos's (2004) checklist which were given to the teachers. The other instrument used was Flesch (1948) readability formulas to determine the readability of the different texts.

1. Iranian High School English Textbooks (IHSETs)

All of the reading sections in IHSETs were analyzed to distinguish the DMs. There are 9 reading comprehension sections in *Book 1* (Birjandi, Soheili, Nowroozi, & Mahmoodi, 2000), 7 reading comprehension sections in *Book 2* (Birjandi, Nowroozi, & Mahmoodi, 2002a), 6 reading comprehension sections, in *Book 3* (Birjandi, Nowroozi, &

Mahmoodi, 2002b), and 8 lessons in *Book 4* (Birjandi, Ananisarab, & Samimi, 2006). *Book 4* was used as a pre-university book before (by 2010), but now the system of education has changed and the pre-university cycle is called the 4th Grade.

2. Authentic Texts

To analyze the DMs in IHSETs, it was necessary to compare these texts with authentic texts. There was a traditional suppose that learners should be presented by simplified language, but nowadays it is recommended that they should deliver authentic language (Widdowson, 1979). So, 14 reading texts were selected randomly from prevalent authentic books which are taught in Iran. These books are:

1. *Steps to Understanding* by L.A. Hill, (1980)
2. *Start Reading 4 and 5* by Derek Strange (1989)
3. *New Headway English Course* by Liza John Soars (2000a)
4. *Developing Reading Skills* by Linda Markstein and Louise Hirasawa (1981)
5. *Expanding Reading Skill* by Linda Markstein and Louise Hirasawa (1982)
6. *New American Streamline* by Bernard Hartley and Peter Viney (1995)
7. *Interchange 3 Students Book* by Jack C. Richards, Jonathan Hull, and Susan Proctor (2005)
8. *Marvin's Woolly Mammoth* by Jill Eggleton(n.d.)

B. Procedure

The aim of the current research was the analysis of frequency of the DMs and kinds of the DMs in IHSETs. All of the reading sections in IHSETs were analyzed to distinguish kinds of the DMs and more than 50% of the reading sections were investigated to show the frequencies of DMs. It should be mentioned that the investigation of frequency is not viable unless we compare these reading sections with some texts in authentic texts. In order to analyze the DMs, some criteria were used. The present study benefited from Frasers' (1999) category of DMs to analyze the reading comprehension sections in IHSETs in terms of using the DMs and familiarizing the students with DMs in the reading comprehension sections.

To determine the number of the DMs in IHSETs, the frequency of DMs used in each reading passage was identified and they were presented in tables. Four tables were prepared to show the DMs contained in the reading sections in each IHSET. Then, to compare the reading sections in IHSETs and the authentic texts properly, it was necessary to determine the readability ratio of each text. Flecsh's Readability Formula was used to determine the difficulty level of the reading passages. In this way, one can see whether the DMs used in IHSETs reading sections are sufficient. To compare the texts, they should be equal regarding the number of words or length of the texts and their level of difficulty.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In this study, two questions were put forward regarding the DMs in the English textbooks in high school. To answer the first question, the reading comprehension sections of the textbooks were analyzed regarding the use of the DMs. To make this investigation viable, parallel texts in internationally developed English textbooks were compared with IHSETs in terms of the use of the DMs. The texts in the textbooks in comparison to the texts in internationally developed English textbooks should have been in the same level of readability and length. So, the readability of all the texts in the textbooks and their parallel texts in internationally prepared texts was determined by the use of Flesch's Readability Formula. Fifty per cent of the texts in the textbooks were selected randomly and were investigated in terms of the use of the DMs.

A. Answering the First Research Question

To answer the first research question—that is, “to what extent are DMs used in the reading comprehension sections in high school English textbooks in Iran?”—the frequencies of DMs in *English Books 1, 2, 3 and 4* were investigated and compared with the DMs in the authentic texts.

1. DMs in English Book 1

There were nine reading comprehension texts in *English Book 1*, four texts of which were investigated in terms of the use of DMs and were compared to the authentic texts in internationally developed textbooks (see Table 5.1 in Appendix B). The first column includes the titles of reading sections in *English Book 1* that were compared to the authentic texts. These two groups of texts had to be equal in the rate of readability and their length. So, the second and third columns indicate the number of words in each reading section and their readability score. The main issue in this table is the number of DMs which are shown in the fifth column. The second half of the table shows the same information for texts of internationally developed books.

Regarding Table 5.1, the number of the DMs in four reading sections of *English Book 1* is nine, whereas the number of the DMs in the parallel texts of the authentic textbook is 45. In order to investigate the difference in frequency of the DMs in high school texts and the authentic texts, a chi-square test was run. Table 5.1 shows the results of this test:

TABLE 5.1.
THE RESULTS OF THE CHI-SQUARE FOR BOOK 1

	Observed	Expected <i>N</i>	Residual
Authentic Text	45	27.0	18.0
English Book 1	9	27.0	-18.0
Total	54		

Test Statistics

	aval
Chi-Square ^a	24.000
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 27.0.

As the statistics in Table 5.1 reveals, the chi-square is 24 which is significant at $p = .000$. Therefore, the texts in *English Book 1* were statistically different from the authentic texts in terms of the number of the DMs used.

2. DMs in English Book 2

The reading comprehension texts of lesson 2, 4, 6, and 7 were selected from seven reading comprehension sections of *English Book 2*. Parallel texts which were equal in length and readability were found in internationally developed books and these two groups of texts were compared in terms of using the DMs. The results of these comparisons are presented in Table 5.2 (see Appendix B). The number of the DMs used in *English Book 2* was 25 and the number of the DMs of the authentic texts was 41. Another chi-square test was employed to compare the frequencies of the DMs in both series. Table 5.2 indicates the results of this test:

TABLE 5.2.
THE RESULTS OF THE CHI-SQUARE FOR BOOK 2

English book 2

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Authentic	41	33.0	8.0
English Book	25	33.0	-8.0
Total	66		

Test Statistics

	dovom
Chi-Square ^a	3.879
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.049

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 33.0.

The statistics in Table 5.2 reveals that the chi-square is 3.879 which is significant at $p = .049$. Therefore, the texts in *English Book 2* were statistically different from the authentic texts with regard to the number of the DMs used.

3. DMs in English Book 3

English Book 3 includes six reading comprehension texts. Again, four of the reading comprehension sections were selected and the DMs in these texts were compared to the DMs in texts of internationally developed books. The results of these comparisons are presented in Table 5.3 (see Appendix B). A third chi-square was used to compare the frequencies of the DMs in the two series. Table 5.3 demonstrates the results of this chi-square test:

TABLE 5.3.
THE RESULTS OF THE CHI-SQUARE FOR BOOK 3

English Book 3

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Authentic	45	32.5	12.5
English Book	20	32.5	-12.5
Total	65		

Test Statistics	
	sevom
Chi-Square ^a	9.615
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.002

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 32.5.

Table 5.1 on page 7 shows that the amount of chi-square (9.615) is high enough to indicate that the difference between the frequencies is statistically significant ($p = .000$). Therefore, once again it can be claimed that the texts in English Book 1 were statistically different from the authentic texts regarding the number of the DMs used.

4. DMs in English Book 4

English Book 4 contains eight lessons and each lesson has one reading text except Lesson 8 which has two reading texts. So, this book includes nine reading texts. Although this book has used authentic texts for reading comprehension sections, in order to determine the number of the DMs in this book, six texts were selected and compared to the texts from internationally developed books which were equal in the length and readability. The results of these comparisons are presented in Table 5.4 (see Appendix B). In order to compare the frequencies, one last chi-square was implemented. Table 5.4 shows the results:

TABLE 5.4.
THE RESULTS OF THE CHI-SQUARE FOR BOOK 1

English Book 4			
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Authentic	49	44.0	5.0
English Book	39	44.0	-5.0
Total	88		

Test Statistics	
	charom
Chi-Square ^a	1.136
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.286

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 44.0.

By examining Table 5.4, one can understand the amount of chi-square (1.136) is only significant at $p = .286$ which is not an acceptable amount to claim that the two series are different in the number of the DMs used.

B. Answering the Second Research Question

To answer the second question—that is, “What kinds of DMs are used more in the reading comprehension sections in high school English textbooks in Iran?”—the DMs in all the reading comprehension texts were studied. All the DMs used in the English textbooks were classified in according to Fraser’s category of DMs.

1. Different Kinds of DMs in English Book 1

In order to investigate different kinds of the DMs in *English Book 1*, the reading comprehension texts of *English Book 1* were studied. Table 5 (see Appendix B) shows all the DMs used in *English Book 1*. As it is shown in Table 5, of the various kinds of ‘contrastive markers’ category, only *but* was used and of different kinds of ‘elaborative markers’ category, only *and* was used. But ‘inferential markers’ included more varieties. The most frequent kind of DM category was ‘contrastive markers’ in *English Book 1*, and there was no ‘topic change marker’. Interestingly, the reading text in Lesson 9 included no DMs at all.

2. Different Kinds of DMs in English Book 2

All seven reading comprehension sections of *English Book 2* were investigated in terms of different kinds of the DMs. There were 52 DMs in *English Book 2* (see Table 5.5 in Appendix B). There were 19 *buts* from the category of ‘contrastive markers.’ Like *English Book 1*, other kinds of ‘contrastive markers’ were not included in the text, but ‘inferential markers’ and ‘elaborative markers’ included more varieties. There was no ‘topic change marker,’ the same as *English Book 1*, whereas the most frequent kind of the DMs was ‘elaborative markers’ in *English Book 2*.

3. Different Kinds of DMs in English Book 3

The reading comprehension texts in *English Book 3* were studied in terms of the use of the DMs. There were 35 DMs in this book (see Table 5.7 in Appendix B). There were 13 ‘elaborative markers’ used in *English Book 3* which was the most frequent kind of the DMs in *English Book 3* and ‘contrastive markers’ were the second most frequent kind of the

DMs in this book. In this book, *however* was added to the category of ‘contrastive markers’ which was absent in the two previous books. Again, ‘topic change markers’ were not included.

4. Different Kinds of DMs in English Book 4

There were authentic texts in *English Book 4*. Although long texts were presented to the students, these texts include different frequency of the DMs from *English Books 1, 2, and 3*. Various kinds of DMs were used in *English Book 4* (see Table 5.8 in Appendix B). It was a big change in the case of DMs between three previous books and *English Book 4*. This book, unlike the three previous books, included ‘topic change markers.’ The most frequent DMs used in *English Book 4* were ‘elaborative markers,’ and then ‘contrastive markers.’ The least frequent DMs, however, were ‘topic change markers.’

According to the analysis of the DMs in these books, the DMs in *English Book 4* were used in a logical manner in comparison to the DMs in *English Books 1, 2, and 3*. So, to show what kinds of DMs were used more, two separate tables were prepared. The first table (Table 5.5) represents the kinds and percentage of the DMs in *English Books 1, 2, and 3* and the second table (Table 5.6) shows the kinds of the DMs used in *English Book 4* (see Appendix B). Figure 5.1 shows the percentages of the DMs in *English Books 1, 2, and 3*, and Figure 5.2 illustrates the percentages of the DMs in *English Book 4*:

TABLE 5.5.
THE MOST AND THE LEAST FREQUENT DMs IN ENGLISH BOOKS 1, 2, AND 3

Kinds of DMs & percentages	Contrastive	Elaborative	Inferential	Topic Change
Book 1	16	8	12	0
Book 2	19	22	11	0
Book 3	12	13	10	0
Total Number & Percentage	47 38.21%	43 34.95%	33 26.82%	0 0%

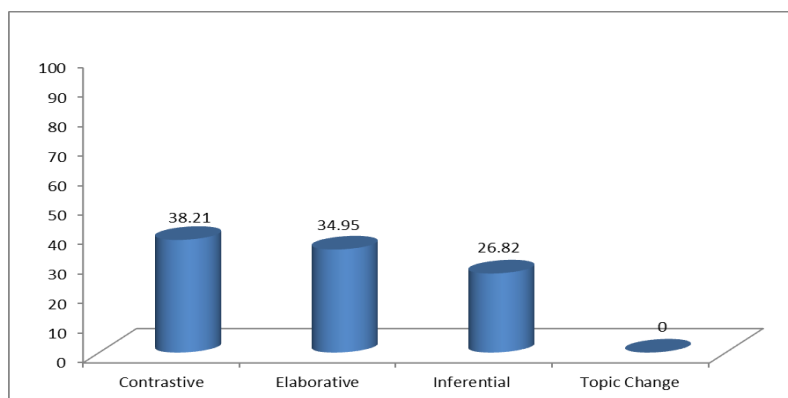


Figure 5.1. DMs in English Books 1, 2, and 3

In ‘contrastive markers’ *but* was the most frequent kind of the DMs in *English Books 1, 2 and 3*, there were 46 *buts*. There were 16, 19, and 11 *buts* in *English Books 1, 2, and 3*, respectively. The second frequent DMs used were 28 *ands* from ‘elaborative markers.’ There were 8, 14, and 6 *ands* in *English Books 1, 2, and 3*, respectively. In ‘inferential categories,’ the most frequent DMs was 12 *sos*. There were 4, 7, and 1 *sos* in *English Books 1, 2, and 3*, respectively. Totally, there were 47 (or 38.21%) ‘contrastive markers,’ 43 (or 34.95%) ‘elaborative markers,’ 33 (or 26.82%) ‘inferential markers,’ and ‘topic change markers’ were totally ignored in these books. At the end, it can be concluded that the most frequent kinds of DMs in *English Books 1, 2, and 3* is ‘contrastive markers’ (38. 21%) and the least one is ‘topic change markers’ (0%).

TABLE 5.6.
THE MOST AND THE LEAST FREQUENT DMs IN ENGLISH BOOKS 4

Kinds of DMs & Percentage	Contrastive	Elaborative	Inferential	Topic Change
Book 4	28 37.83%	34 45.94%	11 14.86%	1 1.35%

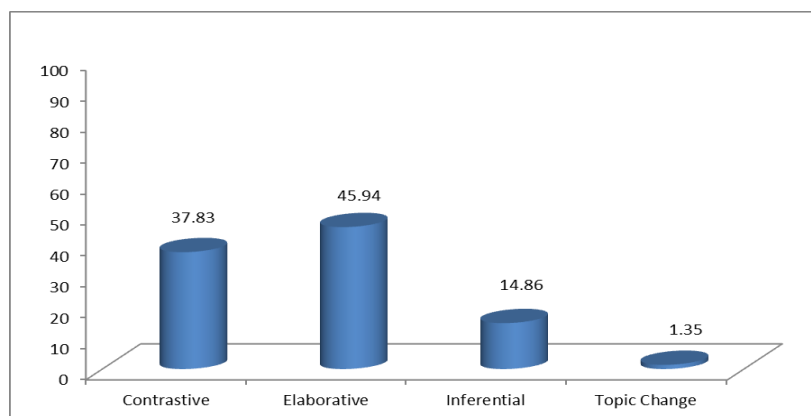


Figure 5.1. DMs in English Books

According to this Table 5.6, ‘elaborative markers’ (45.94%) were the most frequent kinds of DMs in *English Book 4* and after ‘elaborative markers’ were ‘contrastive markers’ (37.83%). Although ‘topic change markers’ are not totally ignored in comparison to *English Books 1, 2, and 3*, it is not used sufficiently (1.35%).

VI. DISCUSSION

Regarding the importance of DMs in reading comprehension, the findings of this study revealed that the frequencies of the DMs in the reading comprehension sections in IHSETs are not sufficient. It means that the learners comprehend the texts better when the texts included enough number of DMs. DMs in a text increase the coherence of a text. Larson (1987) believes that “the determination of coherence is fundamentally an interpretation by a reader. It is part of a transaction between text and reader—between the readers’ world and the writers’ language” (pp. 66-72). In addition, when students are acquainted with different kinds of DMs, they are able to recognize the basic structure of a text, so it enhances their comprehension of a text. For instance, if a sentence includes *because* or *so*, readers can realize that it is a cause-effect sentence. Dymock (2005) thinks one of students’ problems in comprehending the texts is that they are not aware of the basic structures of a text. Expository texts come in a variety of patterns like description, sequence, compare-contrast, cause-effect, and problem solution.

Eslami-Rasekh and Eslami-Rasekh (2007) investigated DMs in a study in three academic lectures. They found out that DMs are important because they help readers and listeners understand the text better. They revealed in their results that DMs facilitate the process of listening comprehension.

The findings of the present study revealed that DMs are not used sufficiently in reading comprehension texts in *English Books 1, 2, and 3* in comparison to the texts in internationally developed books. But the DMs in the reading comprehension texts in *English Book 4* in Iranian high schools are taken into consideration and are used sufficiently. According to the results of this study, the structure of *English Book 4* is different from the structure of *English Books 1, 2, and 3*.

Riazi and Mosalanejad (2010) have also studied occurrence of different learning objectives in exercises and tasks of the textbooks based on Bloom’s (1965) taxonomy in English books. Bloom’s taxonomy includes six levels of educational objectives: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. They have classified these objectives into “lower” and “higher” order cognitive skills in their study.

This investigation showed that lower order components were dominant in English books in high school. ‘Application’ was the most frequent taxonomy in *English Books 1, 2, and 3* and ‘evaluation taxonomy’ was totally absent in *English Books 1, 2, and 3*. But ‘evaluation taxonomy’ was considered in *English Book 4*, and again attention to lower order cognitive skills were more than higher order objectives. Finally, it is important to note that “lower order” taxonomies were more frequent than “higher order” cognitive skills.

By improving the materials, authors can aid students to go beyond the lower level taxonomies and move to higher order taxonomies. In the knowledge stage—the first level—students just remember the information or recall them, or then, in comprehension, students understand the facts by translating, giving description, interpreting and giving main ideas. In the last level, ‘evaluation,’ students are able to make judgments about information and ideas. According to teachers’ ideas, DMs have not received enough attention in *English Books 1, 2 and 3*, but explanations in *English Book 4* are provided to some extent and frequencies of the DMs in the texts are sufficient. Riazi and Mosalanejad (2010) believe that students in grade 4 consider the texts and the topic as a whole and their comprehension is higher in comparison with students who study the reading texts of *English Books 1, 2, and 3*. It was mentioned earlier that DMs help readers to comprehend the texts, but authors of the IHSETBs were not aware of this influence, so they omitted the DMs to simplify the texts, and it produced the opposite results.

Some of the teachers thought the DMs were used in *English Book 4* more frequently than in *English Books 1, 2, and 3* because the main focus in *English Book 4* is reading comprehension. But according to Dahmarde (2009), *English Books 1, 2, and 3* have also focused on reading comprehension. Reading comprehension has a big part in these three

English books but there is little attention on teaching strategies of reading. Based on high school English teachers' opinions, students tried to learn and memorize the meaning of the new vocabulary or structural points in the process of reading. Students' reading skill does not improve in high school and they do not read to make meaning of the text. They are not taught to focus on meaning or they are not told not to translate the texts. Interestingly, students thought the important points in comprehending the texts were new vocabulary and structural points.

When students in grade 4 were asked about comprehension of the texts, they answered that although the texts are longer than the texts in *English Books 1, 2, and 3*, they are more interesting and they could comprehend the texts better. They also said that they are not able to guess the meaning of the texts. Although many kinds of DMs are presented to students in *English Book 4*, they consider them as structural rules. They are not told that these markers help them to make a relationship between different sentences. If they were aware of the influence of DMs, they would be able to consider the sentences as a whole and focus on meaning instead of focusing on separate items of vocabulary. They realized that the way of reading changed completely from readings in the three previous books, but they did not know why they comprehend the text better, and even they did not know better comprehension of the texts is the result of DMs which make the text coherent.

The results also showed that 'contrastive markers' are the most frequent kinds of DMs used in *English Books 1, 2 and 3*. These three books include 38.21% 'contrastive markers,' 34.95% 'elaborative markers,' 26.82% 'inferential markers' of the total DMS, and 'topic change markers' are not used at all. *English Book 4* considered DMs as an important topic, so it was studied separately regarding the kinds of DMs used. 'Elaborative markers' are used more than other three categories of DMs. This book includes 37.83% 'contrastive markers,' 45.94% 'elaborative markers,' 14.86% 'inferential markers,' and just 1.35% 'topic change markers.'

VII. CONCLUSION

According to the results of this study, the reading comprehension sections of high school *English Books 1, 2, and 3* in Iran do not include sufficient number of DMs, but the reading comprehension texts in *English Book 4* have enough number of DMs. In addition, in terms of the kinds of DMs used in English books, the findings of this study demonstrated that the most frequent kinds of DMs in *English Books 1, 2, and 3* are 'contrastive markers,' whereas 'topic change markers' are not included. In *English Book 4*, however, the most frequent kind of DMs is 'elaborative markers' and the least one is 'topic change markers.' In the case of teachers' ideas about the DMs in English books, the present study showed that the teachers had the same ideas as the results of the study. They believed that the number of the DMs in *English Books 1, 2, and 3* are not sufficient. But the number of the DMs in *English Book 4* was enough. They also added that the DMs in the reading sections help students to comprehend the text better. The students thought they understand the texts better in *English Book 4*, but they did not know that DMs increase this comprehension. By representing shortages of the DMs in *English Books 1, 2, and 3*, it is hoped that the findings will encourage the authors of textbooks to consider the use of DMs in the process of reading comprehension as an important factor in reading skill.

APPENDIX A THE FLESCH'S (1948) READING EASE READABILITY FORMULA

The specific mathematical formula is:

$$RE = 206.835 - (1.015 \times ASL) - (84.6 \times ASW)$$

RE = Readability Ease

ASL = Average Sentence Length (i.e., the number of words divided by the number of sentences)

ASW = Average number of syllables per word (i.e., the number of syllables divided by the number of words). Flesch (1948) (as cited in Crossley, 2011)

APPENDIX B

TABLE 5.1.
COMPARISON OF DMS IN ENGLISH BOOK 1 AND THE AUTHENTIC TEXTS

Textbook 1, Lessons:	Readability	Number of Words	DMS	Number of DMS	Authentic Books	Readability	Number of Words	DMS	Number of DMS
The Funny Farmhand (2)	69.419	130	and	1	Introductory Steps to Understanding	89.788	147	so, and, but, too, but, and, and	7
Learn a Foreign Language (5)	83.582	204	because, but,	2	Racing Driver (Head Way)	83.18	212	So, because, then, and, so, then, because, but, but, and, because	11
The Boy Who Made Steam Work (6)	94.481	324	but, but, and, but, and, and	6	Looking After Sarah (Start Reading 4)	91.745	315	and, but, and, then, and, but, and, but, so, again, but, again, and, again, so, too, then, but, again	19
The Holy Prophet (9)	79.683	160		0	The New Mozart (Head Way)	81.826	143	but, and, but, but, and, too, and, so	8
				Total: 9					Total: 45

TABLE 5.2.
COMPARISON OF DMS IN ENGLISH BOOK 2 AND THE AUTHENTIC TEXTS

Book 2, Lesson:	Readability	Number of Words	DMS	Number of DMS	Authentic Books	Readability	Number of Words	DMS	Number of DMS
Charles Dickens and the Little Children (4)	93.362	263	so, and, but, and	4	Taffy's Trousers	93.314	262	too, but, and, but, but, and, but, and	9
Hic Hic Hic (6)	41.715	223	and, then, or, or, or, but, but, and, but	8	The Lady Who Lives on Plan	49.422	211	because, so, but, then, also, and, and, but, because, and	10
How Are You (7)	80.381	444	but, but, but, but, but, so, so, yet	8	The Empty Chair	72.111	460	well, and, and, then, because, well, and, but, and, but, and, and, but, because, because	14
The Other Side of the Moon (2)	95.588	216	but, but, but, but, so	5	Marvin's Woolly Mammoth	93.708	234	then, so, then, but, but, and, still, and,	8
				Total: 25					Total: 41

TABLE 5.3.
COMPARISON OF DMS IN ENGLISH BOOK 3 AND THE AUTHENTIC TEXTS

Book 3 Lesson:	Readability	Number of Words	DMS	Number of DMS	Authentic Books	Readability	Number of Words	DMS	Number of DMS
TV or no TV (1)	93.177	351	then, but, and	3	The King of the Fish	97.313	332	too, but, and, and, and, and, then, but, so, then, but	11
Memory (3)	70.277	263	yet, but, thus, but, again	5	Trading Space	73.677	292	and, however, but, so, but, but, but, so, but, even though	11
The Olympic Games (4)	61.317	244	and, because of	2	The Tale of Horribly Good Bertha	75.165	252	And, and, so, and, and, but, and, and, because, and, but	11
Every Word IS a Puzzle (5)	87.898	410	but, and, then, but, so, but, because, and, but, but	10	Kiamaus Paper Bag	89.158	374	and, too, too, but, and, then, and, and, then, then, and, and	12
				Total: 20					Total: 45

TABLE 5.4.
COMPARISON OF DMS IN ENGLISH BOOK 4 AND THE AUTHENTIC TEXTS

Book Lesson:	4	Readability	Number of Words	DMS	Number of DMs	Authentic Books	Readability	Number of Words	DMS	Number of DMs
How to Give a Good Speech(2)		72.312	655	and, then, also, and, but, and, but,	7	How to Give a Good Speech	79.975	652	so, again, and, and, then, and, and, then, but, too, and	11
Space Exploration (6)		62.808	596	then, also, also although, and	5	What You Don't Know about Exercise	63.276	608	but, too, and, but, and, and, however, that means, but	10
Mother Teresa (8)		54.548	315	and, although, still, and	4	Ordering Aspirin is Truly a Wonder Drug	54.966	308	although, and, also, but, and, but	6
Thomas Edison (8)		55.337	294	besides, and, although, instead	4	The Crime of the Month	57.603	32	and, moreover, also, on the other hand, also, but	7
Global Warming, Global Concern (3)		75.029	594	but, and, and because, but, but, but, in some cases, but, with this in mind	10	The Earth's Spreading Desert	69.231	604	however, and, and, and, still, but, but,	7
Earthquakes and How to Survive Them (4)		78.893	543	in comparison to, but, though, so, but, but, and, so, but,	9	Living a Long Life	80.273	559	and, by comparison, but, too, well, also, therefore	8
					Total: 39					Total: 49

TABLE 5.5.
DIFFERENT TYPES OF DMS IN ENGLISH BOOK 1

Book Lessons	1	Contrastive Markers	Elaborative Markers	Inferential Markers	Topic Change Markers	Total
Lesson 1		-	-	so, so	-	2
Lesson 2		-	and	-	-	1
Lesson 3		but, but, but	and	because, therefore, then	-	7
Lesson 4		but, but, but, but	-	then, then	-	6
Lesson 5		but	-	because	-	2
Lesson 6		but, but, but	and, and, and	-	-	6
Lesson 7		but, but, but, but	and, and, and	so, then	-	9
Lesson 8		but	-	so, then	-	3
Lesson 9		-	-	-	-	0
Total		16 but	8 and	4 so, 2 because, 1 therefore, 5 then	0	36

TABLE 5.6.
DIFFERENT TYPES OF DMS IN ENGLISH BOOK 2

Book Lessons	2	Contrastive Markers	Elaborative Markers	Inferential Markers	Topic Change Markers	Total
Lesson 1		but	and, and, too, and	then, then, so	-	8
Lesson 2		but, but, but, but	-	So	-	5
Lesson 3		but, but	and	-	-	3
Lesson 4		but	and, and	So	-	4
Lesson 5		but, but, but	and, and, and, and, and, and, too, also, again	then, so, so	-	15
Lesson 6		but, but, but	and, or, or, or, and	then	-	9
Lesson 7		but, but, but, but, but	yet	So, so	-	8
Total		19 but	14 and, 3 or, 2 too, 1 also, 1 yet, 1 again	7 so, 4 then	-	52

TABLE 5.7.
DIFFERENT TYPES OF DMS IN ENGLISH BOOK 3

Book Lesson	3	Contrastive Markers	Elaborative Markers	Inferential Markers	Topic Change Markers	Total
Lesson 1		but	and	then	-	3
Lesson 2		but, but, however	in other words, or, and, and	because of	-	8
Lesson 3		but, but,	yet, again	thus	-	5
Lesson 4			and,	because of	-	2
Lesson 5		but, but, but, but, but	and, and,	then, so, because	-	10
Lesson 6		but	in addition to, also, also	because, This means, furthermore	-	7
Total		11 but, 1 however	1 in other words, 1 again, 1 or, 6 and, 1 yet, 1 in addition to, 2 also.	2 because of, 2 then, 1 thus, 1 so, 2 because, 1 this means, 1 furthermore	-	35

TABLE 5.8.
DIFFERENT TYPES OF DMS IN ENGLISH BOOK 4

Book 4 Lessons	Contrastive Markers	Elaborative Markers	Inferential Markers	Topic Change Markers	Total
Lesson 1	but, but, but, but	and, and, and, also, means, in addition, in addition, and, in other words, too,	because, because, so	-	17
Lesson 2	but, but	also, and, and, and	then	-	7
Lesson 3	but, but, but, but, but	and, and	in some cases, because	with this in mind	10
Lesson 4	in comparison to, but, though, but, but, but	and,	so, so	-	9
Lesson 5	but, but, on the other hand	also, also, also, and, also	because, in many cases	-	10
Lesson 6	although	also, and, also	then	-	5
Lesson 7	however, although, but	also, and, and, also, and	-	-	8
Lesson 8 (Reading 1)	although, still	and, and	-	-	4
Lesson 8 (Reading 2)	although, instead,	besides, and	-	-	4
Total	18 but, 5 (al)though, 1 on the other hand, 1 however, 1 in comparison, 1 instead, 1 still	18 and, 10 also, 1 besides, 1 in other words, 1 means, 2 in addition, 1 too	3 so, 4 because, 2 then, 2 in cases,	1 with this in mind	74

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Probe into Language Transfer in Foreign Language Learning

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Abstract—Language transfer has been a hot topic in second language acquisition for many years. Generally speaking, there are two types of transfer, positive transfer and negative transfer. Positive transfer results in correct performance while negative transfer results in errors. At first, this paper presents the concept of transfer, and then it analyzes the factors, which affect the language transfer, including kinship, learning environment, teaching method, linguistic knowledge and experience, and learners' cognitive ability. At last, the author puts forward three suggestions for foreign language teaching in order to improve learners' language learning efficiency.

Index Terms—language transfer, foreign language learning, suggestions

I. INTRODUCTION

The term "transfer" is first defined by behaviorist psychologists to refer to the process of automatic, uncontrolled and subconscious use of past learned behavior in the attempt to produce new responses. According to them, the main impediment to learning was interference from the prior knowledge. Proactive inhibition occurred when old habits got in the way of attempts to learn new ones. Psycholinguists use the term to refer to the influence imposed by a learner's possessed linguistic knowledge and skill upon the subsequent learning of new linguistic knowledge or skill. Since the 1950's, experts have controversial ideas about the transfer phenomena. but most of them emphasized the negative transfer in foreign language learning (shortened as FLL), and neglected the positive role of the native language (shortened as NL). However, NL can never be excluded in the FLL process. Furthermore, the study of transfer phenomena in FLL is closely associated with teaching methodology. On the one hand, no pure and isolated research is conducted for only investigating transfer itself in linguistic field, and on the other hand, the improvement of teaching methods always follows the steps of the study development on transfer phenomena (Bright, 1970). This paper tends to give some enlightenments to the perfection of the teaching methods.

II. THE CONCEPT OF TRANSFER

The phenomena of transfer in learning have been universally accepted. But they are initially associated with the interference in behaviorist theories of FLL. However, it is now widely accepted that the influence of the learner's NL cannot be adequately accounted for in terms of habit formation as the behaviorist put it. Transfer has been used by educational psychologists and educators to describe the use of past knowledge and experience in new situations. In FLL, transfer refers to the effect of one language, usually the NL, on the learning of another, usually the FL. This is also a common strategy employed by the FL learners. A good many linguists have various definitions for the term: Kellerman(1987) has suggested that the term be restricted to 'those processes that lead to the incorporation of elements from one language into another'(Kellerman, 1987, p.3). Odlin(1989) offers this 'working definition' of transfer as basis for his own thoughtful treatment of such phenomena: transfer is the influence resulting from the similarities and the differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired (Odlin, 1989, p.27).

Positive transfer and negative transfer take place in many dimensions: phonetic, grammar, graphical, lexical and thinking mode and habit. Positive transfer is beneficial while negative transfer is a hindrance to FLL. Transfer can be a two-way process, namely, the linguistic knowledge and skill of the NL may affect the FLL and vice versa.

III. FACTORS AFFECTING TRANSFER PHENOMENA IN FLL

There are many factors affecting the transfer in FLL, which can be classified roughly into three categories: (1) the language, (2) the learning environment and, (3) the learner. Among the three, the learner is the most active, playing a primary role in the learning process. The other two are secondary, because, in the first place, they themselves don't change much in a learning process, and secondly, they affect FLL through the medium of the learner. In other words, the inner conditions of "the learner" may modify their eventual functions realized, just as the optical quality of a refractor makes alterations for the incident ray to the refracted ray, which tells why learners have varied achievements in the same environment when learning the same subject. Therefore the learner should be the central topic of methodology

research in FLL. Briefly, the three aspects can be categorized into the six factors as follows.

A. *Kinship*

Languages that evolve from the common parent language are family languages. For instance, as evolved from Latin, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Romanian are all family languages. Because of their common source, there exist a lot of similarities in sound system, grammar, vocabulary, cultural background and thinking mode and habit between family languages. Learning a non-family language is quite another thing to learning a family language. The remoter the NL is from the FL to be learned in kinship, the harder the learner would feel in learning. The factor of language kinship must be taken into consideration in the evaluation of language learning achievements. A case in point is that the Chinese learners of Japanese have an enormous advantage over English learners because of the similarity of the Chinese and Japanese writing systems.

B. *Learning Stages*

FLL is a long transitional process from NL-thinking to FL-thinking, in which the role of NL alters frequently. Generally speaking, the process consists of three stages: the elementary, the intermediate, and the advanced (Klein, 1986). In the elementary stage the learning task is mainly to achieve a general understanding of the foreign language to be learned by means of transitional medium, as the learner's thinking must depend on his NL during this period. Therefore the support of NL is indispensable in this stage, and consequently the transfer of NL inevitable (Gloria, 1978). A marked feature of the transfer in this stage is the devastating influence in the orientation from NL to FL.

Generally, the task of the intermediate stage is to further expand and deepen the language knowledge already acquired about the specialty the learner is interested in, meanwhile to promote skillfulness in using them. The support of NL is still important, yet not so indispensable as in the elementary stage. In this stage one may separate his thinking partly from his NL. Yet NL is still indispensable beyond the limited sphere. As a result, the transfer in the direction from NL to FL begins to decrease in some spheres, and at the same time, in the reverse direction, it starts to increase. As a marked feature of this stage, it is frequently observed that there are quite a few traces of FL when the learner is speaking in his mother tongue and of NL when he is speaking in the foreign language.

The task of the advanced stage is, on the one hand, to expand the spheres the learner can tackle completely in FL from his specialty of the sphere he is concerned with to every sphere related to his occupation and life, and on the other to approach gradually to the level of using the foreign language automatically, so as to achieve complete freedom in using the new language. As a result of lone actual use of the foreign language he is learning, and consciously or unconsciously comparing the FL with his NL along with the use of the two languages, the learner will gain more and more insight into the similarity and dissimilarity between the two, which helps to reduce negative transfer while promoting positive transfer in both orientations. In short, as a marked feature of this stage, the negative transfer is far from so striking as at the other two stages, that is, the positive transfer is superior to the negative transfer in influence.

C. *Learning Environment*

Learning environment is proved decisive to the transfer of NL, for it provides a pivotal condition for reinforcement of FL or NL (Krashen, 1976). For teachers and learners of a foreign language, learning situations may be classified roughly into two distinct types: SL and FL. SL refers to that of those abroad in which the language to be learned is the local native language. FL mainly refers to the domestic learning situation, in which the language to be learned is not the local native language.

The most outstanding favorable condition of SL is the ideal language atmosphere, which provides innumerable chances for students to hear, speak, read and write the target language. Second, the accord between the language and the natural, social and cultural environments where it is used saves a great deal of misunderstanding and misconception. Of course, there are many disadvantages to SL, for instance, how to communicate in class between the teacher and the student always stands as a disturbing problem. It is almost difficult to spot where a misunderstanding lies and make clear how it occurs.

In FL, the teacher and the student usually share a common native language, thus have no difficulty in discussing problems at various academic levels. Spotting and clarifying misunderstandings and misconceptions will be no problem either, provided the native language is not rejected. As for its disadvantages, FL learning lacks the necessary foreign atmosphere, and also lacks the accord between the target language and the local, natural, social and cultural contexts. Of course, the lack of FL atmosphere is the toughest problem. Apart from classroom teaching and home reviewing, the student has no other access to the FL. The lack of FL atmosphere not only prevents the correct understanding of the target language but also prevents the FL knowledge already possessed from turning into useful language skills.

D. *Teaching Method*

A good method in FL teaching must be able to help the learner realize clearly similarity and dissimilarity between the foreign language and his own language and to avoid the negative transfer of NL, meanwhile make full use of positive transfer of NL. Therefore FL teaching in elementary stage and intermediate stage should be set up according to the principle of the native-foreign language comparison.

A prominent feature, with which language learning differs from the learning of other subjects, is: Language learning

demands much higher level of skills in employing. The level is so high that the employment of a language seems beyond control of consciousness. Therefore a good method in FL must include a great amount of instructed practice in using the foreign language so that language knowledge may be turned into language skills. Traditional teaching method ignores the significance of sufficient practice in language learning and lays stress on grammatical comprehension of linguistic knowledge and translation exercise, which are far from enough in amount and variety. Consequently, it dwells on the mere translation from NL into FL. The foreign language knowledge that the learner has mastered in this way fails to leap onto the level of language skill. Therefore, prompt practice after the learning of linguistic knowledge is of key importance in assisting the learners to internalize what they have learned. Both linguistic knowledge and skill should be emphasized, including comprehension and production, language input and output.

E. Linguistic Knowledge and Experience

At the outset of FLL, quite a number of people assume that meanings are not only the same in all languages but they will be classified in the same way, namely, languages differ only in the forms used for those meanings. As a result, they tend to transfer the knowledge and skill of NL into FLL without any adaptations, inviting great amount of negative transfer of NL.

However, some people who know their mother tongue better, or learned FL previously, make fewer mistakes of this kind. As they understand more or less the peculiarity of an individual language, they are always on guard against inappropriate equalization. Those who know their NL better are usually able to sense fine shades of difference in the usage and meaning of an individual word, an expression or a sentence pattern. Transferred into FLL, this ability tends to save them a lot of mistakes of negative transfer, while those who have studied linguistics or some FL previously know from linguistic theory or personal experience that it is dangerous to transfer anything of NL mechanically into FLL. Thus they are also able to avoid errors of negative transfer. In short, the more linguistic knowledge and experience the learner has, the less negative transfer of NL he has in FLL.

F. Learners' Cognitive Ability

Under identical learning conditions, learners' achievements usually vary greatly. This difference is generally attributed to the memory of the learner (Littlewood, 1984). Memory is of course of importance to learning. But it is not the decisive factor in language learning. Mechanical memory helps little in the creative use of language knowledge. whereas abilities to analyse, generalize and comprehend are most important for adult learners. Learners strong in these respects may, more often than not, perceive the similarity, dissimilarity and inner associations between languages, which will guide them to grasp the FL by means of linguistic laws rather than mechanically memorizing and inappropriate equalization.

IV. SUGGESTIONS FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

From the above analysis of the transfer phenomena, we can see that the learner's native language does not, as often thought of, interfere with FLL all the time. As a language already possessed, it has double functions: on the one hand, it contributes positive transfer to FLL. On the other hand, it interferes with FLL with its negative transfer. Here, the author puts forward three suggestions for foreign language teaching:

Firstly, strengthen the training of basic knowledge and skills (Ellis, 1987). There are more or less common elements and regularities among various kinds of knowledge and skills. The more knowledge and skill one mastered, the easier the new knowledge and skill would be commanded. Thus, helping learners lay a good foundation about essential concepts, basic awareness and necessary adaptation capabilities is very important in FLL in the elementary stage. The stronger the basis is founded, the more efficient the learner's learning result will be.

Secondly, take full advantage of comparative and contrasting methods in FL teaching. The teacher ought to guide students to review relevant knowledge and skill already learned before new exploration so as to make a good psychological preparation. Then, comparative and contrasting methods are proposed to check out similarities and differences between the old and the new material, and to pick out those interfering elements. One point needs particular attention: comparative and contrasting method must be utilized on the basis of firm consolidation of previous learning. Otherwise, negative transfer rather than positive one would certainly occur.

Thirdly, Instruction needs to be provided for directing students' exercises. Generally speaking, the more exercises are designed and done, the more solid the newly acquired knowledge will be, the more possible positive transfer will be achieved. Yet the training exercises must be arranged scientifically and logically, or the ideal effect won't be guaranteed. Therefore, the teacher should furnish the learners more specific guidance in order to get them catch hold of the correct method and avoid random trials. Surely, students also need to be given more opportunities to develop their power. Only when the adequate language input and the proper teaching method are ensured can learners accumulate more actual language and experience and polish their lingual perception and thus achieve the maximum positive transfer.

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Congratulation and Positive Politeness Strategies in Iranian Context

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Abstract—The present study investigated the nature of the speech act of congratulation in terms of the Taxonomy proposed by Elwood (2004), representing the basic verbal strategies used by Iranian Persian speakers in offering congratulations. Based on the modified version of Brown and Levinson's model of politeness (1987), it further explored the positive politeness strategies in the congratulation speech act. Fifty informants filled in a discourse completion test, consisting of 9 situations related to happy news. The analysis of the data revealed that the mostly used types of congratulation strategies were "Illocutionary Force Indicating Devise (IFID)", "Offer of good wishes" and "Expression of happiness". Regarding the positive politeness strategies the result was indicative of the fact that Iranian people mostly made use of the strategies "Giving gift to listener", "Exaggeration" and "In-group identity marker" when responding to other's happy news.

Index Terms—sociopragmatics, speech acts of congratulation, commiseration, Persian

I. INTRODUCTION

When something good happens to a person, it is common for others to express positively their ideas and feelings about it. It is considered a sign of jealousy if the other person who hears the good news doesn't show or express his/her pleasure on what has happened to the addressee. In a situation of happy news speakers mostly try to show their happiness by saying "*congratulations*", however, the patterns and expressions they use to express congratulations may vary in different situation (Elwood, 2004).

Congratulation is classified as an expressive speech act by which the speaker expresses his feelings and emotions towards the hearer (Searl, 1976). It is an act which is desirable to the person who has achieved something, showing the speaker's happiness. When someone congratulates, he/she shows that he/she shares in the other's joy.

According to Searl (1969, p. 67) there are the following rules for congratulation:

- 1) There is some event that is related to the hearer.
- 2) The event is in the hearer's interest and the speaker believes the event.
- 3) The speaker is pleased at the event.
- 4) It counts as an expression of pleasure at the event.

Triantafyllides (1941, cited in Marki-Tsilipako, 2001) considers congratulation as an exclamatory expression which functions as a wish. Marki-Tsilipakon (2001) has stated that congratulation is the expression of speaker's joy and praise on a pleasurable event. Leech (1983, p. 106) classifies congratulation as "convivial" in terms of politeness, by which he means the type of illocutionary function which while expressing "the illocutionary goals coincide with the social goal." According to him these expressions are "intrinsically polite". Furthermore, congratulation is associated with the approbation and modesty maxims proposed by Leech (1983, p. 132). According to approbation maxims, the speaker should minimize dispraise of the addressee and maximize the praise of the addressee while the modesty maxim requires that the speaker minimize the praise of himself and maximize the dispraise of himself. Thus by congratulating the speaker maximizes the praise of the addressee.

On the other hand, the speech act of congratulation can be associated with the notion of face and politeness. Orecchioni (2004, 2005, cited in Barthes, 2006) argues that congratulation as an expressive speech act is directly linked to positive politeness and is a face saving act since it aims at enhancing the addressee's positive face.

The present study is an attempt at a detailed analysis of the patterns and linguistic forms that Iranian people use to offer congratulation in different situations. It further investigates the types of positive politeness which are mostly used by people in those situations. The research questions which are touched upon in this investigation are:

- 1) What are the basic strategies and sub-strategies used by Iranians to express congratulation in naturally occurring speech?
- 2) What types of positive politeness strategies are more prevalent in the congratulations of these participants?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The speech act of congratulation has been investigated in a limited range of studies. An early study on the socio-pragmatic plane of congratulation was conducted by Garibova and Blair (1999) on holidays in Azerbaijan and occasions in which people offer their congratulations. According to these authors, in Azerbaijan, people have some holidays such as woman's day, Ramazan (Ramadan), Nourouz and Bayram(celebration of spring-March 20-21) in which they visit their relatives and offer congratulation to them by using some expressions such as "*Bayramin Mubarak*" "congratulation on holiday" and "*Sənə (Sizə) uzun müddətə əminəm.*" "I wish you long life". They also wish health, success and luck for each other.

Another relevant study was conducted by G. Emery (2000) on greeting, congratulation and commiserating in Omani Arabic. The study investigated only the congratulation expressions which old and young people use on the occasions of wedding, the birth of a baby and religious Eves. The findings revealed that for congratulation at the wedding, there were some differences between older women's and older men's congratulation and that of younger people. For instance, on the occasion of wedding, younger people used the term "*Mabruuk*" or "*mbaarak*" (*May you be blessed*), while older people favored the expression "*allah ybaarak fil- amaar*" (*May God bless your lives*). Moreover, older women wished the couple to have a boy as their first child by saying "*ishallaah bikurkum wild*" (*God willing your first-born child be a boy*). They also wished them a long life and fertility. But younger people did not follow the wishing custom. On the occasion of childbirth, women congratulated the mother by giving her money as a present and while visiting the baby, they use sympathetic expressions such as "*ahwan anshaallaah*" (*get better soon God willing*).

In her analysis of the differences between Greek "congratulation and "bravo", Marki-Tsilipako (2001) points out that in Greek culture, Greeks do not frequently use the expression "*congratulation*" as it may represent that the speaker belongs to the educated/urban class where the relationship between the addressee and the speaker is not very close. On the occasion of wedding, educated/urban people may use "*congratulation*" along with the expression of wishes: "*[May] that you live*" or "*an auspicious wedding*". Moreover, on the occasion of university graduation, they use the expression "*have a successful career*". Also, on the occasion of job promotion, they make use of the term "*to your next promotion*". The term "*congratulation*" in Greek which shows the distance between the speakers and hearers, is used in official occasions and with hand shake, rather than an embrace or a kiss which represents the intimacy.

On the other hand, it is not appropriate for the men to congratulate the mother unless they are closely related. They only congratulate the father using the expressions such as: "*Yatrabba fi'izzak wa ykuun wild saalitt*" (*may you raise him up to be a fine boy*). Younger men use the expression "*mabruuk*" (congratulations). Another occasions for congratulation is New Year, returning from Hajj and the month of Ramadan. The more traditional formula for congratulation in New Year is "*haneetu bi-barakaat il-éed/ní imtubil-éed*" (congratulation on the blessing of the Eid). The expression "*bi-shahr ramadaan-allaah yibaarak fikum*" (blessings on the advent of the holy month of Ramadan) is used as greeting in the holy month of Ramadan. On the occasion of returning from Hajj the formulae "*Hajj mabruur wa dhanb maghfur wa tijaara laa tabuur*" (congratulation on the Hajj and the visit) is the most commonly used expression.

One of the most recent and significant study on the speech act of congratulation was conducted by Elwood (2004) on American and Japanese students. Her proposed taxonomy for the congratulation strategies was used as the framework for my present study. In her study, 45 American students writing in English, 45 Japanese students writing in English and 45 Japanese students writing in Japanese filled in a discourse completion test with seven situations in which three situations were related to responding to happy news such as grant, promotion and wedding. The results of the study showed that the patterns which were used for responding to good news vary in Japanese and English. Generally speaking, Americans mostly tended to ask questions and request for information, while Japanese students writing in English and Japanese were most likely to use self-related comments such as expression of envy, longing, chagrin or comment on one's future success. Also, there was variation among the situations in a way that "Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID)" was the mostly used type of response in the situation of promotion, while in the situations of grant and wedding the "Expression of happiness" was the dominant type of response. Furthermore, the "Expression of validation" such as "*you deserve it*" was mostly used in the situation of grant by all the groups, whereas it was used only by Americans in the situation of wedding. Request for information such as "*who's the lucky guy/ girl*" was highly used by the three groups and mostly by the Americans in the situation of wedding. The other types of responses that were used by the groups in the three situations were: "Offer of good wishes", "A suggestion to celebrate", "Offer of good luck" and "Encouragement".

Another important study has been conducted by Akram (2008) on speech acts in Urdu and English. According to the results of this study, on special occasions such as Christmas, English speakers use the expression "*Happy Christmas*" and Urdu speakers say "*ko/ tumheir nya saal mubarak ho*". In New Year, English speakers say "*Happy New Year*", while Urdu speakers use the term '*Mubarak*'. Also, for birthday English speakers say "happy birthday", whereas Urdu speakers use the expression "*Raat Mubara*". Besides, the expressions that are used in religious holidays in Urdu are as follow: "*Mahe Ramezan Mubarak*" (congratulation on Ramezan) and "*Eide-Milad-u-Nabi Mubarak*" (congratulations on birth of the Imam). Akrams' further points out that all these English expressions are used by native speakers, while the three last expressions in Urdu are mostly used by young girls and women and are not as common as other

expressions. Furthermore, it is concluded that all the stated expressions in English and Urdu can be used both formally and informally except for the last expression that is “*Eide-Milad-u-Nabi Mubarak*” which is used in formal situations.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 50 males and females with the age range of 17 -75 with different socio-economic backgrounds.

B. Data Collection

The present research project was conducted in Isfahan, Iran. The data were collected by asking the participants to fill in a Discourse Completion Test consisting of 9 situations dealing with happy news (see Appendix). All these situations were designed based on the combination of two variables: social status with three levels: low (L), high (H), and equal (E) and social distance with three levels: intimate (I), acquaintance (A) and stranger (S). Samples of congratulation expressions were encoded and analyzed based on the taxonomy of congratulation strategy proposed by Elwood (2004) and further they were analyzed according to the classification of positive politeness strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 102-131). However there is a minor modification to capture salient strategies used in the present study.

Congratulation Strategies and Sub-strategies Coding

Strategies	Example
1) <i>Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID)</i>	“ <i>mobāræk bāše</i> ” (congratulation)
2) <i>Expression of happiness</i>	
a) Expression of personal happiness	“ <i>xeyli xošhāl šodæm</i> ” (I’m so glad)
b) Statement assessing the situation positively	“ <i>xeyli xoobe</i> ” (That’s great)
3) <i>Request for information</i>	
a) Specific question	“ <i>Hālā taræf ki hæst?</i> ” (Who’s that guy/girl?)
b) General request for information	“ <i>xob hālā rāzi hæsti ya næ?</i> ” (Now are you satisfied with your marriage?)
4) <i>Expression of validation</i>	
a) Statements indicating the situation was warranted	“ <i>To šāyestegišo dāšti.</i> ” “You deserve it.”
b) Praise	“ <i>Āfarin</i> ” (Great job)
c) Statements of prior certainty	“ <i>midoonestæm to movæfægh miši.</i> ” (I knew you would succeed.)
5) <i>Self-related comments</i>	
a) An expression of longing	“ <i>mænæm xeyli doost dāštæm doktor šæm vali næšod.</i> ” “I also longed to be a doctor, but I couldn’t.”
b) An expression of envy	“ <i>xeyli šāns āvordi.</i> ” (You’ve got this by chance.)
c) A prediction of one’s own future success.	“ <i>İşallāh mænæm mesle šomā movæfæq šæm.</i> ” “God willing, I would be a successful person like you.”
6) <i>Exclamation/Expression of surprise</i>	“ <i>Vayy, rāst miği?</i> ” (Wow, are you kidding?)
7) <i>Offer of good wishes</i>	“ <i>Sale xoobi dāšte baši.</i> ” (I wish you a happy New Year.)
8) <i>Encouragement</i>	“ <i>Bāyæd barā kasbe maqāmhaye bālātær tælāš koni.</i> ” (You should do your best for higher achievements.)
9) <i>Joking</i>	“ <i>Toæm umædi qāti morqā</i> ”
10) <i>Affection expression</i>	“ <i>Dooset daræm</i> ” (I love you), “ <i>Qorboonet beræm</i> ”
11) <i>A suggestion to celebrate</i>	“ <i>šām mirim biroon</i> ” (Let’s go out for dinner)
12) <i>Thanking God</i>	“ <i>Xodā rā šokr</i> ” (Thanks God)
13) <i>Offer of help</i>	“ <i>Omidvāræm betoonæm ko mæketun konæm</i> ” (I hope I can help you)
14) <i>Statement assessing the situation negatively</i>	“ <i>Ezdevāj kærði çikār</i> ” (Why did you get married?)

Positive Politeness Strategies Coding

Strategies

1) *Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with the listener)*2) *Intensify interest of listener*3) *Use of in-group identity marker*

a) Usage of address forms

b) Use of in-group language

c) Use of contraction and ellipses

4) *Seek agreement*

a) Safe topic

5) *Avoid disagreement*

a) White lies

6) *Jokes*7) *Give or ask for reason*8) *Give gifts to listener (goods, sympathy, understanding)*

Example

“Vāyyy, āleye.”

(Wow, that’s great)

“Age gofti in golā māle kiye?”

(Can you guess whose flowers are these?)

“Māmāne gokēm”(my lovely Mom)

“Eyvæl” (Well-done)

“āxe vāse či?” (Why?)

“Mobāræk bāše vali dige bačedār næšo.”

“Congratulations, but don’t have a child again”

“Tæbrik migæm. šomā šāyesteye in mæqām boodid.”

(Congratulations. You deserved it.)

“Axe hālā ke ezdevāj kærđi čerā yeki?”

(Now that you’ve married why did you marry just one guy/ girl?)

“čērā mæno dævæt nækærđi?”

(Why didn’t you invite me?)

“Tæbrik migæm”

(Congratulations)

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Situation 1: Wedding

In this situation, 32% of the participants who completed the DCT used the “Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID)”: “*Tæbrik migæm*” or “*mobāræk bāše*” (Congratulations), while 16% used “Exclamation/Expression of surprise”: (Wow) and 16% used statements which showed “Expression of personal happiness” such as: “*Xeyli xošhālæm*” (I’m so happy). Also, 10% of the participants assessed the situation positively with the most frequent type of formulation “*xeyli xub*” and “*Bæh Bæh*” (Great). Moreover, 10% of the people requested for general information by saying “*če bixæbær*” (why didn’t you inform me?) or “*xob hālā rāzi hæsti?*”(Are you satisfied now?). Only 2% of the participants asked specific question about the identity of spouse as “*bā ki ezdevaj kærđi?*”(Who did you marry?). The other types of responses that were used in this situation were: “Offer of good wishes” (4%): “*Inšāllāh xošbæxt beši*” (God willing, become prosperous) and use of “Jokes” (6%): “*Hālā ke ezdevāj kærđi čerā yeki?*” (Now that you’ve got married why did you marry one guy/girl?). Besides, in this situation in 18% of cases, “Offer of good wishes” was used after “IFID”, in 6% of responses this strategy followed a “Statement assessing the situation positively”, whereas in 6% of cases it was seen after the “Expression of personal happiness”. What is more, 5% of people used “Joking” after using “IFID”.

Regarding the positive politeness strategies in this situation, the most frequently used strategies were “Giving gifts to the listener” (50%) such as “*mobāræk bāše*” (congratulation) or “*āfærin*” (well-done) and “Exaggeration” (18.8%) such as “*āliye*” (great). In 9% of cases, use of “In-group language” such as “*Eyvæl*” (very good) and “*omædi qāti morqā*” (you’ve got married) were seen. Furthermore, “Jokes” (6%), “Give or ask for reason” (6%): “*čērā mæno xæbær nækærđi?*”(Why didn’t you let me know?), “Safe topic” (3%): “*Mobāræk bāše vali æge ezdevāj nemikærđi behtær bud*” (Congratulations but it was better if you wouldn’t get married) and “Use of address forms”: “*Azizæm*” (my darling) were seen among the responses.

B. Situation 2: Grant

In this situation, 64% of people used statements with “IFID” and 18% of people used “Expression of personal happiness”. Also, “Offer of good wishes” such as “*Inšāllāh movæfæq bāši*” (God willing, be successful) constituted (10%) of responses. The other types of responses which were utilized rarely included “Praise” (6%) such as “*šomā bāese eftexāre mā hæstid*” (We are proud of you) and “statements indicating the situation was warranted” (2%) such as “*šomā šāyesteye in mæqām budid*” (you deserve it). What is more, 18% of responses included “Offer of good wishes” following “IFID”. Moreover, in 4% of cases “Joking” followed “Expression of personal happiness”.

Considering the positive politeness strategies; “Giving gifts to listener” and “Exaggeration” comprised 94% and 6% of the responses respectively.

C. Situation 3: Getting Trophy

In this situation, the most frequently used congratulation strategies were “Praise” (36%) and “IFID” (14%). In addition, 8% of the responses were statements of “Encouragement”, while 10% of them were “Expression of personal happiness”. Besides, in 8% of cases, the participants used “Expression of validation” which indicated “Prior certainty” such as “*mæn midoonestæm to bærændeh miši*” (I knew that you would be successful). The other types of strategies used in this situation were “Statements assessing the situation positively” (4%), “Exclamation” (6%), “Offer of good wishes” (6%), “A suggestion to celebrate” (2%), “Affection expression” (2%) and “Thanking God” (4%). Furthermore,

in 8% of responses “Praise” followed “Offer of good wishes”. Furthermore, in one of the responses, “Joking” was used after the use of “Praise” and in one response “Statements indicating the situation was warranted” followed “Praise”. Moreover, in this situation, one of the participants used “Praise” after “Expression of surprise”.

Regarding the positive politeness strategies used in this situation, 63% of responses included “Giving gifts to listener” and 22% of them consisted of “Exaggeration”. Moreover, 8% of people used “In-group language”. Other utilized strategies were “Safe topic” (2%), “Jokes” (2%) and “Use of address forms” (2%).

D. Situation 4: Promotion

The most frequently used congratulation strategy in this situation was “IFID” (60%). Also, in 20% of responses, “Offer of good wishes” was used and in 4% of responses, the situation was warranted. In addition, 6% of participants used a “Self-related comment” which was a statement of envy: “*in mæqām hæge mæn bood*” (it was I who deserved this). What is more, 2% of responses were statements of “Praise” and 2% were “A suggestion to celebrate”. Moreover, in this situation, 30% of people offered good wishes after congratulating and only in one case, “Offer of help” followed “Offer of good wishes”. Furthermore, 4% of responses included “Prediction of one’s own future success” after “IFID”.

With regard to positive politeness strategies, “Giving gifts to listener” comprised 85% of responses, while 15% of the responses included “White lies” (Although the people congratulated the addressee, they stated that they had a feeling of jealousy).

E. Situation 5: Birthday

In this situation, 76% of people used “IFID”. Moreover, 16% of responses included “Affection expression”. In these cases, the expressions were followed by “Offer of good wishes” such as “*Sæd sāl zende bāši*” (have a long life). Also, in 8% of responses, “Offer of good wishes” was the only type of utilized strategy. In 20% of cases, “IFID” was followed by “Offer of good wishes”. Besides, in two of the responses “IFID” was used after the “Affection expression”.

Considering the positive politeness strategies, “Giving gift to listener” was the most highly utilized strategy (84%). “Use of address forms” and “In-group language” comprised 8% and 4% of responses respectively. “White lies” (2%) and “Intensifying interest of listeners” (2%) were also seen among the responses.

F. Situation 6: Graduation

In this situation, 50% of responses fell into the category of “IFID”. Also, 12% of the participants expressed their personal happiness and 24% of them offered good wishes as their responses. Furthermore, 10% of the responses were the expression of “Praise”, while 4% of them included the strategy of “Joking”. One person used “Encouragement” strategy and one of them used the strategy of “A suggestion to celebrate”. Besides, in 16% of responses in this situation, “Offer of good wishes” followed “IFID”.

Regarding the positive politeness strategies, as in other situations “Giving gift to listener” was the mostly used strategy (87%). Other types of used politeness strategies were: “Intensifying interest of the listener” (2%), “Use of in-group language” (2%), “Jokes” (4%), and “Exaggeration” (4%).

G. Situation 7: New Year

In this situation, 78% of responses contained “IFID”, whereas 18% of them were statements which offered good wishes. Besides, 4% of the people used “Expression of personal happiness.” In addition in 28% of cases, “Offer of good wishes” followed “IFID”, while in 6% “Joking” followed this strategy.

With regard to positive politeness strategies 87% of the participants used “Giving gifts to listener”. Also “Jokes” were used in 2% of cases and “Usage of address forms” was seen in 10% of responses.

H. Situation 8: Arrival of a Baby

62% of the responses in this situation included “IFID”. In 12% of cases, “Exclamation or Expression of surprise” was used. 6% of people “Assessed the situation negatively” such as “*Bæçe mixāsti čikār*” (What’s the use of the child?). 8% of responses were “Request for specific information” about the identity of the baby such as “*doxtære yā pesær?*” (is it a girl or a boy?). 6% of people used “Offer of good wishes” and 4% of responses were “Expression of personal happiness”. Only in 2% of cases, the participants “Assessed the situation positively”. Additionally, in 12% of responses the participants used “Offer of good wishes” after using “IFID” and in 6% of the responses, they employed “Specific question”. Also, in this situation after “Expression of surprise” one of the participants made use of “Specific question” and one of them used “IFID” strategy.

With respect to positive politeness strategies, again the mostly utilized strategy was “Giving gift to the listener” (82%). Also, “Safe topic” was stated in 8% of responses. Other types of used strategies were “Exaggeration” (4%), “Intensifying interest of the listener” (2%), “Use of address forms” (2%) and “Use of Contraction and ellipses” (2%).

I. Situation 9: Educational Achievement

In this situation, 24% of responses included “Offer of good wishes” and 22% of the participants made use of “Praise”. In 20% of the cases, “IFID” was seen and 20% of the participants assessed the situation positively by saying “*xeyli xoobe*” (very good) or “*āleye*” (great). 2% of the respondents used “Expression of longing” such as “*mæn hæmişe delæm mixāst ke doktor šæm æmā næšod*” (I have always longed to be a doctor, but I couldn’t manage it). In 12% of

cases, people used “Statements of personal happiness” and in 6% of responses, “Expression of surprise” was seen. Furthermore, in one of the responses “An Expression of longing” was used after “Expression of happiness” and in one of them, “Joking” followed the strategy “Praise”.

Concerning the positive politeness strategy, “Giving gifts to listener” was utilized in 82% of cases, while “Exaggeration”, “Use of in-group language” and “White lies” were seen in 10%, 4% and 4% of responses respectively.

V. CONCLUSION

This study sought to discover the congratulation strategies used most often by Iranian Persian speakers and the types of positive politeness strategies they use to realize congratulation speech act.

Generally speaking, five types of congratulation strategies, namely “Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID)”, “Expression of happiness”, “Offer of good wishes”, “Request for information” and “Expression of validation” were the major types of strategies utilized by the people. “IFID” and “Offer of good wishes” were used in all the situations. “Expression of happiness” was also seen in all the situations except the situation of ‘birthday’. “Thanking God”, “A suggestion to celebrate” and “Offer of help” were the least utilized congratulation strategies. What is more, the greatest number of utilized strategies was used in situation 1 (wedding) and situation 3 (getting a trophy), while the smallest number of strategies were seen in situation 7 (New Year). In the situations of ‘wedding’ and ‘getting a trophy’ people used 9 and 11 congratulation strategies respectively, whereas in the situation of ‘New Year’, they used only 3 types of strategies.

Considering the positive politeness strategies within the congratulation speech act, the analysis of the data revealed that the most highly utilized positive politeness strategies was “Giving gift to listener” which was used with the highest frequency in all situations. “Exaggeration” and “*In-group identity marker*” were also applied by the people in most of the situations. “Joking”, “White lies”, “Safe topic” and “Giving or asking for reason” were the least types of utilized politeness strategies applied by the people to realize the act of congratulation. Moreover, the greatest and the smallest number of used positive politeness strategies were seen in situations of ‘wedding’ and ‘Grant’ in which people made use of 8 and 2 types of politeness strategies respectively.

APPENDIX

پاسخگوي گرامي تحقيق حاضر به بررسي نحوه بيان تيريكات افراد مي پردازد. لذا از شما تقاضا مي شود كه سوالات را با دقت و صراحت هر چه تمام تر پاسخ دهيد. در ضمن تمامي اطلاعات به دست آمده محرمانه بوده و فقط جهت تحقيق دانشگاهي به كار مي رود.

اطلاعات عمومي

جنس: ☐ زن ☐ مرد

(1) فرض كنيد كه براي خريد به بازار رفته ايد. به طور اتفاقي به يكي از دوستان صميميتان بر مي خوريد كه چند وقتي از او بي خبر بوده ايد. زماني كه حال او را جويآ مي شويد مي گويد كه دو ماهيست كه ازدواج کرده است. با شنيدن اين خبر شما مي گوييد.....

(2) فرض كنيد كه يكي از استادان دانشگاهي كه شما در آن تحصيل مي كنيد و شما آشنائي قبلي با او نداريد به تازگي به عنوان استاد نمونه كشوري برگزيده شده است. در جشن تجليل از اين استاد براي عرض ادب نزد او رفته و مي گوييد.....

(3) فرض كنيد كه برادر كوچكترتان كه رابطه صميمانه اي با او داريد با خوشحالي بسيار به خانه آمده و مي گويد كه در مسابقات شنا مقام اول كشوري را كسب کرده است. با شنيدن اين خبر شما مي گوييد.....

(4) فرض كنيد كه مدت دو سال است در يك شركت تجاري مشغول به كار هستيد. يكي از كاركنان آن شركت كه از نظر تجربه كاري در سطح شماس و شما آشنائي قبلي با او نداريد به عنوان رييس بخشي كه در آن كار مي كنيد انتخاب شده است. زماني كه او را ملاقات ميكنيد پيش رفته و مي گوييد.....

(5) فرض كنيد كه امروز جشن تولد مادرتان است. با دسته گلي به نزد او رفته و مي گوييد.....

(6) فرض كنيد كه در جشن فارغ التحصيلي دختر عمويتان كه از شما كوچكتر است شركت کرده ايد. پس از از اينكه لوح تقدير را دريافت كرد به نزد او رفته و مي گوييد.....

(7) فرض كنيد كه عيد نوروز است و همه خويشاوندان در منزل مادر بزرگتان جمع شده اند. با ورود به خانه نزد مادر بزرگ رفته و مي گوييد.....

(8) فرض كنيد كه با يكي از همكلاسيهاي دوران دانشگاهتان كه در زمان دانشگاه رابطه صميمي با او نداشتيد به طور اتفاقي در خيابان برخورد مي كنيد. زماني كه احوالش را جويآ مي شويد مي گويد كه به تازگي بچه دار شده است. با شنيدن اين خبر ميگوييد.....

(9) فرض كنيد كه به مهماني دعوت شده ايد. در آن مهماني يكي از دوستانتان نيز همراه با برادر كوچكترش حضور دارند. پس از معرفي برادرش مي گويد كه: برادرم به تازگي در رشته پزشكي در دانشگاه تهران قبول شده است. با شنيدن اين خبر شما ميگوييد.....

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A Psycholinguistic Study of Metaphor Processing

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Abstract—This paper aims to present some issues about metaphor comprehension process mainly from psycholinguistic point of view. By discussing these issues, more information about the nature of metaphor comprehension can be learnt.

Index Terms—metaphor comprehension process, context, the “quality” of metaphors, conceptual metaphor, class inclusion

I. INTRODUCTION

Metaphor in one form or another is absolutely fundamental to the way language systems develop over time, as well as to the way human beings consolidate and extend their ideas about knowledge of the world. Since metaphor is used all the time, it has been widely studied in literature and has been examined in a number of areas of linguistics.

This paper mainly explores some aspects of metaphor comprehension process from psycholinguistic perspective.

II. THE SPECIFIC TIME-COURSE THAT UNDERLIES THE EXPERIENCE OF METAPHOR UNDERSTANDING

Literary theories and philosophers mainly focus on metaphor understanding as a product and try to infer something about the process of metaphor comprehension. Psycholinguistics or psychologists, on the other hand, primarily study comprehension processes with an eye towards explicating something about the products of metaphor interpretation and recognition (i.e. what metaphors mean).

In order to know more about metaphor comprehension, we can first recognize the specific time-course that underlies the experience of metaphor understanding. One way of doing this is to realize that the temporal continuum of linguistic understanding may roughly be divided into moments corresponding to linguistic comprehension, recognition, interpretation and appreciation. Consider each of these in turn (Gibbs, 2001):

Comprehension refers to the immediate, moment-by-moment process of creating meanings for utterances. These moment-by-moment processes are generally unconscious and include the analysis of different linguistic information which, in combination with context and the real-world knowledge, allow people to figure out what, say, a metaphor means or what a person intends by his or her reading of a metaphorical expression. Recent psycholinguistic research shows that this processes operate very quickly, that is, within the time span of a few hundred milliseconds up to a few seconds at most.

Recognition refers to the conscious identification of the products of comprehension as types. For example, the meaning understood by a reader of a particular utterance may be consciously recognized as being metaphorical. Even though many literary theorists assume that such a recognition is a requirement for understanding what an utterance or text means, it is by no means clear that recognition is an obligatory stage in people’s understanding of what utterances mean, or of what speakers/authors intend. Listeners, for instance, probably do not have any conscious recognition that different utterances are idiomatic, literal and so on. Instead, they concentrate mainly on understanding what people intend to communicate by their production of metaphor.

Interpretation refers to analysis of the early products comprehension as tokens. A person can consciously create an understanding for a particular meaning. Generally, interpretation processes operate at a later point in time than comprehension processes.

At last, appreciation refers to some aesthetic judgment given to a product either as a type or token. This is not a necessary part of metaphor understanding. According to the psychological evidence, metaphor comprehension and appreciation refer to distinct types of mental process.

III. DIFFERENT VIEWS ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LITERAL MEANING PROCESSING AND METAPHOR PROCESSING

Within psycholinguistics, the main topic of investigation has once been whether metaphorical comprehension is “indirect” or “direct”.

A. The “Indirect” View

There is a prevalent view in psycholinguistics that the processing of indirect speech acts, such as metaphor, is a three-stage process involving: (1) Assessment of the most “literal” meaning; (2) Comparison of literal meaning to a communication context; (3) Deciding conflicts between literal meaning and context (Rice, 1999).

Metaphor, according to this view, has been explained as a secondary linguistic process which takes place as a function taking place on literal language. In other words, all utterances would be processed as literal utterances first. Only once the mind was unable to find a literal meaning for an expression would the utterance be sent to a special non-literal processing center for decoding. It necessarily entails that the comprehension of a metaphor assumes the metaphorical expression will eventually be decomposed into a literal paraphrase (Rohrer, 1995). Therefore, the hearer seeks a metaphorical interpretation only after the search for a plausible literal meaning fails.

B. *The “Direct” View*

However, the “indirect” explanation does not fit well with some of the recent cognitive studies or recent work on right hemisphere processing of language, both of which suggest that the figurative and literal language are processed simultaneously and share much structure (Rohrer 1995). An influential piece of early research by Glucksberg and his colleagues dealt a conclusive blow to the “indirect” view. Their studies provided strong evidence against the view that people attempt a literal interpretation firstly and then resort to metaphorical interpretation only if the literal interpretation is anomalous. Participants were simply asked to make true or false judgments. The materials included true category statements (e.g. ‘Some birds are robins’), false category statements (e.g. ‘Some birds are apples’), and metaphorical statements (e.g. ‘Some jobs are jails’). Note that the answer is ‘true’ only for the first class; the other two are ‘false’. The key question concerned how people would process the metaphors. According to the “indirect” theory, people should have been fast to reject metaphors; they simply had to press ‘false’ as soon as they realized that the literal meaning was false. However, the results showed the reverse. Participants took much longer to reject metaphors than ordinary false statements, suggesting that the metaphorical meaning was noticed early and interfered with participants’ ability to classify it as false (Dedre Gentner, Brian Bowdle. 2006).

Some recent study suggests that people understand metaphors much the same way they understand the literal speech—by retrieving information from the lexicon, selecting the part that is germane, and identifying a relationship between the lexical representations that have been retrieved (Carroll, 2000).

To sum up, it has been proposed that metaphors are primarily used to convey ideas and feelings that are difficult to express. People comprehend metaphor by a multistage process in which they first consider and reject the literal meaning and then to construct the speaker’s intended meaning. However, recent study on metaphors fails to support this view. On the contrary, people always tend to comprehend metaphors directly, in a manner analogous to, rather than dependent on literal language (Carroll, 2000).

IV. MAIN FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE PROCESSING TIME OF METAPHOR

A. *Context*

In general, the surrounding context of utterance can influence metaphor comprehension time. It turns out that when more context is available (in the experience of the listener) then the measured interpretation time for metaphor is about the same as for literal speech acts. In any case, certain “schemata” in the available “context” are assumed to be “activated.” This explanation suggests that when insufficient schemata are activated by the context then the listener has to scratch around for other schemata that may be “semantically more remote”, thus requiring more time to access (Carroll, 2000).

Ortony, Schallert, Reynolds & Antos (1978) once measured the time it took subjects to comprehend literal v. metaphorical sentences at the end of short and long contexts, and reported no difference for long contexts but that metaphorical sentences took much longer to read in short contexts. Janus & Bever (1985) tracked eye movements and compared the amount of time subjects focused on the target sentences. People again responded as quickly in the long context condition. Therefore, context is seen as at least the major key to metaphor processing. If it is adequate, then metaphors are processed as fast as literal language (Rice, 1999).

B. *The “Quality” of Metaphors*

In the study of metaphor processing, the “quality” of metaphors is acknowledged to be a problem. A crude distinction is made between “poorer” and “better metaphors” ones. The poorer ones supplying relevance only to a few interpretations while the better ones apply to more situations. This, however, implies that novel metaphors, having more difficult or restricted interpretations, are poorer, and that familiar metaphors are the better ones. Poorer metaphors interfere less with sentence comprehension, presumably because they are taken less seriously. If we say, “All surgeons are butchers” it is perhaps a poor metaphor in this sense. We do not expect surgeons to be filed under butchers in a relational database of job categories, or expect surgeons’ friends to think it is a wonderful trope (Rice, 1999).

According to Lakoff and Johnson, new metaphors, or novel metaphors, are different from conventional metaphors in that they are beyond social conventions and “are capable of giving us a new understanding of our experience” (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980:139). The power of new metaphors is to create a new reality rather than simply to give mankind a way of conceptualizing a preexisting reality as conventional metaphors do (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). Therefore, new metaphors play a very important role in imagination and creation of new meaning.

New metaphors use the mechanisms of conventional and everyday thought in extraordinary ways. That is, what makes the new metaphors noticeable and memorable is that new metaphors extend them, elaborate them, and combine

them in ways that go beyond the bounds of ordinary modes of thought and beyond the automatic and unconscious conventional use of metaphor (Lakoff and Turner, 1989). So to speak, the study of new metaphor is an extension of the study of conventional metaphor. Conventional metaphor is characterized by a huge system of cross domain mappings, and this system is made use of in new metaphor.

For example, the conventional metaphor DEATH IS SLEEP, is a general and ordinary metaphorical conception that views death as sleeping when people speak of someone that passed away. The mapping in this metaphor, of course, does not involve all people's general knowledge about death, but only certain aspects: inactive, inattentive and so on. However, in Hamlet's soliloquy, Shakespeare extends creatively the ordinary metaphor of death as sleeping to include elements that are not conventionally mapped--the possibility of dreaming (Lakoff and Turner, 1989):

To sleep? Perchance to dream! Ay, there's the rub;

For in that sleep of death what dreams may come?

(William Shakespeare, *Hamlet, Prince of Denmark, Act III, Scene I*)

Various studies (e.g. Blasko and Connine 1993) have found that unfamiliar and novel metaphors take significantly longer to process than either literal sentences or familiar metaphors.

V. TWO DIFFERENT SCHOOLS OF THOUGHT ON PROCESSING OF METAPHORICAL EXPRESSIONS

Generally, there are two schools of thought that regarding the cognitive processing of metaphorical expressions. One is advocated by Gibbs (1994) whose research affirms and extends the proposals of Lakoff and Johnson, and Glucksberg (2001) who proposes an alternative view of metaphor processing based on his and his colleagues' experimental results.

In *Metaphors We Live By*, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) state that human conceptual system is metaphorically structured and defined. According to them, conceptual metaphor is a system of metaphor that lies behind much of everyday language and forms everyday conceptual system, including most abstract concepts. Metaphor, in essence, is "understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980: 5). According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), the working mechanism of conceptual metaphors lies in the fact that conceptual metaphors are mappings across different conceptual domains, involving projections from a source domain to a target domain. They claim that:

a. Metaphorical mapping is uni-directional and asymmetric, that is, from the more concrete to the more abstract.

b. Metaphorical mapping is partial, not total, namely, the structure of the source domain is only partly projected to the structure of the target domain.

c. Metaphorical mapping is not random and arbitrary, but grounded in the body and everyday experience in the physical and cultural world.

d. Metaphorical mapping is systematic across different conceptual domains.

Along with Lakoff and Johnson, Gibbs claims that long-term memory is structurally organized by prototypes extended by metaphoric and metonymic principles called conceptual mappings or conceptual metaphors. A conceptual metaphor, such as LOVE IS A JOURNEY, is constituted by a mapping between areas of the brain, such as between affect and sensorimotor areas. In the appropriate context, most conventional metaphoric expressions, such as our marriage is on the rocks or we're at a crossroads, access these conceptual metaphors from long-term memory (Rohrer, 1995).

Glucksberg, Keysar and McGlone (1990) argue for a class inclusion view in which some metaphoric expressions build up an ad-hoc category in working memory rather than accessing conceptual metaphors from long-term memory, even when it would be expected that they would draw on a conceptual metaphor. In terms of this, Gibbs argues that the class-inclusion view needs an understanding of metaphor in which each metaphorical expression creates a unique or novel mapping in working memory. In their reply Glucksberg, Keysar and McGlone suggest that only some cases require the development of ad-hoc category, citing a brief initial experiment in which subjects were given metaphorical with minimal context and asked to paraphrase them (Rohrer, 1995).

VI. CONCLUSION

Metaphor, like all figurative language, has been usually explained as a secondary linguistic process which takes place as a function taking place on literal language. However, recent study suggests that people understand metaphors much the same way they understand the literal speech. Context and the "quality" of metaphors can influence the processing time of metaphors. As to the cognitive processing of metaphorical expressions, different schools of thought hold different opinions. In fact, we should note that both perspectives are essential for us to learn metaphor process.

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Factors Underlying the Social and Cultural Capitals of High School Students and Their Relationship with English Achievement

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Abstract—This study explored the relationship between social and cultural capitals and English achievement by developing, administering and validating a 35-item questionnaire to 706 students of five public and private high school students in Mashhad, Iran. The application of the Principle Axis Factoring to the participants' responses and rotating the extracted factors revealed ten latent variables, i.e., family-school interaction, facility consciousness, extracurricular and religious activities, parental consultation, literary and artistic appreciation, family support, family-peer relation, reading enjoyment, family encouragement, and self-confidence. No significant difference was found in the performance of private and public school students' scores on their final English examination. Neither the social and cultural capital questionnaire nor its ten extracted factors showed any significant relationship with the students' English achievement. However, when the performance of the students in private and public schools were analyzed separately and the items with low cross loading were removed from factors, a significant correlation was found between the second factor, i.e., facility consciousness, and the English achievement ($r = .12$, $p < .05$) of public high school students. The implications of the results are brought up within a foreign language context and suggestions are made for future research.

Index Terms—cultural capital, social capital, foreign language, English achievement, factor analysis, cross loading

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning English as a foreign language requires many resources among which economic, cultural and social capitals stand out. While the first deal basically with the financial capabilities of individual members of a given society, the second depend on the attitudes they hold, activities they get involved and the information they gather from literature, music and art (see DiMaggio & Mohr 1985). These attitudes, activities and pieces of information are also explored in various variables such as linguistic competence (Dumais 2002) and appropriate manners and good taste (De Graaf, 1986).

The third major sources required for foreign language learning are “the aggregate of actual or potential resources linked to possession of a durable network of essentially institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition” (Bourdieu 1986, p. 248). These sources which are owned by the whole society are then employed by its members as capitals and may in certain conditions be converted to economic capital.

There is general consensus that cultural capital is different from abilities such as GPA (e.g., Dumais 2002; Eitle and Eitle 2002, Farkas, Grobe, Sheehan, & Shaun 1990; Kalmijn & Kraaykamp 1996; Katsillis & Robinson 1992) as are economic and social capitals. Based on this difference a large number of studies have been designed to explore the relationship of these sources with variables such as persisting in school and educational attainment.

Wells (2008), for example, examined the effect of social and cultural capital on persistence from 1st to 2nd year. His study of 1,726 students showed student persistence has a positive association with social and cultural capitals. Persistence helped them overcome social barriers such as low family income, low parental education and the poor or ill-resourced schools.

As regards the relationship between social capital and educational attainment, Dika and Singh (2002) alone reviewed thirteen studies from 1991-2001. Furstenberg and Hughes (1995) and Yan (1999), for example, found a positive association between social capital, school graduation and college enrollment. Their results showed that parent-teen

interactions, parents' expectations and encouragement and traditional family structure are positively related to the two educational outcomes.

Similarly, Bassani (2006) studied 2924 Japanese, 2135 US and 2364 Canadian 15-year-old students by employing the data collected by the Programme for International Student Assessment study from various countries and continents. They dealt with a large amount of information including students' families, schools and academic assessment. He found that 31% of the variation in American youths' math scores was explained by social resources while a smaller amount of variation was explained in the Canadian (20%) and Japanese models (22%).

The most recent study closely related to the present was done by Khodadady and Zabihi (2011) who explored the relationship between social and cultural capital with the grade point average (GPA) of high school diploma gained by 403 undergraduate and graduate Iranian university students who majored in Teaching English as a foreign language and Persian Language and Literature. Their findings will be compared with the present one because their questionnaire has been employed in the present study.

While most studies deal with the relationship between social and cultural capitals and school achievement in general (e.g., Bankston & Caldas 1998; Eng 2009), GPA (e.g., Khodadady and Zabihi 2011) or particular subjects such as math (e.g., Bassani 2006), none have explored their relationship with English achievement in high schools in Mashhad. Although Khodadady and Zabihi's (2011) study deals with Iranian students in Mashhad, their sample has been drawn from university students whose GPA on their high school diploma has been associated with social and cultural capitals. The present study, however, addresses the relationship between the capitals and foreign language achievement in Mashhadi high schools. In particular, it attempts to answer the three questions below:

1. Will the scores of private high school students on their final English Examinations be significantly higher than their counterparts in public schools?
2. Will the total SCCQ and its social and cultural capital subscales correlate significantly with the participants' scores on their final English examination?
3. Will the factors extracted from the SCCQ correlate significantly with the participants' scores on their final English examination.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Seven hundred and six female high school learners studying at grade 1, 2 and 3 participated in the present research. (Only female students took part in the project because the researchers' could not get access to boys' schools due to reasons beyond their control.) The questionnaires of ten students were, however, removed from analysis due to giving unreliable answers or not answering most items. Out of the remaining 696 students, 382 and 314 had enrolled in private and public high schools respectively. The participants' age ranged between 11 and 19 (Mean = 15.74, SD = 2.31). They all spoke Persian as their mother language.

B. Instruments

The social and cultural capital questionnaire (SCCQ) designed in this study consists of 35 items among which 11 deals with cultural capital and the remaining 24 concern social capital (see Appendix). The items were developed by Khodadady and Zabihi (2011) on the basis of the most frequently cited social and cultural capital indicators by Dika and Singh (2002) and Laureau and Weininger (2003). They translated the items into Persian and consulted at least two specialists in English translation and Persian language in order to ensure the validity of their translation and Persian style. The participants were required to read the Persian items one by one and indicate whether they had experienced the states or undertaken the actions brought up by each item on a six-point scale ranging from never to always. (The Persian translation is available upon request.)

The first item of the SCCQ, for example, read: *I enjoy listening to classical music*. After reading the statement, the participants had to specify whether they always, usually, often, sometimes, seldom or never enjoyed listening to classical music. The values 6, 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 were then assigned to each point to quantify the items.

In addition to the 35 items, four short questions were given at the beginning of the SCCQ to collect demographic information. They included the participants' field of study, gender, age, and their score on the final English examination. At the end of each session in which the questionnaires were distributed, the English teachers were consulted regarding the accuracy of the students' self-reported scores and there were only a few cases where the teacher had to check the official records to confirm the announced scores.

C. Procedure

There are 11 educational districts in Mashhad, the capital of Khorassan-e-Razavi province in Iran, i.e., 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7, Tabatkan, Kalat, Ahmadabad, and Razavieh. These eleven districts were divided into two upper and lower-class areas on the basis of information given by the Education Organization and two were chosen randomly as a convenient sample, i.e., district 4 and Tabatkan. Then from these two districts three private and two public high schools were chosen. The difference in the number of school types stems from the fact that private high schools in the two districts

are distributed unequally. While there are many private schools in the well-to-do district four, there is only one in Tabatkan.

The private schools in the two educational districts charged different fees. Nour and Imam Reza high schools in district four, for example, charged 3,500,000 and 2,500,000 tomans annually, respectively, whereas Imam Reza High School in Tabatkan charged some 180,000 tomans. (1000 tomans was worth almost one American dollar at the time of research.) For this very sharp difference in tuition fees, some students living in district four had registered in the last school and were therefore commuting every day to attend the most affordable. The researchers attended all the schools in person and distributed the questionnaires while the students took part in their English classes. They were asked to write down the scores they got in their final English examination last year. The teachers were then consulted regarding the acceptability of the scores and whether they represented the students' English ability.

D. Data Analysis

The reliability of the social and cultural capital questionnaire (SCCQ) was estimated via SPSS version 16.0. Following Khodadady and Hashemi (2010), the principle axis factoring along with Varimax Rotation with Kaiser Normalization was employed to extract the rotated factors underlying the SCCQ. The students self-reported scores on their final English examination and the data obtained on the SCCQ were analysed to test the following hypotheses:

H1. The private school students' scores on final English examinations will be significantly higher than their counterparts in public schools.

H2. The total SCCQ and its logical social and cultural capital subscales will correlate significantly with the participants' scores on the final English examination.

H3. The factors extracted from the SCCQ will correlate significantly with the participants' scores on the final English examination.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics related to the social and cultural capital questionnaire (SCCQ) developed by Khodadady and Zabihi (2011) and administered in this study. As can be seen, the total SCCQ enjoys a high reliability, i.e., .87, as does its social capital subscale, i.e., .84. The relatively moderate reliability of the cultural capital subscale, i.e., .73, is acceptable because it is almost half the length of the social capital subscale and thus its length has affected its reliability coefficient.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE SOCIAL CULTURAL CAPITAL QUESTIONNAIRE AND ITS SUBSCALES

	N	# of items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Alpha
SCCQ	696	11	137.56	25.097	.87
Cultural Capital	696	24	40.77	9.456	.73
Social Capital	696	35	96.79	19.131	.84

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics of the scores obtained on final English examination. As can be seen, the mean score of public students (16.9) is slightly lower than that of private students (17.4). However, when an independent sample T-test was run on the scores obtained by the two groups no significant difference was found ($t=1.455$, $df=694$, $p < 0.146$). This finding thus *disconfirmed* the first hypothesis that *the private school students' scores on final English Examinations will be significantly higher than their counterparts in public schools*.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE SCORES OBTAINED ON FINAL ENGLISH EXAMINATION

English Score	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Private schools	382	17.3545	4.15909	.21280
Public Schools	314	16.8992	4.04373	.22820

In order to determine what latent variables the SCCQ was measuring, the principle axis factoring was run. However, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of Sampling Adequacy was employed first to find out whether employing factor analysis to extract latent variables was appropriate. The KMO statistic obtained in this study was .87. According to Kaiser (1974) as cited in DiLalla and Dollinger (2006, p. 250), KMOs in the .80s is "meritorious," so the sample selected in this study was adequate for factorial analysis.

Table 3 presents the initial and extraction communalities obtained on the SCCQ. Initial communalities are estimates of the variance in each variable accounted for by *all* factors. Extraction communalities are, however, estimates of the variance in each variable accounted for by the factors in the factor solution. Martiniuk, Speechley, Secco and Campbell (2007) used extraction communalities to develop their questionnaire assessing children's knowledge and attitudes about epilepsy. Following Pett, Lackey and Sullivan (2003), they decided a priori that any items with extraction communalities below 0.2 would be dropped from their further analyses.

TABLE 3
INITIAL AND EXTRACTION (EXT.) COMMUNALITIES OBTAINED ON SCCQ

Item	Initial	Ext	Item	Initial	Ext	Item	Initial	Ext	Item	Initial	Ext
5	.390	.633	2	.367	.483	33	.245	.407	32	.233	.271
27	.435	.611	31	.363	.475	15	.328	.386	16	.163	.252
8	.380	.603	34	.292	.469	35	.347	.386	11	.206	.239
30	.482	.585	17	.317	.467	12	.289	.358	14	.199	.231
25	.481	.562	21	.357	.449	6	.289	.354	3	.199	.216
29	.504	.562	18	.280	.426	4	.248	.349	19	.192	.209
28	.438	.550	7	.342	.414	22	.212	.327	1	.182	.198
23	.500	.531	10	.331	.412	26	.301	.307	20	.118	.149
9	.375	.486	24	.315	.408	13	.223	.276			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

As can be seen in Table 3, only two items, i.e., 1 and 20, have extraction communalities below 0.20. This means that the remaining 33 items forming the SCCQ contributed to the factors extracted in this study. However, when principle axis factoring was applied to the items and the extracted factors were rotated by employing Varimax with Kaiser Normalization method, *ten* factors appeared upon which items 3, 19, 20, 26 and 32 did not load acceptably, i.e., 0.30 or higher, indicating that they do not contribute to social and cultural capitals enjoyed by the participants of the present study. Among the remaining 30 items, items 10, 23, 24, 29 and 35 cross loaded on at least two factors.

Table 4 presents the total variance explained by the *ten* factors extracted from the 35 items comprising the SCCQ. (The factors whose initial eigenvalues were lower than one have been deleted to save space.) As can be seen, the ten extracted factors explain 56.8% of variance in the whole questionnaire initially. However, when they were rotated, total variance explained by the ten factors decreased to 40.1%.

TABLE 4
TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.858	19.595	19.595	2.039	5.825	5.825
2	2.389	6.827	26.422	1.960	5.600	11.425
3	1.932	5.520	31.942	1.707	4.877	16.303
4	1.657	4.733	36.675	1.547	4.420	20.722
5	1.436	4.102	40.778	1.424	4.068	24.790
6	1.238	3.538	44.316	1.281	3.659	28.450
7	1.161	3.316	47.632	1.157	3.306	31.755
8	1.119	3.197	50.829	1.132	3.236	34.991
9	1.057	3.021	53.850	1.011	2.889	37.880
10	1.030	2.943	56.793	.782	2.234	40.114

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

As can be seen in Table 4, all the ten extracted values have the initial eigenvalues of one or higher. Kaiser (1958) suggested an eigenvalue of one to stop the process of extracting factors. However, some scholars suggest scree plots be employed to choose from among the extracted factors. In this approach the graph of eigenvalues is examined and the natural bend where the curve flattens out is spotted to retain only those factors which fall above the bend (e.g., Costello & Osborne 2005).

Figure 1 presents the scree plot of extracted factors in this study whereas Figure 2 shows the components extracted by Martiniuk et al. (2007). While there is no natural bend discernable in the plot obtained in this study, the bend does appear at component three in Martiniuk et al.'s study. However, they adopted *seven* factors as underlying their 27-item questionnaire, indicating that they employed *logic* rather than the scree plot to determine the number of factors. Since Khodadady (2009) found a similar pattern when he compared the factors obtained in his study on the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory with those of Hong (2006), it is suggested that instead of scree plots an eigenvalue of one be adopted as the cut off point to retain factors.

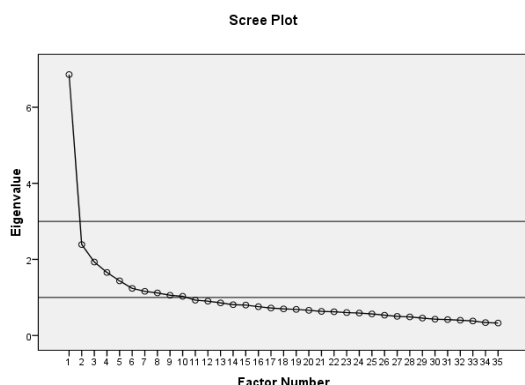


Figure 1. Scree plot of 10 extracted factors

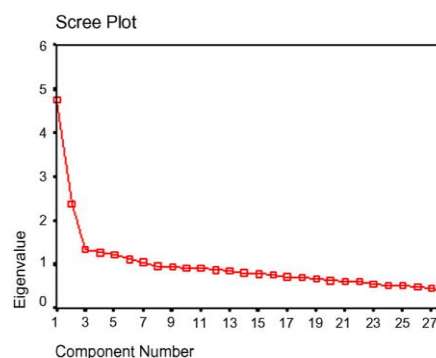


Figure 2. Scree plot of all Thinking about Epilepsy questionnaire items

The acceptance of ten factors on the basis of eigenvalues equal to one and higher is also supported by Khodadady and Zabihi's (2011) findings. Similar to the present study, they extracted ten factors when they applied principle component analysis to their data and rotated their extracted variables. In addition to yielding the same number of factors in two separate studies with different samples, the factors extracted in the present study highlight the exclusiveness of capitals which are *logically* different from the capitals to which they may contribute in studies with smaller samples.

Factor 10 in the present study, for example, consists of two items (see Table 14). Had the scree plot presented in Figure 1 had clear bend such as Figure 2, it would have been discarded in favour of the first two factors. However, item 2, *I am highly proficient in using language*, is logically different from all types of attitudes expressed in the SCCQ. It loads exclusively on factor ten as self-confidence and may explain the students' willingness to tell their parents where they are and what they do as the second variable which cross loads on factors one, *family-school interaction*, and four, *parental consultation* show they do.

Table 5 presents the rotated loadings of six items, i.e., 12, 18, 23, 24, 25 and 29, on the first factor called *family-school interaction* in this study. Out of 40.1%, this factor explains 5.8 percent of variance in the loadings. As can be seen, item 18, i.e., *My mom used to attend school meetings regularly*, has the highest loading on the factor, i.e., .62. Among the six items comprising the first factor, two items cross load on factors 4, 6, and 10.

TABLE 5
ITEMS LOADING ON THE FIRST FACTOR OF FAMILY-SCHOOL INTERACTION

No	Items	Loading	Crossloading
18	My mom used to attend school meetings regularly.	.615	-
25	My parents used to have a regular connection with my school.	.600	-
12	My mother used to get involved in my primary schooling.	.553	-
29	My parents used to monitor my homework regularly.	.491	6 (.398)
23	At home, my parents keep track of my progress.	.390	-
24	My parents know where I am, what I do.	.307	4 (.379) 10 (.365)

While the first factor in this study relates to *family-school interaction*, it is *literacy* in Khodadady and Zabihi's (2011) study on which item 8, *I enjoy reading (in general)*, has the highest loading, i.e., .73. Along with items 2, 5, and 7, *literacy* explains 6.3% out of 47.7% of variance in all loadings in their study. The findings obtained in this study along with those of Khodadady and Zabihi emphasize the importance of validating the SCCQ with specific populations in order to find out what factors underlie their cultural and social capitals. If the parents of these high school students wish their children to enter universities they need to gear their school interactions towards literacy.

Table 6 presents the rotated loadings of six items, i.e., 4, 6, 10, 11, and 21, on the second factor called *facility consciousness* in this study. Out of 40.1%, this factor explains 5.6 percent of variance in the loadings. As can be seen, item 21, i.e., *I had excellent schools with high quality*, has the highest loading on the factor, i.e., .57. Among the five items comprising the second factor, only item ten cross loads on factor nine.

TABLE 6
ITEMS LOADING ON THE SECOND FACTOR OF FACILITY CONSCIOUSNESS

No	Items	Loading	Crossloading
21	I had excellent schools with high quality.	.573	-
4	I know all famous music composers.	.561	-
6	I frequently visit museums and theaters.	.492	-
11	I used to take or art or music classes outside school.	.444	-
10	We have lots of books at home.	.385	9 (.395)

Table 7 presents the rotated loadings of four items, i.e., 13, 14, 27 and 28, on the third factor called *extracurricular and religious activities* in this study. Out of 40.1%, this factor explains 4.9 percent of variance in the loadings. As can be seen, item 27, i.e., *I used to participate in school activities regularly*, has the highest loading on the factor, i.e., .74. None of the items forming factor three cross loads on other factors.

TABLE 7
ITEMS LOADING ON THE THIRD FACTOR OF EXTRACURRICULAR AND RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES

No	Items	Loading	Crossloading
27	I used to participate in school activities regularly.	.737	-
28	I used to participate in extracurricular activities.	.660	-
13	I like to get involved in activities designed for young people.	.462	-
14	I usually get involved in religious activities in mosques.	.334	-

Table 8 presents the rotated loadings of four items, i.e., 24, 30, 31 and 35, on the fourth factor called *parental consultation* in this study. Out of 40.1%, this factor explains 4.4 percent of variance in the loadings. As can be seen, item 30, i.e., *I usually talk about job/education with family*, has the highest loading on the factor, i.e., .61. Items 24 and 35 cross load on factors ten and seven, respectively.

TABLE 8
ITEMS LOADING ON THE FOURTH FACTOR OF PARENTAL CONSULTATION

No	Items	Loading	Crossloading
30	I usually talk about job/education with family.	.613	-
31	I usually talk about job/education with other adults.	.585	-
24	My parents know where I am, what I do.	.379	10 (.365)
35	We have an intimate home environment.	.353	7 (.312)

Table 9 presents the rotated loadings of three items, i.e., 1, 2, and 5, on the fifth factor called *literary and artistic appreciation* in this study. Out of 40.1%, this factor explains 4.1 percent of variance in the loadings. As can be seen, item 5, i.e., *I know a lot about literature*, has the highest loading on the factor, i.e., .73. None of the items forming factor five cross loads on other factors.

TABLE 9
ITEMS LOADING ON THE FIFTH FACTOR OF LITERARY AND ARTISTIC APPRECIATION

No	Items	Loading	Crossloading
5	I know a lot about literature.	.730	-
2	I enjoy reading literature.	.660	-
1	I enjoy listening to classical music.	.348	-

Table 10 presents the rotated loadings of three items, i.e., 15, 16, and 17, on the sixth factor called *family support* in this study. Out of 40.1%, this factor explains 3.7 percent of variance in the loadings. As can be seen, item 17, i.e., *My parents used to help me with my homework regularly*, has the highest loading on the factor, i.e., .61. None of the items forming factor six cross loads on other factors.

TABLE 10
ITEMS LOADING ON THE SIXTH FACTOR OF FAMILY SUPPORT

No	Items	Loading	Crossloading
17	My parents used to help me with my homework regularly.	.614	-
15	My parents usually get involved in my daily activities.	.434	-
16	I see my grandparents weekly.	.424	-

Table 11 presents the rotated loadings of three items, i.e., 33, 34, and 35, on the seventh factor called *family-peer relation* in this study. Out of 40.1%, the fifth factor explains 3.3 percent of variance in the loadings. As can be seen, item 34, i.e., *My parents have strong ties with each other*, has the highest loading on factor seven, i.e., .61. Among the three items comprising factor seven, item 35 cross loads on factor four.

TABLE 11
ITEMS LOADING ON THE SEVENTH FACTOR OF FAMILY-PEER RELATION

No	Items	Loading	Crossloading
34	My parents have strong ties with each other.	.610	-
33	I feel I have strong ties with my peers.	.598	-
35	We have an intimate home environment.	.312	4 (.353)

Table 12 presents the rotated loadings of two items, i.e., 7 and 8, on the eighth factor called *reading enjoyment* in this study. Out of 40.1%, the eighth factor explains 3.2 percent of variance in the loadings. As can be seen, item 8, i.e., *I enjoy reading (in general)*, has the highest loading on factor four, i.e., .70. The other item comprising factor eighth does not cross load on any other factor.

TABLE 12
ITEMS LOADING ON THE EIGHTH FACTOR OF READING ENJOYMENT

No	Items	Loading	Crossloading
8	I enjoy reading (in general).	.701	-
7	I frequently borrow/buy books.	.528	-

Table 13 presents the rotated loadings of two items, i.e., 9 and 10, on the ninth factor called *family encouragement* in this study. Out of 40.1%, the ninth factor explains 2.9 percent of variance in the loadings. As can be seen, item 9, i.e., *When a child, my parents regularly encouraged me to read*, has the highest loading on factor ninth, i.e., .53. The other item comprising factor nine cross loads on factor two.

TABLE 13
ITEMS LOADING ON THE NINTH FACTOR OF FAMILY ENCOURAGEMENT

No	Items	Loading	Crossloading
9	When a child, my parents regularly encouraged me to read.	.525	-
10	We have lots of books at home.	.395	2 (.385)

Table 14 presents the rotated loadings of two items, i.e., 22 and 24, on the tenth factor called *self-confidence* in this study. Out of 40.1%, the eighth factor explains 2.2 percent of variance in the loadings. As can be seen, item 22, i.e., *I am highly proficient in using language*, has the highest loading on factor ten, i.e., .49. The other item comprising factor ten cross loads on factors one and four.

TABLE 14
ITEMS LOADING ON THE TENTH FACTOR OF SELF-CONFIDENCE

No	Items	Loading	Crossloading
22	I am highly proficient in using language.	.492	-
24	My parents know where I am, what I do.	.365	1 (.307) 4 (.379)

Table 15 presents the correlations between the participants' score on final English examination and the SCCQ, its cultural capital and social capital subscales and ten extracted factors. As can be seen, the results disconfirm the second hypothesis that *the total SCCQ and its logical social and cultural capital subscales will correlate significantly with the participants' scores on the final English examination*.

TABLE 15
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE PARTICIPANTS' SCORE ON FINAL ENGLISH EXAMINATION AND THE SCCQ, ITS CULTURAL CAPITAL AND SOCIAL CAPITAL SUBSCALES AND TEN EXTRACTED FACTORS

Participants' Score in	SCCQ	Subscales		Factors (with cross loading)									
		Cultural	Social	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Both schools	.045	.066	.027	.011	.035	.029	.039	.062	-.032	.040	.050	.022	-.012
Private schools	-.026	.022	-.043	-.029	-.060	-.014	-.034	.093	-.092	.042	.022	-.030	-.069
Public schools	.104	.092	.092	.031	.104	.071	.099	.010	.025	.018	.073	.056	.047
Participants' Score in	SCCQ			Factors (without cross loading)									
		Cultural	Social	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Both schools	.045	.066	.027	.016	.041	.029	.039	.062	-.032	.034	.050	.022	.002
Private schools	-.026	.022	-.043	-.027	-.055	-.014	-.034	.093	-.092	.062	.022	-.030	-.081
Public schools	.104	.092	.092	.038	.118*	.071	.099	.010	.025	-.015	.073	.056	.088

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

When the ten extracted factors were correlated with the participants' scores on the final English examination, only factor two whose crossloading items were removed showed a significant correlation with the scores obtained by public high school students, i.e., $r = .12$ $p < .05$ (see Table 15). These results disconfirm the third hypothesis that *the factors extracted from the SCCQ will correlate significantly with the participants' scores on the final English examination*. They, therefore, challenge the research findings showing that social capital influences children's educational outcomes irrespective of their socioeconomic status (McNeal 1999; Sun 1999; Zhou & Bankston 1996).

The findings of this study are in sharp contrast to those found by Khodadady and Zabihi (2011). The ninth factor in this study, i.e., *family encouragement*, did not show any significant relationship with English achievement, however, as the seventh factor in Khodadady and Zabihi's study it had the highest significant correlation coefficient with the participants' GPA on their high school diploma ($r = .33$ $p < .01$), indicating that about eleven percent of GPA obtained by former high school students who entered Iranian universities is explained by their family encouragement alone.

Considering the fact that out of 403 students participating in Khodadady and Zabihi's (2011) study 230 (57%) were studying *English* language and literature at undergraduate and graduate levels at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad and Mashhad Azad University, the lack of any significant relationship between English achievement and factors like *family encouragement* may be employed to highlight either the irrelevance of teaching English in high schools or inadequacy of assessing English achievement by language teachers. Future research must show whether holding independent

achievement tests by researchers will result in establishing significant relationships between English achievement and social and cultural capitals.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

This study identified ten latent variables underlying the 35-item social and cultural capital questionnaire (SCCQ), i.e., family-school interaction, facility consciousness, extracurricular and religious activities, parental consultation, literary and artistic appreciation, family support, family-peer relation, reading enjoyment, family encouragement, and self-confidence. Half of these factors deal with the relationship among family members and support they get from each other, emphasizing the fact that families should be taken into serious consideration by the educational authorities and policy makers.

The Iranian society in general and the population in Mashhad in particular is going through a rapid change in which the number of mothers entering the job market is increasing in order to keep up with ever-increasing expenses, and in the case of education, to help pay the tuition fees charged by private high schools. If the mothers lack the qualifications or do not wish to get into the job market, the fathers have to work more and thus spend less time with the children. Unfortunately, there is no study available right now to compare the results of this study with, say, 30 years ago, they can, nonetheless, be used in future to trace changes the families in Mashhad go through over time in order to cope with economic and educational factors and how these changes may affect the factors underlying social and cultural capitals.

Among the ten factors, only factor two, facility consciousness, showed a significant relationship with the public school students' scores on final English examination, indicating that the more high quality public schools parents choose, the better their children learn English as a foreign language. These children extend their learning of English to arts, music and attending museums and theatres and thus become more broad minded as compared to their peers in private high schools.

In this study no significant relationship was found between the SCCQ, its subscales and its nine underlying factors because its sample was relatively small. While Beaulieu, Israel, Hartless and Dyk (2001), for example, employed a stratified national probability sample of over 1,052 schools from which they collected a total of 24,599 usable responses from just *eighth* graders, the present study could have access to only 706 *ninth*, *tenth* and *eleventh* graders. It is therefore suggested that this study be replicated with certain graders, such as eighth only.

It is also recommended that the number of items comprising the SCCQ be increased so that more social and cultural indicators can be addressed. For example, this study did not explore whether the participants' parents limit their TV and internet time. And finally, it seems employing an independent measure such schema-based cloze multiple choice item tests developed on the English textbooks taught at a given grade or a language proficiency test might provide a more effective index to explore the relationship between school achievement in foreign language and social and cultural capitals.

APPENDIX

Social and Cultural Capital Questionnaire

NO	Statement	Always	Usually	Often	sometimes	Seldom	Never
1	I enjoy listening to classical music.						
2	I enjoy reading literature.						
3	I am a cultured person.						
4	I know all famous music composers.						
5	I know a lot about literature.						
6	I frequently visit museums and theaters.						
7	I frequently borrow/buy books.						
8	I enjoy reading (in general).						
9	When a child, my parents regularly encouraged me to read.						
10	We have lots of books at home.						
11	I used to take or art or music classes outside school.						
12	My mother used to get involved in my primary schooling.						
13	I like to get involved in activities designed for young people.						
14	I usually get involved in religious activities in mosques.						
15	My parents usually get involved in my daily activities.						
16	I see my grandparents weekly.						
17	My parents used to help me with my homework regularly.						
18	My mom used to attend school meetings regularly.						
19	I feel I have a strong help network for my activities.						
20	I see my friends weekly.						
21	I had excellent schools with high quality.						
22	I am highly proficient in using language.						
23	At home, my parents keep track of my progress.						
24	My parents know where I am, what I do.						
25	My parents used to have a regular connection with my school.						
26	My parents know parents of my friends.						

27	I used to participate in school activities regularly.						
28	I used to participate in extracurricular activities.						
29	My parents used to monitor my homework regularly.						
30	I usually talk about job/education with family.						
31	I usually talk about job/education with other adults.						
32	My parents had a say in school policy.						
33	I feel I have strong ties with my peers.						
34	My parents have strong ties with each other.						
35	We have an intimate home environment.						

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A Tentative Analysis of Gary Snyder's Attitudes towards Chinese Culture in his Translation of Chinese Poems

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Abstract—Gray Snyder was a famous poem translator and writer in America in the 20th century; however, his translation and composition were deeply influenced by the ancient Chinese culture, especially by Han Shan, the famous hermit and poet of the Tang Dynasty. This article attempts to make a tentative analysis of Snyder's translation of Chinese poems as well as his attitudes towards Chinese culture and Chinese poems.

Index Terms—Gary Snyder, Han Shan, translation, poem, Chinese culture

I. BRIEF INTRODUCTION OF GARY SNYDER AND HAN SHAN

A. Gary Snyder

Gary Snyder was born in 1930 in San Francisco. He had begun to write mature poems in a form of his own at the age of 25. Since the 1960s, his work has been increasingly analyzed and praised by critics. In 1975 he won the Pulitzer Prize for *Turtle Island* (published in 1974), and in 1987 he was elected to the American Academy and Institute of Arts and Letters. In addition to his poetry, he has a large quantity of publications, including several volumes of prose and essays in various environmental magazines (McNeil, 1983). As a result, he has been recognized not only as one of the most important contemporary poets alive today, but also a thinker, an important spokesperson for American Buddhism, international ecological movement, and bioregional philosophy.

B. Han Shan

Han Shan was a hermit and poet of the Tang Dynasty (618-906). Little is known about all of Han Shan's life, and he is somewhat of a legendary character. According to Red Pine, Chinese scholar and Cold Mountain translator, Han Shan was born into some level of privilege and may have been a gentleman farmer and some sort of minor official in imperial China. At some point he was married. Eventually he became disaffected with society and left the world at 30 to make his home in the Tian-Tai Mountains.

C. Background and Influence of Snyder's Translation of Han Shan's Poems

Snyder got in touch with Chinese culture at an early age. From the age of ten, he began to see East Asian landscape paintings at the Seattle Art Museum. He recalled in an interview in 1977 that when he first saw Chinese landscape paintings, 'they blew my mind'. In 1947 when he was 17 years old, he entered Reed College where he began to read Ernest Fenollosa's *Epochs of Chinese and Japanese Art*, Ezra Pound's and Arthur Waley's translations of Chinese poetry, a translation of the *Tao Te Ching*, and some texts of Confucius. After graduation from Reed with BA in anthropology and literature, Snyder worked as a timber scaler on Warm Spring Indian Reservation, and in autumn of the same year, he began a graduate program in anthropology at Indiana University. However, he soon left the university and spent the summer on top of Crater Mountain, where he studied Chinese and prepared to translate Chinese poetry. He isolated himself and concentrated on learning Chinese, enjoying the maximum pleasure in translating Chinese poetry. In the fall of 1955, Snyder enrolled in a graduate seminar in Chinese poetry with Chen Shi-xiang. This was Snyder's introduction to Han Shan, the legendary hermit-poet. Arthur Waley was the first Western scholar to translate the poems of Han Shan. In 1954, he published a translation of twenty-seven of the poems in *Encounter*. Gary Snyder's "Cold Mountain Poems" appeared in 1958 in *Evergreen Review* with twenty-four pieces. Burton Watson published his translation of 100 poems in 1962.

Snyder's translations of Han Shan's poems had the greatest influence, though not the most in quantity, in the United States. They soon become popular especially among the college students, the 'Beat Generation' as they were called. Thus Han Shan appears together with the greatest writers of Chinese literature such as Li Bai, Wang Wei, and Du Fu, and has enjoyed a prestige he never attained in the past. In Jack Kerouac's novel *The Dharma Bums*, Gary Snyder as a

hero was also called American Han Shan (Jack Kerouac, 1958). What's more, in 1999, Charles Frazier's work *Cold Mountain* (Charles Frazier, 1997) got the American Book Award. There is such a sentence on the first page of the book, 'People ask the way to Cold Mountain. Cold Mountain? There is no road that goes through'. This is actually a translation of Han Shan's poem '人问寒山道，寒山路不通'. The influence of Han Shan and his poems in the United States can be seen clearly here.

II. APPRECIATION AND ANALYSIS ON SNYDER'S POEM TRANSLATION

Compared with other translators of Han Shan's poems such as Arthur Waley and Burton Watson, Snyder's translation has some special features that make it popular and well-accepted. Snyder once talked about his translation in a letter to Herbert Fackler. In this letter, he said that 'My translations were done as work in a graduate seminar at Berkeley (where I studied 3 years in the graduate school of the Department of Oriental Languages) under Professor Chen Shi-xiang. They are completely accurate line-for-line translations. There are a few substitutions, i.e. "silverware and cars" for equivalent but culture-bound symbols of affluence in the Tang dynasty; the "colloquial" tone is justified by the fact that Han Shan is writing in the colloquial of his own period, with a rough and slangy tone in spots.' (Leed, 1986)

From his own words we can conclude at least three characteristics about the style of Snyder's translation. The first is 'accurate line-for-line' translation. The second is the application of some modern images to substitute the ancient symbols of Tang dynasty. The last but not least is the widely-used colloquial tone in his works. The following are some detailed analysis on these three features with examples from his translation.

A. *The 'Accurate line-for-line' Translation – Foreignization*

Such a method is actually quite dangerous in poem's translation, as most people may consider it beyond understanding. For example, in the poem of Han Shan we mentioned just now, there is a sentence '入塞红尘起'. To our surprise, Snyder just translated '红尘' as 'red dust'. What's more, in the fifth poem, he translated '下有斑白人，喃喃读黄老' as 'Under it a gray-haired man, Mumbles along reading Huang and Lao'. And still, he translated '黄泉' in '大半入黄泉' of the tenth poem as 'the Yellow Springs'. We believe that most English native speakers do not know what 'red dust', 'Huang and Lao' or 'Yellow Springs' stand for. To them, this kind of translation does not translate anything at all. Then, why did Snyder take such an extreme foreignization method? And why these works were still well-accepted instead of refused by the American society? To explain these questions, we need first look at the social conditions of the US at that time.

It is well known that the American economy and industry had a rapid development after the Second World War. However, many social problems of modern world also emerged and became gradually serious under the compression of industrialization. Snyder once pointed out that the whole western culture might have stepped into a wrong direction, not just the capitalism, and that there was a sign of self-destruction in American culture. At that time, large numbers of American youth became dissatisfied and doubtful about their own culture and religion. They were looking for a new belief to support themselves. The image of Han Shan and his poems, as well as the Zen Buddhism just met their requirement to some extent and therefore soon got popular in America in those years. In such an environment, a sense of foreign cultures and foreign customs in concepts and images was just what people needed to refresh the American culture and American literature. The ideas and philosophy in Han Shan's poems, as well as his life style, like fresh air, were welcome and imitated by lots of American youth. Those foreignized words and phrases in Snyder's translation just provided them with a new bank of expressions to show off and make themselves different. Therefore, Snyder's application of foreignization method in his translation can better be explained as intended and successful practices than careless mistakes.

B. *The Involvement of TL Images in Translation – Domestication*

Just as Snyder himself has mentioned, in his translation there are a few substitutions for equivalent but culture-bound symbols of affluence in the Tang dynasty, such as 'silverware and cars'. This appears in his translation of the following sentence '寄语钟鼎家，虚名定无益。' as 'Go tell families with silverware and cars "What's the use of all that noise and money?"' Here he made use of the image of 'silverware and cars' to replace '钟鼎'. '钟鼎' was a symbol of rich family in ancient Tang Dynasty and 'silverware and cars' also immediately remind modern people of wealth, power and prosperity. Both of these two symbols contain the same implication though in different social backgrounds and time. This is a typical domestication method as there were definitely no cars in ancient China. However, such kind of treatment doesn't take a large part in his translations and is only used to deal with those images or concepts that are not so important to convey the ideas of Zen Buddhism. From this point, we can see that, foreignization or domestication, they are just instruments employed by Snyder to meet his own requirements and purposes. We will have further discussion on this issue later.

C. *The Employment of Oral Language*

Compared with other translators' works, an outstanding feature of Snyder's translation is his colloquial tone.

人问寒山道，
寒山路不通。
夏天冰未释，
日出雾朦胧。
似我何由届，
与君心不同。
君心若似我，
还得到其中。

Men ask the way to Cold Mountain.
Cold mountain: there's no through trail.

In summer, ice doesn't melt
The rising sun blurs in swirling fog.

How did I make it?

My heart's not the same as yours.

If your heart was like mine

You'd get it and be right here.

Translated by Gary Snyder

I Sketch a Map in a Cup of Tea

Travelers wonder how to reach Cold Mountain.

No road stretches so far; the streams end far below.

Summer ice darkens the greens.

Sunrise labors to burn off the mist.

How did a gray squat thing like me arrive?

I make my journey sitting still.

Translated by Peter Stambler

The above are two translations of Han Shan's 人问寒山道, one by Gary Snyder and the other by Peter Stambler (1996). Snyder's translation is just like an everyday dialogue without any modification. For example, the first sentence '人问寒山道，寒山路不通。' was translated as 'Men ask the way to Cold Mountain. Cold mountain: there's no through trail'. It's so simple and direct. On the other hand, Peter Stambler's translation was 'Travelers wonder how to reach Cold Mountain. No road stretches so far; the streams end far below'. It has more sense of literature and more sense of poetry. Just as we have mentioned above, Snyder justified himself by saying that his application of colloquial tone in translation was according to the fact that 'Han Shan is writing in the colloquial of his own period, with a rough and slangy tone in spots.' (Leed, 1986). This is the truth. One of the reasons that Han Shan's poems did not enjoy a reputation as Li Bai, Du Fu, Wang Wei etc. in Tang Dynasty was that most critics at that time thought that his poems were too oral and too direct, which didn't in accordance of the aesthetical standard for poetry in ancient China. However, this colloquial style soon got popular and famous once it was transported by Snyder from the East to the West, and became a symbol of Snyder's works. We can hardly say whose translation is better, Snyder's or Stambler's, but one thing clear is that Snyder's translation is more successful and better accepted by the target language readers.

III. ANALYSIS ON SNYDER'S ATTITUDES TOWARDS CHINESE POEMS AND CHINESE CULTURE.

There's no doubt that Snyder loves, admires and enjoys Chinese poems and Chinese culture. As we have introduced before, he had a contact with Chinese culture at very early age and devoted himself to the study of Chinese culture and translation of Chinese poems lifelong. What's more, he even lived in a Chinese hermit style like Han Shan and was thus called American Han Shan. However, we can never comment on somebody or some phenomenon without any social and cultural background. Snyder and his practices, his works, as well as his attitudes towards Chinese poems and Chinese culture should all be considered in connection with the American society at that time. As we have mentioned before, in the 1950s after the World War Two, most young people in America became disappointed and tired with the rapid development of modern society. They refused the common life style and indulged themselves in a wild and crazy life. They abandoned the traditional western culture and religion and looked for a substitution from the outside world. Therefore, it's quite natural that Han Shan's poem as well as his vigorous and unrestrained life style could soon attract the young Americans. As one of them, Snyder was even more devoted than others (Parkinson, 1983).

From the very beginning, the reason of Snyder's love to Chinese poems and the purpose of his translation were very clear. It's a combination of social demand and personal emotion. His affection to Chinese culture, especially the Zen Buddhism was a rebellion to traditional western culture and religion to some extent, and his translation of Chinese poems was to introduce and spread a new literature atmosphere in the US. In this case, his attitude towards Chinese poems and culture could only be some kind of 'borrowing' and 'making use of' like what Lu Xun called '拿来主义', instead of a pure respect to Chinese culture. With such an attitude, most of his translations have a postmodern feature, and was called Cultural Colonialism by some critics. But we don't have to be so radical. Objectively speaking, Snyder's

translation is quite successful either in its language or in the influence in the society. It does contribute a lot in popularizing Chinese culture and Chinese poems in the western world.

One important fact we haven't mentioned up till now is that Gary Snyder was not only a translator but also a poet himself. He had been greatly influenced by Ezra Pound, the leader of American Imagism. According to Pound, 'an image is that which presents as intellectual and emotional complex in an instant of time'. Though image is a new concept to western readers, it has long been a basic principle of poem creation and evaluation in Chinese culture. Ezra Pound knew this, so he studied a lot about Chinese poems and learned a lot from them. He also translated some poems, though they can hardly be recognized by the SL speakers. Snyder's poet composition also presents a strong influence by Imagism of Chinese culture. The following is one of his works:

Pine Tree Tops
 In the blue night
 frost haze, the sky glows
 with the moon
 pine tree tops
 bend snow-blue, fade
 into sky, frost, starlight.
 The creak of boots.
 Rabbit tracks, deer tracks,
 what do we know.
 By Gary Snyder

Read this poem and we can soon associate it with the image in one of Wang Wei's works '明月松间照，清泉石上流'. It is quite reasonable to imagine that Snyder had learned from these images in ancient Chinese poems and further developed them in his own writings. His practice is similar to what many Chinese translators and poets do in the New Culture Movement of China at the beginning of the 20th century. They translated and learned from the new style poems of western cultures so as to reconstruct the traditional Chinese culture. Here, the development of western culture and eastern culture seem to have a surprising similarity.

IV. CONCLUSION

From the above discussion and analysis on Snyder's translation of ancient Chinese poems we can have such an idea that Snyder's practice is a combination of social demand and his personal affection for Chinese culture. Just like those Chinese scholars in the New Culture Movement, Snyder looked for new religious support and new aesthetic values in Chinese culture so as to reconstruct the traditional western cultures, which he believed had stepped into a wrong direction. Such kind of translation practice may bring about some criticism as it may be regarded as exploitation to the source culture. However, it does contribute a lot to popularizing the source culture in the target culture and in turn promotes the communication between different countries and different cultures in the world.

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Critical Thinking in Education: Globally Developed and Locally Applied

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Abstract—Critical Thinking encompasses a set of skills including the ability to assess reasons properly, probe into pertinent evidence and figure out fallacious arguments in educational settings. Developing critical thinking or promoting the ability to think critically is a prime goal of education (Birjandi and Bagherkazemi, 2010; Bailin et al., 1991a.). A key factor to improving educational standards is training teachers into employing classroom strategies that encourage critical thinking. This paper wishes to take a fundamental look at the application of critical thinking to education in an Iranian context through analyzing its scope, significance, the need for, and strategies employed to enhance critical thinking (CT) in educational contexts.

Index Terms—critical thinking, education, strategies, enhancement, educational contexts, pedagogy

I. INTRODUCTION

Leafing through the literature on critical thinking (CT), one can infer that it means different to different people. The aim of this article is to review the *raison d'être* for critical thinking and its influence on education. It can be defined as the degree to which students report applying previous knowledge to new situations to solve problems, reach decisions, or make critical evaluations with respect to standards of excellence. CT is described as a form of higher order cognitive engagement; students who use deep strategies may then demonstrate greater levels of critical thinking, relative to students who tend to use surface strategies. Wright (2002) introduces a set of rationales for teaching CT among which are the following:

- As citizens, we have to make decisions about who to vote for and what stance to take on issues.
- Understanding any discipline or subject area requires that we understand and critique the claims made within that discipline.
- CT can help us sort out conflicting claims we often confront.
- CT is useful in making personal decisions.
- CT would intercept emotional judgments on moral issues.
- If we want our children to become independent decision makers, we should teach them how to think critically.
- Winning arguments becomes easier through critical thinking.

Within the framework of skepticism, CT is synonymous with informal logic. According to Shaffer (2005), the standards for what is considered critical thinking in many other contexts can be less rigorous and should be examined carefully on a case by case basis (p.103).

A. *Annals of Critical Thinking*

The notion of critical thinking is by no means new. Socrates, more than 2000 years ago realized that people cannot justify their claims easily. In order to justify one's claim Socrates believed that seeking reasons, obtaining evidence, questioning assumptions, analyzing concepts, and figuring out the implications of what was believed and acted upon were all necessary. The foundation of western philosophy was also erected by other Greek scholars such as Plato and Aristotle originating in Socrates' ideas. Rene Descartes in his *Rules for the Direction of the Mind*, emphasized the importance of subjecting all beliefs to critical scrutiny.

Five philosophers of education namely, Robert Ennis, Richard Paul, John McPeck, Harvey Siegel, and Jane Roland Martin hold differing and debatable perspectives on CT.

Ennis (1996) defends a conception of critical thinking based primarily in particular skills, such as a observing, inferring, generalizing, reasoning, evaluating reasoning, and the like. For him, critical thinking is the correct assessing of statements. Like Ennis, Paul (1982) emphasizes the skills and processes associated with critical thinking. He distinguishes critical thinking in the weak sense from critical thinking in the strong sense. Unlike Ennis and Paul, McPeck (1981) argues that critical thinking is specific to a particular discipline, and that it depends on the thorough knowledge and understanding of the content and epistemology of the discipline. For him, critical thinking cannot be

taught independently of a particular subject domain. Siegel stresses a strong conceptual connection between critical thinking and rationality. For him, critical thinking means to be appropriately moved by reasons. Martin (1992) emphasizes the dispositions associated with critical thinking, and suggests that it is motivated by and founded in moral perspectives and particular values.

B. Scope of Critical Thinking

Rationality and critical thinking form 'an ideal appropriate to all education and to all students' (Siegel, 1997, p.2). The emphasis on rational autonomy in educational aims has resulted in a curriculum and an implied view of personhood that stresses the achievement of certain standards in critical thinking as a priority. For some, Doddington believes as cited in Mason (2008) "priority extends beyond education with the suggestion that critical thinking has a central value for society itself".

There is some debate in the field as to whether critical thinking is generalisable or domain-specific. Wright (2002) points out that without critical thinking, there would be little human progress and employers want people who can think critically. The domain extends from personal decisions to online oral arguments.

Mason (2008) considers critical thinking as the ability to use a range of information derived from many different sources, to process this information in a creative and logical manner, challenging it, analyzing it and arriving at considered conclusions which can be defended and justified. To analyze critical thinking, empathy, culture and history are to be taken into account. This viewpoint has been supported by Mason through the definitions offered for CT (ibid., p. 22). It is the understanding of a problem and how to evaluate the problem in various situations.

It is thinking about an issue or problem without allowing conventional limits, boundaries and conventions to restrict the generation of your analysis or solution. CT covers the evaluation of many different sources such as the work of writers of articles, journals or books and the use of serial sources of written information. Perhaps the most direct challenge in relation to the domain of critical thinking is in the practices of problem-solving and decision-making.

The notion of critical thinking appears in a number of areas of education. It is relevant to all learners despite the fact that the term is used much more in the arts and humanities, and less in the sciences. However, in what might be seen as a subject that bridges humanities, science and psychology, Moon (2008) believes the literature would suggest that critical thinking is seen as particularly important.

C. The Need for CT in Educational Contexts

We all know that the world is changing rapidly and everyday humans are faced with new questions in all walks of life including education. CT is not only concerned with substantive phenomenal issues such as decisions on nuclear disarmament, cloning, or religious radicalism, but also can be associated with as simple issues as a minor decision made by a teacher about an unruly student in the classroom. In Wrights' words, we seem to be able to solve all kinds of technical problems, such as how to build a space station or develop a faster computer chip, but we do not seem to fare so well with problems involving our social and personal lives. Science cannot answer questions about what we should do or what is good or bad. It cannot tell us who makes a good friend. It is here that critical thinking has practical values.

Our geography of thought in this paper shows various educational needs for critical thinking. In a critical thinking course, it is very common that students are taught to apply a set of fundamental principles of logic and to avoid falling into the traps of a number of fallacious or biased patterns of thinking mostly politically directed. Mason (2008, p.61) points out that the complexity involved in putting logical reasoning into practice has often been neglected and students often find it difficult to apply the fundamental principles in their academic work. The students need the ability to apply them.

Teachers, also, need to be able to use critical thinking in the task of teaching. If teachers, Mason (2008, p.6) believes, had a better understanding of the adaptive character of human reasoning, they would appreciate that students' logical reasoning also has to be trained in a domain-specific or context-sensitive way. In other words, the ability to reason needs to be developed and that it takes time for students to master this ability and use it in different contexts.

One of the crucial aspects of critical thinking is to realize that we all reason from within a point of view. We have to analyze and evaluate our point of view and recognize and evaluate those of others. If we do not do so, we are likely to become dogmatic and prejudiced, and we will miss the opportunity to consider perspectives that could be valuable. Not recognizing the validity of others' points of view is disrespectful but accepting them without judgment can be dangerous also. According to Richard Paul (1994), a point of view is made up of purposes, questions, evidence, beliefs, a language, and conclusions and decisions. Identifying, understanding, and evaluating points of view is vital in all subject areas and in all phases of school life this leaves us to consider how we can help students think critically about the values that often shape viewpoints. None of the activities described so far can occur in classrooms where right answers are always expected. Building a classroom community of thinkers is important for a couple of reasons. First, critical thinking is not a set of abilities that one uses from time to time, like the abilities used when swimming or riding a bike. Critical thinking is a way of approaching almost everything in and out of the classroom. Second, the classic image of the lone thinker is misleading; we should not expect to be able to think through all our problems by ourselves. Just imagine classroom groupwork; this approach provides a far superior education. We can learn from one another. But many children may be unwilling or unable to involve themselves in group discussions. They may not listen well, react badly to what they perceive as criticism when someone disagrees with them, and not know how to monitor what they

say, or lack confidence in their ability to add to the discussion. To help develop the conditions necessary to create a community, we need to establish appropriate expectations, model critical thinking, design suitable activities, and teach them the tools for good critical thinking. As Wright recommends, everyone in the classroom should have the expectation that controversial matters can be discussed, as long as they are approached with caution. When disagreement exists, we all must be open to points of view other than our own. This may mean that we suggest to learners that they consider other points of view or that we present other points of view to them. We should tell children that critical thinking is not easy. If they know they cannot expect always to arrive at right answers, they will not become frustrated or discouraged with issues that remain unclear. We also should expect the rules for good discussion to be respected: no one dominates the conversation, everyone listens attentively, participants ask questions of each other, they direct their remarks to each other (not just to the teacher), and they ask for and give reasons for their thinking and opinions.

If the one learners to be good critical thinkers, we must model the necessary attributes ourselves. We can do this in a number of ways. Initially, we should admit that we do not know the answers. This is not an admission of 'weakness': but not knowing is not the same as presenting ourselves as idiots. Critical thinking simply cannot flourish in classrooms where teachers think they know everything (Wright, *ibid.*).

If students need to be more aware of the natural and cultural contexts in which their thinking patterns are embedded, they should become more sensitive to their own ways of thinking and as Mason (*ibid.*) concludes, less likely to misapply them or make hasty judgements based on them.

II. PEDAGOGY OF CRITICAL THINKING

Providing an overview of pedagogical issues in CT, we try to identify some principles on which it is based. Although thinking and representation of thinking are different, they are used interchangeably because of having much in common. The notion of depth in CT is closely associated with the level of epistemological development of the thinker (Moon, 2008, p. 126). The variation in depth and its association with epistemological development indicate that critical thinking develops as a capacity and that this development needs to be taken into account in pedagogical thinking (*ibid.*).

The aims of a pedagogy of CT, according to Moon (2008) are to enable learners to:

- Shift from an absolutist conception of knowledge towards contextual knowing (in Baxter Magolda's terminology);
- Shift from superficial or descriptive responses to critical issues, towards depth in response;
- Understand the context in which CT is required, and to respond at the appropriate depth;
- Display flexibility in thinking;
- Use creativity in CT in an appropriate manner;
- Discuss issues of objectivity and subjectivity with respect to their thinking processes.

The point that is often lost about CT is that the nature of an individual is under the control of that individual and one person cannot make another think critically, rather facilitate or foster it through different strategies. Meyers (1986) advocates it and asserts 'we facilitate or foster CT through the tasks set, the habits formed by learners, the careful provision of feedback and the understanding of the teacher and the classroom atmosphere.'

There are a number of major strategies for encouraging CT. However, we assume no one can claim that a strategy is the absolute right or absolute wrong. Lipman (1991) suggests that CT is facilitated through the teaching of philosophy to all students. This view is exemplified in the pattern of the International Baccalaureate (IB) in which there is a study of 'Theory of Knowledge' alongside several other disciplines (International Baccalaureate, 2005).

Brookfield (1987), as an example of a strategy, advocates the introduction of CT as a topic apart from the disciplines studied. In line with Brookfield's position, Carey and Smith (1999), talking about younger students, suggest that there may often be a discrepancy between the stage of a 'common-sense' learning and the stage that drives thinking on scientific work at school or college. So, the possibility of work at more sophisticated levels of thinking when the topic is related to everyday life is suggested (Moon, 2008, p. 131).

Some interesting principles worth mentioning:

- The support of CT development in a student needs to be responsibility of all staff who work with students.
- All teaching should challenge the learner to shift his/her thinking along the epistemological development continuum as well as developing CT.
- The significance of the atmosphere of a class needs to be recognized.
- The classroom should feel as if it easily tolerates risk-taking.
- Deliberately encouraged interaction between students should be developed.
- The kind of assessment clarifies what we require from learners.
- Learners should be provided with examples of CT showing the quality or standard of work expected.

A. Encouraging CT in Educational Contexts in Iran

During the past 20 years numerous conferences, journals, curriculums and programs have been developed and allocated to CT. The impact of CT in education has been summarized by Wright (*ibid.*) as helping children grapple with

the subject matter in a more profound way; it helps them make decisions; it helps them understand and critique other points of view; it helps develop competent, responsible citizens.

Alan Sears and Jim Parsons (1991) outlined a number of characteristics that teachers must embody if they want to encourage critical thought in students.

- We have to accept that knowledge can be subject to change.
- We have to encourage the asking of questions-any questions, even ones that challenge our own beliefs.
- We have to seek out and have empathy for alternative viewpoints.
- We have to tolerate ambiguity.

Far back in 1947, William Sumner the American anthropologist, highlighted the significance of CT in educating the society: the critical habit of thought, if usual in a society will pervade all its conventions, because it is a matter of taking up the problems of life. Men educated in it cannot be stampeded by stump orators. They are slow to believe. They can wait for evidence and weigh evidence, uninfluenced by the emphasis or confidence with which assertions are made on one side or the other. They can resist appeals to their dearest prejudices and all kinds of cajolery. Education in the critical faculty is the only education to make good citizens. Although young children (and many adults) are not endowed with the disposition to think critically, they have the potential to develop and build on it through proper training. One lesson that children and adults have to learn is that not everything we think is true actually is true. Children can learn that their truth is not necessarily someone else's truth and can be helped to sort out which assertions are to be believed and which are not. When children get to school, I often think that we discourage rather than encourage the disposition to ask questions (Wright, *ibid*).

Examining the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' critical thinking ability and their student-evaluated professional success, Birjandi and Bagherkazemi (2010) concluded that better critical thinkers turned out to be better EFL teachers.

We can think critically about whether a work of art is excellent or whether a career in teaching is worthwhile. In all the above, we need background knowledge, the ability to establish criteria or to evaluate those that are pre established, skills of argument, strategies for arriving at decisions, and the dispositions necessary to be a critical thinker.

B. Bloom's Taxonomy of Critical Thinking and Reforms in Iranian Educational Policies

Benjamin Bloom describes the major areas of the taxonomy in the cognitive domain. As Bellis (2011) put it, the taxonomy begins by defining **knowledge** as the remembering of previously learned material. Knowledge, according to Benjamin Bloom, represents the lowest level of learning outcomes in the cognitive domain. Knowledge is followed by **comprehension**, the ability to grasp the meaning of material and goes just beyond the knowledge level. Comprehension is the lowest level of understanding. **Application** is the next area in the hierarchy and refers to the ability to use learned material in new and concrete principles and theories. Application requires a higher level of understanding than comprehension.

The next area of the taxonomy is **analysis** in which the learning outcomes require an understanding of both the content and the structural form of material. Next is **synthesis**, which refers to the ability to put parts together to form a new whole. Learning outcomes at this level stress creative behaviours with a major emphasis on the formulation of new patterns or structures. The last level of the taxonomy is **evaluation**. Evaluation is concerned with the ability to judge the value of material for a given purpose. The judgements are to be based on definite criteria. Bellis (2011) believes that learning outcomes in this area are the highest in the cognitive hierarchy because they incorporate or contain elements of knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, and synthesis.

Forehand (2011) holds that throughout the years, the levels have often been depicted as a stairway, leading many teachers to encourage their students to "climb to a higher (level of) thought." The lowest three levels are: knowledge, comprehension, and application. The highest three levels are: analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

During the 1990's, a former student of Bloom's, Lorin Anderson, led a new assembly which met for the purpose of updating the taxonomy. This time "representatives of three groups [were present]: cognitive psychologists, curriculum theorists and instructional researchers, and testing and assessment specialists"(Forehand, 2011). Published in 2001, the revision includes several seemingly minor yet actually quite significant changes. Several excellent sources are available which detail the revisions and reasons for the changes. A more concise summary appears here. The changes occur in three broad categories: terminology, structure, and emphasis.

Many revolutions are underway around the world. CT is the area that has drawn the attention of Iran's policy makers especially in education. Some doubts have been cast over the trend of university entrance examination and better criteria especially from CT approach are going to be applied. The previous trend of assessment relied more on the lowest level of Bloom's taxonomy, knowledge. The new trend has a tendency toward the increasing the students' ability to applying the previous knowledge to new context.

III. STRATEGIES EMPLOYED TO ENHANCE CT IN EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS

Focusing on the how rather than what, three methods were suggested by Wright (2002) on teaching critical thinking. We can teach a separate course or units, we can infuse critical thinking into that we teach, or we can use a mixed approach.

The first approach of a separate course or unit requires materials that teach specifically for critical thinking dispositions, skills, and knowledge. Infusion, the second possible approach, requires that critical thinking be taught as an integral part of all subject areas. The benefits of combining the two basic approaches should be obvious, but whatever approach is taken needs to be adapted to the context. Of course to design activities that foster critical thinking about concepts, we first have to understand the attributes of the concepts to be taught. Wright (ibid.) suggests two basic questions to be posed by critical thinkers:

- Is what we are told true (including the observations and others)?
- Are observations reliable?

Scholars have developed many criteria which are not limited to a particular country. Ennis' criteria are best understood in an Iranian educational setting. Robert Ennis (1996), identifies the following criteria for evaluating the credibility of authorities or experts:

- The person has knowledge and expertise.
- The person has a good reputation.
- The person tells the truth in general and is usually correct in the area under discussion.
- What the person says is in agreement with others who are equally qualified.
- The person is careful in what is said; the matter is given thought.
- The person has no apparent conflict of interest.
- The person follows established procedures in arriving at the information.
- Person is aware that his or her reputation can be enhanced or damaged if what if he or she says is found to be true or false.

- The person can give reasons for saying that her or his statements are true.

Norris and King (1985), identify criteria they feel must be made for an observer to be considered reliable:

- Does not allow emotion to interfere
- Has no conflict of interest
- Has senses that function properly
- Has a good reputation
- Uses appropriate observation instruments
- Was in a suitable physical position to observe
- Makes statements that are confirmed by others, or are confirmable

Wright underscores a number of ways we can enhance critical thinking using classroom routines and activities:

- We regularly use the vocabulary of critical thought.
- We consider the topic of the unit of the study
- We create assignments that call for critical thinking
- When topics seem not to lend themselves to critical thinking, we create activities that promote it
- We regularly ask children to peruse curriculum materials, newspapers and other media sources to identify the points of view from which they are written, along with any biases, stereotypes, and fallacies in reasoning.
- We consider learners' ideas seriously and use criteria that they generate for evaluation purposes
- The ask learners to consider issues from points of view other than their own.
- We ask a lot of questions and expect class members to do the same.

There are many strategies developed to enhance CT among which we can refer to three major areas.

A. *Encouragement of CT through the Process of Assessment*

Critical thinking is involved in assessment in a number of ways.

1. Involving learners in the development of assessment criteria.

If students are to be engaged in the development criteria, a decision needs to be made as which kind of criteria are to be developed – threshold criteria, or those associated with marking, grading criteria (Moon, 2002). Students, in groups, generate some appropriate assessment criteria based on the sample given. The list of collected criteria is reconsidered and a suitable number are selected.

2. Peer assessment

It involves students in marking the work of their peers on the basis of the given criteria. A general principle if we are to get learners involved in looking at each other's work, is that they understand the difference between being critical in a negative manner and being constructive.

3. Self-assessment

Here, students assess their own work against a set of criteria. They thereby learn metacognitive skills and learn to make judgements and gradually learn to do their work better.

4. Testing as a means of fostering critical thinking

Young (1980c) holds that one means of encouraging learners to develop CT skills is the use of tests. This will enable them to learn where they are working appropriately and where inappropriately – so long as the test matches the conception of critical thinking.

In all of them there is something in common. The element of judgment is observed in all criteria. So, we might claim that in the process of assessment of critical thinking, practice of judgement is provided.

B. Critical Thinking Developed through Oral Work

It is valuable to encourage the oral expression of ideas. Moon (ibid.) believes that self-expression is an important self-development skill and the exposure to the views of others helps learners to recognize the need to take multiple perspectives into account in the process of critical thinking. Many forms are introduced to be useful: debate, group critical thinking tasks under time pressure, quick think, conversational questions, critical friends, other literature relating to the oral aspect of critical thinking.

Landis et al. (2011) point out that computer mediated communication (CMC) provides a social context for learning that gives learners time to think about their contributions and organize their thoughts prior to responding. Most educators who have worked extensively with online education realize that determining whether this form of teaching can have a positive effect on students' level of critical thinking, is an important area of inquiry. Their study cast doubt on the reliability of instruments used during the assessment of that kind of discourse.

Other studies confirm that the enhancement of students' critical thinking ability is influenced by different strategies among which we refer to those suggested by Brahler, et al. (2002). They pointed to the learning environment, the social context of the learning environment, and the instructor's approach to teaching. 'Nontraditional instructional approaches that support student-centered, small group collaborative learning may enhance student critical thinking skills and result in high-quality educational outcomes (p. 220). Debate is designed to enact critical thinking. Tutorial groups can be good situations for debate. Care should be taken that everyone gets involved. One way of ensuring the involvement is to prepare a case either for or against.

C. Writing and Critical Thinking

The links between critical thinking and writing go beyond the process of getting the content of the critical mind onto paper or screen. The production of a written version of thoughts provides a chance for review. So the writer of a text can judge whether the material on paper or screen says what s/he needed to say, and s/he duly revises it, or not. Once thinking is represented in writing, it can be seen, assessed and judged by others. Exercises in writing skills may concern the skills of writing that are associated with critical thinking or critical thinking as represented in writing. Below appear some areas of writing tasks:

1. Writing tasks that aim to improve the representation and process of CT in the early stages

Moon (ibid.) introduces five exercises that, she believes, are particularly useful for students in the early stages of critical thinking.

1. Summarizing and the ability to write a conclusion.
2. Summarizing the evidence.
3. Taking different disciplinary perspectives.
4. Making a judgement.
5. Making a judgement, starting from another perspective.

We don't see any problems with the above exercises. However, we don't know the reason behind the number of exercises. There is no need to introduce the last two exercises. In all processes of critical thinking the element of judgement is present and all exercises involving critical thinking contain judgement.

2. Writing tasks to further the capacity in critical thinking

The next set of exercises appears useful for students in the middle or towards the end of their undergraduate studies.

- 1) The use of concept maps
- 2) A fictitious debate
- 3) Practice of peer review skills
- 4) Mark an essay in which critical thinking is represented
- 5) Recognition of the roles of referencing in the written form of CT
- 6) Recognition and development of the 'playing with ideas' form of writing
- 7) 'Compare and contrast' tasks
- 8) Finding different perspectives on the same issue

D. Reading and Critical Thinking

Many of the activities listed in the section on writing and critical thinking would be relevant to the development of reading skills since there is mutual reinforcement in the processes. Moon (ibid.) the role of purpose in reading critically is very important. A sense of purpose should direct the criticality. As in writing, there are generic skills involved in reading, in addition to those directly associated with critical processes.

As in many activities, however, there are two activities involved in reading- the mental reading process and the representation of that reading, the notes made (Moon 2008, p.156). Note making and recognizing the structure of text are the factors which are focused very much in reading critically.

IV. CONCLUSION

This article gains insights into the significance, necessity of teaching and learning of critical thinking. CT can empower people to reason well about problems and issues. We should accept the fact that students have to make

judgements from time to time and a critical thinker is a person who makes appropriate judgements in particular circumstances. Also, some of the major strategies employed to teaching critical thinking were introduced and evaluated. To conclude, believing that the notion of CT appears in a number of areas especially in education, we need to bear in mind that critical thinking needs to be encouraged, developed and practiced through employing certain educational strategies due to the kind of skill we choose to reinforce.

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Strategies of Developing Bilingualism in Higher Education Institution in China

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Abstract—Bilingual Education of Higher Education Institution in China (BEHIC) has been developed quickly in the last 10 years. However the lack of systematic theoretical and practical research hinders the development of BEHIC. In order to maintain multicultural feature in economy and politics, the strategies of developing BEHIC are to be studied in the research.

Index Terms—bilingualism, higher education institution, development, problems, strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Bilingualism refers to the phenomenon of competence and communication in two languages. A bilingual individual is someone who has the ability to communicate in two languages alternately. Such an ability or psychological state in the individual has been referred to as bilinguality (Hamers and Blanc, 2000).

Bilingual education in higher education institutions in China (BEHIC) has developed quickly in the last 10 years. The status of BEHIC was approved by government policies. Different studies have been made about BEHIC, such as teaching research, subject reform, teaching assessment, teaching staff training, students ability training, teaching material development, original edition teaching material introducing and integrating. The BEHIC shows its good development momentum.

Because of the language barrier of teaching and learning in BEHIC, the arguments has been born together with bilingual education. One worry is the bilingual education may become the burden of quality and quantity control of course teaching plan; the other worry is the efficiency and operability of bilingual education. In the forum of BEHIC organized by Education Ministry in 2004, experts spoke out their worries, “the main barriers of bilingual education at present are the foreign language level of teaching staff and students, the selection of teaching material and the financial input”. They pointed out that bilingual education was not language oriented and it could not be implemented solely with lowering education quality of the course.

BEHIC should be based on the educational psychology and make the balance of language study and academic study. Through the study of cognitive psychology of university students and their attitudes towards learning a foreign language, the strong desire of learning and the negative mentality coexist among the group of people who are aged from 18 to 25. BEHIC has its special foreign language acquisition feature and complementary benefit to academic study. The study of university students’ physiology and psychology shows that bilingual education based on academic study can provide effective virtual context which the traditional education cannot offer. Psychological satisfaction is a good motivation for language study and the extra benefit of language acquisition from academic study can boost the academic pursuit.

II. THE DEVELOPMENT OF BEHIC IN CHINA

BEHIC in China is the result of economic globalization and the need of international political, cultural and economic communication. The four documents issued by Education Ministry of China mark the four development stages of BEHIC.

The first document is *Several Viewpoints of Improving Teaching Quality of Higher Education* (Education Ministry 2001). In the document, it says, “Education should be oriented towards modernization, the world, the future”. In order to face the challenge of economic globalization and scientific and technology revolution, university education is supposed to use English and other foreign languages in teaching common required courses and academic courses, especially the biotechnology, information technology in the high-tech area and international finance and laws. In 3 years’ time, 5% to 10% of the modules should be taught in English or other foreign languages. If the condition in a university cannot offer bilingual education, some modules can be taught in Chinese language but with teaching material in foreign languages. Bilingual education should be employed gradually.

The second is *Several Viewpoints on Strengthening the University Undergraduate Teaching Work* (Higher Education Branch of Education Ministry 2005). In this document, it pointed that university students’ ability of international communication and cooperation should be improved through the reform of College English teaching reform. Higher education institutes should make use of the reform of college English, promote the college English learning based on computer and campus internet, and develop individualized learning system to improve students’ comprehensive skills in

using English, especially listening and speaking ability.

The third document is *Several Viewpoints on Deepening Undergraduate Teaching Reform and Comprehensively Improving Teaching Quality* (Education Ministry 2007). It pointed, "Encourage bilingual education, introducing foreign scholars and experts to take bilingual teaching work in academic modules. Encourage and support overseas graduates to teach academic module in English. Therefore the specialized English level and ability of students should be improved.

The fourth document is *Evaluation Index System of Undergraduate Teaching Work in General Institutes of Higher Education* (Education Ministry 2007). A: Motivation measures and policies made for bilingual education; The ratio of bilingual-taught modules over the whole course modules is equals or over 10%, especially in the field of biotechnology, information technology, finance and laws; Implement bilingual education in other courses actively. B: Emphasis on bilingual education; the ratio reaches a certain standard. Bilingual education is defined as "A teaching model of using a foreign language other than mother language in teaching non-language modules directly and acquiring a foreign language and academic knowledge simultaneously". The exact ration is declared as Bilingual-taught module refers to using teaching material in a foreign language and the total contact hours taught in a foreign language is no less than 50% (Language course is not included in the range of bilingual-taught module).

As for the promotion of Education Ministry of China, bilingual education sprung up rapidly in higher education institution. Many universities get strong support in training teaching staff, equipping teaching facilities in bilingual education. More and more universities have been promoting the bilingual education and great progress is made in the discipline of economy, law and medicine. Independent curriculum was made in the field of international economy and trading.

Many measures are implemented to carry out BEHIC. For the teaching plan, in the Year 1, intensive English language training modules are open besides foundation modules. In the following schooling years, some of the academic foundation modules and academic core modules are taught in 100% English of 50% English with English teaching material and PPT. 3-5 foreign experts are invited to teach some of the core modules. Opportunities of exchange study overseas of internship for one or two semesters can be offered for undergraduates with the cooperation with higher institutions and companies abroad. The credits earned abroad are part of the total credits that should be earned to get a degree certificate. The thesis should be written and defending in English. Some courses with plenty of overseas student are taught in English only. According to the statistics, The number of National Model Bilingual Courses is 97 in 2007, 100 in 2008, 152 in 2009 and 151 in 2010.

III. THE PROBLEMS OF BEHIC

Although there is great progress of bilingual education in higher education institutes in China, many problems still hinder the development of bilingual education in China.

A. *Insufficient Theoretical and Practical Research*

Bilingual education involves in pedagogy, sociology, linguistics, psychology, sociology and politics. Only the methodology research is far enough to meet with the demand of bilingual education development. Some universities just follow the policy of government without deep research or considering the effect of bilingual education. It is necessary to build up systematic research system from government to teaching staff. Special research institution should be set up to make study of BEHIC so as to guide the practice of BEHIC.

B. *Insufficient Essential Contribution of Bilingual Education*

UNESCO has made a format of teaching quality assessment, teaching quality = (students + teaching material + environment + teaching methodology)*teaching staff. The entire five elements that contribute to teaching quality of bilingual education have their problems.

1. The serious insufficient teaching staff

The insufficiency of teaching staff restricts the development of bilingual education in higher education institution in China. The resources pool of bilingual teaching staff is limited. One is the English language teacher who goes for further education in some specialty; the other is academic teacher with proficient foreign language skills. The problems are English language teachers' knowledge of specialty is nor broad and deep enough and academic teacher's spoken and listening skills are not good enough to communicate in the foreign language freely. Neither can satisfy the bilingual teaching fully. The introducing of foreign experts can help with the bilingual education. But in most cases the real expert cannot stay long in China to teach one or two semesters, much less the academic research.

2. The choice of teaching material

There are 4 general ways of choosing teaching material and each has its limits. The first is original edition (gravure). It is difficult for undergraduates and the price is usually much higher than the local books of the same kind. The second is self-edited, which is students-oriented and changes with the time, but lack of authentic language expression. The third is using Chinese edition teaching material and English PPT, of which the shortcoming is obvious that students will not even have material to read as reference in the target language. The fourth is the translated materials. The translation level itself is a problem

3. The students' receptivity

Bilingual education requires students' English language skills and the ability of expressing academic knowledge in English. Students' English level is different. Only a few students can use English freely to express themselves. Thus the results of bilingual education are not encouraging and students lose their confidence gradually.

4. Study environment

Both in-class and outside class environment is poor. The size of class is one of the vital problems of university education. The normal size is more than 100 students in one class. It is very hard to have face-to-face discussion, presentation or the other ways to deliver the bilingual modules efficiently. The outside class environment for bilingual education is very limit. No legal status for bilingual BEHIC although the ministry of education issued several documents of viewpoints for BEHIC. The foundation of bilingual education in elementary and middle-school period has not paved a smooth way for university bilingual education.

5. Limit teaching methodology of BEHIC

Besides the introduction of some teaching methodologies of bilingual education abroad, there is little study of teaching methodology of BEHIC. Bilingual education in different countries and cases should be analyzed and local feature of BEHIC should be considered into the efficient delivery during teaching and learning.

IV. THE STRATEGIES OF RESEARCH TO IMPROVE THE BEHIC

The recognition of bilingualism as a social, individual and linguistic phenomenon has several implications for educational practice. In order to solve the problems and improve the BEHIC, the following research needs to be done.

To begin with, teachers have to appreciate the sociolinguistic circumstances surrounding the development of bilingual competencies in their students. If they are in positions of power and influence, they could try to propose to their governments or institutions educational models appropriate for their circumstances. A first task is therefore to understand the sociolinguistic situation in their particular society or community as well as to identify the assumptions behind any bilingual education model.

Secondly, a survey of the literature also makes apparent that each community is not exactly the same. Although lessons can be learned from understanding another community, a model that may work for one community may not work for another. The earlier the teacher realizes this, the more realistic he or she can be. If the teacher is not in a position to influence the model of bilingual education imposed on the classroom, he or she can still try to see what positive attitudes towards bilingualism can be encouraged in the learners. For a start, he or she must realize that demands may be placed on the bilingual ethnic minority child and must be sensitive to cross cultural identity issues. If the teacher can try to foster cross cultural openness and learn to become bicultural—if not bilingual—it will provide some motivation to learners. Every effort, no matter how small, to learn the learner's language is usually appreciated. Rather than presenting the learning of two languages as onerous, the teacher can also point out to students the advantages of knowing more than one language and design tasks to enable them to appreciate such enrichment opportunities in their environment. If the teacher is bilingual, It may also be useful to recount to students his or her experience of becoming bilingual. This, in turn, will give rise to opportunities for learners to share their experiences as well. With a positive attitude towards bilingualism, the teacher and learners can then work together to enable the learners to make appropriate language choices for different situations as well as observe the nuances in mixed mode interaction.

Thirdly, appropriate incentive system and teaching staff training of bilingual education should be set up. Teaching bilingual course needs more time to prepare for it and the fluent language skills needs more exposure to language environment. Extra financial payment should be made for bilingual teaching staff themselves and the training in home or abroad universities to improve their professional quality.

Fourthly, appropriate bilingual teaching material should be chosen or developed. Original foreign teaching material should be selected from the publishing products. Essential and difficult points should be annotated in Chinese and specialized vocabulary should be made as appendix. Some good books edited or co-edited by Sino-foreign experts or Chinese experts solely can be chosen as bilingual course as well (Yin Hou, 2008) Students should get involved in teaching material selecting and developing to arouse their interest in the subject. Students can have more to say whether the books suit their academic needs and language level or not. Teaching staff's responsibility is to find the efficient and effective way in how to deliver and organize the information.

Fifthly, appropriate assessment system and teaching methodologies of students learning should be studied. Because of the difference background of students' foreign language and academic level, the ratio of using a foreign language in class should be geared by students' foreign language level and ability of receptivity. More work like knowing students degree of recognition and receptivity should be done through tests, talking and net answer system. As for the essential and difficult points, teacher should use Chinese to repeat and emphasize it to make sure the right understanding of the knowledge. Assessment system should be borrowed and developed from the successful experience of the other countries.

V. CONCLUSION

The multifaceted nature of the phenomenon of bilingualism needs to be fully appreciated for any pedagogical

programme designed to foster bilingual development to succeed. To study bilingualism is to study the interaction between linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, pedagogy and the real world of language politics and policy. To be able to appreciate such interactions in changing times and adjust classroom practice in the light of changes is the hallmark of a professional language teacher.

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The Importance of Whole Language Approach in Teaching English to Intermediate Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—The main objective of this study is to emphasize on whole language approach developing mainly the two primary skills of reading and writing in varying degrees and combinations. Based on a language proficiency test, out of 150 senior EFL learners from Azad University of Torbat Heydariye, 90 were chosen and defined as intermediate learners. Two expository reading and writing tests were taken and the results were compared with four reading and four writing scores which were defined as their general reading and writing scores. The results were analyzed using the SPSS software and some correlation and ANOVA analyses were run. The correlation coefficients along with the scatter plot matrix showed strong, weak and in some cases partial correlations among the scales. The results of the post hoc tests of the repeated measures of ANOVA and the pairwise comparison of the measures also showed that the EFL learners performed almost equally well on the skills of reading and writing, but with expository writing and expository reading texts the performance was quite different. The concept of language proficiency was reconsidered in respect to the integrative approach's principles and some pedagogical implications in the field of language teaching were suggested.

Index Terms—whole language approach, reading, writing, intermediate learners

I. INTRODUCTION

If the aim of language teaching and learning is to develop learners' communicative competence, a whole language approach whereby all the skills are treated in a more interrelated way, should be at the heart of L2 classes and, whenever possible, they should be integrated as happens in actual language use. Teaching language as communication calls for an approach which brings linguistic skills and communicative abilities into close association with each other. One way to obtain this association is by using an integrated approach which gives the students greater motivation that converts to better retention of all the principles related to language learning (speaking, listening, reading, and writing).

This study seeks to answer the question of whether skills being taught are used in isolation or integrated with other skills. As Oxford (1990, pp. 5-6) maintains, "acquiring a new language necessarily involves developing the four primary skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing in varying degrees and combinations. These four skills also include associated skills, such as knowledge of vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, syntax, meaning, and usage". Thus, the skill strand of the tapestry, as Oxford put it, can lead to effective EFL communication when all the skills are interwoven during instruction.

We have taken reading and writing skills as the main concern of this study to see whether they have been treated as integrated or segregated. The reason for the inclusion of these two skills as the main concern of this study is that research has supported the view that developments in reading and writing are closely connected (Tierney & Pearson, 1983; Tierney, S ter, O'Flahavan, & McGinley (1984); Tierney & Shanahan (1991). The correlation and regression analyses of the results could also help the researchers to predict the strength and direction of such connections.

The previous scores of a senior group of TEFL students in their reading and writing courses have been collected and defined as general reading and writing test scores. These have been compared with the scores in what we have defined as expository reading and writing test scores (see Method). Based on the results and the literature review, which will follow, the following hypotheses and questions run as:

Research questions:

1. Do Iranian intermediate EFL learners' scores in their reading (reading 1, reading 2, reading 3, and simple prose) and writing skills (grammar 1, grammar 2, advanced grammar, and essay writing) have any correlations in themselves?
2. Do Iranian intermediate EFL learners' scores in their general reading and general writing skills have any correlations in themselves?

3. Do Iranian intermediate EFL learners' scores in expository reading and writing tests correlate with their general reading and writing scores?

4. Do Iranian intermediate EFL learners perform equally well on general reading, expository reading, general writing and expository writing tests?

Hypotheses:

1. Iranian intermediate EFL learners' scores in reading and writing skills have correlations.

2. Iranian intermediate EFL learners' scores in general reading and writing skills have correlations.

3. Iranian intermediate EFL learners' scores in expository reading and writing tests do not correlate with their general reading and writing scores.

4. Iranian intermediate EFL learners do not perform equally well on general reading, expository reading, general writing and expository writing tests.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In what follows, the related literature on the importance of integrated approach in general and the content-based language instruction and task-based language instruction in particular, as the two forms of integrated approach, will be discussed.

Tapestry is the metaphorical image suggested by Oxford (2001) for teaching English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL). The tapestry is woven from many strands, such as the characteristics of the teacher, the learner, the setting, and the relevant languages. In addition to the four strands, she notes, one of the most crucial of these strands consists of the four primary skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing. The skill strand of the tapestry leads to optimal ESL/EFL communication when the skills are interwoven during instruction. This is known as the integrated-skill approach or whole language approach. If this weaving together does not occur, the strand consists merely of discrete, segregated skills. This is sometimes known as the segregated-skill approach.

A. Segregated Vs. Integrated Approach

In the segregated-skill approach, the mastery of discrete language skills such as reading and speaking is seen as the key to successful learning, and language learning is typically separate from content learning (Mohan, 1986). Segregated-skill-oriented courses "have language itself as the focus of instruction to the extent that excessive emphasis on rules and paradigms teaches students a lot about language at the expense of teaching language itself" (Brown, 2000, p. 218). Frequently, segregated-skill ESL/EFL classes present instruction in terms of skill-linked learning strategies: reading strategies, listening strategies, speaking strategies, and writing strategies (Peregoy & Boyle, 2001).

The philosophy of integrated-skills instruction is based on the concept that in natural, day-to-day experience, oral and written languages are not kept separate and isolated from one another. (Finocchiaro & Bonomo, 1973; Peregoy & Boyle, 2001). According to Oxford, Lavine and Crookall (1989), Savignon (1991) and Larsen-Freeman (2000), the principles of CLT emphasize the importance of using a language to communicate in order to learn it. Hymes (1971) stresses that being able to communicate requires more than linguistic competence; it requires communicative competence. Whole language advocates, such as Goodman (1986), Weaver (1990), Edelsky, Altwerger & Flores (1991), Schwarzer (2001), and Brooks-Harper and Shelton (2003), state that language (oral and written) functions to serve authentic purposes by facilitating meaningful communication. No language process should be separated from the whole teaching task. Harste, Woodward, and Burke (1984) explain that each time someone reads, writes, speaks, or listens, this language encounter feeds into a common data pool. In subsequent encounters with language, the person can draw on this pool. Peregoy and Boyle (2001) suggest that reading and writing as well as speaking and listening should be integral parts of all language classroom activities because all these processes interact with one another.

There are at least two forms of instruction that are clearly oriented toward integrating the skills (Oxford, 2001). They are Content-Based Language Instruction (CBLI) and Task-Based Language Instruction (TBLI).

B. Content-based Language Instruction

CBLI bases its rationale on the premise that students can effectively obtain both language and subject matter knowledge by receiving content input in the target language. Although it has been recently recognized by authors such as Rodgers as "one of the Communicative Language Teaching spin-off approaches" (2001, p. 2), some authors contemplate the paradigm within an even wider perspective. According to Stryker and Leaver (1997, pp.3-5), for instance, CBLI "is a truly and holistic approach to foreign language education ... (which) can be at once a philosophical orientation, a methodological system, a syllabus design for a single course, or a framework for an entire program of instruction".

Brinton, Snow and Wesche (1989, p. 2) define CBI as "the integration of particular content with language teaching aims, or as the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills." According to Eskey (1997, pp. 139-40) "for every piece of content recognized, there is a discourse community which somehow provides us with the means to analyze, talk about, and write about that content".

Documentation on the original foundations of the paradigm can be found from the late eighties in the pioneering works by Mohan (1986), Cantoni-Harvey (1987), Crandall (1987), Benesch (1988), and Brinton et al. (1989) among

others. Despite its short lived presence in the foreign language teaching arena, now, at the beginning of the twenty first century, there exists a more than abundant literature recently published both in the form of books (Short, 1991; Krueger & Ryan, 1993; Snow & Brinton, 1997; Fruhauf, Coyle, & Christ, 1996; Stryker & Leaver, 1997; Marsh & Lang é 1999, 2000; Kasper, 2000a; Haley, 2002, among others), and articles in refereed journals (Crandall, 1994, 2006; Short, 1993, 1994; Gaffield-Vile, 1996; Kasper, 1995, 1997; Sagliano & Greenfield, 1998; Snow, 1998; Pally & Bailey, 1999; Dupuy, 2000, among many others).

According to Brinton et al. (1989) and Scarcella & Oxford (1992), at least three general models of content-based language instruction exist: theme-based (TB), adjunct, and sheltered. "In a theme-based course, the content is exploited and its use is maximized for the teaching of skill areas" (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 26). The TB model integrates the language skills into the study of a theme (e.g., urban violence, cross-cultural differences in marriage practices, natural wonders of the world, or a broad topic such as change). The theme must be very interesting to students and must allow a wide variety of language skills to be practiced, always in the service of communicating about the theme. This is the most useful and widespread form of content-based instruction today and it is found in many innovative ESL and EFL textbooks. Giauque (1987) described a theme-based French course in Greek mythology for third-year university students at Northern Arizona University in the U.S. Klahn (1997) also provides a detailed review of a course for advanced learners of Spanish centered on 'Contemporary Mexican Topics' developed for the School of International and Public Affairs (SIPA) of Columbia University (New York, US).

The adjunct model aims at connecting a specially designed language course with a regular academic course. Adjunct courses are taught to students who are simultaneously enrolled in the regular content course, but who lack the necessary competence to follow the course successfully unless some additional aid is provided. The adjunct courses work therefore as support classes for regular subject matter courses, and offer excellent opportunities to develop the academic strategies necessary to cope with real academic content. Detailed examples of the implementation of the model are provided, among others, in Flowerdew (1993) for teaching biology at a university in the Middle East, and in Iancu (1997) for teaching history and sociology at the George Fox University in Oregon (US).

In the sheltered model, the subject matter is taught in simplified English tailored to students' English proficiency level "A sheltered content-based course is taught in a second language by a content specialist to a group of learners who have been segregated or 'sheltered' from native speakers" (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 15). The term 'sheltered' derives from the model's deliberate separation of second language students from native speakers of the target language for the purpose of content instruction. Studies of this model at the University of Ottawa showed strong student gains in both subject matter and second language skills. These gains were equal to or better than those of comparison groups taking the course in their first language and students in regular French and ESL classes (Edwards, Wesche, Krashen, Clement, & Kruidenier, 1984; Hauptmann, Wesche & Ready, 1988). In the sheltered subject-matter instruction, the class is commonly taught by a content instructor, not a language teacher; this content instructor, however, has to be sensitized to the students' language needs and abilities, and has to be familiarized with the traits of the language acquisition process.

Stoller & Grabe (1997) argue that "practically all instruction is theme-based" (p. 7). They argue that sheltered and adjunct instruction are "not alternatives to theme-based instruction [but] rather...two methods for carrying out theme-based instruction. For this reason, [they] see the two terms, content-based instruction and theme-based instruction, as interchangeable" (p. 7). Despite the perceived differences in their orientation and immediate aims, all the models described share the view of language as a medium for learning content, and content as a resource for learning language.

C. Task-based Language Instruction (TBLI)

Nunan (1991, p. 279) characterizes TBI as an approach which highlights learning to communicate through interaction in the target language, introducing authentic texts to learning situations, enhancing the learner's own personal experiences, and linking classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom. TBLI is compatible with a learner-centered educational philosophy (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Ellis, 2003, 2005; Nunan, 2004, 2006), consists of particular components such as goal, procedure, specific outcome (Skehan, 1998; Murphy, 2003; Nunan, 2004), and advocates content-oriented meaningful activities rather than linguistic forms (Carless, 2002; Littlewood, 2004).

Task-based language education starts from the basic idea that students learn a language by performing tasks. The central tenet of task-based approach is the task itself. Many people in the related field have defined task from their particular perspectives. Second language acquisition researchers describe tasks in terms of their usefulness for collecting data and eliciting samples of learners' language for research purposes. For example, Bialystok (1983, p. 103) suggests that a communication task must (a) stimulate real communicative exchange, (b) provide incentive for the L2 speaker/learner to convey information, (c) provide control for the information items required for investigation and (d) fulfill the needs to be used for the goals of the experiment. Similarly, Pica (2005) argues that tasks should be developed in such a way to meet criteria for information control, information flow and goals of the study.

Others have looked at tasks from a purely classroom interaction perspective. Some definitions of a classroom task are very specific. For instance, J. Willis (1996, p. 53) defines a classroom task as "a goal-oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome." Willis also suggests that language use in tasks is likely to reflect language use in the outside world. Other definitions are more general. Nunan proposes that a communication task "is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target

language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form" (Nunan, 1989, p. 10). Long and Crookes (1991) argue that in addition to being meaning-oriented, classroom tasks must also have a clear relationship with real-world contexts of language use and language need. Skehan (1996a, p. 20) views classroom and L2 research tasks as "activities which have meaning as their primary focus. Success in the task is evaluated in terms of achievement of an outcome, and tasks generally bear some resemblance to real-life language use". Skehan (1998) also represents the core features of tasks within four defining criteria: there is a goal to be worked towards; the activity is outcome-evaluated; meaning is primary; and there is a real-world relationship. Candlin and Murphy (1987) assert that tasks can be effectively organized based on systematic components including goals, input, setting, activities, roles, and feedback. And finally, Ellis (2003, pp. 9–10) lists six "criterial features of a task". He mentions all the aspects listed by Skehan above, and also includes the concept of task as a "workplan for learner activity", which "requires learners to employ cognitive processes", and "can involve any of the four language skills".

In sum, the basic assumptions of TBLI, based on Feez (1998, p. 17), are as follows:

- the focus of instruction is on process rather than product.
- basic elements are purposeful activities and tasks that emphasize communication and meaning.
- learners learn language by interacting communicatively and purposefully while engaged in meaningful activities and tasks.
- activities and tasks can be either:
 - those that learners might need to achieve in real life
 - those that have a pedagogical purpose specific to the classroom.
- activities and tasks of a task-based syllabus can be sequenced according to difficulty.
- the difficulty of a task depends on a range of factors including the previous experience of the learner, the complexity of the tasks, and the degree of support available.

In line with the principles of an integrated approach, TBLI is a move away from grammar-based approaches where skills are treated as segregated. Armed with insights from SLA research findings and cognitive psychology, attempts have been made at effecting a transition from grammar-based to task-based instruction not just by researchers, but also by language teachers and practitioners (e.g. Bygate, Skehan & Swain, 2001; Ellis, 2000; Gilabert, 2007; Skehan, 1998, 2003; Oxford, 2006; Robinson & Gilabert, 2007).

Apart from highly gifted and motivated students, most learners working within a structure-based approach fail to attain a usable level of fluency and proficiency in the second language (L2) even after years of instruction (Skehan, 1996b, p. 18). In India, Prabhu (1987, p. 11) notes that the structure-based courses required "a good deal of remedial re-teaching which, in turn, led to similarly unsatisfactory results", with school leavers unable to deploy the English they had been taught, even though many could form grammatically correct sentences in the classroom.

The significance of this debate is that it not only points to the need for more research into this important area in the field of second/foreign language learning and teaching, but also, it brings researchers and language teachers closer together than ever.

As the above review shows, numerous communicative situations in real life involve integrating two or more of the four skills and the user of the language works out his abilities in two or more skills, either simultaneously or in close succession. To see the presence or absence of this segregation of skills we focused on the relationship between writing and reading scores as the main concern of our analysis.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

Based on a language proficiency test and comparison of the students' writing and reading scores, out of 150 senior EFL learners from Azad University of Torbat Heydariye, 95 were chosen and defined as intermediate learners. They were 30 boys and 65 girls aged between 24 and 26. The reason behind the inclusion of the intermediate group was the large sample of this group who were defined based on different scores in their reading and writing courses along with a language proficiency test.

B. Apparatus

The participants' scores in the related reading and writing courses they had already been evaluated were extracted. The participants' scores in reading 1 (Elementary), reading 2 (intermediate), reading 3 (advanced), and reading simple prose were calculated and defined as general reading scores. The participants' scores in grammar 1 (elementary), grammar 2 (intermediate) advanced writing and essay writing were computed and defined as general writing scores as well. Then, two expository reading and writing tests were administered. The reading comprehension tests were two multiple-choice item tests each having 20 items designed by the researchers. The texts were taken from a book titled 'Patterns', by Lou-Conlin (1998). The participants were required to read the texts carefully and answer the 40 multiple-choice questions within a 60 minute allotted time. The other tests were two expository writing tests. The students were asked to read the writing tasks carefully and write two expository compositions both in English. The allotted time for writing each composition was about one hour. These two reading and writing tests were defined as expository reading

and expository writing tests. The testing process of reading and writing was held in two successive sessions within a one-week period of time.

C. Procedure

First, the participants' responses in the multiple choice reading comprehension tests were scored. Then, based on Engelhard, Gordon, and Gabrielson's (1992) model, the participants' written data were analyzed and scored. This scale consists of five domains: content and organization, style, sentence formation, usage, and mechanics. Two raters assigned points to each of several aspects of participants' writings, providing a rating of the overall quality of the written product as well as ratings on specific elements. The inter-rater reliability between the two raters was .80 (Pearson), which is positive and statistically significant. The overall score of a participant in all types of tests was considered to be 20. Finally, the participants' general reading, general writing, expository reading and expository writing scores were statistically analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 16.0).

IV. RESULTS

As it was pointed out, the students received some scores in their reading 1, reading 2, reading 3 and simple prose and these scores were defined as reading scores. Thus, the reading score was the average of these four scores. The same procedure went for the writing scores. The writing score was the average of grammar 1, grammar 2, advanced grammar, and essay writing scores.

The first question posed was whether Iranian intermediate EFL learners' scores in their reading and writing skills have any correlations in themselves or not and we hypothesized that there is such a correlation. Based on the principles and premises of the whole language approach, the correlation coefficient was used both as a means of describing the strength and the direction of the skills relationships (how closely they are related to each other) and to provide the significance of such relationships. The presence of such correlations was supposed to confirm the fact that teaching the skills, at least reading and writing in our case, has been treated integratively.

The results (see Table 1), however, do not reject or prove the first hypothesis completely. Generally, there are some correlations which are positive or negative and in some cases show a significant value. Grammar 1 and grammar 2, for instance, show the highest correlation ($r=.450$) with $**p < .01$, (Sig. .000) (2-tailed), which is quite significant. The correlation is also positive. This means that as one variable (grammar 1) increases, the values of the other variable (grammar 2) tend to go in the same direction in a predictable manner. However, the correlation between these two variables, though it is the highest, is not very strong. The scatter plot diagram with the fit line (see Fig. 1) shows this partial relationship.

The weakest correlation goes to reading 1 and reading 3 ($r= -.021$), which is both negative and has no significance value. The scatter plot diagram with the fit line (see Fig. 2) shows that there is no relationship between the two variables. This means that if one variable (reading 1) decreases, so does the other variable (reading 3) in a predictable manner. Overall, a look at Table 1 shows that there are no large correlation coefficients among the variables and so there are no strong relationships among the skills except for some cases such as simple prose and advanced grammar among the others.

TABLE 1
THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS AMONG THE SCORES OF READING 1, READING 2, READING 3 AND SIMPLE PROSE AS
READING SCORES AND GRAMMAR 1, GRAMMAR 2, ADVANCED GRAMMAR, AND ESSAY WRITING AS WRITING SCORES

		Grammar 1	Grammar 2	Advanced Grammar	Essay Writing	Reading 1	Reading 2	Reading 3	Simple Prose
Grammar 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.450**	.285**	.270**	.096	-.052	-.099	.025
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.007	.010	.370	.628	.355	.818
	N	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90
Grammar 2	Pearson Correlation	.450**	1	.111	.082	.149	-.316**	-.097	.025
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.298	.444	.162	.002	.365	.817
	N	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90
Advanced Grammar	Pearson Correlation	.285**	.111	1	.144	-.060	-.052	-.033	.377**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.298		.176	.573	.626	.760	.000
	N	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90
Essay Writing	Pearson Correlation	.270**	.082	.144	1	-.122	-.021	.212*	-.089
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.444	.176		.252	.841	.045	.402
	N	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90
Reading 1	Pearson Correlation	.096	.149	-.060	-.122	1	-.308**	-.018	.063
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.370	.162	.573	.252		.003	.868	.558
	N	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90
Reading 2	Pearson Correlation	-.052	-.316**	-.052	-.021	-.308**	1	.106	.227*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.628	.002	.626	.841	.003		.322	.031
	N	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90
Reading 3	Pearson Correlation	-.099	-.097	-.033	.212*	-.018	.106	1	-.238*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.355	.365	.760	.045	.868	.322		.024
	N	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90
Simple Prose	Pearson Correlation	.025	.025	.377**	-.089	.063	.227*	-.238*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.818	.817	.000	.402	.558	.031	.024	
	N	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

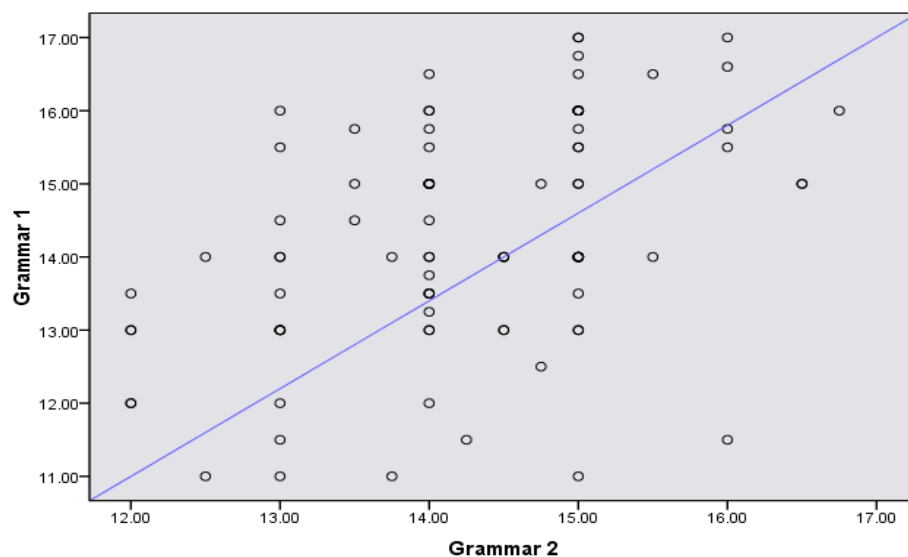


Figure 1 The Scatter Plot Diagram Showing a Partial Relationship between Grammar 1 & Grammar 2

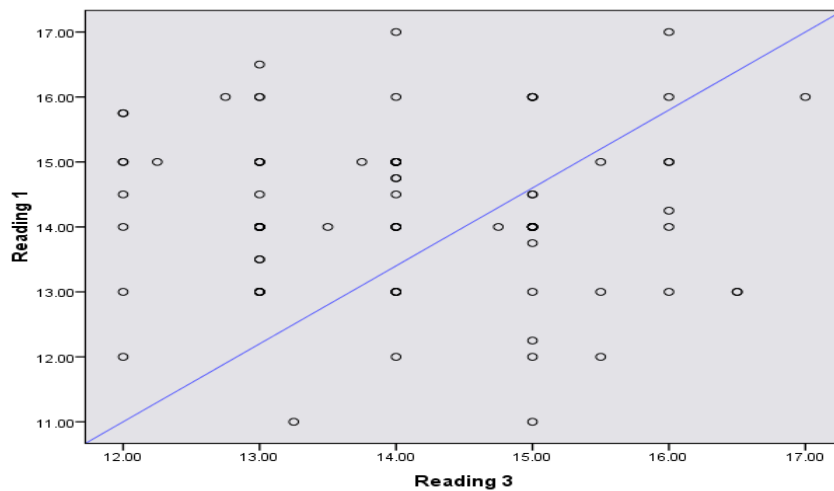


Figure 2 The Scatter Plot Diagram Showing no Correlation between Reading 1 & Reading 3

Then, to combine all the reading and writing scores together, and answer the second question of the research, some descriptive, and correlation statistics were run. The simple descriptive statistics (see Table 2) shows that almost all the values of these two skills are the same. The minimum, maximum, and mean of these two variables are all but the same along with the standard deviation which is somehow different (.80336 vs. .62668). The correlation coefficient (see Table 3), however, shows that there is a negative correlation between these two skills ($r = -.032$), which is not significant. This means that as the direction of this correlation is negative, we cannot predict the strength of relationship between general reading and writing. Moreover, the scatter plot diagram (see Fig. 3) also supports this negative relationship and therefore, the second hypothesis is rejected meaning that there is no relationship between the skills of reading and writing.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR SKILLS OF GENERAL WRITING & GENERAL READING

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
General Writing	90.00	12.12	15.88	14.1767	.80336
General Reading	90.00	13.12	15.88	14.1042	.62668
Valid N (listwise)	90.00				

TABLE 3
THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN GENERAL WRITING & GENERAL READING SCORES

		General Writing	General Reading
General Writing	Pearson Correlation	1	-.032
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.765
	N	90	90
General Reading	Pearson Correlation	-.032	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.765	
	N	90	90

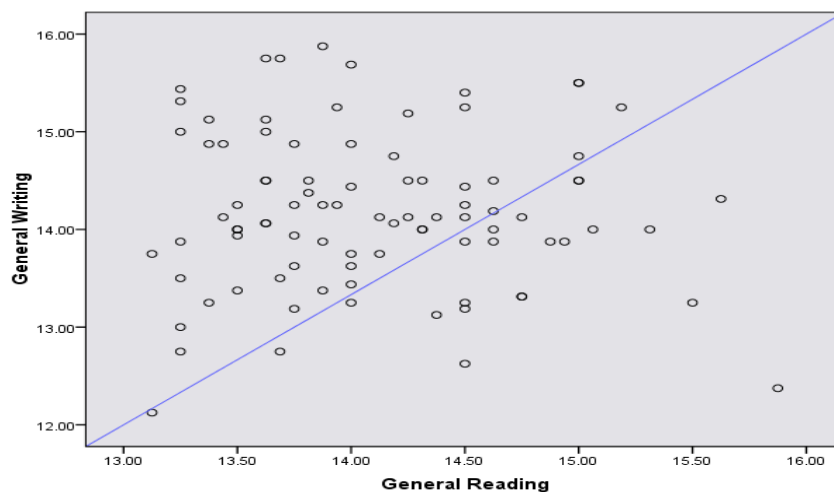


Figure 3 The Scatter Plot Diagram Showing Negative Correlation between General Writing & ...

The third question of the research was whether Iranian intermediate EFL learners' scores in expository reading and writing tests correlate with their general reading and writing scores or not. It was hypothesized that there is no such a correlation. The result (Table 4) shows that almost all the correlations are negative and they are all significant. It means that we cannot predict the score in one variable on the basis of another score in another variable.

TABLE 4
THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS AMONG GENERAL WRITING, GENERAL READING, EXPOSITORY WRITING & EXPOSITORY READING SCORES

		General Writing	General Reading	Expository Writing	Expository Reading
General Writing	Pearson Correlation	1	-.032	-.025	.037
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.765	.812	.726
	N	90	90	90	90
General Reading	Pearson Correlation	-.032	1	-.167	-.075
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.765		.116	.485
	N	90	90	90	90
Expository Writing	Pearson Correlation	-.025	-.167	1	-.162
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.812	.116		.127
	N	90	90	90	90
Expository Reading	Pearson Correlation	.037	-.075	-.162	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.726	.485	.127	
	N	90	90	90	90

And to answer the fourth question of the research, the repeated measures of ANOVA were run. The question was whether Iranian intermediate EFL learners perform equally well on general writing, general reading, expository writing and expository reading tests and we hypothesized that they do not perform equally well on these skills. The skills defined as factors 1 to 4 in Table 5 are general writing, general reading, expository writing and expository reading respectively. The results of the post hoc tests mostly confirmed the null hypothesis meaning that there were some significant differences among the performance of the learners in the related skills. As the pairwise comparisons show (see Table 5), there are significant differences among factors 1 and 3, 1 and 4, 2 and 3, 2 and 4, and finally 3 and 4 with $p < .05$, (Sig. .000). Among these skills, general writing and general reading do not show a significant difference. The mean difference (see Table 6) between these two skills is also almost the same (14.177 vs. 14.104). This shows that the EFL learners have been able to perform almost equally well on these two skills. But, with expository writing and expository reading texts the performance is quite different (see Tables 5 & 6).

TABLE 5
PAIRWISE COMPARISONS OF GENERAL WRITING, GENERAL READING, EXPOSITORY WRITING AND EXPOSITORY READING TESTS

Factor 1	(J) Factor 1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^a	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	.073	.109	1.000	-.222	.367
	3	2.516*	.131	.000	2.163	2.868
	4	1.377*	.120	.000	1.053	1.700
2	1	-.073	.109	1.000	-.367	.222
	3	2.443*	.126	.000	2.102	2.784
	4	1.304*	.114	.000	.997	1.611
3	1	-2.516*	.131	.000	-2.868	-2.163
	2	-2.443*	.126	.000	-2.784	-2.102
	4	-1.139*	.141	.000	-1.520	-.757
4	1	-1.377*	.120	.000	-1.700	-1.053
	2	-1.304*	.114	.000	-1.611	-.997
	3	1.139*	.141	.000	.757	1.520

Note: Based on estimated marginal means: a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

*, The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 6
THE ESTIMATES OF GENERAL WRITING, GENERAL READING, EXPOSITORY WRITING AND EXPOSITORY READING AS SHOWN AS 1 TO 4 RESPECTIVELY

Factor 1	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	14.177	.085	14.008	14.345
2	14.104	.066	13.973	14.235
3	11.661	.097	11.468	11.855
4	12.800	.088	12.625	12.975

V. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

Dismantling language into different skills which goes to the traditional era of structuralism in linguistics and behaviorism in psychology is a facilitating need in pedagogy, but finding the underlying construct of these so-called skills is a complicated issue. In regard to the existence of correlation, grammar 1 and grammar 2 were happened to have at least a partial correlation. They are both defined as grammar and the prediction is that if the score in one skill increases, the score in the other skill or variable increases for that matter. The same is true for the construct of reading but from a different perspective. Reading 1 and reading 2 as two skills sharing the same underlying construct as reading comprehension were seen to experience the weakest correlation and the interpretation is that if the score in one variable (reading 1) decreases, so does the other variable (reading 3) in a predictable manner. But it seems that when we look at all the variables (skills), we see a fluctuation among the scores (reading and writing in our case) which may be due to the way these skills are treated. It seems that the emphasis given to each variable is different, which may be due to different methods used by different teachers, the textbooks used, the educational priority taken by policy makers and syllabus designers locally and internationally, and the difference among the learners themselves. When skills are treated in a dismantled way, the result is that the learners' performance in one skill is going to be better than another skill, as reading and writing in our case. But, comparing just two variables and interpreting the result with a small population is not concluding the presence or absence of the integration approach. We, therefore, combined all the variables of reading comprehension together and defined them as general reading and we did the same for general writing. This time the integrative approach was supported and there was correlation between these scores. But, if we change the nature of the variables or increase the number of subjects we may come to different results and interpretation. This shows, on the one hand, the difficulty of the skills construct and the influence of the external factors such as learners, teachers, among the other variables on the other hand.

Linked to the above interpretation is the concept of language proficiency itself. In our study, we have separated a group of learners and categorised them as intermediate and less proficient in comparison to advanced levels. Language proficiency, however, seems to be considered as a relative concept. Stern (1983, p. 46), for instance, describes L2 proficiency, as comprising the intuitive mastery of the forms of the language, the intuitive mastery of the linguistic, cognitive, affective, and sociocultural meanings expressed by the language forms, the capacity to use the language with maximum attention to communication and minimum attention to form, and the creativity of language use. Accordingly, it can then be concluded that the use of language in a number of specific ways is difficult even for native speakers of a particular language. Comparing the advanced group may also lead to other results.

The next illuminating point to discuss is that as these learners have been defined as intermediate learners, the prediction was that they will not be able to respond to expository texts without difficulty. This may be explained from the perspective of the nature of expository texts. In working with such texts one need to analyze information and information analysis is a cognitive demanding task. In Drury's words, "the activity of analyzing the information means that writers must distance themselves from the content more than the activities of observation, description and classification which result in a typical factual, report genre. Such distancing develops a more abstract genre which is removed from its real-world experiential content" (2001, p. 110). In addition, expository texts are characterized by the use of specialized lexicon (related to the topic involved) and by an argumentative structure that requires information ordering that always is related to the topic and the writers' communicative intentions: definition or description of an event, explanation of its origin, description of types or categories involved in a concept, etc. (Boscolo, 1996). We need, therefore, even more advanced learners to handle such texts. These intermediate learners had difficulty in handling such texts and this proves the validity of previous studies in that expository texts are more difficult for less proficient learners. In handling such texts these learners proved that they are still intermediate and their scores in working with such texts were not the same with the scores they had taken in general reading and writing courses. In other words, their scores from the expository tests had no correlation or relationship with the scores in their general reading and writing scores in their related English courses.

The conclusion and the generalizability of such findings should be treated with more caution. With more variables and a larger sample we may have more reliable conclusions. As pointed out, the metaphorical image suggested by Oxford (2001) and advocated in this study is woven from many strands, such as the characteristics of the teacher, the learner, the setting, and the relevant languages. In addition to the four strands, one of the most crucial of these strands

consists of the four primary skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing. The effect of speaking and listening along with other strands should also be investigated.

Another point is that levels of proficiency and the learning context should be considered as well. The relationship among the four skills should be tested in elementary and advanced levels with different age groups, backgrounds, needs, interests and abilities and this should be tested in different foreign and second language contexts with various syllabuses and resources that they may follow or make use of.

In line with other researchers, these researchers suggest that reading and writing along with other skills and parameters should be integral parts of all language classroom activities because all these processes interact with one another. Selecting an integrated approach in teaching language whereby all variables work together helps learners develop communicative competence and through the developing of competences, they will be more conscious about their own learning, identifying strengths and weaknesses to be improved. Becoming aware will lead them to take a course of action and make their own decisions about their own learning process, which is, finally, the goal of any language learning process.

It is much better to make the teaching and learning situation come closer to the way we do things in real life to make classes more challenging, motivating and meaningful for the learners of English as a second or foreign language. In line with the integrated approach possible tasks are suggested to help learners learn language by interacting communicatively and purposefully while engaged in meaningful activities.

Finally, it should be asserted that applying the integrated approach calls for professional teachers who are creative and dynamic. Applying an integrated approach is in line with the latest findings in the field of linguistics and there is certainly a need for more research in this area. This study may help language teachers to revisit and revise their syllabus in terms of the skills whether they teach them interwoven with other skills or there is sometimes a mismatch between these skills. The study may shed some light on syllabus designers and policy makers to design textbooks with a task-based view which hinder the segregation of skills.

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Application of Figure and Ground Theory to Translation in Single Clause

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Abstract—Language is an important carrier of the national spirit and cultural heritage in inter-state communication, while translation bridges the international exchanges. Cognitive linguistics explains how we organize our cognitive structure, including the experiential view, the figure/ground theory and the attentional view. The positive impact process of figure and ground theory to translation will be employed in this paper to illustrate the single sentence translation, which explains such frequently encountered questions as why a noun or sentence is often chosen as the subject, while the verb as a predicate, which are difficult to make a reasonable explanation with previous theories.

Index Terms—figure/ground segregation, translation, single clause

I. INTRODUCTION

Figure and ground theory is an important theory in cognitive linguistics. To consider the picture of the well-known face/vase illusion shown in figure 1, it can be noticed that between the two possibilities of perceiving the picture (as two faces or as a vase), you can only see one at a time. What's more, you can easily switch between the two ways of looking at the picture, especially after longer inspection. What lies behind our inability to see both the vase and the faces at the same time is a phenomenon called figure and ground segregation. This notion was first introduced into Psychology by the Danish Psychologist Rubin in 1951 and later integrated into the more comprehensive frame work of perceptual organization by the gestalt psychologists (Ungerer & Schmid, 1996), and introduced into cognitive linguistics (Talmy, 2000).



Figure 1 The face/vase illusion (after Rubin)

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Before the analysis of the application of figure and ground theory into the translation of single clause, some of the relevant previous studies concerning figure and ground theory and single clause translation will be illustrated.

A. Main Characteristics of the Figure and Ground Theory

Here it is listed four major characteristics of the figure and ground theory.

Firstly, the figure in salience is different. As we illustrate in the notion of salience, the semantic value of an expression lies in neither the ground nor the figure alone, but in their combination. The figure can express a "relationship" in analyzing sentence structure.

Secondly, the components of salience, also called figure, in sentences are different. In cognitive psychology, this is the difference between figure and background.

Thirdly, there exist two kinds of meaning: ambiguous meaning and obvious meaning. When we mention one thing, we always focus on one part of the things. The part we focus on is called figure, while the part we ignore is called ground. In our daily expression, there are several ways to express the same thing. Some expressions shadow some information about this word while the other expressions illustrate the information clearly.

Fourthly, it is hypothesis and expectation. Hypothesis and expectation, one of the imagery meanings, refers to the "prior knowledge which the speaker owns and expectation which he shows when he speaks, writes or translates". When

other people express something, sometimes, we are likely to catch the meaning between the lines.

B. *The Rationale of Considering Single Clause as the Translation Unit*

According to Fang (2002), the selected text translation unit is actually a selected text translation method. If mainly regarded words are as the translating unit, the translation level is lower. It is literal translation of the word of word. It has limitation greatly that the word layer is translated. Only some words can find the corresponding equivalence word while translating in most sentences. So it is of very small possibility to choose to regard words as translating unit. Translating unit has relations to translating level. If the interpreter generally only involves thinking, semantic, the interpreter roughly regards sentence as the unit. If we choose words as translating unit, we are not able to express exactly what we want to express. The translation base unit to the language page is a sentence, which emphasize: to conceive it in the language section and express it in the sentence. The big translation unit often includes the small translation unit. While regarding sentence as translating unit, it is some in word not to repel either, in the phrase or transliteration. Therefore sentence is the most proper translation unit (Jiang, 2007).

III. APPLICATION OF FIGURE AND GROUND THEORY IN THE SINGLE CLAUSE RESEARCH

The pioneering work of understanding figure-ground theory in languages was done by Talmy (1972; 1988; 2000), and after him the cognitive linguists began to adopt figure-ground theory as one basic cognitive principle by which language organizes its conceptions. Talmy (1972; 1988; 2000) used figure-ground relation to explain the expressions of locative prepositions in natural language and identified the definitional characteristics and associated characteristics to objects functioning as figure and ground in language. He (1996) also researched figure-ground relation in simple and complex sentences and between events, concluding that in complex sentences the relation of figure and ground is decided according to the following five principles: sequence principle, cause-result principle, inclusion principle, contingency principle and substitution principle.

A little different from Talmy, and to distinguish the static and dynamic figure and ground relation, Langacker (2004, p.411), introduced another pair of "figure and ground", namely "trajector and landmark", in which a trajector is a moving object/figure and the landmark is the ground of the moving figure, and the figure moves along the "path" to the Ground. Trajector and landmark may vary in size and shape and the trajector can be in contact with the landmark or a part of the landmark (Ungerer & Schmid, 2001).

What's more, Langacker also seeks different way of treating traditional simple clauses by using figure-ground principle. In traditional grammar, a simple clause is said to normally consist of three key elements: a subject, verb (predicate) and a complement (an object or an adverbial) (Ungerer & Schmid, 2001). But the divergent uses of subjects or complements are difficult to be explained by traditional grammarians and modern linguistic schools. In Cognitive Grammar developed by him, Langacker (1990, 1991) suggests to explain the syntactic diversity of subjects and objects by understanding the simple transitive clause subject +verb +object (complement) as a reflection of figure and ground segregation. To put it more pointedly, subject corresponds to figure, object to ground and the verb indicates the relation between subject/figure and object/ground (Ungerer & Schmid, 2001) transmission in action chains, the Furthermore, according to Langacker's energy agent, as energy initiator, is the most prominent element in a situation and is given the status of subject while the patient, as the tail of the action chain, is object ground and the transitive verb is to show how the energy is emitted from subject to object (Ungerer & Schmid, 2001).

Ungerer & Schmid (2001, p.188) very much prefer Langacker's term of "trajector and landmark" and his explanation of simple transitive clause. In terms of simple clause, very similarly, they (2001, p.206) put forward the terms of "syntactic figure" and "syntactic ground" to refer to subject and object respectively, postulating that the verbs can account for the degree of prominence between subject and object or complement in syntactic clause patterns like SVC or SVO.

As a result, we can understand verbs can relate figure and ground segregation in both lexical aspects and grammatical structures like SVO or SVO of language. It's Langacker (2004) who has so far extended and refined the notions of figure and ground and has developed the most comprehensive cognitive conception (Ungerer & Schmid, 2001).

Based on western cognitive linguists' research on figure-ground theory, Chinese scholars have recently investigated a lot into this theory and its application into linguistics, especially in syntactic aspect: Chinese scholars Kuang & Wen (2003) complemented two associated characteristics to Talmy's characteristics of figure and ground in language, i.e. time length and predictability, assuming that ground lasts longer than figure does and ground is more predictable than figure. And they (2003) comprehended the realization of this theory from both spatial and temporal events, giving us a comprehensive understanding of this cognitive theory and the explanatory power. Wen & Liu (2004, p.438-443) examined English inverted sentences, postulating that the use of inverted sentence is in fact a bind of figure-ground to ground-figure reversal by speakers in cognitive process. By converting natural sentence "subject/ figure-predicate-object / ground" into marked sentence "object / ground-predicate-subject / figure", a salient end focus can be formed so as to draw more attention. Jiang & Liang (2007) examined the formation and structures of idioms English and Chinese) according to the prominence view and attentional view of cognitive linguistics that the most interesting parts of the expressed information are given prominence by linguistic structures and the way how a clause is expressed involves and reflects the speaker's intentional selection and arrangement of the information to be voiced. They prove the realization

of figure and ground relation in English and Chinese idioms and it is a good way to unfold the image representation of idioms semantically (Zhao, 2009).

IV. APPLICATION OF FIGURE AND GROUND THEORY TO THE TRANSLATION OF SINGLE CLAUSE

When we observe the outside world, since the objective input to our visual system does not change, this choice remains entirely up to the observers. Owing to different cognitions, different people may put different pictures as figures. From the linguistics perspective, it is valuable to use the figure-ground relation to account for the expressions of spatial relations in natural language. This principle of figure-ground segregation is one of the basic cognitive principles according to which space is organized. Every kind of language has its corresponding description of spatial organization; therefore, languages can reflect this principle. That is to say that it can be realized in Chinese and English. When we describe the scene of a picture on the wall, we usually tend to prefer the picture as the figure, while the table as the reference point or ground, because the picture is smaller and more movable according to the principle of *Pragnanz*. Therefore, we would like to say "The picture is on the wall". That is to say that there exists a concrete spatial relation between picture and wall in "The picture is on the wall" and the location preposition "on" can reflect the relation of figure and ground (Chen, 2008, p.36).

The relationship between figure and ground can be seen in terms of locative relations, which are usually rendered by preposition; or to put it other way round, the meanings of locative prepositions can be understood as figure/ground relationship (Ungerer & Schmid, 2001). Spatial consciousness is a main means to consist artistic conception besides temporal consciousness. The principle of figure-ground segregation is one of the basic cognitive principles according to which space is organized. In English, the spatial relations are expressed by prepositions or adverbial phrases, which shows the orientational relationship, such as on/above/over, inside/outside, under/below, etc.. According to this orientational relationship, the meaning of this kind of preposition can be illustrated from the perspective of the prominence view. For example:

- 1). a. The pen lay on the table.
- b. The pen fell off the table.

In the above two sentences, the pen specifies the object that functions as the Figure, and the table the object that functions as the Ground. In their linguistic usage, they have the following specific characterizations: the Figure is a moving or conceptually movable entity whose path, site, or orientation is conceived as a variable; the Ground is a reference entity, one that has a stationary setting, with respect to which the figure's path, site or orientation is characterized (Talmy, 2000).

- 2). The ball rolled past the lamp.

In this case, the combination of the linguistic figure object and the ground object together functions as a psychological figure, while the background now functions as a psychological ground.

The category of figure and ground can be clearly classified within a motion event where one object is moving and the other is stationary. But if they also appear in the locational event where both objects are stationary, can we observe which one is figure and which one is ground? Of course, the answer is positive. We undertake such a demonstration here. For example:

- 3). a. The bike is near the house.
- b. The house is near the bike.

In the former sentence, the house has a set location within a reference frame and is to be used as a reference object by which to characterize the other object's (bike's) location. But the latter implies the bike has a set location. So in the former sentence, the bike is figure and the house is ground, while in the latter one, the house is figure and the bike is ground.

Even though the author does not want to indicate anything about the difference between these two sentences, language inescapably imposes the difference on the semantic meaning in these two sentences. Main factors must be introduced to explain why the reversal sentences have such a big difference. The following two sentences like

- 4). a. John is near Harry.
- b. Harry is near John.

are also reversed, but they do not differ from each other so dramatically and both are semantically ordinary. In the above example (b), "John" is set up as a reference point with known location for establishing the location of "Harry". There are certain additional characteristics that render one entity more suitable for functioning as ground or another entity as figure. Such characteristics can be considered the "associated characteristics" of figure and ground. From these "associated characteristics", the judgment of figure and ground will be clearly found.

The method of reversing the nominal in a sentence to highlight the existence of figure and ground roles in locative event has so far used about "near". The same rule is in the inverse pair of "above/below", as in the following examples:

- 5) a. Susan resembles my sister.
- b. My sister resembles Susan.

In this case, subject and object can be exchanged. Just as in the case of the face and vase illusion. The choice of one sentence constituent as the dominant element is up to the speaker. Linguistically, the way to manifest salience is to put the preferred element into subject position. Once this decision has been made in favor of Susan or my sister, it is clear

that which one is the figure and is more salient than the other. In the first sentence, it is Susan that is more salient with reference to my sister, while in the second sentence, the situation is reversed. But if we change the sentences into:

- 6). a. My mother resembles my sister.
- b. My sister resembles my mother.

The same structure like the former one, we cannot accept both two sentences, because the power relation of the two people is illogical. So the sentence (a) is wrong. The reason is mainly due to our cultural knowledge. In the previous two examples, Susan and my sister have no hierarchical structure and their status probably is much closer to the speaker.

Either of them as the subject is acceptable. However, in the last two examples, my mother and my sister have a hierarchical structure in my family. The status of my mother is obviously higher than the status of my sister. So according to our cultural knowledge, the sentence (a) is acceptable while the sentence (b) is unacceptable.

V. CONCLUSION

From the above analysis, it can be concluded that the figure and ground theory is a cognitive process or cognitive structure stored in our mind, which is important in representing the salient objects or information, or indicating the object or information we paid more attention on. And we get to know that the process of how to apply the figure and ground theory in translation: the translator must have enough knowledge to learn the figure and ground in a sentence. Although the translator is not aware of the process of judging the figure and ground, he still uses this principle unconsciously. In the target text, on one hand, only when the readers can understand the sentence structure, can the translation be considered as a successful one. On the other hand, a translation version is used by a certain readership. Once the translation version is used beyond this kind of readership, the value of this version disappears, because it is beyond the reader's experience or belief.

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A Case Study of a Foreign Language Learner with Severe Learning Problem: The Role of Anxiety

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Abstract—This study is a case study of a foreign language learner with severe learning problem. After selecting the subject, he was interviewed by the researcher for some sessions. The researcher discussed the items of some valid questionnaires about anxiety. Some parts of the so called interview were taped with the learner's collaboration and consciousness. Then the results were analyzed by classifying the items of the questionnaire and taking into account the cross check items. It was found that the participant was suffering from anxiety in English language classrooms.

Index Terms—severe learning problem, learners' feelings, anxiety

I. INTRODUCTION

Learners with severe learning problems are every now and then the cases met by EFL teachers in language classrooms. Learning problems are due to different reasons. One of the main reasons goes back to learner's feelings and attitudes. Learners' feelings can act as facilitators or obstacles in the process of language learning. For example, lack of motivation or anxiety would impede the language learning process (Schumann, 2004).

This study deals with a case study of an English language learner who suffers from severe learning problem. The researcher, through applying different questionnaires, found that he was experiencing anxiety in the process of language learning. This paper reports what the researcher did to unfold the reason of his learning problem. In fact it deals with how anxiety was involved in the process of language learning.

Anxiety is always considered as a destructive factor for learners. This kind of anxiety, i.e. debilitating anxiety, is changed into stress and nervous tension. Therefore, many EFL/ESL teachers and testing specialists try to decrease this kind of anxiety since this anxiety may have some crucial effects on EFL learners' performances (Arnold, 2000).

Anxiety is described as a painful emotional condition in which one perceives danger, feels helpless and experiences nervousness in preparation for a probable danger. In general, it is classified into three types: Trait, state and situation-specific anxiety. Trait anxiety is a more stable disposition to be anxious, and is viewed as an aspect of personality. State anxiety is an apprehension that is experienced at a particular moment in time as a reaction to specific situation. Finally, situation-specific anxiety is related to apprehension aroused at specific situations and events (Ellis, 2008).

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The past twenty years have seen a real increase in the number of studies dealing with anxiety in the L2 domain, which is attributable to the significant advances in the theory and measurement of L2-related anxiety since the mid-1980s (Liu, 2006).

Language anxiety is one of the negative factors in SLA. However several studies produced inconsistent results and have not concurred in the sub categorization of language anxiety.

The role played by anxiety in foreign or second language learning is an issue which has long been in the center of attention of language investigators (Horwitz, 1986). As early as in the 1970s, a period noticeable by an increase of research focusing on the learner, anxiety – among other individual learner differences anticipated to affect language learning success – started to be examined as a potential factor influencing L2 achievement (Dornyei, 2005).

According to one study done by Toth (2008) two basic approaches have been considered to the study of anxiety in the L2 domain. These are labeled (1) the anxiety transfer, and (2) the unique anxiety approach, which are reflective of different conceptualizations of L2-related anxiety (MacIntyre et al, 1997).

In the first approach anxiety is considered as the issue experienced in an L2 context and it is basically the transfer of other forms of anxiety into the L2 domain. This shows that individuals who are generally apprehensive or experience

anxiety in certain types of situations are assumed to have a tendency to also experience anxiety when learning or using a foreign language (Saito et al, 1999).

On the contrary, the assumption underlying the other approach states that language learning produces a unique type of anxiety. In this conceptualization, anxiety experienced in L2 contexts is seen as a situation specific anxiety which is aroused by the experience of learning and using a second language.

In another view, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) stated that anxiety can be considered as one of the best predictors of success in second or foreign language proficiency and this has been investigated in many studies, since language anxiety is one of the internal factors related to learners and it may obstruct the success in language proficiency and generally language acquisition.

Following this study, several other studies (eg. Gardner, 1985 as cited in Oh, 1992) found high correlation between the anxiety and the proficiency i.e. those learners who had low anxiety level were more successful in language learning and vice versa.

In the literature, not just the relationship between anxiety and language learning is searched but also the relationship between test anxiety and academic performance was done in some researches (Hill & Wigfield, 1984). Test anxiety is a multidimensional construct that has been defined as “the set of phenomenological, psychological and behavioral responses that accompany concern about possible negative consequences or failure on an exam or similar evaluative situation” (Chapell, et al, 2005, p. 17).

And finally according to Graham, (1997) language anxiety integrates three related performance anxiety: 1) communication apprehension 2) test anxiety, 3) fear of negative evaluation. Because of its emphasis on mutual interaction, the construct of communication fear is quite relevant to the conceptualization of foreign language anxiety.

Also it can be said that many variables may interact to affect language learning, but foreign language anxiety should be of considerable concern to language educators and students because of its potential impact, not only on proficiency, but also on students' affective reactions, hence their attitude toward language learning in general.

Therefore, it is worth mentioning that understanding the effects of language anxiety can help both teachers and learners in the way that teachers can control its effect by improving their teaching and students by using appropriate strategies provided by teachers. So, it is necessary to investigate the characteristics of language anxiety in language learning.

A considerable body of research from the mid-1970s onward shows that communication anxiety generally affects many EFL/ESL learners. Because anxiety may hinder performance and success therefore classroom anxiety is a topic worthy of more exploration.

By taking this fact into consideration that there are some types of anxiety, Saville-Troike (2006) proposed that foreign language anxiety was separate from other kinds of anxieties.

These anxieties can be illustrated in various ways and divided into several classes, which overlap each other somehow. Firstly in general terms is the distinction between trait anxiety, which is the tendency of a person to be anxious or feel stress regardless of the particular conditions, and state (situational) anxiety, which is nervousness or tension at a particular moment in response to some other stimulus.

A. *Causes of Foreign Language Learning Anxiety*

One of the most crucial reasons of EFL/ESL anxiety are situational variables, for instance, course activities, course level, course organization, and instructor behavior (Hale, 2008)

Another reason is *learner variables* which includes ability, age, beliefs, gender, learning styles, and personality factors among others (Dornyei & Skehan, 2003). But some other scholars believe that not two above-mentioned variables but rather it is the native language ability and language learning ability of the learner that need to be taken into account.

B. *Characteristics of Foreign Language Learning Anxiety*

There are particular characteristics of formal foreign language learning that hold the potential for irritating anxiety in learners. For example the incapability to pronounce words properly or use correct grammar can cause negative evaluation by others, and the inability to understand spoken and written input, including instructions, can lead to bewilderment and embarrassment about how to respond or how to act. These types of anxiety can contribute to making formal foreign language learning a particular vulnerable experience for many learners.

C. *Effects of Foreign Language Learning Anxiety*

Foreign language learning anxiety has been related to many negative outcomes that can be categorized as physical, psychological, or social (Saville-Troike, 2006).

Physical symptoms consist of speedy heartbeat, muscle tension, dry mouth, and extreme perspiration.

Psychological symptoms consist of embarrassment, feelings of defenselessness, fear, going blank, and poor memory remembrance and retention among others. Negative social behavior may be illustrated in such ways as unsuitable silence, reluctance to take part, non-attendance, and withdrawal from the course. These effects can lead to poor performance and low success. Research suggests that for many learners, success and insistence in foreign language learning considerably depends both on the teacher's ability to reduce the devastating effects of classroom anxiety and the learners' ability to handle the anxiety that cannot be hindered or avoided.

In contradiction of this debilitating anxiety, there is an indication that a certain degree of anxiety may be useful to learners (Ellis, 2008). This kind of anxiety is usually referred to as facilitative anxiety, it motivates learners to study harder and make stronger efforts to achieve better in classroom. There are some disagreements as to whether this emotional state is really anxiety, or the terms such as attention and alertness may be more precise.

In fact, communicating orally in the foreign language has often been considered by both teachers and learners as more anxiety inducing than the practice of other language skills (Hale, 2008).

In a study which was held in one of the universities of Spain, a translated version of FLCAS was utilized and after participants answer the questionnaire the result shows the existence of considerable levels of anxiety in the foreign language classroom, levels that, in certain items, are even higher than those registered by Horwitz (1986) among groups of beginners. The use of this research instrument with a group of students who had accumulated a long experience as learners of English as a foreign language has allowed us to check that the phenomenon of foreign language classroom anxiety is not necessarily characteristic or exclusive to beginners as seemed to suggest the fact that the FLCAS and other scales devised for a similar purpose had been recurrently applied to groups of beginners in previous research (Horwitz 1986, p.125).

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS & HYPOTHESIS

1. Does decreasing the EFL learner's level of anxiety have any effect on their language learning process?
 2. Does increasing the EFL learner's level of anxiety have any effect on his /her language learning process?
- H₀1. Decreasing the EFL the learner's level of anxiety has no effect on his/her language learning process.
H₀2. Increasing the EFL learner's level of anxiety has no effect on his/her language learning process.

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The participant in this study was an elementary level EFL English language learner. He was 27 years old. He was an undergraduate student of Geology. He was in an urgent need of improving his English language proficiency. He tried hard but he couldn't improve his language proficiency. Although he had already passed some English courses but he was not able to neither speak nor write in English. He was studying English in Hafez Language Institute in Mashhad, Iran. He was reading the New Interchange series 2nd book as the course book in the institute.

B. Instrumentation

The first instrument used in this study was a language background questionnaire by Ehrman, (1996, p.307) .This was used in order to find out about the biographic background of the participant.

The second instrument was Horwits questionnaire. Horwits foreign language classroom anxiety questionnaire was a likert type scale with five possible responses ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" It was meant to evaluate the level of foreign language anxiety experienced by EFL/ESL learners (Horwitz & Cope 1986 cited in Cebreros, 2001).

Another tool used in this study was a motivation and strategies questionnaire (Ehrman, 1996, p.307).Some parts of this questionnaire were directly related to anxiety in language classrooms. This questionnaire was a five point Likert scale ranges from: not at all, not very much, a fair moment, a lot and really nervous about it.

It is worth mentioning that validity of the questionnaires were checked by the researcher. In this regard, the researcher checked each item on a specific construct. It was found that each item dealt with one specific construct.

In addition, another instrument which was used in this study was a voice recorder. The voice recorder was used to audiotaped the teacher and the learners' talk during the sessions.

C. Procedure

The researchers was supposed to locate an English language learner with sever learning problem. The subject was selected on the ground that he was my student at Mashahd Azad University when he was a BA student of Geology. He had many problems at that time passing the English course for pre-university students. He had failed the course several times.

After selecting the subject, he was interviewed by the researcher for some sessions .During the interview, the researcher discussed the items of some questionnaires about anxiety. It is also worth mentioning that during the process of this investigation, some parts of the so called interview were taped with the learner's collaboration and consciousness.

D. Data Analysis

The language learner's responses to different items of the questionnaire were taken into consideration. There were some cross check items on questionnaires that check the validity of the responses.

The instrument used in this study was Horwits questionnaire. The anxiety inventory analysis items could be summarized as follows: (Horwitz & Cope 1986 cited in Cebreros, 2001).

TABLE.1
ITEM ANALYSIS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE

Item Classification	Items	Total number of items
Items which address anxiety	1,3,4,7,9,10,12,13,16,17,19,20,23,26,27,29,31,33	18
Cross check items(show lack of anxiety)	2,5,11,14,18,22,24,28,32	9
Irrelevant items	6,15,21,25,30	5

As it was indicated in table 1, there were some irrelevant items on the foreign language classroom anxiety scale. This is usually done in questionnaires to prevent students not to find the purpose of the study.

It was found that the participant responses to items 4,7,9,10,12,13,16,26,27, 31,33 were ranged from mostly strongly agreed or agreed .As it was shown in table 1 ,these items address anxiety of foreign language learners in language classrooms and while speaking in foreign language. In the following table, Ehrman, (1996, p.307) questionnaire was analyzed considering its items.

TABLE.2
ITEM ANALYSIS OF SELF-EFFECACY, MOTIVATION AND ANXIETY QUESTIONNAIRE

Strategic questionnaire	Items
1. self-efficacy	1,2,5
2 .motivation	3,4 ,6
3. anxiety	7,8

It should be mentioned that there were some items in the inventory that were not related to anxiety. There were deleted by the researcher since anxiety was the focus of the study. Therefore, those items were not discussed by the researcher with the learner. The participant response to items 7 and 8 of the questionnaire was "a lot" and "really nervous".

Considering the participant response to the items of the questionnaires, hypotheses were rejected since anxiety influenced his performance. Increasing anxiety impeded the performance of the participant.

V. CONCLUSION

Through considering the responses of the participant to the items of the questionnaires, it was found that he was suffering from anxiety in English language classrooms. The cross check item also confirmed that the person was experiencing anxiety in English language classroom. He was largely concerned with how others viewed him if he did poorly in the class. It would impede his participation in the class since he was afraid of performing poorly in front of other. Also, he was deeply worried about his own self-image. He didn't feel quite sure of himself when he was speaking in the English class. He expressed panic when he had to speak without preparation in English class.

Therefore it could be concluded that the person's anxiety plays a central role in his ineffective process while learning English. His performance would be improved if this anxiety would be controlled. Knowing about such an issue is very critical for language teachers since they would be able to help the learners to overcome their anxiety and improve their language learning process.

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On Training Methods of Five Basic Skills of College English

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Abstract—In accordance with the latest *College English Curriculum Requirements* issued by the National Department of Education in 2007, the objective of College English is to develop Students' ability to use English in a well-rounded way, especially in listening and speaking, so that in their future studies and careers as well as social interactions they will be able to communicate effectively and improve their general cultural awareness so as to meet the needs of China's social development and international exchanges. To achieve the objective of College English, the training methods of five basic skills of College English are discussed in this essay.

Index Terms—five basic skills, college English, training methods

I. INTRODUCTION

College English, an integral part of higher learning, is a required basic course for undergraduate students. In accordance with the latest *College English Curriculum Requirements* issued by the National Department of Education in 2007, the objective of College English is to develop Students' ability to use English in a well-rounded way, especially in listening and speaking, so that in their future studies and careers as well as social interactions they will be able to communicate effectively and improve their general cultural awareness so as to meet the needs of China's social development and international exchanges. To achieve the objective of College English mentioned above, the training methods of five basic skills of College English are discussed as follows:

II. TRAINING METHODS ON FIVE BASIC SKILLS OF COLLEGE ENGLISH

A. Training on Listening Skills

No one can deny the fact that listening plays a very important role in learning foreign languages and in the daily interpersonal communication. Therefore, listening holds an essential status in the teaching of College English. However, upon entering College, students are quite different in the aspect of standards of listening skills. In the whole, the majority of students have barely received any rigid and systematic training on listening, which results in their lack of abilities on distinguishing English sounds. To solve the problem, the method of dictation is advised to adopt in order to rapidly improve students listening skills within a short period of time.

1. Difficulty of content and the speed of broadcast should be taken into account while selecting material for listening

Just as mentioned above, new college students are lack of listening skills and they are weak in their ability to distinguish English sounds. So, it is necessary to conduct constant practice on distinguishing and correcting English sounds at the initial stage of listening class. It is practicable to select listening materials containing easy English words, English phonetic symbols or the combination of the both.

2. Secondly, with students' abilities to distinguish English sounds improving, listening materials containing single sentences can be selected. The practice of dictation on single sentences can be implemented by different groups with each group containing 10 to 15 single sentences. The length, difficulty and the speed of the single sentences is fully determined by students' performance on the training. In the beginning, comparatively simple sentences are provided. With listening practices keep going on, the length and the difficulty of single sentences can be improved bit by bit and the speed of the single sentence can also be increased accordingly.

3. Lastly, little essays can be offered for students to practice on dictation. In the course of transition from single sentences to listening to short essays, a variety of hints can be suggested to students in order to lower their difficulty in listening comprehension.

In summary, the implementation of the method of dictation at the early stage of college English listening class is helpful for developing students' abilities to deal with language information and laying down solid foundations on improving students' listening skills. The proper use of the method can help students improve their listening skills within a short period of time.

B. Training on Oral English

With the rapid development of China's robust export-oriented economy and culture in the world stage, College Students' ability of oral English is increasingly emphasized by both the national higher education departments as well as

students themselves. Tests on college students oral English have been included in CET-4, which shows the direction of how to conduct practice on oral English. A great major of college students have some difficulty in oral English expression upon entering the college. In view of the situation, it is suggested that the following method can be adopted so as to improve college students' oral English ability as soon as possible.

1. Lay a good foundation on English Sounds

It is known that English sound is the foundation of English language. Students' ability of oral English is directly affected by uttering English sound correctly. It is necessary to conduct systematic practice on the correction of uttering English words at early stage of college life because quite a number of students could not pronounce English words correctly. The practice on the correction of uttering English words can be arranged on the listening class using various ways, such as tongue twisters, poems, simple English songs and so on. For example, in the course of learning plosive /p/ and /b/, the following tongue twisters can be used for practice: *Peter is picking pears and pumpkins; Betty Bother bough some butters*. Meanwhile, poem reading is also a good way to practice English sounds as many poems contain very touching and music-like rhythm.

2. Retell short stories and brief dialogues already learned in the listening class.

The short stories and brief dialogues which have been already learned in the early period of listening class are extremely appropriate materials for conducting oral English practice because they are basically interesting in content and short in length. At first, it is not easy for students to open their mouth in the class actively due to their fear or shyness. It is teachers' responsibility to encourage students to open their mouths at all means. Even if students can not speak a complete sentence, the utterance of several key words in the sentence is equally worthy of warm praise from the teacher. However, with frequent and constant practice on oral English going on, it can be expected that students' inner confidence on oral English will become stronger and stronger, which will result in their corresponding enhancement in their oral English ability.

3. Have a three-minute oral report in English before English class formally starts.

Before English class formally starts, a three-minute English speech will be delivered by one student on duty. The content of English speech is non-obligatory. The speaker can discuss any topic as he wishes. He can talk about recent events at home or abroad and give his personal opinion on diversified issues that interest him/her.

C. Training on Reading Comprehension

The *College English Curriculum Requirements* points out that the top priority of College English teaching is to cultivate students' relatively-strong ability on reading comprehension, which fully shows the importance of reading comprehension. CET-4 has four requirements on reading comprehension: a. grasp the main idea of the passage b. find the facts and details leading to the topic or the main theme of the passage c. understand the literal meaning of the passage and in the meantime make reasonable judgment and inference based on the passage d. understand the meaning of some particular sentences in the passage and also understand the logic relationship of the context. To meet the requirements mentioned above, students must learn some reading skills and techniques. The following methods of developing reading skills are suggested as follows:

1. skimming

Skimming is one of the very useful reading skills that the reader only grasps the main idea of the passage without paying attention to every detail mentioned in the passage. The following three methods can be adopted to help increase the speed of skimming: a. to skim a passage, it is necessary to read the first two paragraphs of the passage at a faster speed in order to determine the main idea, background or theme of the passage as well as the writing style of the author. b. while skimming, it is important to find the top sentence and get the main idea of each paragraph. c. to achieve the quicker reading speed, skimming should be conducted by reading the passage in idea groups instead of reading the passage word by word or sentence by sentence.

2. consultation

Consultation is also one of the very useful reading skills that the reader picks up some particular information from abundance of words in the passage. Several points should be noted when consultation is adopted: a. determine the information you want to look for and its form b. learn to find the location of particular information in the passage c. learn to look for the information by way of glimpse at the passage.

3. read-up

Read-up is such a kind of reading skill that the reader reads the passage very carefully. Read-up requires the reader to have a complete and thorough understanding of the meaning of the passage. Several points should be paid attention to when read-up is used: a. determine the main idea of the passage b. make correct inference based on the main idea of the passage c. figure out the meaning of unfamiliar words according to the context d. to introduce the main idea of each paragraph based on the sentence structure and writing style of the passage.

In all, the above-mentioned reading skills are not exclusive from each other because reading is the process of incorporating numerous reading skills and techniques. To understand a passage well, it is necessary to use the above-mentioned reading skills in a proper and flexible way.

D. Training on Writing

It is known to all that the development of students' competence in English language and mentality can be fully

reflected in their writing. How to improve students' writing skill is undoubtedly a hot topic worthy of constant exploration for English teachers and English researchers. Training on how to write well are mainly focused on three aspects: vocabulary, sentences and the paragraph(passage).

1. Vocabulary

Vocabulary is the key to writing well. So, teachers are supposed to carry out vocabulary teaching through the whole process of text learning. The concrete ways are:

(1). to conduct practice on relevant words

Teachers offer another words and phrases that are relevant to the words appearing in each text and ask students to complete sentences with proper forms of the words and phrases offered.

(2). to actively use the words just learned

Teachers ask students to make sentences using the key words which students have just learned in the text. By making sentences using the key words, students will have a better grasp of the usage of the new words.

(3). to conduct practice on frequently used collation of some new words

In addition to understanding the meaning of some words, students are also required to understand some frequently used collation of some words. The foresaid ways of vocabulary teaching will lay a solid foundation for the improvement of students' writing skills.

2. Sentences

With the increase in students' vocabulary, teachers are supposed to conduct single sentence training for students. Writing good single sentences is essential to writing well. Several points can not fail to neglect:

1) the unity of the sentence should be emphasized, that is, each sentence is allowed to have only one key point however long or short the sentence is;

2) the meaning of the sentence should be clearly expressed by the sentence and the sentence should be logical.

3) complete the sentence pattern using idiomatic English instead of Chinglish

4) the sentence should be simple and concise

5) the sentence should be balanced instead of top-heaviness

6) the wording of the sentence should be carefully considered to achieve the accurate and vivid effect.

Through single sentence writing, students can develop good habit of writing and finally they can write out sentences which are grammatically correct and full of expressive force as well.

3. paragraphs/passage

A group of sentence organized carefully in the order of logical development will constitute a paragraph. Generally speaking, a paragraph is made up of one topic sentence, one reasoning sentence and one end sentence. How to write a paragraph well? Here are some suggestions.

1) the fundamental function of the topic sentence is to express directly and clearly the main idea of the paragraph, so, simple and concise sentence should be employed as topic sentence.

2) students should be frequently reminded that all reasoning sentences must concentrate on the main theme of the paragraph without writing sentence irrelevant with the main theme of the paragraph. Besides, teachers need to ask students to pay attention to the variety of the sentences and the usage of transition words so that the smoothness and vividness of the sentence can be achieved.

3) the key to writing end sentence well lies in the grasp of key words in the topic sentence and answer the questions enacted by the topic sentence. Based on the rigid and steady writing training in the order of vocabulary, single sentence and to paragraph, students are definitely expected to improve their writing skills to a great extent.

E. Training on Translation

It is my personal opinion that for a long time College English teachers have not paid enough attention to translation. As a result, students have shown insufficient ability in translation. As a matter of fact, translation is a relatively complex language activity which concerns dealing with two different cultural backgrounds at the same time. The training on translation skills is provided as follows:

1. The key to translation is to accurately understand the content of the translated material.

Before doing the job of translation, translator is supposed to have a thorough and accurate understanding of the content of the translated material otherwise errors in translation are unavoidable. Accurate understanding of the content of the translated material can be analyzed from word meaning and language environment.

1) analysis of word meaning

a. one important feature of English words is that it may contain different meaning in different context. translator not only pay attention to the concept meaning of the word but also note its associative meaning for example, in the phrase *accept a university chair*, here, the concept meaning of chair is a kind of instrument for someone to sit in ,but in this phrase, the associative meaning of chair should be considered, it should be interpreted as a position. So the whole meaning of the phrase can be explained as this: he agrees to be engaged in teaching in the university.

b. translation should pay attention to the influence that social and cultural background exert on the language. For another example, how to understand the following sentence, *George's Waterloo was a woman*. It is known to all Waterloo is the location where the French Emperor Napoleon suffered great failure in the battlefield. Afterwards, the word Waterloo was borrowed to indicate the meaning of failure. So the sentence means that George was totally ruined

by a woman.

c. translator should be aware of the usage of English idioms and old sayings in the language. For example *You say that it is out of question, but it seems to me that it is out of the question*. In this sentence, two phrases “out of question” and “out of the question” are English idioms which possess exactly opposite meaning. For another example *it rains dogs and cats*. It will be ridiculous to translate the sentence literally without knowing the meaning of the old saying “rain cats and dogs”.

2) analysis of language environment

Language environment includes both context where the sentence lies and also the social background that the sentence reflects. It is incorrect to neglect the social background which the sentence reflects while doing the job of translation. For example The Japanese burned houses, robbed the wealth of people and raped woman. Considering the crimes that the Japanese soldiers have committed to the Chinese people during the Second World War, that is, considering the social background that the sentence reflects, it is good to translate the Japanese as the Japanese s devil.

2. The essence of translation is to fully express the content of the translated material.

No one denies that the first step of translation lies in the accurate understanding of the translated material while the essence of translation is to fully express the content of the translated material. Translator will not only express the original meaning that the author tries to convey but also demonstrate the soul of the translated material. In order to achieve the objectives mentioned before, students are required to master the principles of two languages and have a good command of two languages. The combination of expressing fully on the basis of understanding and deepening understanding in the course of expression will bring forward a great progress in students’ translation abilities.

III. CONCLUSION

In summary, the five basic skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating are infiltrative and promotive to each other. Teachers should be fully aware of the significance of the training of the five basic skills of college English on College English teaching at the basic stage.

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Self Estrangement in Samuel Beckett's Existentialism and Theatre

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Abstract—Samuel Beckett, an outstanding 20th century literary figure, has contributed a lot to solving the existential problems of man through a large number of oeuvre. Being familiar with all philosophical schools of thought and especially a proponent of existential philosophical movement, he was well aware of this school of thought characteristics and its underlying themes, such as anxiety, horror, liberty, the harbinger of death and finally consciousness of existing, a perspective on life that is a quest for the meaning of life and existence. In this search, however, he advocates Kierkegaard and the idea that human beings can be understood only from the inside that is, based on their lived and experienced reality and dilemmas not from the outside employing different branches of science. On this line, via the Theatre of Absurd, he tries to demonstrate man's attempt in his query for his estranged self.

Index Terms—Beckett, self estrangement, existentialism

I. INTRODUCTION

Twentieth century has been the age of the outbreak of two world wars resulting in the spiritual disillusion. This alongside the relativity theory of Einstein, the Darwinist theory of the survival of the fittest, existentialism philosophy principles, and many more changes to be discussed later on greatly influenced literature in the western world. These obsessions are well manifested in 20th century writers of prose fiction including Franz Kafka whose novels and stories' characters also face alarmingly incomprehensible predicaments which have highlighted this modern sense of human purposelessness in a universe without meaning or value as the absurd nature of human existence, and philosophers like Sartre and Shariati¹ who has stipulated the point as follows: From the ancient times to the renaissance and even to 17th and 18th century, Human being has had the same clear –cut definition as other natural phenomena have had. Human being as a creature on the globe has had a taken- for- granted meaning. But with the advent of 20th century and its idiosyncrasies, the already taken-for-granted defined creature turns to the most passive of all, bewildered, disillusioned, dislocated and purposeless. Philosophers, Intellectuals and even ordinary people all encounter the bewilderment of simple questions: Who am I? What am I? Why am I here? What will be the be-all and the be-end of me?

II. DISCUSSION

This attitude is also reflected in the works of the dramatists of the 1950 including Edward Albee, Vaclav Havel, Jean Genet, and Ionesco just to name some. On the line of handling these ambiguities, drama again has proved to be promising. Metman, asserts that, by far the most profound and daring writer associated with this development in drama reflecting the man condition in twentieth century has been Samuel Beckett, who has gone considerably further than any of his contemporaries. Instead of merely showing human existence in its unadorned nakedness, he strips his figures so thoroughly of all those qualities in which the audience might recognize itself that, to start with, an alienation effect is created that leaves the audience mystified. That is to say, the vacuum between what is shown on the stage and the on looker has become so unbearable that the latter has no alternative but either to reject and turn away or to be drawn into the enigma of plays in which nothing reminds him of any of his purposes in and reactions to the world around him. Samuel Beckett has been influenced by the French existential philosophy of Sartre and Camus that held human beings simply exist in a universe. Beckett read various philosophical treatises; he dealt specifically with Descartes, Schopenhauer, and Geulincx. They were the major sources of influence on Beckett's view of the world and his literary writings. They mainly formed his framework of existential thinking. The world in which Beckett begins to write is one without unity, clarity, rationality, or hope, and where man feels himself alone and a stranger in a place which itself will one day cease to exist. "From this confrontation between the unreasonable silence of the universe and the human need to be, there arises that futile revolt against existence; the painful rebellion of the spirit against three necessities – the object necessity of begin born, the hard necessity of living, and the sharp necessity of dying –which is constant through Beckett's works"². Existentialism which is a movement in twentieth-century philosophy and literature centers on the individual and his or her relationship to the universe or God. It focused on the person, on individual existence, subjectivity, and choice. Two main existential doctrines assert that there is no fixed human essence structuring our lives

¹ Shariati, Ali (2008). The Alienated Man. Tehran: Ghalam Publication, p.71

² Lall, Ramji (2001). Waiting for Godot. New Delhi: Rama Brothers Publication, p.33

and that our choices are never determined by anything except our free will. The origin dates to Plato's famous idea, "Essence precedes existence." This idea, introduced by Aristotle, thousands of years ago gave rise to a number of different models for looking at life, and of course it still does. It states that existence doesn't just happen, that some essence (or meaning? or purpose? or creator?) must come first, and that out of this essence comes our existence. The Essential Man exists, in other words, before any individual person existed, and all people are derived from this perfect essence. Our existences therefore have meaning to the extent that we are able to understand or sense this larger essence. We use our existence in this Platonic view to understand the essence, to recognize it, to conform and maybe even submit to it. What is the comfort, and what is the cruelty of this view? The comfort is that as humans made from the same blueprint; so to speak, we can all understand and generally feel the same things. The cruelty of this Platonic view is that we will never be able to feel (or even think?) anything that each generation before us hasn't already felt. Even during those times when our feelings are so strong that we naturally assume no one else ever could have experienced or felt such fine or rare emotions, people still have. The fact that our existences all come from the same essence guarantees it. Existentialism reverses the emphases of Plato's observation. It theorizes that "Existence precedes essence." There is no universal or divine blueprint or creating essence, this view maintains. Existence simply happens on its own, and we devote time and energy to looking at the nature of our existence in order to try to generate from it a useful meaning or essence. It correlates with the *tabula rasa* concept of John Lock in that upon that existence one assigns an existence. One person can conclude that life or existence means one thing and another can conclude differently. Or the same person can decide different things at different times about the meaning of his existence. The slipperiness and difficulty of the nature of the existence makes this possible, maybe even likely. The comfort and the cruelty of this view can be seen in Jean-Paul Sartre's phrase "Man is condemned to be free"³. We have no predefined or archetypal pattern to guide us and this certainly represents a freedom, but it is probably more freedom than most would desire. This desire, on the one hand, goes as far as that they treat religion, science, or other external factors as constraints and limits on the way of their individual freedom. On the other hand, it creates an opportunity for evading the responsibility for their own deeds and behavior by simply declaring that they are driven by factors beyond their control and that what they do can not be. This is where exactly the crisis of human identity, his ambiguity of self arises. This school of philosophy forms the building block of the theater of absurd which is the dominant form of drama at 20th-century. This theatre departs from realistic characters, situations, already accepted traditions, and finally a theatre in which time, place, and identity are ambiguous and fluid. The movement flourished in the mid-20th century Europe. Nineteenth-century precursors to this school of thought include some notable 19th century precursors include Kierkegaard and Nietzsche. Other 20th-century notables include Albert Camus, Jean Genet, Andre Gide, Simone de Beauvoir, Franz Kafka, and Beckett. One of the most basic philosophical questions asked is whether there is any meaning in our existence at all. The human necessity of unifying explanation of world has always been satisfied by religion and creators of the philosophical systems who made the human life meaningful. The natural desire to get to know and understand the world in its most hidden spheres was fulfilled by religious dogmas about the existence of God, which guaranteed the meaningful contingency of human life. From the time of Zarathustra, the old everyday certainties of life started to lose their certainty. World War I and World War II caused deep destruction and loss of human ultimate certainties and definitely brought about a world missing any unifying principle, a world senseless and disconnected with human life. If one realizes the absence of sense, and this is the expression of the spirit of epoch, in which the *Theatre of the Absurd* is rooted, the world becomes irrational and the conflict between the world and the human being who begins to be estranged from it arises here. Literature has got to mirror this view of modern human being.

Ever since, the first passionate warnings of Kierkegaard and Nietzsche about a hundred years ago; a small minority in the field of art, literature, and philosophy have been accompanied by an increasing feeling of urgency about man's self-estrangement in the modern world. Additionally, this reaction has not started with drama. The idea of man's tragic self-estrangement or I call it self ambiguity has been expressed in the works of, for example, Dostoyevsky, Rilke, and Kafka, Beckett and those writers of very varied orientations who have – against their protest – been thrown together under the common description of "existentialists"⁴, including

Heidegger, Jaspers, and Sartre. All that these have had in mind to do has been to help man in his collective existence and from the tragic absurdity of his self estrangement by enabling him to face the agony and problems of life, and his self obsessions. Many intellectuals have tried to present a justification like lack of meaning in modern life and the vacuum by which man's religious instinct has been starved or cut off, but to philosophers and dramatists who have shown themselves acutely aware of modern man's self – estrangement assert that it cannot be overcome unless pathological psychic developments are allowed to contribute to the problem solving of man's crisis of his self. Self definition and self realization at the mercy of alterations of the time, requires appropriate attention and modification. The scope of the self is not limited to philosophical view as Sartre defines consciousness as "a being, the nature of which is to be conscious of the nothingness of its being"⁵ nor to the sheer psychological one for both are out side of the

3 Quoted in Kaufmann, W (1957). *Existentialism from Dostoyevsky to Sartre*, London, p.142

4 Kaufmann, W (1957). *Existentialism from Dostoyevsky to Sartre*, London, p.142

5 Sartre, J.P. (1956), "Bad Faith" Jean – paul Sartre: *Essays in Existentialism*. Ed. W. Baskin. New Jersey: Carol publishing Group, – 147,148.

framework of the research. Instead the view of the self which forms the essence of identity will be taken into account and surveyed from Beckett's theatre view point.

Beckett's reticence in shedding light on his philosophical concepts can not be interpreted as mere whim from critics' view point. Indeed, it might be argued that in correlation between the authors and the critics' attitude lays one of the keys to the whole phenomenon of Beckett, his oeuvre, and its impact. Some critics conclude that Beckett does not concern himself with abstract and general verities, even if there were room for them in his view of the world. But to Esslin "paradoxically, however, Beckett's refusal to be more than a painstaking recorder of his modes of existence, his categorical refusal to allow any philosophical meaning or thesis is to be attributed to his work, is precisely the aspect of his activity that lifts his precarious and perilous enterprise into a sphere of significance beyond the scope of most other artists"⁶. To come to understanding of one's self and its revelation in one's oeuvre, no doubt, is not an easy task. It requires Attention and consideration knowing the fact that this attention has been shattered, which can not be the source of the consciousness upon which one can realize his own sense of self, and finally upon that felt self assign his own self an identity. This is in a sense because the world "is no longer turned toward the origin, affirms play and tries to pass beyond man and humanism, the name of man being the name of that being who, throughout the entire history of metaphysics of onto-theology; in other words, throughout his entire history-has dreamed of full presence, the reassuring of foundation, the origin and the end of the play"⁷. This view is what exactly Beckett reveals in an idiosyncratic way in his plays. The concept of self was theorized by Descartes, Rousseau, Hegel, and countless other western philosophers. This self can be determined or known differently. For some only through self presence one can get rid of the miseries of the world. To some, there is a need "to structure experience and fix the poles of self and world". To these people, "the real Fall occurred not in Eden but in our century. After the accumulation of too much history, we have lost the innocence required to believe in any more explanations. The only certainties left are the falseness of all interpretative structures and the radical unintelligibility of human experience without them"⁸. Descartes asserts that one can come to an idea of the self only through contemplation. On the other hand, Deleuze and Guattari claim that *Self* can not be contemplated by itself: "We must always contemplate something else in order to be filled with an image of ourselves"⁹.

This flash back to the concept of self in philosophers' view point, paves the way for the way the concept is treated in Beckett's works. Beckett, with this regard, rather than attempting to define or give shape to his own life - to make himself present to himself through writing his works explores the notion of the self. From his work, we come up with the idea that the self is able to produce the text, but it is in turn subject to being produced by text, even more, in the end, reduced to nothing more than the text itself. As a to the point reference to the idea of the way self is projected and revealed a comparison proves promising. From philosophical view point, Descartes ultimately is able to give form to the subject through self-reflection and production of footfalls. Whether they are, what they are "not quite there" is the status which the majority of Beckett's characters suffer. Some characters like Ada in *Embers* is not "present" at all, because they are not at all alive. Some others are ghost- Beckett's characters never get to that stability. They are rarely present at present. For example, one of Beckett's favorite actresses, Billy Whitelaw, became cunningly cognizant of the ambiguous states of being in Beckett's work while preparing for a like, not entirely absent, but not present either. One point which strikes readers' mind with regard to the ambiguity of self in Beckett's works is the fact that Beckett's characters, especially in his novels, do not seem human and even though they are endowed with a name and human physical form, their identities do not remain stable long. For example, in *Waiting for Godot*, he introduces the hazardous zones in the life of the individual, perilous, precarious, mysterious and fertile, when for a moment; in the individual's life the suffering of being replaces the boredom of living which is opposite to the obsession of his contemporary playwrights. For example, the anguish Pinter's characters experience has more social, psychological, and mental basis originating from their failure in having stability of identity, feeling self esteem and respect within them. Some outside and in case of many of his character's an inside sense of disillusion or threat blur their view of their selves and identities. This blockage of one's view of life and identity may have originated from the absurd philosophy of life, existence, and one's sense of self. Krapp in *Krapp's Last Tape* is handling his fragmented selves. This can be due to the fact that "we can be multiple people simultaneously, with no one of these selves necessarily more valid than any other"¹⁰. This touches upon one's senses in revealing the instability of self or its ambiguity which gives rise to all problems of life, existence, and death that modern man is facing in this world. In *Waiting for Godot*, the characters sound like vagrants, invisible like Godot, slippery and submissive like Pozzo and the like. In *Engage*, the father and mother figures suffer from the lack of self stability and respect. Even son figure, Hamm, and Clov, from another view point, both suffer the same view of individual's self. Each character proving to be a paragon of modern man well reveals this aspect of modern man's obsessions. To dissolve them, man has to surpass the arduous blurring obstacles which have hindered his understanding of his self, identity, existence and philosophy of his being. In this contemporary period, people do not have any ideals before them to whom they can surrender their life and go on living with relax certainty. They are

6 Esslin, Martin (2004). *The Theatre of the Absurd*. New York: Vintage Books, p, 61

7 Derrida, Jacques (1978). *Writing and Difference*. Alan Bassr Tran. Chicago: Chicago University Press.1978, p.292

8 Levy, Eric (1980). *Beckett and the Voice of Species: A Study of the Prose Fiction*. New York: Barnes and Noble, p. 10

9 Deleuze. Quoted from the first published text of the English version in *Ever Green Review* No. 30, Faber and Faber, London p. 74-75

10 Baym, Nancy K. (2000). *The emergence of on-line community*. In *Cyber society 2.0: Revisiting computer-mediated communication and community*, ed. Steven G. Jones, 35-68.

rejection of those ideas, of economic and ideological governmental violence, which disregard who we are individually. They are also a rejection of a scientific or administrative questioning which establishes one's identity"¹¹. We can not imitate anybody's ideals which can be either too high or too below of the capacity of human beings. So man should try to identify his or her capacities and go on living after scrutinizing the different philosophical contradictions and coping with the dominance of absurdity in his life.

III. CONCLUSION

Unlike philosophical debates hanging in abstractness, Beckett crystallizes the manifestations of existentialism philosophy in his oeuvre through his idiosyncratic theater and his specifically created characters to deal with one of the great obsessions of modern man that is his estranged, dislocated, and dispossessed self. He has introduced this through successions of characters of one single character or pseudo-couple characters, or turning the characters to their sheer blurred invisible voices. He has dealt with, introduced, and manifested one of the abstract existential obsession of modern man regarding his self and philosophy of existence that no one has ever been that much assertive and promising in its revelation. The main reason for the displacement and estrangement of self, no doubt, in his theatre originates from the absurdity which has dominated man at the post modern era which Beckett has crystallized it in his existential philosophy via his idiosyncratic theatre of Absurd. The sheer gist of this absurdity can be inferred from Eliot's Sweeney Agonistes: Birth, and copulation, and death. That's all, That's all, That's all. Birth, and copulation, and death. The only way to get rid of this state of self fluidity that Beckett has wished to illustrate in his plays is through the sheer awareness of the audience to come to their own understanding of their own perceived and stabilized sense of their selves.

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11 AFroghe, Shahram(2010). Post modernism, Theatre, Beckett. Boroujerd: Azad UP, p.22

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