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Discourse Markers and Reading Comprehension: Is there an effect?

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Abstract—This paper is a contribution to the studies conducted for investigating the relationship between text linguistic signals and reading comprehension. The aim of this paper is to test the hypothesis that discourse markers facilitate reading comprehension. The specific question addressed is whether the presence of discourse markers facilitates reading comprehension at a global level (i.e., at the discourse level). Two groups of L2 learners were given a text followed by multiple choice comprehension questions. One group was given the actual text, while the other group was given the same text with discourse markers removed. The results indicated that there were no differences in the performance of the two groups. The study concluded that presence or absence of discourse markers may have no effect on the overall representation of coherent information needed for reading comprehension.

Index Terms—reading comprehension, discourse markers, local and global coherence, on-line and off-line coherence

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading comprehension is an outcome of text processing that involves the construction of a coherent cognitive representation of the information in the text. That representation is established by integrating the information provided in text units and understanding the coherence relations that bond those text units to each other (Dijk & Kintsch, 1983). Cohesion, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976), are realized through four main elements: connectives such as conjunctions and some lexical expressions, cataphoric and anaphoric references, substitution as in using pronouns instead of nouns, and ellipsis. These features act together to structure text information in a coherent way for readers.

The relationship between reading comprehension and textual signals such as connectives, paragraph headings, and lexical signals, has been the topic of many studies (e.g. Chung, 2000; Degand, Lefèvre & Bestgen, 1999; Degand & Sanders, 2002; Geva, 1992; Loman & Mayer, 1983; Millis, Graesser, & Haberlandt, 1993; Millis & Just, 1994; Noordman, Vonk, & Kempff, 1992; Sanders & Noordman, 2000; Spyridakis & Standal, 1987). Such signals are claimed to positively or negatively affect the comprehension of text information at different levels: macrostructure and microstructure (Chung, 2000), local and global (Degand & Sanders, 2002), on-line and off-line (Degand & Sanders, 2002; Noordman et al., 1992; Sanders & Noordman, 2000), and more on a pyramid ladder; intrasentential, intersentential and discourse (Geva, 1992; Millis & Just, 1994). This paper is mainly concerned with the relationship between connectives and text comprehension at a global level which refers to the intellectual understanding of the overall connotation in a piece of discourse.

Connectives have been also called conjunctive expressions (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), pragmatic markers (Fraser, 1990), discourse connectives (Blakemore, 1987), and widely in the field of memory and comprehension, lexical signals. Because of the variant names given to this category of linguistic forms, the term discourse markers will be used in this paper as a synonym to all terms above, as it has been now more likely to appear in recent research as prototype term to include any lexical form that has the function of connecting segments of text (e.g. Blakemore, 2002; Schiffrin, 2005; Taboada, 2006). Thus, the definition of discourse markers this paper is working under is as follow:

“I define discourse markers as a class of lexical expressions drawn primarily from the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbs, and prepositional phrases. With certain exception, they signal a relationship between the interpretation of the segment they introduce, S2, and the prior segment, S1. They have a core meaning, which is procedural, not conceptual, and their more specific interpretation is ‘negotiated’ by the context, both linguistic and conceptual” (Fraser, 1999, p. 931)

A. Local and Global Coherence

Although several studies have investigated the role of discourse markers in establishing a coherent discourse representation, there is still no consensus on whether discourse markers facilitate reading comprehension or not. Chung (2000) explored the contribution of discourse markers and paragraph headings to the macro and micro levels of comprehension. Three groups of different reading abilities were organized and given four reading tasks versions, one of them included no discourse markers. The study showed that discourse markers enhance the understanding of the overall

representation of the information in a given text, i.e. at macrostructure level of reading, but having no effect at the microstructure level between the segments of reading texts.

What referred to as macrostructure and microstructure in Chung (2000) was discussed by Degand and Sanders (2002) as local and global levels of coherence. The aim of their study was to investigate the impact of causal discourse markers on the comprehension of expository texts in L1 and L2 and whether L1 or L2 makes a difference in perceiving the relationship between discourse markers and comprehension. Two groups of L1 and L2 learners were given reading texts followed by comprehension questions in both languages where the texts were manipulated with respect to the presence or absence of discourse markers. The study revealed that linguistic markers both signaling phrases and discourse markers help readers in both L1 and L2 to form a coherent cognitive representation of the information in the text, and the presence of causal markers seems to influence the construction of a coherent mental representation at both local and global coherence levels.

Similarly, Geva (1992) supported the positive effect of connectives on coherence and comprehension locally and globally. Geva (1992) designed fill in blank and match tasks to test the signaling of conjunctions at three different levels: intrasentential, intersentential and discourse, and whether every level support the other. She found that the relationships between text segments are scaffolding each other starting with the relation within the sentence to the relation between the sentences that finally lead to coherent representation to the overall discourse. Being able to infer the logical relationships within intrasentential or intersentential constrains is positively related to better information processing in the extended discourse.

In a similar study of discourse markers and intersentential relationships, Millis and Just (1994) examined whether the presence of discourse markers such as 'because' between two sentences creates the activation of information given in the first sentence. The subjects were given a number of statements pairs some of which include markers and some not and were asked to read them on a computer screen. After reading, the subjects were asked to judge whether the word appeared on the screen is a probe word in the first clause and then answer true-false comprehension questions. The results revealed that discourse markers led to reactivation of contents of the first of two statements to be integrated and the discourse marker versions in the study led to faster recognition time. The subjects were able to integrate the statements into a coherent representation in related statement linked by discourse markers and the presence of markers also increased the integration and the coherence of the eventual sentence representation.

B. On-line and Off-line Coherence

Discourse markers aid inferences that could be drawn from the text, which serve to relate parts of the text to each other for integrating the information given (Dijk & Kintsch, 1983). The issue of the inference from physical representation of the text to the cognitive construction of information resulted in distinguishing between on-line and off-line coherence, and in questioning whether the coherence on-line would lead to the coherence off-line. Sanders and Noordman (2000) investigated the role of coherence relations assumed to be built by discourse markers in text processing and they examined the explicit and implicit inferences of these relations; i.e. whether coherence relations have cognitive relevance or not. The participants were given manipulated reading texts, some have markers and some have not, where some express causal relations while other express list relations. The reading activities were followed by verification and recall tasks. The results showed that the markers have an effect during online processing, but its influence decreases over time, and the processing of a text segment depends on the relation it has with preceding segments in the text. Discourse markers facilitate the encoding of the coherence relation between two text segments and the presence of markers leads to faster processing of the subsequent segment.

The inference of physical text scripts in text coherence was also studied by Noordman, Vonk, and Kempff (1992). They examined the understanding of 'because' sentences in context, and whether off-line information representation is affected by inference process of such marker, which is assumed to relate part of the text to a previous part and in this way establish on-line coherent representation. In one of the experiments where the participants were given different short reading texts with and without the marker 'because' followed by true false questions, Noordman et al. were testing whether readers make inferences of the causality relation implicitly or explicitly. Results revealed that these inferences are not spontaneously made on-line. Besides, the reader's purpose affects the on-line inference process especially when readers want to obtain certain information concerning a particular point. These inferences are actually backward and not necessarily on-line but rather off-line.

On the other hand, Millis, Graesser, and Haberlandt (1993), in a study that investigated the impact of discourse markers on memory for expository text, argued that discourse markers negatively interfere on the process of recall which is the main process in structuring coherent representation of information. Same manipulated texts, with and without discourse markers, were given to the participants who were asked to recall the information of the text after reading. The results of the study showed that recall for passages without discourse markers was higher than the recall for passages with markers. Discourse markers did not facilitate memory, which is basic for comprehension, quite the opposite, they reduced or constrained the degree to which the reader generates inter-clause elaborations which causes fragmented cognitive representation of text information.

In sum, whether markers have negative or positive or even no effect at all on reading comprehension has yet to be resolved in the literature. Therefore, more studies are needed to determine the effect of discourse markers on the comprehension of text information. Accordingly, this paper, following most of the studies mentioned above, tests the

hypothesis that discourse markers have an effect on reading comprehension and the following question will be examined in this paper:

Does the presence of discourse markers facilitate reading comprehension?

II. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants in this study were ten international students from different countries (5 Saudi, 3 Chinese, 1 Korean, and 1 Vietnamese). They were all studying English in an intensive English program at a southwest university in the United States. All participants are in the intermediate level of the program where they were placed after they had taken the TOEFL language proficiency test. This group was chosen to control for proficiency variability had the participation been also open to other learners with different proficiency levels in the program and to have a homogeneous group to a large extent. The participants were 7 males and 3 females with no substantial differences between their ages ($M = 20.2$; $r = 5$; $SD = 1.68$). However, there were clear differences in the number of years they had learned or had been exposed to English language before ($M = 11.7$; $r = 12$; $SD = 4.32$).

B. Design

The study employs a control group design to test the hypothesis that discourse markers facilitate reading comprehension. The independent variable was discourse markers and reading comprehension was the dependent variable. Learners were assigned to matched groups based on their reading placement test scores. In a matched group design, learners are matched based on a criterion (e.g., proficiency level, L1 background, number of years studying English...etc). In this study the criterion was English language proficiency level based on the placement test results. For example, if two students got a score of 8 out of 10 on the placement test, they would form a pair and one of them will be assigned to the control group and the other will be assigned to the experiment group randomly. This process resulted in five pairs and they were divided into two groups. Half of the learners, therefore, ($N = 5$) were assigned to the control group and the other half of the learners ($N = 5$) were assigned to the experiment group. Moreover, the matching procedure resulted in uneven distribution of learners by L1 background or gender. This is usually expected in such procedure, but it made the investigation of L1 or gender effect, in this study, almost impossible.

The same experiment text was manipulated into two versions, one included discourse markers, to be taken by the control group, and the other did not, to be taken by the experiment group. An interview was designed, too, to get the personal background information and to have the participants' comments on the experiment test.

C. Materials

a. Reading placement test

The reading placement test consisted of one expository text of approximately 300 words followed by 6 comprehension questions. The text was chosen from an intermediate level academic reading skill textbook - *Making Connection* (Pakenham, 2005). The book was designed for students who want to improve their reading skill ability to get the required score in the TOEFL, hence the text was chosen from this book as to avoid the difficulty that might arise from the difference between the level of the students and the level of the placement text. Although the topic of the text *Heart Disease and Changing Attitudes* (Pakenham, 2005, p. 8) was believed to be quiet common and familiar to the participants, the questions tested the information given or inferred only from the text. The comprehension questions, which were all text based, consisted of 2 true or false and 4 multiple-choice questions.

b. Experimental test

The experiment text was chosen from *Cambridge Preparation for the TOEFL Test* designed and constructed by experts working in this field. The text, which is an actual text used in the standardized globally administered exam TOEFL, is of approximately 300 words followed by 8 comprehension questions. To avoid prior knowledge or information variable on the test material, the topic of the chosen text was of historical information about using wood in North American and European colonies, a topic which is or likely to be unfamiliar to international students. The text was manipulated to create two versions, one actual text and text with discourse markers absent. The actual text consisted of 5 discourse markers (2 order markers: secondly and thirdly, 3 compare and contrast markers: nevertheless, but and however) whereas these markers were omitted from the second version of the text. Under working definition of discourse markers in this study, these were the markers found in this text which as mentioned above was suitable for its uncommon topic to the participants. The subordinate conjunctions such as because and but were not omitted from the text as they were not functioning as discourse markers in their contexts. Instructions of the test were to read the text and underline any word, phrase or sentence where the participants face difficulty and then to answer the questions followed. The two versions were followed by 8 multiple-choice comprehension questions about the text information.

Questions in both the placement and the experiment reading passages were used as is, were not modified, and no other questions were added in order to maintain the validity of the reading passages questions.

c. Interview

The interview consisted of two main parts (see Appendix A). The first included questions about the personal information of the participants such as age, gender, and English study background. The second part was the main part

which included six reflective open-answer questions. The questions ranged from general questions about the text and the reading activity to specific questions about the underlined phrases or sentences in participants' collected reading materials.

D. Procedure

The study was carried out over an 8-day period. First, on day one of the procedure, in a regularly scheduled reading class, the participants were given the placement test to answer in 20 minutes. Based on the placement test scores the participants were divided into two matched groups. On day eight, in the reading class a week after the placement test, the experiment test was administered. To avoid participants' feelings of having different texts by organizing them into two groups in the class, their names were already written on the test papers which was a usual practice used by the teacher. The participants remained in their seats and given the predetermined version to take the test. Both groups took the test at the same time in class with a 20-minute period of time. The participants were asked to read the text and underline any word, phrase, sentence or group of sentences that they might consider difficult or ambiguous, and then answer 8 multiple-choice questions. The participants asked to submit their test papers to the researcher, who was waiting in the teacher's office next to the class room, and answer his questions. Each participant was interviewed separately for almost five minutes and asked to reflect and comment on the reading activity and the underlines he or she made during the experiment test.

III. RESULTS

Two reading texts followed by comprehension questions were used in this study. The first was used as the placement test to measure students reading ability in order to match them and assign them to two matched groups, while the second was used to administer the experiment.

A. Placement Test

The placement test had a maximum score of 10 points. The participants were paired and assigned to two groups: control and experiment groups. As shown in Table 1., the experiment group *Mdn* was 6.66 while the *Mdn* of the control group score was, also, the same 6.66. Besides, the difference between the *IQR* of the two groups was not noteworthy (control group = 3.33; experiment group = 4.17).

TABLE 1
PLACEMENT SCORES BY GROUP

	Median	IQR	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Control group (<i>n</i> = 5)	6.66	3.33	-1.00	.317
Experimental group (<i>n</i> = 5)	6.66	4.17		

This showed that there was no difference in the variability of the two groups. Although the data was normally distributed, the number of the subjects was relatively small (*n* = 10). So a Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was used to compare their scores. As planned, there was no significant differences between the two groups (*z* = -1.00, *p* > .05). Thus, there were no differences between the two groups in terms of the learners' overall reading comprehension.

B. Experiment Test

For the experiment test, the total score was also 10 points. As shown in Table 2., the scores *Mdn* of the control group, which read the original text, was 2.50, while the scores *Mdn* of the experiment group, which read the modified text was 3.75. This revealed that there is a slight difference between the medians of the two groups. As to whether there was a significant differences in the performance of the two groups in terms of their scores on the reading comprehension questions, Wilcoxon Test results (*z* = -.137, *p* > .05) indicated that there was no significant difference.

TABLE 2
EXPERIMENT SCORES BY GROUP

	Median	IQR	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Control group (<i>n</i> = 5)	2.50	3.75	-1.37	.891
Experimental group (<i>n</i> = 5)	3.75	3.12		

IV. DISCUSSION

The results of this study illustrate that the performance of the experiment group was not different from the control group in responding to the reading comprehension questions. On the contrary, they were relatively equal. There was no impact of discourse markers on the reading comprehension of both groups. The facilitative effect of discourse markers on building macro-coherent representation of text information revealed by Chung (2000), and Degand and Sanders

(2002) was not supported in this study. Moreover, the coherence of text does not seem to follow a build-up hierarchy, shown in Geva (1992) and in Millis and Just (1994).

On the other hand, the interview with the subjects after the experiment test revealed that 90% of them reported that the test was not too difficult or too easy, while only 10% reported that the text was relatively hard for them. However, when they were asked about the difficult part of the text, they all reported it was “vocabulary”, which was really obvious when the parts they underlined in the text while taking the test were examined. They were asked to underline not only vocabulary but any part in the text that they think it is difficult or confusing, whether a phrase, a sentence or a group of sentences. However, they underlined only vocabulary and reported that they did not feel that there were any confusing parts or missing pieces of information and they reported that the flow of ideas in the text was sound. This finding was reported by all learners and there was not difference by learners who were considered a bit higher than others in the groups.

Although the participants did not understand some vocabulary in the text, they were able to understand the information given in the text and to build a global coherence. Moreover, they did not show any indication that there is any misconnection or no connection at the inter-sentential level, which provides evidence that the presence or absence of discourse markers may not affect the representation of the text information on-line (Noordman, Vonk, & Kempff, 1992) as opposite to the claim that discourse markers facilitate on-line coherence process as well as off-line cohesion process (Sanders & Noordman, 2000). On the other hand, coherence of text components for off-line unity could be achieved by integrating the pieces of information of the text through the semantic relationships such as anaphora, cataphora, substitution and ellipsis (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). In this respect, the relationship of discourse markers to text comprehension might just be as the relation of other vocabularies and phrases to the overall understanding of the text. This argument is still awaiting further research and future investigation.

According to the results of this paper, however, the hypothesis presented in previous literature that there is an effect of discourse markers, is not supported at least for the subjects of this study. In addition, this study is just another contribution to the previous literature in respect of showing no inference of discourse markers on the coherent construction of text representation at a global level and adding strength to this theory. However, it could present a new perspective of treating discourse markers as just vocabulary with semantic meaning and function; which needs empirical investigation to be attested. On the other hand, the influence of discourse markers at local level, or in other words ‘inter-sentential’ (Geva, 1992; Millis & Just, 1994) can still be valid because, from this paper perspective, at local level a discourse marker would be crucial element as any other vocabulary if taken from a sentence, though this claim is not always true and it calls for more research too.

The results of this study, however, should be treated with caution since the sample of the study is very small. This limitation made it impossible to investigate other possible factors, such as L1 influence and gender, that might have led to such results. Other factors would be language proficiency level. Since only one group of English proficiency levels (i.e., intermediate) was chosen with the rationale that proficiency level needed to be controlled, the investigation of the effect of proficiency level could not be achieved in this study and future research could include different levels of language proficiency to investigate such impact.

V. CONCLUSION

In fact, reading comprehension is a complicated process that has to do with a lot of factors regarding background and cognitive processing; the process which is still vague and has no firm explanations to how text is processed. The results of this study contribute to the field of text cognitive processing and discourse markers inference. The effect of discourse markers on overall representation of coherent information for reading comprehension require more investigation and, based on the results of this study, discourse markers could just be treated as other units in the text and could have the impact of any other vocabulary in the text. In other words, learners might be processing discourse markers based on meaning but not function. This claim needs to be investigated in future research and call for reconsidering the relationship between discourse markers and text processing.

APPENDIX A INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Part one: Personal Background

Gender: _____ Age: _____
 Country: _____ First language: _____
 Number of years of studying English before: _____ Where: _____

Part two: Questions

What do you think of the reading task? Is it difficult or easy?

Where did you find it easy or difficult in the text?

Why did you underline this part of the text?

Do you feel that there is something missing?

Do you feel that there is a flow of the ideas or there is something wrong? If not, what and where?

Do you have another thing to say about the text reading activity?

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The Effect of Stimulus Bandwidth on Perception of Fricative /s/ among Individuals with Different Degrees of Sensorineural Hearing Loss

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Abstract—Most of the speech sounds that contribute to speech intelligibility are dominated by high-frequency components. The phoneme /s/ is the third or fourth most frequently occurring phoneme in the English language and second most frequently occurring consonantal phoneme in Hindi language. Given the importance of the phoneme /s/, it is ironic that, this sound contains the highest frequency acoustic elements of any speech sound in English and most of the non-English languages ranging from 4500 Hz to more than 8000 Hz. The most common type of hearing impairment affecting speech perception is high-frequency sensorineural loss (SN) and such individuals require good high frequency audibility in order to better perceive fricative cues, regardless of hearing status. While many studies appear to support the general notion that high-frequency amplification may not always be beneficial, the inter-subject variability in most studies precludes a clearly defined rule that would distinguish listeners who are likely to benefit from high-frequency amplification from those who are not. The current study is aimed to determine and compare the effective bandwidth required for the perception of fricative /s/ in individuals with normal hearing and hearing impairment as a function of degree of hearing loss. A total of 100 Hindi speaking subjects equally divided into four groups (Group I: Normal hearing, Group II: Moderate SN hearing loss, Group III: Moderately severe SN hearing loss, Group IV: Severe SN hearing loss) participated in the study. Nonsense syllables containing the phonemes /s/, /f/, /ʃ/ and /c/ in /i/ vowel context and low pass filtered at 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 KHz produced by a female talker were used as stimulus. The results revealed that there was a statistically significant effect ($p < 0.05$) of bandwidth for the perception /s/ between different groups at 1 KHz, 2 KHz, 3 KHz, 4 KHz, 5 KHz, 6 KHz, 7 KHz and 8 KHz and no significant effect ($p > 0.05$) was seen at 9 KHz between groups. In addition, individuals with normal hearing required lower bandwidth for accurate fricative perception and there was a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) in mean bandwidth between groups. Among the hearing impaired group, as the degree of hearing loss increased the subjects required higher bandwidth for accurate perception of fricative. This study has important implications in knowing the effective bandwidth required for the perception of high frequency speech sounds among individuals with hearing loss on individual basis which in turn helps in the selection of appropriate rehabilitative devices.

Index Terms—High Frequency Hearing Loss, fricative /s/, stimulus bandwidth, speech perception

I. INTRODUCTION

Speech perception is the process of transforming a continuously changing acoustical signal into discrete linguistic units (Rvachew & Grawburg, 2006). The study of speech perception is concerned with the listener's ability to perceive the acoustic waveforms produced by a speaker as a string of meaningful words and ideas (Goldinger, Pisonic & Logan, 1991). Hearing is a vital sense that is necessary for the development and maintenance of acoustic communication skills. To be able to hear and comprehend speech, good auditory integrity is required. Individuals with hearing loss are bound to have difficulty in perception of speech. Therefore, it is the essential duty of audiologists to identify, evaluate and

rehabilitate aurally handicapped individuals. One of the common hearing impairment affecting speech perception is sensorineural hearing loss.

Sensorineural hearing loss occurs due to damage to the transduction mechanism of the inner ear and due to abnormality in the auditory nerve, which are responsible for sensing sounds of different pitches. A common complaint among individuals with sensorineural hearing loss (SNHL) is difficulty understanding speech, particularly under adverse listening conditions (Crandell, 1991). The extent and nature of the difficulty depends partly on the severity of the hearing loss. Individuals with mild or moderate loss can usually understand speech reasonably well when they are in a quiet room with only one person talking. However, they have difficulty when more than one person is talking at a time, or when background noise or reverberations are present. Individuals with severe or profound loss usually have difficulty even when listening to a single talker in a quiet room and they generally have severe problems when background noise is present. Hence their ability to understand speech relies heavily on lip reading and use of context.

The most common type of hearing impairment affecting speech perception is high-frequency sensorineural loss and such individuals have some access to low-frequency sounds, with limited access to higher frequency sounds (Davis, 1995). These individuals often miss out on high-frequency components of speech, such as consonant sounds and can have difficulties understanding speech in background noise. Many sounds that contribute to speech intelligibility are dominated by high-frequency components. Furthermore, young children with hearing impairment who are learning a language for the first time benefit from being able to hear the high-frequency speech sounds that they are trying to produce (Stelmachowicz, Lewis, Choi & Hoover, 2007).

In addition to these benefits for speech perception and production, the audibility of high-frequency sounds, provides other advantages (Simpson, Hersbach & McDermott, 2005). For example, some valuable information about the source of sounds, such as birdsong and various important environmental noises are conveyed principally by high-frequency components. The subjective quality of these sounds tends to be judged as relatively poor if the high frequencies are too soft or inaudible (Moore & Tan, 2003).

Acoustically, conversational speech has the most energy between approximately 500 Hz and 3000 Hz. This mid frequency region is important for understanding speech, particularly speech that is meaningful such as words, sentences, or passages (Pavlovic, 1987; Studebaker, Pavlovic & Sherbecoe, 1987 and Studebaker & Sherbecoe, 2002). However, speech energy above 3000 Hz (high frequency region sounds) also offers listeners important linguistic information. High frequency speech information is extremely important for appreciation of music, detection of environmental sounds, and it serves several important linguistic functions in day to day communication (Kuk, Korhonen, Peeters, Keenan, Jessen & Andersen, 2006). Elfenbein, Hardin-Jones & Davis (1994) found that production and perception of fricatives may be difficult for listeners with sensorineural hearing loss.

Given the importance of the /s/ phoneme, this sound contains the highest frequency acoustic elements of any sound in the English and most of the non-English languages. Therefore, the perception of /s/ phoneme is the most challenging for the average hearing-impaired listener. It is the third or fourth most frequently occurring phoneme in the English language and serves multiple linguistic functions, including plurality, tense, and possession (Tobias, 1959; Denes, 1963 and Rudmin, 1983). Fricative /s/ is the second most frequently occurring phoneme among the overall used consonantal phonemes of Hindi (an Indo-Aryan) language (calculated from phonetically balanced words in Hindi (AIIMS, 1968 & 1969).

An analysis of the acoustic spectrum of /s/ shows that it has most of its significant energy well above 4000 Hz, ranging from 4500 Hz to more than 8000 Hz (Boothroyd, & Medwetsky, 1992). This suggests that most people with a high-frequency hearing loss must depend upon the lower frequency elements of /s/ and other high-frequency voiceless consonants in order to barely perceive them. Hence listeners require good high frequency audibility in order to better perceive fricative cues, regardless of hearing status. Among both adults and children with hearing loss, /s/ is one of the most frequently misperceived phonemes (Owens, Benedict & Schubert, 1972; Bilger & Wang, 1976; Owens, 1978; Dubno & Dirks, 1982 and Danhauer, Abdala, Johnson & Asp, 1986). Boothroyd & Medwetsky (1992) suggested that the current hearing aids may require a wider bandwidth (up to 10 KHz) to ensure the audibility of voiceless fricatives and high frequency linguistic information for female speakers.

As evidenced by many examples provided above, high frequency speech information is extremely important for speech comprehension, detection of environmental sounds, and safety. Unfortunately, this frequency region is difficult to amplify sufficiently using conventional hearing aids. Thus reduced audibility of the high frequency components of speech due to limited stimulus bandwidth of current hearing aids would be expected to impair self monitoring and thus may contribute to poorer production of fricatives and affricates.

The conventional hearing aid technology is limited in its ability to provide adequate gain for soft, high frequency speech sounds, particularly the fricative consonants. It is difficult to achieve sufficient gain in the frequency spectrum above 3000 Hz thus limiting the ability of the typical infant with hearing loss to hear high-frequency consonants, particularly the fricative sounds (Hayes & Northern, 1996). If suitable gain is achieved in the high frequency region, acoustic feedback may result when the hearing aid is worn by the listener (Beamer, Grant & Walden, 2000).

Apart from limited ability to provide sufficient high-frequency gain, conventional hearing aids provide too much gain at low frequencies (Bratt & Sammeth, 1991) and too much low-to mid-frequency gain which may mask the important

high-frequency speech information (i.e. upward spread of masking) potentially resulting in speech recognition deficits (Cook, Bacon & Sammeth, 1997 and Gange, 1998).

Additionally, the output bandwidth of conventional hearing aids is not broad enough to make high-frequency sounds consistently audible due to the technical difficulty of combining high power and high bandwidth in the same transducer (Gange, 1998). These factors limit the audibility of important high-frequency speech sounds, especially for children with sloping and/or severe to profound hearing loss (Stelmachowicz, Pittman, Hoover, Lewis & Moeller, 2004).

Studies suggested that listeners who are provided with audibility at frequencies where hearing levels are severe and/or sloping will not show speech recognition benefit due to the limited ability to use the amplified signal in that frequency region (Hogan & Turner, 1998 and Ching, Dillon, Katsch & Byrne, 2001). This lack of benefit of high-frequency amplification, when found, has been attributed by many researchers to the presence of non-functioning inner hair cells over a certain region of the cochlea- that is, dead regions (Baer, Moore & Kluk, 2002; Moore, Glasberg & Baer, 1997 and Vickers, Baer & Moore, 2001).

On the other hand, other studies have reported that significant improvements in speech understanding, especially in noisy environments, occur when listeners with sloping sensorineural hearing loss are provided with high frequency amplification (Turner & Henry, 2002). Additionally, listeners with suspected dead regions in the high-frequencies perform better on speech recognition tasks when broadband amplification is used (Mackersie, Crocker & Davis, 2004), while listeners without dead regions are better able to make use of high-frequency cues (Moore, 2004). Individual performance in such studies indicated that listeners receive varying degrees of speech recognition benefit from amplified high-frequencies.

II. NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The most challenging hearing loss configurations that audiologists face are high frequency sloping and/or severe to profound sensory neural hearing losses. Evidence has been mounting that the current conventional hearing aid technology may not provide enough audibility of the high frequency energy for individuals with sloping and/or severe to profound hearing loss (Glista, Scollie, Bagatto, Seewald & Johnson, 2009). Also recent studies suggest that reduced audibility in high frequencies (because of limited bandwidth of hearing instruments) may play role in delayed phonological development often seen in children with hearing impairment and also it leads to poor perception of fricative sounds in adult hearing aid users.

While many studies appear to support the general notion that high-frequency amplification may not always be beneficial, the inter-subject variability in most studies precludes a clearly defined rule that would distinguish listeners who are likely to benefit from high-frequency amplification from those who are not. Hence there is a need to determine the effective range of bandwidth required for each hearing impaired individual for the perception of high frequency speech sounds.

If the effective bandwidth for accurate perception of fricatives is determined, it will be useful to choose suitable amplification strategy required for better perception of high frequency speech sounds. The knowledge of effective stimulus bandwidth for hearing impaired individuals will help in determining candidacy for frequency compression hearing aids and cochlear implants. Hence, the current study is aimed to determine and compare the effective bandwidth required for the perception of fricative /s/ in individuals with normal hearing and hearing impairment as a function of varying degrees of hearing loss.

III. METHOD

A. Aim of the Study

The current study was undertaken to contribute to the existing review of literature for identifying the benefits of bandwidth variation on perception of high frequency speech sounds. The present study focused on perception of /s/ in context of other high frequency nonsense syllables as a function of varying degrees of hearing loss in a population of acquired sensorineural hearing impairment. The bandwidth cut-off frequency and degree of hearing loss were considered on assessing the benefits of bandwidth modulation.

B. Subjects

A total of 100 Hindi speaking subjects (200 ears) with an age range of 18-40 years participated in the study. The mean age of the group of subjects was 31.5 years. These subjects were further equally divided into four groups depending on their hearing status.

1. Group I: Consisted of 25 individuals (13 male & 12 female) with normal hearing sensitivity and had pure tone thresholds ≤ 15 dB HL in the octave frequencies from 0.25 KHz to 8 KHz.
2. Group II: Consisted of 25 individuals (13 male & 12 female) with bilateral moderate sensorineural hearing loss and had pure tone thresholds in the range of 41-55 dB HL in the octave frequencies from 0.25 KHz to 8 KHz.
3. Group III: Consisted of 25 individuals (13 male & 12 female) with bilateral moderately severe sensorineural hearing loss and had pure tone thresholds in the range of 56-70 dB HL in the octave frequencies from 0.25 KHz to 8 KHz.

4. Group IV: Consisted of 25 individuals (13 male & 12 female) with bilateral severe sensorineural hearing loss and had pure tone thresholds in the range of 71-90 dB HL in the octave frequencies from 0.25 KHz to 8 KHz.

C. Instrumentation

All the testing was done using a calibrated dual channel clinical audiometer MAICO MA 53 in sound treated room under headphones (TDH 39) with ambient noise maintained at minimum level to minimize interference to the testing (ANSI, 1991). A calibrated Immitance audiometer (Madsen Zodiac 901) was used to rule out presence of middle ear pathology. A Dell Laptop (InspironN5010) with windows 7 was used to deliver the stimuli.

D. Development of the Test Stimuli

Test stimuli used were consonant - vowel (CV) nonsense syllables comprised of phonemes /s/, /f/, /ʃ/ and /c/ in /i/ vowel context produced by a female talker. The /i/ vowel was used to minimize the vocalic transition which might be used as a cue to distinguish the fricatives from one another. Although the primary interest of this study was the perception of /s/, it was necessary to provide subjects with alternative stimuli that would confuse the client and reduce practice and order-effect. Hence other phonemes /f/, /ʃ/ and /c/ were used as alternatives.

E. Recording of the Stimuli

All the recording and generation of speech stimuli was done using high quality audio-editing software “*PROTOOL*” in a sound treated audio studio. Speech sample were recorded at a comfortable utterance level in a sound-attenuated room using a condenser microphone at a distance of 12 cm from mouth, with flat frequency response at 10 KHz. All the speech stimuli were recorded by a female talker. Speech samples were then amplified and filtered at 10 KHz, and digitized at a sampling rate of 20 KHz and 12 bit quantization in “*PROTOOL*” audio editing software. 20 KHz sampling rate is selected in the study because use of relatively high sampling rates can have undesirable side-effects. The digital signal processor inside any modern hearing instrument is programmed to modify the sound signals at a rate that is equal or proportional to the sampling rate and it is common for the sampling rate in hearing instruments to be approximately 20 KHz. This choice means that the upper limit of the bandwidth in terms of sound produced by the HI must be about 10 KHz. In some devices, the sampling rate may be as low as 16 KHz resulting in an acoustic bandwidth of less than 8 KHz.

F. Signal Processing

Multiple repetitions of each sample were obtained and samples with little or no transition were selected as stimuli for the study. To determine the influence of bandwidth on perception of high frequency voiceless consonant /s/, each nonsense syllable (/si/, /fi/, /ʃi/ and /ci/) was low pass filtered in a sixth order Butterworth filter with rejection rate of 50 dB octave at 9 frequencies (1 KHz to 9 KHz) to form 36 stimuli (4x6) including 9 target stimuli (i.e. /s/ filtered at 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 KHz). These 36 nonsense syllables were randomly arranged in terms of order of stimulus into two separate lists to form two different stimuli sequence. List 1 stimulus sequence was used for right ear and List 2 stimulus sequence was used for left ear. This was done to avoid order and practice effect.

G. Procedure

Before the experimental task all the subjects were screened for hearing sensitivity using a calibrated clinical audiometer MAICO MA 53 with TDH 39 ear phones. After the necessary screening of the clients, the line out of the Dell Laptop (InspironN5010) was connected to the dual channel audiometer MA 53 through an RF jack. The developed test material was played through a CD player, which was routed through MAICO MA 53 Diagnostic Clinical Audiometer and delivered through the TDH 39 headphones. All the subjects were tested monaurally with two lists and each ear was tested with different random list. The stimulus was presented at 65 dB SPL.

The subjects were tested in a sound-treated audiometric room. Each subject was given following instructions in Telugu “You will listen to few sounds presented through headphones. Listen carefully and when you hear sound you have to repeat as you hear them”. An open set response in the form of an oral response was obtained. If the subject felt tired during the test, a short break was given. The lowest bandwidth where the subjects could repeat the syllable /si/ was calculated for each subject (both ears) in each group. The group percentages correct responses for each bandwidth was also calculated for each group.

H. Statistical Analysis

The data obtained was subjected to statistical analysis using the SPSS version 17.0 software. Since 25 subjects (50 ears) in each group were involved in the study the values were calculated for 50 ears in each group. Mean and standard deviation values of stimulus bandwidth required for the perception of /s/ were calculated for each group (both ears) and the data was subjected to one way ANOVA with repeated measures in order to find out significant difference between groups. The group percentage correct responses at each bandwidth was measured for each group (both ears) and in order to find out the significant effect of bandwidth among the group, the data was further subjected to Pearson Chi-Square test. The results are discussed in the next chapter.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The current study was conducted to determine the effective stimulus bandwidth required for accurate perception of fricative /s/ and to compare the stimulus bandwidth required for accurate perception of fricative /s/ in individuals with normal hearing and hearing impaired individuals with varying degrees of sensorineural hearing loss. The main objectives of the study were:

1. To determine and compare the effect of bandwidths (i.e. 1 KHz, 2 KHz, 3 KHz, 4 KHz, 5 KHz, 6 KHz, 7 KHz, 8 KHz, 9 KHz) on group performance scores (%) between different groups.
2. To determine and compare the mean bandwidth required for the perception of fricative /s/ between different groups

A. The Effect of Stimulus Bandwidth on Group Performance Scores (%) for the Perception of Fricative /s/ between Different Groups

TABLE 1
GROUP PERFORMANCE SCORES (%) BETWEEN DIFFERENT GROUPS ACROSS VARIOUS BANDWIDTHS

Frequency	Group Performance Correct Responses (%)			
	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
1 KHz	0	0	0	0
2 KHz	6	0	0	0
3 KHz	42	0	0	0
4 KHz	76	28	0	0
5 KHz	96	72	30	0
6 KHz	100	86	62	0
7 KHz	100	96	88	2
8 KHz	100	96	96	26
9 KHz	100	100	100	98

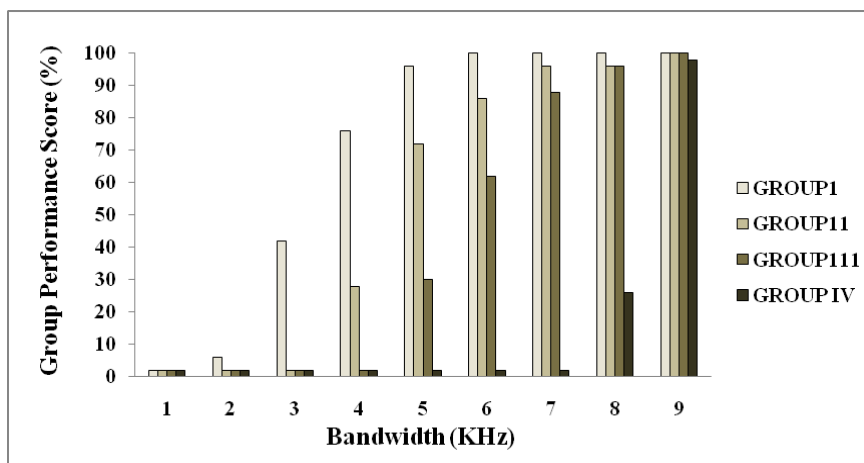


Figure 1: Comparison of group performance scores (%) across various bandwidths

Individuals with normal hearing (Group I) obtained group mean percentage score of 0%, 6%, 42%, 76% & 96% for 1 KHz, 2 KHz, 3 KHz, 4 KHz, & 5 KHz respectively and a score of 100% at 6 KHz, 7 KHz, 8 KHz and 9 KHz. Individuals with moderate hearing loss (Group II) obtained mean percentage score of 0%, 0%, 0%, 28%, 72% & 86% at 1 KHz, 2 KHz, 3 KHz, 4 KHz, 5 KHz & 6 KHz respectively and a score of 96% at 7 KHz & 8 KHz and could achieve 100% score at 9 KHz. Individuals with moderately severe hearing loss (Group III) obtained mean percentage score of 0%, 0%, 0%, 0%, 30%, 62%, 88%, 96% & 100% at 1 KHz, 2 KHz, 3 KHz, 4 KHz, 5 KHz, 6 KHz, 7 KHz, 8 KHz and 9 KHz respectively. Individuals with severe hearing loss (Group IV) obtained mean percentage score of 0%, at 1 KHz, 2 KHz, 3 KHz, 4 KHz, 5 KHz & 6 KHz and a score of 2%, 26% & 98% at 7 KHz, 8 KHz and 9 KHz respectively.

Thus the results revealed that individuals with normal hearing (Group I) could achieve a maximum group performance score of 100% at 6 KHz Bandwidth whereas individuals with moderate (Group II) and moderately severe hearing loss (Group III) achieved a maximum score of 100% at 9 KHz and individual with severe hearing loss (Group IV) could not achieve a score of 100% even at 9 KHz. They obtained a maximum score of 98% responses at 9 KHz bandwidth.

Group I reached 80% group performance correct score at approximately 4.2 KHz as compared to Group II, Group III and Group IV who reached 80% scores at 5.5 KHz, 6.6 KHz and 8.8 KHz respectively. Hence it can be inferred that hearing impaired individuals require higher bandwidths for better performance on perception of /s/ as compared to normal subjects.

Among the hearing impaired individuals, the group performance scores were better in group I as compared to group II and group III at 4 KHz, 5 KHz, 6 KHz and 7 KHz. Group II and Group III showed similar performance at 8 KHz and 9 KHz, whereas group IV performed poorly at all bandwidths.

The data was further subjected to Pearson Chi-square test of independence in order to find out significant effect of bandwidth for the perception of fricative /s/ between different groups. The results revealed that there was a statistically significant effect ($p < 0.05$) of bandwidth for the perception /s/ between different groups at 1 KHz, 2 KHz, 3 KHz, 4 KHz, 5 KHz, 6 KHz, 7 KHz and 8 KHz and no significant effect ($p > 0.05$) was seen at 9 KHz between groups. Hence, it can be inferred that the group performance was not similar up to 8 KHz bandwidth, whereas at 9 KHz the group performance was similar in all the groups.

B. Comparison of Mean Bandwidth Required for the Perception of Fricative /s/ in Individuals between Groups

TABLE 2
MEAN BANDWIDTH REQUIRED FOR THE PERCEPTION OF /s/ IN DIFFERENT GROUPS

Group	N (Ears)	Bandwidth (KHz)		Significance p-value
		Mean	SD	
I	50	3.78	0.95	0.000* ($P < 0.05$)
II	50	5.22	1.20	
III	50	6.26	1.08	
IV	50	8.72	0.49	
Total	200	6.00	2.04	

*Highly Significant

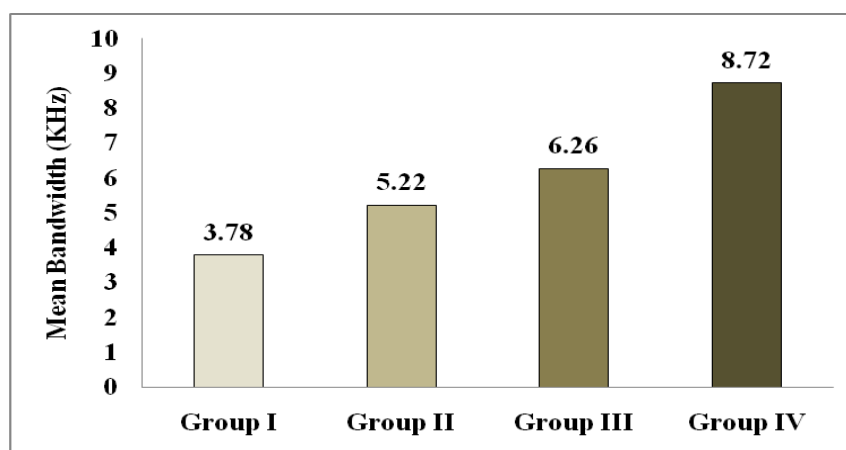


Figure 2: Mean Bandwidth (KHz) required for the perception of /s/ in different groups

The subjects obtained a mean bandwidth of 3.78 KHz, 5.22 KHz, 6.26 KHz and 8.72 KHz for the perception of /s/ in group I, Group II, Group III and Group IV respectively. In order to find out the significant mean difference in bandwidth to perceive fricative /s/ among groups, the data was subjected to one way ANOVA with repeated measures and the results showed that there was significant difference ($p < 0.05$) in mean scores between groups and within groups.

Hence, the data was subjected to LSD Post Hoc test in order to find out significant difference between groups (i.e. Group I vs. Group II, Group I vs. Group III, Group I vs. Group IV, Group II vs. Group III, Group II vs. Group IV and Group III vs. Group IV). The results revealed that there was a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) in mean bandwidth between groups.

Individuals with normal hearing (Group I) perceived /s/ at a lower bandwidth (3.78 KHz) as compared to the subjects in the hearing impaired groups. Among the hearing impaired groups, moderate hearing loss group perceived /s/ at lower bandwidth (5.22 KHz) followed by moderately severe hearing loss group (6.26 KHz) and severe hearing loss group (8.72 KHz). Hence it can be inferred that hearing impaired individuals require higher bandwidths for the perception of /s/ as compared to normal subjects.

These findings are in accordance with the findings of Stelmachowicz, Pittman, Hoover & Lewis (2001), who reported that listeners with moderate to moderately severe sensorineural hearing impairment needed an audible bandwidth of 4.2 KHz to 6.9 KHz for male speech, 6.3 to 8.8 KHz for female speech, and 9 KHz for child speech in order to understand fricatives especially /s/.

Among the hearing impaired individuals, the required bandwidth for the perception of /s/ increased, as the degree of hearing loss increased is an interesting finding of the study. These findings are in accordance with the findings of Ricketts, Dittberner & Johnson (2008), who studied if preference for bandwidth extension in hearing aid processed sounds was related to the magnitude of hearing loss in individual listeners. They took 10 participants with normal hearing and 20 with mild to moderate hearing loss and processed signals using hearing aid style compression algorithms

and filtered using two cut-off frequencies, 5.5 KHz and 9 KHz, which were selected to represent bandwidths that are achievable in modern hearing aids. In conclusion, consistent preference for wider bandwidth is present in some listeners with mild- to- moderate hearing loss.

Hence, the hypothesis stating that there will not be any significant difference in mean bandwidth required for the perception of fricative /s/ in different groups is rejected (i.e. Group I vs. Group II, Group I vs. Group III, Group I vs. Group IV, Group II vs. Group III, Group II vs. Group IV and Group III vs. Group IV).

Although there was a significant effect of bandwidth on group performance, the subjects with moderate and moderately severe hearing loss could reach 100% at higher bandwidths. The performance of other groups improved as bandwidth increased but it was not seen in individuals with severe hearing loss despite providing the widest bandwidth (9 KHz). This could be explained in accordance with the results reported by Skinner (1980), Murray & Byrne (1986), Rankovic (1998), Hogan & Turner (1998) and Turner & Cummings (1999). They reported that systematic increase in high-frequency gain may not improve, and in some cases may degrade, speech recognition for listeners with greater degrees of hearing loss. If amplifying speech to audible levels in the high frequencies does not improve speech recognition, then attempts to provide gain may not be necessary or desirable in certain cases.

Hogan & Turner (1998) also investigated the effects of stimulus bandwidth on phoneme recognition in listeners with high frequency hearing losses. They reported benefit obtained by providing additional high-frequency audibility was negligible or negative when the degree of loss at and above 4 KHz exceeded 55 dB HL. In some cases, performance decreased with increases in high-frequency audibility. Although above studies justify poor performance of severe hearing loss individuals at 9 KHz, this study findings disagree with the results of Hornsby & Ricketts (2006), who reported improved speech recognition with increasing bandwidth in listeners with high-frequency hearing thresholds as poor as 85 dB HL. They reported small incremental improvements in speech recognition performance as the audible high-frequency energy was extended from 3.2 KHz up to approximately 7 KHz.

V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The most challenging hearing loss configurations that audiologists face are high frequency sloping and/or severe to profound sensory neural hearing loss. Evidence has been mounting that the current conventional hearing aid technology may not provide enough audibility of the high frequency energy for such individuals. While many studies appear to support the general notion that high-frequency amplification may not always be beneficial, the inter subject variability in most studies precludes a clearly defined rule that would distinguish listeners who are likely to benefit from high-frequency amplification from those who are not. Hence there is a need to determine the effective range of bandwidth required for each hearing impaired individual for the perception of high frequency speech sounds. If the effective bandwidth for accurate perception of fricatives is determined, it will be useful to choose suitable amplification strategy required for better perception of high frequency speech sounds. The current study revealed that hearing impaired subjects required greater bandwidth for the perception of fricatives as compared to normal subjects. Among the hearing impaired individuals as the degree of hearing loss increased they required broader bandwidth for accurate perception of fricatives. This study has important implications in knowing the effective bandwidth required for the perception of high frequency speech sounds among individuals with hearing loss on individual basis which in turn helps in the selection of appropriate rehabilitative devices such as conventional hearing aids, cochlear implants, and frequency compression devices.

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An Empirical Research on Self-learning Vocabulary

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Abstract—This empirical study seeks to examine learners' autonomy in acquiring vocabulary. Research data collated through survey questionnaires sent to students and teachers at University of Finance-Marketing depicted learners' attitudes toward vocabulary learning autonomy as well as strategies they utilized in vocabulary learning process.

Index Terms—vocabulary learning, autonomy, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary is a component that links the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing together. According to Krashen (1989), the reasons for devoting attention to vocabulary are: "First, a large vocabulary is of course essential for mastery of a language. Second, language acquirers know this; they carry dictionaries with them, not grammar books, and regularly report that the lack of vocabulary is a major problem". In other words, the more vocabulary a language learner has, the better they are considered to master the language. However, Sokmen (1997) notes that it is impossible for students to learn all the vocabulary they need in the classroom since there are so many words on which teachers can not spend time within the class time limit; thus, vocabulary expanding process requires the higher level of autonomy as well as more responsibility from learners themselves.

As such, the current English learning of first year students of University of Finance-Marketing proves to be "undesirable" due to their lack of autonomy in vocabulary learning; and the importance of vocabulary learning autonomy needs to be underscored. The students need to realize that success in learning depends much on their own efforts, like the way Scharle and Szabó state: "Success in learning very much depends on learners taking responsibility" (2000, p. 4). The truth that responsibility accepted in learning by the students at University of Finance-Marketing is what teachers have dreamt about. In such a situation, this research aimed to examine how the students at University of Finance-Marketing learn vocabulary autonomously. The questions guiding this research encompass:

- 1) What are the attitudes of first year students of University of Finance-Marketing towards autonomy in vocabulary learning?
- 2) What strategies are employed by those students in enriching vocabulary autonomously?
- 3) What strategies are frequently used by the teachers in order to nurture learner autonomy in learning vocabulary for the first year students of University of Finance-Marketing?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Approaches to Vocabulary Learning

Following are three approaches to vocabulary instruction and learning discussed by Hunt and Beglar (2002): incidental vocabulary learning, explicit instruction, and independent strategy development.

Incidental vocabulary learning

The incidental vocabulary learning is defined by Nation (2001) as one of the important strategies in vocabulary acquisition. It refers to the fact that a person can expand his or her vocabulary knowledge while being involved in any language activities without any specific intention to focus on vocabulary. This method includes learning from joining conversations; listening to radio, stories, music; watching movies, television; especially extensive reading; or any other exposure of input and output both in and out of the classrooms (Nation, 2001). As such, incidental vocabulary learning is generally acknowledged as learning words mainly in context (Nation, 1990). Therefore, Krashen (1989) suggests that incidental or uninstructed vocabulary learning takes place in both native and nonnative languages as well.

Explicit vocabulary learning

A traditional and common method in teaching vocabulary is explicit vocabulary learning. Nation (1990) puts it that it helps to fill the gap of vocabulary size between native speakers and second or foreign language learners within a short period of time.

Nation (1990) demonstrates that explicit attention is given to direct vocabulary learning. That means learners are specially instructed to pay their attention directly on activities in which vocabulary acquisition occurs immediately. As such, explicit, intentional or direct vocabulary learning is the method of acquiring vocabulary by using tools to lead the

learner's focusing on direct contact with the form and meaning of words; for example, dictionary use, vocabulary lists and their translations, direct vocabulary explanations, learning affixes and roots, semantic mapping and matching words with different definitions, etc. Hunt and Beglar (2002) put it that explicit instruction (direct vocabulary instruction) includes identifying the words learner need to know, presenting words for the first time, elaborating word knowledge, and developing fluency with known words.

In a nutshell, explicit vocabulary learning is recognized as subscale including strategies of rote memorization, reliance on L1, and a metacognitive part of regular and planned revision. In spite of the fact that this method of learning gives the greatest opportunity for acquisition, as well as that this method of teaching vocabulary considerably contributes to vocabulary development especially for the elementary learners, those who have a limited reading vocabulary and little exposure to incidental vocabulary learning outside of school (Coady, 1997), it is too arduous for learners to follow. Moreover, intentional vocabulary teaching in classrooms is often the teacher-centered class, a traditional method in teaching vocabulary (Schmitt, 2000).

Independent strategy development

Nunan (1999) puts it that independent vocabulary learning mainly deals with practicing students to guess from context and training learners with dictionary use. According to him, language should be best come across in contexts and then acquired from contexts. So, in class, instructors should focus learners on developing the strategies for inferring the meaning of new lexical items from the context where they suggest themselves; as well as encourage learners to learn the use of a variety of clues, like verbal and non-verbal such as affixes and roots; pictures, diagrams, charts, or semantic links, etc. to determine the meaning.

The significance of context is also strongly highlighted by Honeyfield (1997 cited in Nunan, 1999) and Sokmen (1997) in learning and teaching vocabulary. It is argued that it is a lot better to train learners to employ strategies for inferring the meaning of new vocabulary from the context than to make them try to memorize time-consuming long lists of lexical items or to get them to look up new vocabulary in dictionaries.

B. Schmitt's Taxonomy of Second Language Vocabulary Learning

Schmitt (1997)'s taxonomy of second language vocabulary learning strategies is divided into two main groups: discovery and consolidating strategies which distinguish the ones to determine a word's meaning when encountered for the first time; and those helpful to consolidate the word when met again.

Category 1: Strategies for the discovery of a new word's meaning

- Determination strategies
 - Analyze part of speech;
 - Analyze affixes and roots;
 - Check for L1 cognate;
 - Analyze any available pictures or gestures;
 - Guess meaning from textual context;
 - Use a dictionary (bilingual or monolingual)
- Social strategies
 - Ask teacher for a synonym, paraphrase, or L1 translation of new word;
 - Ask classmate for meaning

Category 2: Strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered

- Social strategies
 - Study and practice meaning in a group;
 - Interact with native speaker
- Memory strategies
 - Connect word to a previous personal experience;
 - Associate the word with its coordinates;
 - Connect the word in its synonyms and antonyms;
 - Use semantic maps;
 - Image word's meaning;
 - Use Keyword Method;
 - Group words together to study them;
 - Study the spelling of a word;
 - Say new word aloud when studying;
 - Use physical action when learning a word
- Cognitive strategies
 - Verbal repetition;
 - Written repetition;
 - Word lists;
 - Put English labels on physical objects;
 - Keep a vocabulary notebook

- Metacognitive strategies
 - Use English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts, etc.);
 - Test oneself with word tests;
 - Skip or pass new word;
 - Continue to study word over time

Schmitt involves the social strategies in both categories because they are applied for different purposes. That is, for Schmitt (1997, p. 205), the determination strategies are employed when learners “are faced with discovering a new word’s meaning without resource to another person’s experience”. But another way to discover a new meaning is through using the social strategies if asking somebody for help. Besides the preliminary finding of a word, learners still have to use a variety of other strategies in order to consolidate vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, cooperative group study is one of the examples of the social strategies to practice and retain vocabulary. Memory strategies, by tradition, known as Mnemonics, entails connecting the word with some previously old knowledge by employing some form of imaginary or grouping. The cognitive strategies, to Schmitt, are a little like the memory strategies but they are not focused on manipulative mental processing. It means that they only involve repetition and using mechanical ways like word lists, flash cards, or vocabulary notebooks. Lastly, Schmitt defines metacognitive strategies as the ones used by learners to control and assess their own learning. According to Schmitt, a typical example of metacognitive strategies is testing oneself which can provide “input to the effectiveness of one’s choice of learning strategies, providing positive reinforcement if progress is being made or a signal to switch strategies if it is not”.

C. Learner Autonomy and Vocabulary Learning

What is learner autonomy?

Nunan (2000) and Benson (2001) agree that learner autonomy is an ability to put one’s own study into effect. According to Nunan (1997, p.193), “fully autonomous learner operates independently of classroom, teacher or textbooks”. Palfreyman’s point of view is in contrast with that: “learner autonomy does not mean avoiding any reliance on sources of help around you”, but it means being conscious of those sources and what others you have in various situations. One example for this can be illustrated as follows: when a student asks his or her teacher for explaining the meaning of a new word, it is regarded as teacher dependence. But in case he or she asks teachers to certify the distinction of some synonyms he or she gets after looking up dictionaries or other sources of reference, it is learner autonomy. It is clear that the student employs the teacher as a source of help, efficiently bringing the teacher into his or her own learning agenda. Thanasoulas (2000) seems to share the idea with Nunan when he concludes that autonomous learner is one who can independently select aims and purposes; can set goals; can choose materials, methods and tasks; then can apply those choices and purposes in organizing and executing the selected tasks, and can choose the evaluation criteria for one’s final work.

Learner autonomy and vocabulary learning

Vocabulary learning is very significant to foreign language acquisition. It is impossible for a learner to communicate without the needed vocabulary. No doubt that a learner cannot learn all language vocabulary in class, so he is forced to find other ways to learn vocabulary. Learner autonomy is a great relief for students in vocabulary learning because it provides the learner with many privileges as:

- Learner autonomy enhances the learner’s motivation and leads to more effective vocabulary learning.
- Learner autonomy provides learners with more opportunities for language communication in a non-native environment.
- Learner autonomy caters to the individual needs of learners at all levels.
- Learner autonomy has a lasting influence.
- Learner autonomy enhances the learner to master the basic skills that are required to lasting learning.

It is important to mention that if the autonomous learner is willing to be a good learner in learning vocabulary, he/she finds that there are many factors that affect their autonomy development as previous learning experiences, independent study methods, workload, role of tutor, feedback and assessment and peer group. Thus a learner should decide what kind of learning strategies he/she should adopt for the great benefit he/ she could gain it. No doubt those learners are in need to be taught how to learn vocabulary, rather than simply the vocabulary items themselves. Here learning strategies are good indicators of how learners approach tasks or problems encountered during the process of vocabulary learning.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants taking part in the study belonged to two groups. The first group consisted of 140 first year full-time students from four pre-intermediate general English classes at University of Finance-Marketing. The second group consisted of 13 teachers.

B. Instruments

In order to answer the research questions posed, the study’s data were collected using two different questionnaires both written in Vietnamese, one for students and the other for teachers. 19-item questionnaire for students was contrived

to elicit information on the students' background information, attitudes towards autonomous vocabulary learning, their strategies to enrich vocabulary autonomously, and their teachers' strategies to foster learner autonomy in their vocabulary learning. The 13-item questionnaire for teachers was developed with the aim to clarify the student subjects' answers in the students' questionnaire.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Findings for research question 1: What are the attitudes of first year students of University of Finance-Marketing towards autonomy in vocabulary learning?

For question 4 in the students' questionnaire, the researcher focused on investigating the students' opinion of vocabulary learning. About 90.71% of them all asserted that vocabulary learning was a difficult area, only 9.29% of them considered this skill as medium.

In order to know whether or not these students can manage to improve their vocabulary by themselves outside the classroom, it was essential for the researcher to identify how students felt about the importance of vocabulary in supporting other English skills. Question 5 asked students to access in detail how much vocabulary knowledge supports their other skills in their experience. One student did not answer this question. This is a vital evidence to prove that nearly all of the students were aware of a fact that lacking vocabulary might hinder their ability's to express themselves in the target language and to make use of L2 learning opportunities (97.14%). It means that for students, although vocabulary learning was a difficult area, it certainly played an important role in communication and acquisition as well as was really useful for mastering English.

In order to gain a general view of the students' attitudes toward vocabulary learning, question 6 investigated the level of students' interest in this field. Three out of the respondents did not give their answers. Students who showed neutral interest in vocabulary learning ranked the first among 98 students, with 70.00%. It was followed by the number of students who were uninterested in vocabulary (15.00%). The percentage of students who showed interested attitudes to vocabulary learning rather low, with just 12.86%.

Being asked about the role of autonomy in vocabulary learning in question 7, 105 students (75.00%) admitted that autonomy plays a very important role in vocabulary learning. Only 32 students (about 22.86%) still selected "Medium", and one of them chose the options "Not important" (0.71%). Two respondents did not give answers.

The data collected from this question showed that students understood fairly well the place of autonomy in their process of learning although this result was still lower than the result collected from the responses for question 5 of Part 1 in the teachers' questionnaire: 100% of the teachers (13) claimed that autonomy was beneficial to their students' English vocabulary. Thus, as initially reflected in both students' and teachers' attitudes toward autonomy in vocabulary learning, it could be concluded that although the majority of students asserted that vocabulary learning was very useful for mastering their English, and regarded autonomy as an indispensable factor in their English study, their level of interest in broadening their vocabulary shown from the data was only moderate. The reason for this phenomenon could be partly explained by the data collected from question 4 in the questionnaire. Obviously, in spite of their clear awareness of the important role of vocabulary and autonomy in study, the majority of students appeared quite reluctant to learn it because it was a really challenging field to master.

In terms of the goals for learning vocabulary, it is noticeable from the result of question 8 that a relatively high percentage of students identified their goal as to broaden their knowledge in major (80.00%). 74.29% of the students want to develop their English in general and 68.57% to better their communication. However, 5.71% of the students still did not have any plans concerning their goals and 4.29% of them did not want to give answers to the researcher.

From the data collected above, the researcher can realize that whatever any plans in mind, most of their students learn vocabulary with their clear goals. Although it is happy to realize these students have goals in learning vocabulary, it is surprising to see the results of students' frequency in vocabulary learning from question 9 in Part one of students' questionnaire. The teachers were also involved in this kind of question in teachers' questionnaire. The data collected showed that the largest number (79) was to be found in the group of students who sometimes learned vocabulary autonomously (56.43%). The number of students saying that it was rarely for them to review vocabulary experienced the second rank with 31.43% (44). There was a quite small amount of students who usually self – practiced vocabulary building, with just 8.57% (12), and only four of them could always have frequency (2.86%). One of them did not give answer. Luckily, there was also no student saying that they never paid attention to vocabulary learning in their study. Surprising, but it is also understandable that this low frequency can be resulted from the students' neutral attitudes to vocabulary learning investigated in questions 4, 5 and 6 and autonomous vocabulary learning is quite difficult for them. For the same matter, teachers' evaluation on students' frequency in reviewing and preparing before coming to class from question 6 in the questionnaire was also not high. In their opinions, only one teacher (7.69% of them) believed that the students usually reviewed or prepared lessons before coming to class everyday. Nearly all of the teachers agreed that their students sometimes and rarely showed studiousness in reviewing or preparing lessons before coming to class (92.31%), not showing a good habit of autonomous learning. This result is quite corresponding to the students' reports for themselves in autonomous vocabulary learning.

In question 10, students were asked to show their tendency toward motivation for their vocabulary learning. Data on their usual time to learn vocabulary does not present a high consideration for assessment and marks. Five students did

not give answers (3.57%). Only 15 out of 140 students stated that exams pushed them to study vocabulary (10.71%). The highest percentage (66.43%) learned a vocabulary item when they considered it interesting. And nearly as many as that number of students suggested that they learned vocabulary when they felt like to do so (60.71%). In addition, 52 students (37.14%) learned vocabulary whenever they had time. This seems to prove one thing that the students at University of Finance-Marketing showed a tendency toward intrinsic motivation.

The teachers were involved in the purpose of the above question, too. Teachers' responses in the survey, on the other hand, supported the idea of extrinsic motivation of their students. Nine teachers (69%) answered question 7 through their questionnaire that when there was an assignment or a task, their students first showed their care for assessment and marks without a clear indicator for intrinsic motivation. The number of the teachers considered their students as enthusiastic in study or indifferent to the tasks are the same and so low (2 respectively, 15% for each). This also means that their students lack a continuing motive to learn vocabulary.

By and large, students reported that their interest in vocabulary learning was sometimes triggered and somewhat vague. They did their learning when they felt like doing that or when there was something special about the word. This shows a low motivation to learn vocabulary as well as a very preliminary level of learner autonomy in the students. This is also understandable thanks to the result gained in question five that the students showed a neutral attitude to vocabulary learning. On the other hand, teachers, by assuming that their students' interest was marks and assessment only, might overlook the chance to enhance their real interest in the process of vocabulary learning.

In order to explore the students' attitudes toward this issue more thoroughly, the researcher asked the students what materials they often used to build up their vocabulary in question 11. The participants' materials were evaluated according to the authenticity of the materials. As regards the students' materials use for autonomous vocabulary learning, it can be revealed that students preferred choosing inauthentic materials for building their vocabulary than authentic ones. The texts from English study books, which seem to make students feel most familiar and comfortable to learn, were by far the most common material source for them, with the highest checks of the students (92.14%). It was followed by the texts from Internet, with the second highest checks (72.14%). Both short and long authentic materials (newspapers/ magazine articles and books/ dictionaries) experienced low checks (13.57% and 22.14% respectively) in comparison with the checks of seemingly inauthentic and entertaining song lyrics (25.71%). In short, the participants tended to use more of inauthentic materials for vocabulary learning than authentic ones.

Question 12 asks the students about what aspects they usually knew about a word. Nearly all of them knew a vocabulary item's meaning in Vietnamese, spelling and sound (97.86% and 96.43% respectively). Only 45 out of 140 students tried to define or explain the word in English, which is thought to be an effective way to broaden vocabulary size (32.14%). Nearly half of them knew parts of speech or structure of word (47.14% and 45.00% respectively). Not many of them (26.43% and 13.57% respectively) knew synonyms and antonyms. And only fifteen students cared for collocations, which are usually considered very important in knowing a word (10.71%). This means collocations are something strange to the students. About 40.71% of the students showed that it depended on the vocabulary they wanted to know.

In comparison with teachers' responses to question 8, there was a convergence between the teachers and students' answers when they gave their opinions on the word aspects the students usually showed to master. It can be revealed that students almost just knew Vietnamese definition, spelling and sound, which seemed to be the most dominant way to make them feel sure that they knew the English word. Very many of the students were not aware of defining the word in English as an effective way to broaden their vocabulary size. In addition, parts of speech, structure of word, synonyms and antonyms tended to be frequently neglected by them, too. And unluckily, collocations, a very important element in knowing the word, seemed to be alien in the students' habit of learning vocabulary.

In question 13 that follows, when asked about the role of teachers and students in deciding what, how and when to learn, most students supported the idea of learner-centered with the facilitation of teachers. 98 of the students (70.00%) believed that teachers and students need to cooperate with each other in deciding what to learn, how to learn and when to learn. It is demonstrated through the students' responses that they were well aware of the benefits of cooperation and active roles of both teachers and learners in the learning process. There was a match between the students' and teachers' opinions at University of Finance-Marketing: 11 out of 13 teachers surveyed in question 9 also agreed that teachers and learners should cooperate in deciding what to learn, how to learn and when to learn vocabulary (85%). That means the students wished to go hand in hand with teachers and the teachers also wanted to be helpful in facilitating their students' process of vocabulary learning. However, 2 of them thought that students should do that on their own (15.38%). This can be justified with the reality that class time for language learning at university is always limited. Thus, it is difficult for them to 'go hand in hand' with their students.

Question 14 in the students' questionnaire and 10 in the teachers' questionnaire aim to ask for the perception of teachers on the students' mastery of vocabulary as well as the students' self-assessment of themselves. There was a divergence between teachers and students' responses. 76.92% of the teachers evaluated the students' mastery in vocabulary as fair while only 60.00% of the students thought of their vocabulary mastery as fair. 23.08% of the teachers stated that the students' vocabulary mastery was poor (students' selfassessment as poor was more than their teachers': 32.86%). However, a divergence seemed to be clearer when none of the teachers stated their students' vocabulary stock was very poor or from good to very good while there was still a minority of the students (5.00%) saying that their

vocabulary is very poor and 1.43% reported an excellent mastery in vocabulary. Comparing two results of assessment, it can be concluded that the students did not feel very confident of their vocabulary. With reference to the characteristics of autonomous learners that have been reviewed in the literature, this result does not provide a positive picture about learner autonomy in vocabulary learning of these students.

In short, one paradox found in this part is that: although the students found their vocabulary fair or even poor or very poor, and although they understood the importance of vocabulary learning and autonomy, they still did not have a good habit of autonomous vocabulary learning in order for their goals of learning. They even had low intrinsic motivation to learn and their confidence level for vocabulary learning is also not high. They thought that vocabulary learning was hard and they self-assessed their ability for the skill as rather low. These students almost just knew Vietnamese definition and spelling, which seemed to be the most dominant way to make them feel sure that they knew the English word. Very many of the students were not aware of defining the word in English as an effective way to broaden their vocabulary size. In addition, parts of speech, structure of word, synonyms and antonyms tended to be frequently neglected by them, too. And unluckily, collocations, a very important element in knowing the word, seemed to be alien in the students' habit of learning vocabulary. Concerning vocabulary learning materials, the participants tended to use more of inauthentic materials for vocabulary learning than authentic ones. For teachers, by assuming that their students' interest was marks and assessment only, might overlook the chance to enhance their real interest in the process of vocabulary learning.

Findings for research question 2: What strategies are employed by those students in enriching vocabulary autonomously?

First of all, in question 15, the researcher aimed to find out whether or not the students had ever known how to deal with unfamiliar words to discover their meaning. The result shows that the students commonly used two groups of strategies when encountering a new word: bilingual dictionary (92.14%) and asking for L2>L1 translation (87.14%). These respondents' predominant belief might be that relying on bilingual dictionaries and asking for the meaning in Vietnamese could make them sure that they knew the word and resulted in better learning of vocabulary items. However, luckily, the students appeared to be a little active in their vocabulary learning when about nearly half of them had ever known self-initiated independent strategy to facilitate their learning. Guessing the meaning of unknown words was the second most frequently known strategies by first year students (context analysis: 49.29%; analyzing parts of speech: 47.14%; pictures, gestures: 47.14%; word-structure analysis: 45.71%). This ranking (although it is far away from first two groups' priority) was hardly surprising when average second language learners face a serious challenge in trying to master the words they need in order to communicate in the language. Therefore, they should be more inclined to guess the meaning of unknown words because this appears to be the only possible way for acquiring an unlimited number of vocabulary items or for discovering the meaning of words in examinations when dictionaries and references are not allowed. It is remarkable that a large number of students were not familiar with the strategy of "asking for synonyms or paraphrases" (32.86%). And only 9.29% of students used "monolingual dictionaries".

Second, in order to enrich their vocabulary knowledge, the students needed a way to memorize what they had learned as described in question 16. Generally, the results from the questionnaire indicate that the strategies the student subjects ever knew for vocabulary retention were written repetition; spoken repetition and word list (72.14%, 60.71%, and 60.00% respectively). More than half of students believed that these strategies were effective for memorization. A smaller proportion of approximately 50% of the students reported that they remembered vocabulary by word family (47.86%); and pictures, illustrations (40.71%). Therefore, it can be said that this finding challenges the conclusion reached by Gu and Johnson (1996) who identify memory strategies as the least frequently used vocabulary strategies. However, these students seemed to lack the skills to apply their vocabulary in real situations although they are considered as the most dominant ways to remember words. These strategies appeared to be at the bottom of the list of ways to retain the knowledge of vocabulary with the percentage of 30.71% for "word in sentence or context" and 25.71% for "daily conversation".

Finally, if the first two categories are partly related to vocabulary learning strategies in class, the third one in question 17 involves self-directed or classroom independent vocabulary learning strategies. The students once more seemed to lack the skills to enrich their vocabulary for real situations although they are considered as the most dominant ways to expand words. The students reported high familiarity to two strategies: seeing films with subtitles and listening to songs (77.86% and 70.71% respectively). This can be explained by the very high percentage of the students just wanted to learn a vocabulary item when they considered it interesting, or nearly as many as that number of students stated that they learned vocabulary when they felt like to do so. Besides, students reported medium familiarity to surfing net for information (51.43%); doing exercises on the internet or outside school program (51.43%). The strategies that were reported being stranger than any other strategy were learning how to use different kinds of dictionaries (34.29%); Vietnamese-English translation or vice versa (34.29%); conversations with friends, teachers or native speaker (29.29%); reading newspaper or magazines (27.86%); listening to the radio or watching TV (24.29%); games (10.71%); and part-time jobs for practicing English (9.29%).

In a nutshell, the first year students of University of Finance-Marketing reported high familiarity to using bilingual dictionary, asking for L2>L1 translation when they first encountered a word; or written repetition, spoken repetition and word list for vocabulary retention. The majority of these respondents' predominant belief might be that relying on

Vietnamese could make them sure that they knew the word, was effective for memorization and resulted in better learning of vocabulary items. Seeing films with subtitles and listening to songs in order to expand vocabulary by themselves can be partly explained by the fact that the very high percentage of the students just wanted to learn a vocabulary item when they considered it interesting, or nearly as many as that number of students stated that they learned vocabulary when they felt like to do so. As such, these findings for the second research question could count for the students' lack of confidence as well as partly explain why when facing with English native speakers; these students were rather resistant to initiate a talk. That was due to the lack of vocabulary and skills in applying known words in real situations and expanding vocabulary independently. It can be seen that what students did as part of their self – vocabulary learning was simply trying to memorize words, and revising them regularly for the main purpose of doing exercises and taking final exams at school.

Findings for research question 3: What strategies are frequently used by the teachers in order to nurture learner autonomy in learning vocabulary for the first year students of University of Finance-Marketing?

Question 18 asked students what their teachers usually did to help them learn vocabulary in class. Their teachers were also involved in this question in their questionnaire (question 11 in teacher version of the questionnaire). Data reveal that traditional methods such as read the word, give definition were really popular, although these methods should be gradually limited to move towards more learners' independence. There was really a mismatch in comparison between the teachers' and the students' responses. Among the items suggested in the questionnaire, "read and give synonyms and paraphrases" was the most frequently chosen method by the teachers while the students' choice for this method experienced second (69.29%), behind the most frequently chosen one: "read the word and give Vietnamese definition" (77.86%). In addition, the teachers reported that they did usually analyze parts of speech or word structure (93.31%) when they instructed their students to learn vocabulary; but the students just reported about medium (49.29%). Also, it is remarkable that the number of checks by the students for giving examples (37.14%), using context analysis (34.29%), organizing games and songs to motivate students to learn vocabulary (10.00%) were always lower than the checks by the teachers (69.23%, 61.54%, and 23.08% respectively).

The result obtained from both questionnaires for this question pointed out that the frequency of Vietnamese use in class was still high. Many of teachers still usually used Vietnamese to explain the meaning of new words. And using context in teaching vocabulary or analyzing parts of speech or word structure was not focused when the students were at school. These matters can be justified by the facts that the students always considered vocabulary learning as difficult, they were not very confident about their vocabulary and time for vocabulary dealing at class was limited, thus the teachers' using Vietnamese to give the definition of English new words frequently could make students have a secure feeling that they "knew" the word when comprehending its meaning in mother tongue. In addition, the mismatch between the teachers' and the students' responses showed one paradox that the teachers could believe what they did was the best; however, in reality, the students surveyed thought the opposite things or they could not acquire much from what their teachers did for them.

Question 19 in the students' questionnaire and 12 in the teachers' questionnaire show their demonstrations in greater details what the teachers did to nourish student autonomy in enriching vocabulary. What the teachers reported to do in the data really gives a general impression that the teachers did try to do a good job in promoting learner autonomy to their students. And the students' responses also show positive results that the teachers did help them to be aware of their active role in the success of vocabulary learning. However, there was a divergence between them. For teachers' reports, giving students opportunities to take control of their own learning; helping students to be aware of the role of autonomy in vocabulary learning; encouraging interaction and group work; and encouraging students to learn at home were four top frequent techniques they usually employed (from 92.31% to 100%). The students, on the other hand, reported much lower percentage for these items (from 61.43% to 73.57%). Also, not many students from the sample claimed they received their teachers' introduction of ways to learn autonomously or building up confidence (47.14% and 45% respectively) although their teachers reported on those very positively (84.62% and 69.23% respectively). Advising students to read books, newspapers, etc. experienced the same situation (67.14% versus 76.92%). All these data once more indicates one paradox that the teachers could believe what they did was the best; however, in reality, the students surveyed thought the opposite things or they could not acquire much from what their teachers did for them. The only item that was more chosen by the students than the teachers was the teachers' helping students reflect on their learning process (teachers reported 53.85% while students 79.29%). This can be explained by the fact that the students were afraid of their teachers' assignments or mini-tests.

In brief, the students acknowledged the activities held by their teachers to help them learn vocabulary and develop learner autonomy in vocabulary learning although the teachers' efforts should be more highly appreciated in promoting a collaborative learning environment, encouraging and providing information regarding students' self-study. More importantly, it has been noted about teachers' willingness to gradually give authority and control in teaching-learning process to the students. However, the frequency of Vietnamese use at class was still high. Using context in teaching vocabulary or analyzing parts of speech or word structure was not much focused when the students were at school. Playing games and singing songs were the least frequent activities though students seemed to be easily motivated to learn vocabulary through these activities. A paradox that the teachers could believe what they did was the best; however,

in reality, the students surveyed thought the opposite things or they could not acquire much from what their teachers did for them should be paid attention for better teaching and learning results.

In terms of teachers' difficulties in guiding students to learn vocabulary autonomously in question 13 in the teachers' questionnaire, all of the teachers at University of Finance-Marketing considered students' inactiveness in study as their top trouble in helping students learn vocabulary. This is not a surprise because we can see from the above discussion that the students had the habit to depend on teachers' explanations. Students' motivation was also one out of three troubles for teachers (61.54%). This was proved in the responses of the first research question that although students' intrinsic motivation did exist, it did not last long. Rather, it could be triggered if the students were exposed to interesting and communicative materials. Students' English knowledge in general holds a small proportion in the suggested difficulties to teachers (23.08%). This might be due to the students' long previous experience of learning English at high school.

V. CONCLUSION

The study indicates that the majority of these students' predominant belief might be that relying on Vietnamese could make them sure that they knew the word, was effective for memorization and resulted in better learning of vocabulary items. As such, this could count for the students' lack of confidence as well as partly explain why when facing with English native speakers; these students were rather resistant to initiate a talk. That was due to the lack of vocabulary and skills in applying known words in real situations and expanding vocabulary independently. It can be seen that what students did as part of their self-vocabulary learning was simply trying to memorize words, and revising them regularly for the main purpose of doing exercises and taking final exams at school. Thus, the result of this study aims at raising the students' awareness of using more vocabulary learning strategies, and motivating them to choose the most suitable vocabulary learning strategies to help them become high-performing learners.

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Reading and Effective Leadership

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Abstract—This paper deals with reading and effective leadership. It highlights the fact that every reader is a potential leader. Effective leadership is therefore hinged on acquiring essential reading skills. The paper concludes by recommending ways individuals can enhance their reading skills.

Index Terms—reading, effective leadership, leadership qualities

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading is a complex activity that involves both perception and thought. It consists of two related processes word recognition and comprehension. Word recognition refers to the process of perceiving how written symbols correspond to one's spoken language. Comprehension is the process of making sense of words, sentences and connected text. Readers typically make use of background knowledge, vocabulary, grammatical knowledge, experience with text and other strategies to help them understand written text.

Much of what is already known about reading is based on studies conducted in English and other alphabetic languages. Learning to read is an important educational goal for children and adults. The ability to read opens up new worlds and opportunities.

The context of leadership is also important for instance, children and adults are both leaders in their respective domains; they learn to read, either in their language or a foreign language as is the common occurrence in Nigeria. As this occurs, they are exposed to the culture of the second language. And because texts are written with a specific audience in mind, cultural knowledge is present in texts and it is assumed that the reader is familiar with such knowledge. Therefore, the reader learns the cultural, educational, leadership styles of other people/cultures, and so borrow some useful traits to be used here. Thus, to be great, whether as a scholar or a leader, one has to internalise the practice of reading because it is only in reading that one stays informed, educated and dynamic.

II. READING DEFINED

Many think of reading as a skill that is taught once and for all in school. Reading involves perception and cognition. According to Deaman and Alber (2005), reading is that special process that involves all other developmental processes that leads to reading mastery. Yusuf (2009) defines reading as the interactive, multilevel, orthographic, phonological, lexical, syntactic, semantic as well as discourse activities engaged by a person. She stressed that a reader's purpose in approaching a text is of vital importance. Reading becomes far more than the ability to pronounce words on a page. It involves the recognition and interpretation of symbols. It also involves using both the information provided in the text by the author as well as the resources outside the text.

Some other linguists believe that reading is a matter of maturation rather than a process developed through systematic instruction and practice. To others, reading is accurate pronunciation which emphasizes phonic instruction etc, while Smith (1973) views reading as a key to a wealth of experience that links people in ways that are unlimited. Reading provides experiences through which the individual expands academic and intellectual horizons, identifies, extends and deals with personal interests and attitudes that affect the task of reading as a whole.

Oyetunde (2009) defines reading as a process of, and an aid to information processing, and it fosters the understanding and comprehension of written text.

The Encyclopaedia Britannica (2010), Vol 23 defines reading in the following ways. Reading may refer to:

- a cognitive process of decoding symbols to derive meaning from text (as in reading a book or reading music)
- the act or medium of obtaining useful pieces of information
- interpretation: a mental representation of the meaning or significance of something.
- a process in which written information is received by the retina, processed by the primary visual cortex, and interpreted.

Most people think of reading as a simple, passive process that involves reading words in a linear fashion and internalising their meaning one at a time. But reading is actually a very complex process that requires a great deal of

active participation on the part of the reader. To further get a better sense of the complexity of reading, read what some experts in the field have said about the reading process:

Roy (2000) says that the message is not something given in advance, or given at all, but something created by interaction between writers and readers as participants in a particular communicative situation.

Reading is asking questions of printed text, and reading with comprehension becomes a matter of getting your questions answered. (Smith, 1997).

Reading is a psycholinguistic guessing game. It involves an interaction between thought and language. Efficient reading does not result from precise perception and identification of all elements, but from skill in selecting the fittest, most productive cues necessary to produce guesses which are right (Goodman 1996).

For many years, readers have driven literacy programmes world over with this perception. First, learning to read means learning to pronounce words and second, learning to identify words to get their meanings. On the other hand, learning to read could also mean learning to bring meaning to a text in order to get meaning from it (Allington and Cunningham, 1996).

The benefits of reading

- If people develop a habit of reading, they will become more confident and self assured in abilities to comprehend and understand all information types.

- Reading exercises the mind. The mind begins to flex and bend mentally. It stays loose and limber so one can flow easier through the course of the day. The regular routine ensures that the reading muscles stay in good shape as well as the mind, just as physical exercise does.

- Reading enhances one's ability to focus. When the mind is trained and challenged, it begins to pay attention more thoroughly. Also, when people develop the habit of reading, they are building a foundation that will allow them accomplish many goals and ambitions for their lives.

- Reading is the basic foundation on which academic skills are built. In children, the right time to inculcate good habits and values in them is in their childhood. Reading enhances the child's ability to comprehend various concepts with immense ease.

- reading avails one the rare opportunities of getting literacy information through text (Widdowson, 1979)

- it provides experience through which the individual expands his/her academic/intellectual horizons, (Yusuf, 2010).

- it distinguishes fact from fiction etc.

As we read, our knowledge will be broadened to a greater level that could tickle our fancy for reading every time, and by so doing, all the written information that is needed for us to excel as a leader will be made manifest. In addition to the fact that reading ensures being informed, there is the much acclaimed belief that "readers are leaders". A leader who does not love reading, will be more unfortunate for being one.

The foremost requirement here is that parents themselves (especially the literate parents) understand the importance of reading at home in order to be able to inculcate the reading habit in their children while the illiterate parents seek the assistance of lesson teachers and tutorials.

III. LEADERSHIP DEFINED

Good leaders are made not born. It is often said that one that has the desire and will power, can become an effective leader. Good leaders develop through a never ending process of self study education, training and experience (Jago, 1982). This statement will serve as a guide into the definition of leadership.

The International Leadership Journal (2007) defines leadership as the process of social influence in which a person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task.

Northouse (2007) views leadership as a process by which a person influences others to accomplish an objective and directs the organisation in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent. It is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Leaders carry out this process by applying their leadership knowledge and skills.

Children Leadership World (CLW 2010) defines leadership as "enabling a group to engage together in the process of developing, sharing and into vision, and then living it out". Leadership entails exerting, motivating, inspiring and helping others realise their potentials.

Collins English Dictionary (1998) defines leadership as the ability to lead, while Drucker (2008) sums up the definition of leadership as "Someone who has followers".

Leadership can also be seen as the ability to inspire, motivate, direct and lead a group of people to achieve a common goal and this requires influence, intelligence, diligence, continuing education and consistent reading.

A. Leadership Qualities

Honesty

Honesty is being truthful and sincere in ones interaction and work with people. People want to follow an honest leader. When we start a leadership position, we need to assume that people will think we are a little dishonest. In order to be seen as an honest individual, we will have to go out of our way to display honesty. People will assume we are honest because we have never been caught on the wrong side. One of the most frequent places where leaders miss an

opportunity to display honesty is in handling mistakes. Much of a leader's job is to try new things and refine the ideas that do not work and unless this is done, we cannot be honest.

Insight/Vision

There is power in vision. A leader of vision is one who has the ability to think and plan for the future with great imagination and intelligence. When people do not consider their leaders as forward-looking they (the followers) may think the leader is incapable. When a leader does not have a vision for the future, it is usually because such a leader spends much time on today, without the thought about tomorrow. Leaders should set aside time for planning, strategizing and thinking about the future.

Competence

Competence simply means the ability to do something very well when measured against standards. A leader must not necessarily be the foremost expert on every area of the entire organisation but there is need to be able to demonstrate competency.

Inspiration

A true leader is one who inspires his/her followers.

Everybody wants to be inspired. In fact, there is a class of people who will follow an inspiring leader even when the leader has no other qualities. One technique to develop an ability to inspire is telling stories, and "reading". Stories can be examples from the leader's clients, customers, students or staff. Stories help a leader to illustrate vividly what he/she is trying to communicate, through reading. A leader needs to read lots of materials (past, present, future) to keep himself/herself abreast of procedures to inspire/motivate his/her followers which is one of the goals of reading: that is, to ensure that people are informed and educated.

Intelligence

Intelligence can be difficult to develop. Developing it is a lifestyle of choice. To develop intelligence, one needs to commit oneself to continual reading/learning through books. With modern advances in distance education which has taken another dimension one can take all the necessary lessons required from one's bedroom and this can only be made realistic if one internalises the fact that reading ignites and stimulates the intellect.

From the foregoing discussion one can say that by consciously making effort to exhibit the above leadership traits, people are more likely to submit themselves to you as followers. By exhibiting these qualities on regular basis, one can grow in influence. A good reader must have love for reading. It is only through reading that one can decipher meaning from text/print, in order to acquire knowledge they say is power.

Reading and effective leadership drives toward a common goal which is to achieve success. Reading is a prerequisite to measure a person's success while leadership is an act of exerting authority to accomplish a task. All of the two concepts are reinforced by someone to another.

B. The Role of Reading in Developing Effective Leadership Qualities

The challenges of effective leadership are enormous. Ziegler and Goswami (2005) said that these challenges may result in temporary questioning of ability and stability for leadership, throwing up all manner of doubts and insecurity. In developing effective leadership, they looked at it from a literal angle. First, they defined leadership development as any activity that enhances the quality of leadership within an individual or organisation. These activities ranged from programmes offered at schools, High-Ropes courses offered at Universities to executive recruits. Zhenhui (2001) added what may be termed as the great inclusion in history-"Reading". He said that although leadership development has focused on developing the leadership abilities and attitudes of individuals, the World should know that people are not all born with the ability to lead, and as such different personal discipline, characteristics, etc can help or hinder a person's leadership abilities and effectiveness. Chief among these is reading; "the ability to read and understand". Reading formalizes and brings to fruition programmes for developing leadership competences. Everyone can develop their leadership effectiveness. Achieving such developments or success takes focus, practice and persistence more akin to learning a musical instrument and / or reading a book.

The overall success of leadership development efforts has been linked to three variables:

- Individual learner characteristics
- The quality and nature of the leadership development programme
- Genuine support for behavioural change from the leader's superior (leader).

Personal learner characteristics that are associated with successful leadership development include:

- leader motivation to learn
- a high achievement drive
- personal traits such as openness to experience, an internal focus of control, and self-monitoring.

Leadership motivation springs from the idea that reading is the key to achieving leadership success. All the qualities of an efficient leader such as efficiency, uprightness, motivation/inspiration, honesty, etc do not stroll around on the street. They are imbedded in print, and to understand and carry them to the letter, the leader will have to search out and read them. Hence, reading should come first in all priorities set by a good leader.

The world is gone global. With recent studies in technologies, one is able to see the other end of the world, the cultures and economic policies through materials on the internet/books, etc. Reading thus becomes a virtue at our

disposal which should not be neglected. For Leadership jurisdiction remains devoid of innovation and advancement without reading.

IV. LITERACY DEFINED

Literacy development is the utmost goal of education. According to Cooper (1997) Literacy focuses on the development of the individual, who may become a leader, the personal attributes desired in a leader, desired ways of behaving, of thinking etc. Literacy development includes interpersonal relationship, the ability to decipher meaning to text, the ability to read and write, and the only way a society may develop is for its citizens to become literates. The task of obtaining literacy is a giant one and it includes.

- the ability to use written language actively and positively, This avails one the privilege of being able to read and write and use numeracy, to handle information, to express ideas and opinions to make decisions and solve problems.
- It is argued that literacy includes the cultural, political and historical contexts of the community in which communication takes place. Taking account of the fact that a large part of the benefits of literacy is obtained from having access to a literate person in the household.
- Many analysts consider literacy rates as a crucial measure to enhance a region's human capital. This claim is made on the ground that literate people can be trained less expensively than illiterate people. Generally, literates have a higher socio-economic status and enjoy better health and employment prospects.
- Literacy increases job opportunities and access to higher education.
- Literacy has also been used as a way to sort populations and control on who has access to power.
- Educators struggle to find ways to engage students in literacy development and content are exploration. Through this process, students provide an opportunity for parents and community members to see and assess their children performing culturally responsive literacy while conducting themselves in a professional manner.

V. CONCLUSION/RECOMMENDATIONS

Leadership is important, but it does not just happen. You can improve your leadership skills through reading (study and practice). Just as there are books such as the Bible or the Quran which one expects worshippers to be familiar with, there are also books and articles that aspiring leaders should read and study, as well. Since reading is a prerequisite to measuring a person's success, every leader should cultivate a habit of reading in order to keep leading aright. A reading leader is a winning leader anytime, any day and anywhere.

The following are some recommendations that can enhance for effective leadership through reading

- Leaders should Know how and when to apply what they read to their practice of leadership
- Just reading about leadership will not make anyone a leader except an individual wants to be one. Such individuals need to actually practise the ideas that are suggested in readable materials and incorporate them into how to lead or their leadership styles.
- It can sometimes be overwhelming, because there are lots of leadership ideas to try out. Leaders should always remember that becoming a great leader is a life-long journey, which demands time and energy. It is one step (toward greatness) at a time (Carol, 2009).
- Leaders should read an article with an eye for one idea that would strengthen their leadership skills.
- Leaders should always think of how they would practise that idea and then try them out.
- After each practice, leaders should reflect on what they will do differently next time. Practice again and again until reading becomes a habit, and success can be celebrated.

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Mutual Relations of Identity and Foreign Language Learning: An Overview of Linguistic and Sociolinguistic Approaches to Identity

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Abstract—How language shapes and is shaped by identity is a key topic within sociolinguistics (Riley, 2007). An individual's identity is constituted through a variety of different factors, including the social, territorial, linguistic, cultural, political, religious and ethnic contexts. It helps us know who we are and how social identities are negotiated. The traditional views of the sociology of knowledge and ethnolinguistics on the role of being socially 'other' largely neglect the role of language on one hand. On the other hand, although the expression of self and emotions has been considered one of the principal functions of language, it has largely been neglected by linguists. This study, bridging this gap in mind, examines the effect of identity as a self image in language and on the contrary, the effect of language in identity formation. Also, attempt is made to gain insight into the study of linguistic approaches to identity as far as foreign language learning (FLL) is concerned. Mutual and dynamic relation between identity and language learning and more specifically foreign language learning was realized.

Index Terms—identity, language learning, ethnolinguistics, foreign language, self, ethnicity

I. INTRODUCTION

The relationship between identity and language learning is of interest to scholars in the fields of second language acquisition (SLA), language education, sociolinguistics, applied linguistics with greater focus on sociological and cultural dimensions of language learning.

In spite of the fact that some scholars such as Deckert and Vickers (2011) claim that the ideas of identity and self are not synonymous, Owens (2003) maintains that they are related. McCool (2009) referring to identity points out, 'everyone is faced with developing a sense of self, a process that begins in adolescence' (p. 6). Joseph (2004), not mentioning the argument, claims that although the expression of self and the emotions is one of the principal functions of language, it has largely been neglected by linguists as being a matter of aesthetic, falling within the field of literary criticism and the rhetoric of persuasion (quoted in Riley, 2007). This perspective, inherited from Aristotelian dualism but still massively present in contemporary code-centred linguistics, saw the emotions as related to the body rather than to the mind and, therefore, as not being amenable to or worthy of scientific investigation. Unquestionably, identity is not a static quality of an individual, but it is a flexible, fluid, and multi-aspected co-construction that is only partially representative of an individual's sense of self. Disregarding the probable differentiation between expression of self and identity, in this paper attempt is made to examine the relation between language learning and identity through analyzing the effects each poses on the other.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The literature on identity is already enormous and seems to be increasing exponentially. It has recently drawn the attention of many linguists. Joseph (2004) argues that identity studies have always privileged the subjective dimension, the self, whereas if we wish to study language as a social phenomenon, we need to redress the balance by paying at least as much attention to the ways in which identities are ascribed and constructed by others on the basis of the culture – specific repertoire available. So the study of identity as defined 'self image' is not separate from ethnolinguistics. The main areas of ethnolinguistics include the relationship between language and culture, communicative practices, and cognitive models of language and thought. The ethnolinguist tries to describe and understand the role of language in shaping the ways in which members of a group relate to the world, to one another and to others. These ways of knowing and being are the stuff which identities are made of. Identities consist of meanings, and specific configurations of meanings can be implemented functionally as roles through the community's communicative practices (Riley, 2007).

Leading scholars from all over the world investigate the role languages have played and now play in the formation of the national and social identity in countries throughout South, East, and Southeast Asia (Simpson, 2007). They consider the relation of the regions' languages to national, ethnic, and cultural identity, and examine the status of and interactions between majority, official, and minority languages.

Also, there is a developing literature on language and social identity and its relation to SLA in which applied and sociolinguistics meet. Roberts (2001) points out that within this literature, the learner is understood as a person with multiple identities, many of them contradictory. Wigglesworth (2005) argues that over the last few decades there has been much debate about the relationship between language and identity and there is some consensus that language is a marker of ethnic identity. Researchers who support this hypothesis also argue that speakers who have strong group identification are likely to consider language to be an important symbol of identity, and this identification may translate into greater use of the language itself. Thus, language identity has often been viewed as an important gauge of language vitality in any given community (Giles and Johnson, 1987).

Peirce (1989, in Candlin and Mercer, 2001) discusses the personal and social investments in learning English as a second language among adult ethnic minority women, how these are observable in their interactions and the ways in which certain social identities are foregrounded or backgrounded. He adds that once notions of social identity are called up, the dominant tradition of SLA as an asocial phenomenon is put into question.

Demont-Heirich (2007) has done a study titled 'language and National Identity in the Era of Globalization: The case of English in Switzerland', in which he examined the rise of English in a multilingual society.

In another study, Pavlenko (2003) focuses on the relationship between national identities and foreign-language education policies and practices. It is argued that shifts in national identity images and sociopolitical allegiances have implications for foreign-language education policies and practices. It would be of interest to see the relationship, if any, between national identity and learning a foreign language, something which appears to be relevant but beyond the focus of this study.

Considering the growth of international relations of our society with other nations and the extended interest in today's growing technology and science throughout the world, learning English as an international language has found a greater importance compared to previous years. Increase in the number of language institutes and their students as well as parents' increasing desire for their children to learn English have provided opportunities for learning a foreign language.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Three major questions are addressed in this study.

1. How does language affect identity?
2. How does identity affect language?
3. How can foreign language learners make use of such a relation?

A. *Language from the Viewpoint of Sociolinguistics and Ethnolinguistics*

The "linguistics" in sociolinguistics indicates that we are really focusing on how language is used. The "socio" in Sociolinguistics indicates that we are really focusing on how language is used in social contexts-at how it is used when people interact with one another on interpersonal levels and in larger group, cultural, national, and international levels. So, we begin with the recognition that the language that each of us uses can be different in different situations and with different people. The fact that we humans are complex social creatures means that studying anything we do with language will also be complex. Deckert & Wickers (2011) argue that it is this complexity in relation to everyday life that makes studying sociolinguistics both fascinating and personal.

In a more narrow definition of the term it is possible to discuss how the use of a particular variety of English, for example, can indicate the area that an individual comes from. The language that people choose to use can be an expression of where they stand. Ellis (2008) defines ethnic identity as "the relationship between the individual and members of the race to which the learner belongs"(p. 336). Language is one of the many systems of signs that humans use to communicate with one another, and since language is systematic, we can ask systematic questions about the different choices that we make when we talk with one another. So, we can ask questions, as posed by William Labov (1966) about whether sales people in different types of New York department stores talked in the same way. They didn't. Then using sociolinguistics, we can talk about the systems of social stratification that affect the worker's choices. The attitude of U.S. movies are portrayed when they show people with southern accents in rather negative ways, or why it is that school systems argue about what variety of English their students should be allowed to use, or even why it is a requirement in many universities around the world that students pass English Proficiency exams (Deckert & Wickers, 2011). People with various aims in mind employ language.

Shohamy (2006) points out that languages should not be the only criterion that defines societies; rather they should be observed in more integrated ways. Using language as the sole indicator of identity can be considered a discriminatory act. Yule (1985, see also Chastain, 1988) points out that language contains many variations in addition to regional difference. Social variations related to socioeconomic class, education, occupation, age, sex, religion, though not discussed enough, play equally important roles in determining one's speech.

A person's mind is in a sense the centre of his identity, so if a person thinks in French in order to speak French, one might say that he has, in a way, almost taken on a French identity (see for example Brown, 1994, and Littlewood, 1982). That is the power and the essence of a language. Language is culture. Language is the soul of the country and people who speak it (Tang, 2011).

B. Identity from the Viewpoint of Traditional Linguistics and Sociolinguistics

The early traditions of sociolinguistics did not specifically refer to the notion of identity. The notion of identity appeared in terms such as self, image of self, social status etc. These works argued that language varied not only by region and dialect, but also by social categories such as class and gender (Labov, 1972; Trudgill, 1972). Deckert & Wickers (2011) believe that even in the early works, we can see notions that relate to identity and to the idea that identity is connected to language use. Certainly, work on social status addresses notions of identity. In using the language of a particular class, as the sales clerks did in Labov's department store study, the clerks were constructing particular aspects of their identities. Similarly, in using language that reflects a particular gender, even the way they appear in society, individuals are constructing particular aspects of identities. Therefore, in line with Deckert & Wickers (2011) we can say that the field of sociolinguistics has always addressed issues related to notions of identity.

Linguists analyze and define the world in linguistic terms, often not realizing that languages represent only one aspect of identity. Regarding issues of accent and correctness, language is only one factor in terms of identity but cannot be viewed as the only one; religion, culture, history, gender and additional variables play important roles as well (Shohamy, 2006).

C. Contemporary Theory and Future Trends

While much research on language learning in the 1970s and 1980s was directed toward investigating the personalities, learning styles, attitudes and motivations of individual learners, contemporary researchers of identity are mainly concerned with the diverse social, historical, and cultural contexts in which language learning takes place, and how learners negotiate and sometimes resist the diverse positions those contexts offer them.

A number of studies have found statistically significant relationships between measures of subjective ethnolinguistic vitality and educational achievement. Ellinger (2000), for example, found that measures of subjective ethnolinguistic vitality were significant predictors of reading comprehension scores and final examination results in a group of Russian learners of English. Interestingly, the measures of ethnolinguistic identity proved much stronger predictors than other less social measures (for example, self-confidence and emotional distance).

More recent researches have adopted a post-structural approach to the relationship between identity and L2 learning. Riley (2007) believes "the expression of identity should be added to the two traditional major functions of language, representation and communication" (p.12), and Pavlenko (2002) dismissed the assumption that the way people behave is determined by their membership of certain groups as a 'correlational fallacy'. Instead, language is seen as both constituted by and constituting social context, including ethnic membership – it serves as a 'site of identity construction' (Pavlenko, 2002, p. 285, quoted in Ellis, 2008). A good example of how this operates in the case of ethnic identity can be found in Caldas and Caron-Caldas' (2002) study. Their bilingual children had access to both an English and a French ethnic identity; which identity they drew on depended on the social context in which they found themselves. The study suggests that ethnic identity cannot be easily separated from other types of identity. It is for this reason that post-structuralist accounts present identity not as something unitary and stable but rather as multiple and dynamic. Fought (2006) in line with the above-mentioned idea, holds that ethnicity does not occur in isolation from other elements of identity such as class and gender.

Social factors are interwoven and as Ellis (2008, p. 323) points out, "there are obvious dangers in seeking to isolate the effects of individual social factors such as age, gender, social class, and ethnic identity." Learners have agency and are likely to try to shape the social context in which they learn rather than passively let it position them. That's why teenagers who have grown up with a minority language can easily mark their independence from their parents and their rejection of parental values by choosing not to speak the minority language (Andersson and Andersson, 1999).

Norton (2000) argued that in many language classrooms, the targeted community may be, to some extent, a reconstruction of past communities and historically constituted relationships, but also a community of the imagination, a desired community that offers possibilities for an enhanced range of identity options in the future.

Issues of identity and language learning will remain at the forefront of research on language education, applied linguistics, and SLA in the future. These issues are seen to be relevant not only to language learners, but to language teachers, teacher educators, and researchers. There is an increasing interest in the ways in which advances in technology have impacted both language learner and teacher identity, and the ways in which the forces of globalization are implicated in identity construction.

D. The Focus of Social Identity Theory

Norton (1997) defined 'social identity' as "the relationship between the individual and the larger social world, as mediated through institutions such as families, schools, workplaces, social services, and law courts" (p. 420). Norton's theory of social identity is concerned with the relationship between power, identity, and language learning. As Ellis (2008) maintains, it draws on a number of sources like West (1992). West saw identity as related to desire (for example,

the desire for recognition, affiliation, security, and safety). So, 'who am I' has to be understood in terms of 'what can I do'. Bourdieu (1991) focused on the relationship between identity and symbolic power. A person's identity has to be understood in terms of the wider, often unequal relationships, in which they participate. Weedon (1997) emphasized the agency of the individual. She proposed a 'theory of subjectivity'. The individual is seen as both the subject of and subject to the relations of power within different social sites. In other words, as Ellis (2008) points out, the individual is the product of social forces but is also able to shape his/her own identity. So, identity can be assumed as the potential ability and it is the social context that provides the language learner with opportunities to enhance this potentiality. Underlying all of these perspectives is the view that language learning is inextricably connected with social conditions, in particular power relations, and it can only be promoted if these are addressed.

Three general questions addressed by the Norton's theory include: (1) how can we facilitate interaction between language learners and target-language speakers? (2) under what conditions do language learners speak? (3) how can we encourage learners to become more communicatively competent? To answer these questions some central propositions are taken into account.

1. Language learning occurs in a context in which we assume at least one addressee.
2. Social identity is multiple, contradictory, and dynamic depending on circumstances.
3. Investment in language learning has much to do with social identity.
4. Identity construction has to be understood in relation to larger social processes and an awareness of the right to speak has to be developed.

Reports of some case studies confirm the relation between identity and language learning claiming language learners either withdraw from contact with native speakers or they could fight to establish a preferred social identity that would afford them opportunities to learn. Different learners prioritize different language skills or combinations of skills depending on how they defined their social identity.

Norton's theory provides a non-deterministic account of how social factors influence L2 acquisition. It explains why some learners are successful and others less so in a more convincing way than any of the preceding theories. It has its own limitations too. It deals mostly with learners in a L2 learning context rather than a foreign language context. Although Ellis (*ibid.*, p. 338) criticizes researchers of the field and points out that Norton is uncritically equating some 'learning opportunities' with 'learning', he does not reject the relationship between the identity language learners assume and their success in language learning even in a foreign language learning context.

Kramsch (1998) argues that it is widely believed that there is a natural connection between the language spoken by members of a social group and that group's identity. By their accent, their vocabulary, their discourse patterns, speakers identify themselves and are identified as members of this or that speech and discourse community. From this membership, they draw personal strength and pride, as well as a sense of social importance and historical continuity from using the same language as the group they belong to.

E. The Effect of Identity in FLL

There are many ways in which specific social factors affect L2 learning. Ellis (2008) argues that with regard to age, it has been found that younger learners are generally more successful than older learners, possibly because their identity is less threatened by target-language norms. He maintains that the effects of social class may also depend crucially on the setting; in language classrooms that emphasize formal language learning, working-class children are often less successful than middle-class children, whereas there is some evidence to suggest that in immersion settings they do just as well. The central factor, and the one that has attracted the most attention, is ethnic identity. Learners with positive attitudes towards their own ethnic identity and towards the target culture can be expected to develop a strong motivation and high levels of L2 proficiency, while also maintaining their own L1. In a socio-structural model, attitudes based on learners' sense of ethnic identity influence learning through the interactions in which learners participate (Ellis, 2008). A post-structural model does not clearly distinguish between ethnic identity and other forms of identity. It views identity as multiple and dynamic; identity and language learning are interrelated, each influencing the other.

Based on a study of Chinese students learning English, a report from TeacherKevin (2007) states that a student's first language and cultural background can be seen to influence the student's second language acquisition. In China learning English is considered a valuable skill and is not considered to be threatening to the dominant identity of Chinese people in general. Thus, there is general motivation to learn the language, at the same time the students' background in rote learning comes through as a preferred way to learn the current language. Some students have even continued to use such a method of study, even when their teachers suggested against it. These students' first language and cultural experiences are thus heavily influencing how the students go about obtaining their second language skills.

The identity of a person in their second language will be different from than their identity in their own language for a number of reasons. One of the most simple of reasons, especially for students of language, will be based on the student's lack of ability to communicate at the same level as in their first language. Such a situation will effect how the students view themselves as a speaker of the other language, and in the classroom this could even lead to the students avoiding using the second language due to a willingness to save face. In China this could especially be so, as Asian cultures are seen to be "high face" (Mangubhai, 1997) cultures, indeed in some of the classes at this university some of the weaker students have a tendency to sit at the back of the class and try to avoid taking part in activities. When asked to participate, the students will often simply state that they do not know. The reasons for a unwillingness to participate

however could also be due to inability to do so, but also due to the saving of face by not trying, and thus avoiding a chance to fail.

Other students however also have a positive view of themselves based on their ability to use the second language proficiently, this gives the students an ability to communicate freely in the classroom, gaining the teachers praise, it also allows the students' views and opinions to be expressed clearly, and due to the ability and willingness to communicate, the student provides for her or himself more opportunity to learn and practice the language, continuing the process of language improvement. From the above example, it might be realized that the students' language ability will also create for the student an identity of a 'good' or 'bad' speaker of English. This formation of identity could then lead the student to reinforce this perceived identity as actual reality through behaviour that will either lead to the students' English improving or weakening. However if a student who perceived themselves as "bad" was to be encouraged to change their own view of themselves then it should be possible for the student to start improvement. Barnett (2006) mentions how "imagined communities can help students to invest more in the learning" (p. 4).

The different conditions under which language learners speak, read, or write the second language are influenced by relations of power in different sites; learners who may be marginalized in one site may be highly valued in another. For this reason, every time language learners interact in the second language, whether in the oral or written mode, they involve identity construction. However, structural to speak from one identity position may be able to reframe their relationship with their interlocutors and claim conditions and social contexts are not entirely determined. Through human agency, language learners who struggle alternative, more powerful identities from which to speak, thereby enhancing language learning. Norton (2000) also develops the construct of "investment" to better understand the relationship between language learners and the target language.

Accent as a part of one's identity appear as an evidence of the effect of identity in language learning. Having a foreign accent probably means there is a love/hate relationship with it. If you love a certain accent, you find it easier to learn compared to the time when there is hatred toward the accent.

To mention subsequent studies, Ellis (2008) provides another evidence of the effect of identity in language. He maintains that the identities of the participants (i.e. student and teacher) result in the standard speech exchange system. McCool (2009) maintains that values and beliefs relate to different writing strategies. Some cultures use writer responsibility, which places the burden of communication on the writer. Other cultures use reader responsibility, which places the burden of communication on the reader. In reality cultures use a combination of both strategies. Writer responsibility is normally associated with personal identity, while the latter involves group identity.

F. The Effect of FLL in Identity Construction

According to Warschauer (2007), language has always played an important role in the formation and expression of identity. Language is among the identity layers and social identity can be constructed based on those identity layers. (Karkonan Nasrabadi (2006); see also Ghamari, 2007). Both the identity of the learner, as Mitchell and Myles (2004) believe, and his or her language knowledge, are collaboratively constructed and reconstructed in the course of interaction.

One issue that is prominent in Latino communities for example, and in bilingual immigrant communities generally, is the differences among generations in terms of language use. Interestingly, in these communities we may find that different generations are actually constructing different identities and in a sense ethnicities. Fought (2006) holds that the immigrant generation may see their ethnicity as straightforwardly "Mexican", for example, while the second generation speakers see their ethnicity as a combination of their Mexican descent and the US culture of the country in which they were born, different from and even in conflict with the ethnicity of their parents. Often, code-switching may be taken as the linguistic symbol of this complex identity.

Another interesting facet of the intergenerational relationship is language competence. In a family with varying ranges of competence in the second language, depending on their individual experiences, parents and children do not share a language for communication in which they both feel completely at ease.

Identity and language and how they interact with one another as two bases of sub-structures of human being societies are so important that some sociologists believe in the nations as outcome of old identities. These identities are constructed by language, traditions, religion, environmental and geographical factors and especially myths (Castells (1997); see also Ghamari and Hassanzadeh, 2010). Language for men not only is a means of communication, but more than that, it's a key to maintaining one's independence and identity in a group. "It is seen as both constituted by and constituting social context, including ethnic membership" (Pavelenko, 2002, p. 285, quoted in Ellis, 2008).

According to Fought (2006) language must provide ways of reflecting and constructing the many facets of our identities, and of course it does. Your accent is part of who you are. Many people across the world find foreign accents quite beautiful. Some actors and actresses are chosen for major film roles just for their accent or ability to portray an accent. Accents sound romantic and exotic to the listener in many situations. If you have a foreign accent, you probably have a love/hate relationship with it. On one hand, the accent is part of who you are and points back to one's country of origin. On the other hand, one's accent can cause one to stand out, and some people have a difficult time understanding people when they speak if their accent is quite heavy. Before you work too hard to remove your accent, consider the fact that it could become a positive part of your identity with a little work (Nutt, 2011).

Sagsayan (2011) states that the first time she realized that the knowledge of a foreign language has to do with identity formation was when she suddenly discovered that for some reason she felt more comfortable to express feelings in English than in Armenian. More comfortable, because she could construct quite a logical, affective discourse in that foreign language, whereas in native language we would end up with incoherent, heavily emotional discourse that would confuse our interlocutor and us even more.

Going back to the ancient saying: knowledge of a foreign language provides you with a new *modus operandi* through which to discover yourself. I think the role of the teacher is crucial here, because this discovery, this identity formation, sometimes is quite thorny and asks for considerable effort.

Our identities are not just determined by the place and societies where we were born but by the whole life experience and influences we accumulate during our lives. Identity and linguistic/cultural affiliation is not something fixed and engraved in stone. Identity is constantly being influenced by everything and everyone around us -our relationships, our readings, our thoughts and our use of language. Our views of classrooms will be significantly coloured by the initial experience gained out of this first public institution most of us enter during our lives. Our personal identities as language learners within a group derive much from classrooms (Breen, 2001).

It is worth mentioning that the availability of further educational opportunities is often a major factor to affect our choice of language. As English is used to be preferred because it allows for better chances of educational and career promotion in Iran. Shohamy (2006) points out that for speakers, languages are central to their individual and social identities. Decisions about languages that are imposed on whole populations, whether in schools or in society as a whole, can be viewed as contradicting the essence of individual and social freedom because "languages are part of both private and social identity and group membership are not the possession of nations" (p. 161).

Castells (1997, p. 3) explains the central role of identity: "In a world of global flows of wealth, power, and images, the search for identity, collective or individual, ascribed or constructed, becomes the fundamental source of social meaning". This is not a new trend, since identity, and particularly religious and ethnic identity, have been at the roots of meaning since the dawn of human society. Yet identity is becoming the main and sometimes the only source of meaning. So, meaning is conveyed by language and identity as the source of meaning affects the choice of language.

Lemke (2002) talks about how a speaker of a second language will undertake a new identity as a member of that community of language speakers. The ability to do so, however, is of course based on the students' knowledge and understanding of what that community is.

IV. CONCLUSION

The recent studies view identity as multiple and dynamic. Language serves as a 'site of identity construction'. Identity can be assumed as the potential ability and it is the social context that provides the language learner with opportunities to enhance this potentiality. There is a mutual and dynamic relationship between the identity language learners assume and their success in language learning even in a foreign language learning context. Ethnic identity cannot be easily separated from other types of identity. It is for this reason that post-structuralist accounts present identity not as something unitary and stable but rather as multiple and dynamic.

In the new era the forces of globalization are implicated in identity construction and an imagined community assumes an imagined identity, and a learner's investment in the second language can be understood within this context. This study was conducted to provide new insights into the relationship between identity construction and the learning a foreign language. The findings present a picture which establishes that there is a relationship between learning a foreign language and formation of identity. Also, investment in language learning has much to do with social identity. Language learning and identity are interrelated, each influencing the other. If other studies come up with similar results we might conclude that language teachers and FL policy makers can feel more at ease introducing cultural aspects of the target language in their classrooms, materials and textbooks on one hand. On the other hand, language learners' desires may lead them to invest in L2 learning and accordingly provide them with learning opportunities. Enhancement of desires and identities, individual or social, should be of interest to language policy makers and text developers.

In sum, this theoretical overview asserts that language and identity are inextricably intertwined, both affect one another and each produces a response from the other.

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Anxiety in EFL Listening Comprehension

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Abstract—The anxiety for EFL learners that accompanies the listening comprehension (LC) task is difficult to detect, but potentially one of the most debilitating, because in order to interact verbally the listener must first understand what is being said. With the instructional emphasis on input processing, LC anxiety merits closer examination. By elaborating the definition and process of listening comprehension, this paper analyzes the anxiety in listening comprehension in detail and discusses the pedagogical implications that might help instructors address LC anxiety in their foreign language (FL) classroom.

Index Terms—listening comprehension, anxiety, short-term memory, long-term memory

I. INTRODUCTION

For the most EFL (English as a foreign language) learners, listening is the most difficult one among the four skills. Research shows that in order to be effective listeners, learners must be able to actively and strategically participate in the listening process within a low-anxiety classroom environment. Recognizing the effect of anxiety on listening is the first step; the next is to find out the sources of LC anxiety and propose solutions.

This paper analyzes the relationship between anxiety and listening comprehension in detail. The aim of this paper is to present the sources and solutions to LC anxiety as reported by foreign language students and discusses the pedagogical implications that relate to the results.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Anxiety

Anxiety is quite possibly the affective factor that most pervasively obstructs the learning process. It is associated with negative feelings such as uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension and tension. Heron (1989: 33) makes reference to what he terms existential anxiety, which arises out of a group situation and has three interconnected components that are relevant to the language classroom: 'Acceptance anxiety. Will I be accepted, liked, wanted? Orientation anxiety. Will I understand what is going on? Performance anxiety. Will I be able to do what I have come to learn?'

For acquisition to take place, the learner has to be able to absorb the appropriate parts of the input. There can be 'a mental block that prevents acquirers from fully utilizing the comprehensible input they receive for language acquisition' (Krashen, 1985, p.3). This block, called 'the affective filter', might be because 'the acquirer is unmotivated, lacking in self-confidence, or anxious' (Krashen, 1985, p.3). The Affective Filter Hypothesis ascribes variation between learners to their psychological states. If the filter is 'up', comprehensible input cannot get through; if it is 'down', they can make effective use of it. In particular the reason why younger learners are better at L2 acquisition over the long term is that 'the affective filter gains dramatically in strength at around puberty' (Krashen, 1985, p.13). Older learners are cut off from proper access to comprehensible input by the increased strength of the filter. In Krashen's words, 'comprehensible input and the strength of the filter are the true causes of second language acquisition' (Krashen, 1982, p.33), one positively, one negatively.

There are few, if any, disciplines in the curriculum which lay themselves open to anxiety production more than foreign or second language learning. There is a great deal of vulnerability involved in trying to express oneself before others in a shaky linguistic vehicle. It is possible in some cases that the methodology used can contribute to furthering anxiety. With the grammar-translation method one might assume a reduction of the possibility of anxiety, since the learners have relatively little of themselves invested in the activities required. However, with the advent of methods which focus on communication, and especially communication involving more personal aspects of one's being, such as feelings, if care is not taken to provide an emotionally safe atmosphere, the chance for the development of anxiety-provoking situations can increase greatly. This is particularly true if at the same time the stakes involved are very high, such as academic settings, where the evaluation of the learner can conceivably have far-reaching consequences.

When anxiety is present in the classroom, there is a down-spiralling effect. Anxiety makes us nervous and afraid and thus contributes to poor performance; this in turn creates more anxiety and even worse performance. The feelings of fear and nervousness are intimately connected to the cognitive side of anxiety, which is worry. Worry wastes energy that should be used for memory and processing on a type of thinking which in no way facilitates the task at hand (Eysenck 1979). Although it is a major obstacle to language learning, anxiety can be reduced.

Learners may suffer from anxiety in relation to a number of aspects of the teaching-learning process; for example, about the language itself, about speaking in front of other learners, about the language class, about the behaviour of their peers, about their standing in the competition with fellow learners, about taking tests, about the speakers of the language they are learning, etc. The more anxious they are, the less well they believe they can perform.

Classroom anxiety became extreme for the student with the lowest proficiency. Each class presented new challenges and the anxiety seemed to be debilitating. It is helpful for teachers to understand the pressures felt by learners in the classrooms. Foss and Reitzel suggested that knowledge and skills can best be dealt with through role play, drama, and oral interpretation. Through performing the works of others, thoroughly rehearsed in terms of both verbal and non-verbal language, the students experience less communication anxiety than if they themselves must generate their own target language utterances.

1. Harmful anxiety

Though some language researchers assert that a positive mode of anxiety exists, most language research shows a negative relationship between anxiety and performance. The negative kind of anxiety is sometimes called 'debilitating anxiety' because it harms learners' performance in many ways, both indirectly through worry and self-doubt and directly by reducing participation and creating overt avoidance of the language. Harmful anxiety can be related to plummeting motivation, negative attitudes and beliefs, and language performance difficulties. Gardner and MacIntyre stated that the strongest (negative) correlate of language achievement is anxiety (1993).

2. Helpful anxiety

Some research suggested that language anxiety was actually 'helpful' or 'facilitating' in some ways, such as keeping students alert (Scovel 1978). Helpful anxiety has been shown in a few studies to be related to:

- high language proficiency and self-confidence among a hand-picked group of excellent language learners (Ehrman and Oxford 1995);
- oral production of difficult English structures among native Arabic-speakers and Spanish-speakers (Kleinmann 1977);
- good grades in language classes for students in regular French, German, and Spanish classes but not for students in audiolingual classes (Chastain 1975).

3. Anxiety in listening comprehension

Research in foreign or second language learning has begun to show that anxiety directly undermines motivation and creates a negative affective response to the foreign language being studied (Gardner et al. 1987). Therefore, addressing foreign language listening comprehension anxiety is fast becoming a priority in the classroom.

In most of the literature on language leaning anxiety, students have reported that speaking in the foreign language produces the most anxiety (Young 1990; Phillips 1992). Slowly within the studies of speaking anxiety, listening comprehension (LC) anxiety has begun to surface as a problematic area for students. Krashen (in Young 1992) acknowledged that, although speaking is cited as the most anxiety-producing skill, LC is also "highly anxiety provoking if it is incomprehensible" (168).

According to Scarcella and Oxford (1992), listening anxiety occurs when students feel they are faced with a task that is too difficult or unfamiliar to them. This anxiety is exacerbated if the listeners are under the false impression that they must understand every word they hear. Many learners believe that in order to be "good at a language they need perfect pronunciation, massive amounts of vocabulary, extensive grammar knowledge, overseas experience, and a natural aptitude for language before they even open their mouths (Horwitz 1987). As a result, the anxiety that arises during the listening process often springs from what Joiner (1986) calls a negative "listening self-concept," that is, a low level of self-confidence in the area of listening.

Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) show that the most negative element that influences the language performance is anxiety.

The anxiety that accompanies the LC task is the one that is most easily ignored because the goal of most classroom activities focuses on the speaking skill. When considered a stepping-stone to speaking, LC is more often than not treated as a passive skill that will "happen" during the regular classroom activities. With speaking, teachers anticipate anxiety on the part of the students and expect them to stumble and hesitate. To remedy the situation, teachers engage in all kinds of structured practice designed to help the students overcome their fear of speaking. LC anxiety can undermine speech production because, in order to interact verbally, the listener must first understand what is being said. Therefore, LC anxiety should not be ignored, but actively addressed.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

The participants in this study were 140 non-English majors placed into two classes, from Qingdao University of Science and Technology. The subjects had nearly the same experience in English learning. They had had six years of English learning experience in the secondary school and were in the second term of their freshman period at the time when this study was conducted. They were all students of engineering, and were offered the same courses. In addition, they used the same textbooks. Therefore, they shared the same environment and experience, and their ages were nearly

the same, ranging from 18 to 22.

B. The Study

The purpose of the study was to report descriptive research, rather than inferential or quantitative research; therefore the questionnaire was distributed immediately after the LC part of the exam, so that the likelihood of the students experiencing LC anxiety was high, and there was a 100 percent return of responses. The participants were asked to complete a questionnaire (see Appendix A) that elicited the following information: (1) whether they were experiencing listening anxiety or not; (2) if they did, what made them anxious when participating in a LC exercise; and (3) what types of settings, exercises, or activities helped to lower their anxiety level. Of the 140 participants, only nine percent reported that they did not experience LC anxiety. The size of this number emphasizes the need to address directly the LC anxiety experienced by the other 91 percent of the students.

The 140 questionnaires generated 200 responses addressing sources of anxiety (see Table 1), and 170 suggestions on ways to alleviate LC anxiety (see Table 2). The analysis of the questionnaire consisted of two parts: (1) analysis of students' responses about sources of LC anxiety and (2) examination of suggestions for reducing LC anxiety. In determining sources of LC anxiety, students' comments clustered around the following four general categories:

- a) LC anxiety associated with characteristics of FL input;
- b) LC anxiety associated with processing-related aspects of FL;
- c) LC anxiety associated with instructional factors; and
- d) LC anxiety associated with attributes of the teacher or learner.

TABLE 1
STUDENTS' REPORTED SOURCES OF LC ANXIETY (N=200)

<i>Category</i>	<i>Sources</i>	<i>% of responses</i>
Input	Nature of the speech	27%
	Level of difficulty	10%
	Lack of clarity	6%
	Lack of visual support	3%
	Repetition of input	2%
	Total	48%
Process	Inappropriate strategies	23%
	Lack of time to process	2%
	Can't "study" for LC	2%
	Can't check answers	2%
	Total	29%
Instructional Factors	Lack of LC practice	3%
	"The test thing"	3%
	Uncomfortable environment	2%
	Total	8%
Personal Factors	Fear of failure	9%
	Nerves	5%
	Instructor's personality	1%
	Total	15%

TABLE 2
STUDENTS' SUGGESTIONS FOR ALLEVIATING LC ANXIETY (N=170)

<i>Category</i>	<i>Suggestion</i>	<i>% of responses</i>
Input	Make input comprehensible	17%
	Use variety of input	7%
	Structure tasks	6%
	Total	30%
Process	Focus on strategies needed	2%
	Notetaking / use of Chinese	2%
	Total	4%
Instructional Factors	Increase class time for LC	40%
	Combine LC with other skills	15%
	Provide regular feedback	3%
	Create out-of-class opportunities	3%
	Total	61%
Personal Factors	Experience small successes	3%
	Meditation / breathing, etc.	2%
	Total	5%

Within each of the categories above, student responses fell into several subcategories. These responses were summarized by percentages under each category (see Table 1 and Table 2 for these summaries). Appendix B documents

a sample of comments students made about each of the reported sources of LC anxiety. Selection of the sample comments was made by the author and was based on the author's subjective opinion of which comments would be most informative to the foreign language teacher.

C. *The Results*

The results of the study will be discussed by first presenting the sources of anxiety reported by the students, based on the four major categories and the subcategories. The students' suggestions for reducing LC anxiety are presented in conjunction with the reported source of anxiety. The final section consists of a brief discussion of the pedagogical implications based on the results of the study.

LC Anxiety Associated with Characteristics of Input

Forty-eight percent of the students' responses focused on some characteristic of input as being a source of LC anxiety.

Nature of the speech. Of the 27 percent that reported the nature of speech as a source of anxiety, 22 percent reported that speech that was too fast created the most anxiety. The other five percent claimed poor enunciation, different accents, and teachers, that spoke too softly as sources of anxiety.

Level of difficulty. Students expressed anxiety and frustration with LC exercises that were too difficult. Students associated the level of difficulty of input in terms of the use of vocabulary that was unfamiliar or beyond the level of the student, the use of complicated syntax, and the use of texts based on unfamiliar topics.

Lack of clarity. The students reported feeling anxious when they did not know what kind of text they were listening to, why they were listening to it, what they were supposed to be listening for, and what they were supposed to do once they were through listening. Although the students' comments were geared toward often-confusing directions provided by the teacher, Lund (1990) pointed out that the issue of text difficulty that stems from the nature of the text itself (e.g., authentic vs. edited) can impact the listeners' orientation to the text, and, ultimately, their comprehension of the text.

Lack of visual support. Although mentioned as a source of anxiety by only a small number of students, some learners felt as if they lacked the footing necessary to even make an educated guess without some type of visual input.

Lack of repetition. Students expressed frustration toward the traditional approach to LC practice where input is presented only twice. This feeling was especially strong in a testing situation where the student must decipher the question to be answered, then come up with, or select, the correct response. Anxiety was associated with the "two strikes and you're out" approach to LC tasks.

Suggestions for reducing LC Anxiety Associated with Input Characteristics

Thirty percent of students' suggestions for reducing LC anxiety focused on input-related variables.

Make input comprehensible. Many students (17 percent) felt that input would be more comprehensible to them if it were based on familiar, meaningful topics and vocabulary. Many suggested alleviating anxiety by making the input more informal, and ungraded, rather than formal, graded activities. In other words, students wanted to practice LC, but did not want to be graded each time they practiced it. Others felt that dictation and translation exercises would make input more comprehensible.

Use variety of input. Numerous students suggested incorporating games and other fun activities into the classroom as the vehicle for listening activities. Their suggestions for activities included the following:

- (a) "use smaller group activities and less formalized English on topics more exciting to students";
- (b) "have English-speaking people, other than our own professor, occasionally speaking English to the class";
- (c) "practice with listening without watching, such as hearing music in English from a tape or the radio";
- (d) "talk more interactively in groups"; and
- (e) "hear the students' cassette tapes in class."

Structure tasks. The students in this study wanted to know what they were doing. They felt that clear instructions, advanced organizers, and structured tasks would alleviate some anxiety because they would know where to begin and in what direction to go. A few students offered possible ways of structuring LC activities:

- (a) "have a person speaking in English while the class writes down in Chinese and in English what the person said. Then review the different responses";
- (b) "someone could speak all class period and we could each try to write down what we hear, then compare weaknesses. Maybe there are some common ones that could be cleaned up";
- (c) "have more actual test situation practice because it's very different from in-class listening with stress on the important words and numerous repetitions until we figure it out";
- (d) "repeat the passage, repeat the passage, repeat the passage."

In sum, for these students, LC anxiety stemmed from certain characteristics of the input (unfamiliar or difficult text, unclear directions, no visual support) and specific features of the delivery of the input (too fast, poor enunciation, lack of time or repetitions to process information, minimal practice and feedback). To minimize LC anxiety associated with input, students suggested, in essence, making input comprehensible using a variety of input for LC activities, structuring the LC tasks with clear instructions, and offering a specific purpose for the task.

LC Anxiety Associated with Process-Related Aspects of LC

Twenty-nine percent of student responses commented on process-related aspects of FL learning as a source of LC anxiety.

Inappropriate strategies. A review of students' comments indicates that many saw comprehension as the process of understanding or translating every word, as opposed to understanding the message. Students reported feeling anxious when they try to translate one part of what they hear and then miss the next part. If students perceive LC as word-for-word decoding, frustration and anxiety become a regular part of the LC process.

Some students feared that they would not "understand" contextually what they were listening to, or that they would miss key words. Other students feared they would hear the "wrong thing" and assume that the text was about one topic when it is actually about something else. Others mentioned having weak spelling and retention skills.

Lack of processing time. Some students reported feeling anxious when asked to respond immediately to the listening text and the teacher did not allow them enough time to process the information in the text or the questions about the text.

Can't study LC. Several students stated that, unlike a test on grammar, it was difficult to study for a LC test. They expressed frustration at not knowing exactly what or how to prepare.

Can't check answers. Students reported feeling anxious about LC tasks because, unlike reading comprehension, LC is a "one-shot deal".

Suggestion for Reducing LC Anxiety Associated with Process-Related Aspects of LC

The low percentage (four percent) of suggestions under this category indicates that perhaps students are not sure of how to decrease their anxiety in these instances. In other words, perhaps they are unsure of what it means to be a strategic listener.

Focus on the strategies needed. At least some of the students in this study knew that knowledge about effective strategies could increase their LC abilities and reduce their LC anxiety. They suggested that the teacher "help the students to be able to be aware of their skills."

Notetaking / use of Chinese. Many students felt that they end up being evaluated on "the language they produced in the answer rather than their comprehension" of the text. Taking notes while listening was considered effective for some, while others felt that being able to answer questions in Chinese would counterbalance the anxiety they experienced when they lacked adequate target language to express what they actually comprehended. A study done by Lee (1986) supports the use of native language to test reading comprehension. Lee observed that "recall protocols written in the subjects' native language contained statistically significantly more of the passage than recall protocols written in the subjects' target language" (350). Applicability to LC would seem plausible, although not yet proven.

Some students wanted to hear more Chinese from the instructor and suggested that "when speaking English they [the instructors] translate into Chinese sometimes, especially with common phrases."

In sum, students reported LC anxiety associated with this category as not having enough time to process input, not using appropriate LC strategies to understand input, not knowing how to prepare for a LC test, and not knowing how to confirm whether what they understood was accurate or not.

In terms of suggestions, students reported that their LC anxiety would decrease if the teacher would train them to use LC strategies, if they could take notes during a LC task, and if their comprehension skills were evaluated on the basis of their native language, not the FL. In addition, some students felt they would benefit from having the teacher translate more into Chinese.

Listening Comprehension Anxiety Associated with Instructional Factors

This category surfaced as the least-reported source of anxiety (8 percent), but paradoxically was the category that comprised 61 percent of the students' suggestions for alleviating LC anxiety.

Lack of LC practice. Students reported feeling anxious when little or no class time had been devoted specifically to LC practice, which left them "feeling incompetent and unprepared."

"The test thing." Some students reported becoming anxious just because it is a test, rather than an activity-perhaps because under test conditions, they cannot replay the LC passage as many times as they need, and they are not able to go back to the question when read aloud.

Uncomfortable environment. Students reported that their physical surroundings, such as a room being too hot or too cold, were important and often interfered with LC. Others reported becoming anxious if the room is too noisy, lacks oxygen, or is small and cramped.

Suggestions for Reducing LC Anxiety Associated with Instructional Factors

A majority (61 percent) of the suggestions students offered focused on instructional factors.

Increase class time for LC practice. To develop the listening skill, many students stated that there must be "more class activities that focus specifically on the LC skill."

Receive regular feedback. The students in this study expressed a need to know if they understood correctly or not. Most agreed that the more immediate the feedback, the better.

Combine LC with other skills. Students referred specifically to combining listening with reading, that is, combining auditory input with written input. Their comments included these examples:

1. "Have someone say the words as I'm reading / looking at it."
2. "Practice reading out loud in class would help my pronunciation and listening skill."
3. "It would help to be able to read it as I was going along."

Create out-of-class opportunities. Having informal, social interactions with native speakers was reported as a way in

which students could experiment with the language in a non-threatening situation. They suggested bringing native speakers into the classroom so they could feel more confident about approaching native speakers outside the classroom.

In sum, students associated LC anxiety with a lack of LC practice, LC tests, and lack of a comfortable physical environment. To reduce their LC anxiety, they suggested having more LC practice in class, receiving feedback about their LC skills regularly, combining LC with other skills, and having opportunities to listen to native speakers and not just their FL teachers.

LC Anxiety Associated with Personal Attributes of Teacher and Learner

Fifteen percent of the students' comments focused on personal and interpersonal attributes as sources of LC anxiety.

Fear of failure / nerves. Many students walk into a FL classroom feeling nervous and fearing failure or ostracism. This emotional state of mind might stem from a negative past experience or from the belief that they lack the prerequisites necessary to be a "good" language learner.

Instructor's personality. Although few, the responses in this category were insightful. They reported experiencing LC anxiety when teachers had unrealistic expectations, that is, when they expected everything to be perfect and were critical when students did not answer correctly. Teachers that were inaccessible and "don't show any reaction to your performance" also inspired anxiety in their students. One student referred to a "hostile" environment created by personality clashes between students, or between students and teacher. In short, instructors that put students on the spot press for answers, and openly demonstrate frustration when the correct answer is not forthcoming create anxiety.

Suggestions for reducing LC Anxiety Associated with Personal Attributes of teacher and learners

Only five percent of the responses fell within this category.

Experience small successes. One student reported being able to "develop language confidence" in LC by experiencing small successes. Another stated that "the more I understand, the less anxious I am."

Using anxiety-reducing techniques. Many students reported using meditation, breathing exercises, or "self-affirmations" to reduce LC anxiety. Others found that "thinking about something less stressful was useful." One student reported resorting to "prayer."

In sum, students reported LC anxiety due to variables like learner self-confidence and instructor's "harsh" teaching manners. To reduce LC anxiety, they suggest developing language confidence through small successes and through the use of anxiety-reducing techniques.

IV. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

1) Make input comprehensible.

A listener who has experienced success in simple comprehension tasks is more likely to have the necessary self-confidence to adopt these active listening tactics. In contrast, if learners have been exposed to listening materials that are so difficult as to be incomprehensible, they suffer in two ways: not only is the whole experience a dispiriting one, but it is also likely to encourage passive and unsuccessful listening habits where the learners equate 'listening' with sitting back and letting a largely meaningless sequence of sounds wash over them.

Effective listeners seemed to be aware when they stopped attending and made an effort to redirect their attention to the task and ineffective listeners, when faced with loss of comprehension, they usually just stopped listening or failed to be aware of their inattention. The relationship between self-confidence and performance is also reflected in the results of a study by Fujita (1984), who found that self-confidence was considered one of the major factors affecting the LC ability of successful students.

2) Select material of appropriate interest level.

Students perform better with material they want to listen to because they enjoy it. Apart from catering for any specialist interests you may know about, you should find the following generally useful: jokes, personal anecdotes, human interest stories, material containing some puzzle to be solved, and serialised stories.

3) Use your prior knowledge of the material to guide the listeners.

This may be done in two ways:

a) You can introduce the topic with a short discussion; for example you could announce the title or say the first sentence and ask what they think it will be about. This arouses certain expectations and makes the students mentally prepared for the topic; it may also activate latent knowledge of vocabulary associated with the topic.

b) Perhaps most important of all, you can help students to be selective by giving them a purpose for listening. Give a few questions before the first hearing, or ask them to pick out the 3 main points, or the main steps in a process. Set tasks which entail concentrating on certain features and filtering out irrelevant information.

4) Select material at an appropriate level of linguistic difficulty as regards syntax and vocabulary.

5) Control the length of the material.

Listening exercises should be shorter than reading texts, especially in the earlier stages. If you want to use a longer exercise, split it up into short sections and ask questions appropriate to each short section as you go along.

6) Repeat the material.

This is obvious but needs to be done with care. In most target situations material will be heard only once. It is, therefore, a good idea to give students something specific to listen for, even on first hearing to prove that they can get some information from a single hearing. It is amazing how often students are prepared to listen to the same thing over

and over again provided that they are given a good reason for doing so, like trying to answer specific questions or solving some sort of problem.

Listeners at lower levels of proficiency seem to find that a simple repetition of a noun phrase is the easiest to comprehend; more advanced learners can cope with both pronouns and varied nouns descriptions (Chaudron 1983)

7) Control the speed of delivery and clarity of diction.

This again is obvious but it is very easy to take it too far. Students who will eventually have to listen to speech at full speed and with native speaker fluency (with short forms, unstressed words, etc) should be weaned off careful, slow speech as quickly as possible. Another important reason for not going too slowly is that in very slow speech the useful cues to grammatical relationships provided by intonation are obscured, and extremely slow speech actually places a greater burden on the STM because by the time the voice reaches the end of a sentence the learner may have forgotten how it started. If you want to make things easier in the early stages by controlling speed, it is better to deliver each sentence at a moderate speed but pause rather longer than you normally would, between sentences. This gives the listener a little more time to process the information without distorting the normal speech patterns.

8) Be understanding and sensitive to student fears about LC and FL learning.

According to McKeachie (1994), an important instructor characteristic that can go a long way in relieving personal anxiety is a sympathetic attitude towards the problems and fears of the students. An important step, therefore, is to create a positive, non-threatening atmosphere within the classroom. The climate of the classroom is directly related to the attitudes, expectations, and physical presence of the instructor, which, in turn, determine the way in which the instructor and students interact. If we want students to experience success in FL learning, we must not ignore their beliefs, perceptions, fears, obstacles and anxieties.

One way to expose students' fears about FL learning, and LC in particular, would be to have them list the sources of LC anxiety on the board. Students would see that listening anxiety is shared by nearly everyone and that most of the other students experience similar fears of failure. Knowing that others share their beliefs can motivate the students to overcome their own anxiety.

V. CONCLUSION

Anxiety is the important factor that affects the LC ability of successful students. We should decrease listening comprehension anxiety by increasing self-confidence in the FL classroom. Listening comprehension activities that address listening anxiety will empower both the teacher and the learner. When teachers and students make the shift from listening for correctness to listening for a message, the motivation to understand increases and the fear of being "wrong" decreases. Learners that are motivated to listen and learn will have positive attitudes toward the target language and its speakers.

APPENDIX A LISTENING COMPREHENSION ANXIETY QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is part of a research project that will provide important information about how instructors can help lower the anxiety level of language learners when doing listening comprehension tasks. Thank you for your participation.

Please answer as specifically as possible.

1. Do you experience anxiety when you are participating in listening comprehension activity?
☐ Yes ☐ No
2. What makes you anxious when you are participating in a listening comprehension activity?
3. What types of exercises, settings, or activities help to lower your anxiety level?

APPENDIX B STUDENT COMMENTS BY CATEGORY AND SUBCATEGORY

LC Anxiety Associated with Characteristics of Input

Nature of the speech.

"The teacher speaks too fast and I'm afraid I can't understand it."

"I am afraid if the teacher speaks too quickly, there is not enough time to translate in my mind and write down."

Level of difficulty.

"I don't understand the words the teacher uses."

"I have never heard the words the teacher uses before."

"I am anxious that I will not understand the topic."

Lack of visual support.

"I could recognize the words written but not orally."

"See the English film with English subtitles."

Lack of repetition.

"I hope the teacher speaks her words twice or three times."

The teacher should repeat her words."

LC Anxiety Associated with Process-related Aspects of LC

Inappropriate strategies.

"I am afraid that I don't have good listening skill to listen and write."

"In order to understand one word of a sentence, I miss the rest part of the whole sentence."

"I try to understand every word, but I don't know which is a key word or most important."

Lack of time to process the input.

"I don't have time to think about what the teacher speak to me."

"I feel anxious and unable to answer the teacher's question when the teacher speaks in a louder voice to repeat."

Can't study LC.

"I don't know how to preview and review LC."

"I don't know how to prepare for LC exams."

Can't check answers.

"I feel anxious when I practice LC because I don't know how to check my answers."

"Listening is not like reading because I can't go back to the previous materials if I can't understand."

LC Anxiety Associated with Instructional Factors*Lack of LC practice*

"I feel anxious because there is no LC practice in class."

"The test thing"

"I feel nervous because it is a test."

Uncomfortable environment

"The classroom is too dark so I feel uncomfortable."

"The classroom is very hot. We need cool breeze to make us feel relaxed."

"I feel nervous because there are too many students in the classroom."

LC Anxiety Associated with Personal Attributes of Teacher and Learner*Fear of failure/ nerves.*

"I am afraid of losing face in the public so I feel nervous when the teacher asks me to answer questions."

"I hope the teacher doesn't ask one person to answer question but ask the whole class to answer her question."

Instructor's personality

"My English teacher likes to praise me in the class when I answer the question correctly, which makes me feel confident."

"I feel nervous when I make mistakes in answering questions and some classmates laugh at me loudly."

"I feel anxious when the teacher doesn't show any reaction to my performance."

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The Effect of Persian L2 Learners' Proficiency Level on their Degree of Observing Subjacency in L2

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Abstract—This experimental study examined how L2 learners' L2 proficiency level affected their performance in GJ tasks while rendering WH-questions using a repeated measures design. Participants included 60 female Persian EFL participants from the Islamic Azad University - Khorasgan Branch - at two levels of English proficiency (i.e. High- and Low-Intermediate levels). The instruments (i.e. explicit written, implicit written, oral stimulus, and no stimulus GJ tasks) involved rendering different cases of subjacency in four consecutive time settings for four weeks per each GJ task by each participant. The results revealed that L2 proficiency level is of no significant effects on the L2 learners' performance on WH-questions.

Index Terms—explicit written GJ task, implicit written GJ tasks, no stimulus GJ task, oral stimulus GJ task, repeated measures design, subjacency

Research has shown the importance of syntax ever since the influence of Chomsky's ideas on linguistics. A syntactic operation termed *merger* exists in syntax which views languages to have a potentially infinite number of sentences and allows words, phrases, and clauses to form sentence structures; in addition, it leads to the formation of grammatical sentences in all languages. Such structures are projections of overt constituents such as words, phrases, and clauses. Moreover, they consist of covert, null, and empty constituents. An important aspect of syntactic structures is termed *the empty category*, which is of immense significance in the formation of WH-questions. *Trace* is a sample of empty categories resulting from different movement types. In the 1970s and 1980s, a moved constituent was judged to leave a trace at its extraction site, and traces were considered to resemble pronouns in specific cases. Moreover, such a moved constituent would form a chain with its trace; that is, the moved constituent would be the head of the chain, and its trace would be the foot of the chain. In 2000s, traces were reformulated in terms of copying according to which units in one position were duplicated in another (Matthews, 2007). The binary-branching tree diagrams represent syntactic structures and consist of three positions (i.e. specifier, head, and complement) (Radford, Atkinson, Britain, Clahsen & Spencer, 2009).

Sentence syntactic structures are independent of their related meanings, hence the ability to study such syntactic structures independently of their associated semantic contents. However, the sentential ordering of syntactic structures, according to Chomsky, only permits specific orderings, hence the ungrammaticality of some sentences. Syntactic computation, which is a major property of human language faculty, is structure-dependent. In addition, humans' language faculty can compute and build such binding relations as c-command and indexation that are parts of the resources constituting their language faculty (Isac & Reiss, 2008). Syntax is a universal combinatory system of humans' linguistic competence, which is an integral part of language faculty and constitutes the basis for all human language instantiations (Ramchand, 2008).

Most recent studies that have investigated the issue of L2 proficiency have found evidence in support of the hypothesis that higher L2 proficiency levels foster L2 learners' awareness of grammatical accuracy and represent more accurate sentence-level syntax (Savignon, 2005). These somewhat controversial findings in the existing research prompt further investigations about the degree to which L2 learners' proficiency levels in L2 influence their grammatical accuracy in Grammaticality Judgement Tasks. The present study aimed to examine the effect of L2 proficiency level on L2 Learners' performance in GJ tasks when rendering WH-questions. GJ tasks were selected as the elicitation instruments in this study because they are of wide-spread use across different academic settings.

Therefore, the theoretical framework underlying this study was derived in view of four main aspects of theory, research, generative models, and the operational definition of the concepts used in this study: (a) The body of literature about the influence of L2 proficiency level on the grammatical performance of L2 learners in terms of WH-questions in GJ tasks; (b) the phenomenon of High- and Low-Intermediate L2 learners' performance on different cases of subjacency in English WH-questions using four different types of GJ tasks within a repeated measures design as an insufficiently studied scientific domain in SLA; (c) the generative models of language and grammar forming the basis of

research in SLA; and (d) the operational definitions of such issues as WH-movement, WH-movement in English and Persian, and GJ tasks. Therefore, before presenting the study and its findings, its theoretical and empirical background will be briefly outlined.

I. LITERATURE REVIEW

Much research in subadjacency (e.g., Schachter, 1988) has indicated that different L2 learners' access to the UG principle of subadjacency and the proper observance of it in GJ tasks can be either attributed to UG or the effect of L2 learners' L1. In addition, such researchers have only tested their L2 learners' knowledge of subadjacency under uniform and like conditions and have oftentimes concluded that subadjacency is a part of the L2 learners' unconscious knowledge, or rather grammatical proficiency, although it may not be consistently obeyed. Other researchers (e.g., Bley-Vroman, Felix & Ioup, 1988) have only emphasized UG availability while rendering GJ tasks on subadjacency and have concluded that this availability of UG is, at times, only overridden by other factors in performance (White, 1990).

In another experiment, researchers (e.g., Schachter, 1989, 1990) have indicated that learners fail to recognize violations of UG principles, such as subadjacency, unless these principles also operate in their L1; therefore, Korean and Chinese speakers cannot recognize subadjacency violations in English, whereas Dutch speakers can (White, 1996).

Gass and Mackey (2000) focused on the subjects' answers to GJ tasks and asserted that such answers reflected two issues: (a) It was either the case that subjects were following a developmental path; or that (b) they were constrained by their native language patterns. In addition, subjects' answers might have reflected both of these issues. As for subjects' proficiency levels, it should be noted that "the limited proficiency of learners operating in their L2s may influence the content of the recalls". That is, it is possible for the students not to be able to understand or even verbalize the full extent of what they were thinking (p.98).

In a study, Hawkins (2001) believed that L2 learners' performance data could be an indirect reflection of their grammatical competence because such data could deceive us into thinking that L2 learners knew a lot or less than expected. Performance data were also complex because samples involved more than one grammatical property.

Some researchers (e.g. White, 1989) believed that the learners' interim competence was accounted for by using an abstract rule system, but a difference existed between an L2 learner's competence and his performance; that is, when an L2 learner used his L2 knowledge, as in a GJ task, he reflected not only his interlanguage but also his performance variables that were not necessarily considered to be parts of his competence. The fact that we used a form differently in different settings was not part of our competence, it actually referred to the performance variables. One of the major reasons for the use of GJ tasks was that competence could not be directly tapped and that it was, actually, the performance aspects that could give us insights into the subjects' competence such as performance on GJ tasks.

In a study on Chinese speakers of L2 English, Ellis (1991) asked the students to take part in two tasks; that is, all the Chinese subjects were, first, administered a standard GJ task with 40 sentences, and, afterwards, eight of the subjects were asked to perform an introspective individual Speak-Aloud GJ task containing 10 of the previously administered 40 sentences. Having analyzed the section, Ellis identified such strategies as feel, rehearsing, rehearsing alternate version, trying to access explicit knowledge, using analogy, evaluating a sentence, and guessing to be used by L2 learners while taking the GJ tasks.

Since most students had answered the questions rapidly, Ellis came to the conclusion that the intuitive strategy of feel had been extensively made use of in GJ tasks. Furthermore, another issue that was evident was lack of consistency between the subjects' responses in the first task as opposed to their responses in the second task.

In a study, Han and Ellis (1998) did a factor-analysis on a series of tests to find out which one could be taken into account as a pure measure of implicit or explicit measure. The tests tested were Oral Production, Grammaticality Judgement, Metalinguistic Knowledge, TOEFL and SLEP. They found that none of the tests could be taken to be a pure measure of either implicit or explicit knowledge; however, this result could not be safely generalized because the focus was only on one structure (viz. verb complements) (Dekeyser, 2003).

A. *Generative Models of Language and Grammar*

Grammar is a single and complex unit that generates syntactic structures and assigns representations to such structures at two levels, namely phonological form (PF) and logical form (LF). Different opinions have existed about the grammar structure since the start of generative linguistics in the 1950s; however, all such different opinions have agreed that grammar is abstract and is not located in space or time. A speaker's grammar is his knowledge object because such a grammar has information about his language.

In addition, such a grammar is represented in the speakers' minds because grammars serve in the speaker/ hearers' mental processes and mediate the production and perception of speech. Moreover, the study of grammar is highly effective in understanding the nature of the linguistic ability of humans because when people speak a language, they follow its formal rules, such as rules of syntax (George, 1989).

Every language is made up of linguistic ingredients, and such ingredients are arranged based on a set of rules called grammar. One part of grammar that deals with the sentence structures is called syntax. As such, the major concern of syntax is word order, and those linguists who work within generativism have taken into account syntactic universals as

the best piece of evidence for UG. Such universals have even been of constructive contribution in SLA research because they apply to all language types (Magni, Scalise & Bisseto, 2009).

Most generative grammarians believe that grammars should fully characterize competence and not performance; in addition, they believe that grammars should be psychologically relevant. A particular generative grammar pertains to the mind/brain state of the person who speaks a language. Every human being can learn a language using little explicit instruction. This fact suggests that humans are genetically endowed with a mental organ that is capable of acquiring languages, a scientific point that is known as the argument from the poverty of the stimulus. Research in generative grammar has revealed a lot about language structure, particularly in such areas as binding principles, filler-gap dependencies, and island constraints.

Island constraints constrain the positions in which filler items and gaps may appear, such as the cases where the gap may not be in a relative clause if the filler item is outside of it. The same constraints hold for gaps internal to embedded questions. In addition, a gap cannot appear in co-ordinate conjoined structures unless all conjuncts have gaps that are filled by the same filler item. Noam Chomsky's work has dominated the field of generative theories of grammar throughout its history (Wasow, 2003, pp. 297-300).

All of the grammar theories developed since Chomsky's seminar in the 1950s deal with the extensions of the context-free (phrase structure) grammar (CFG). CFG consists of two parts: (a) A lexicon that comprises a list of words with their relevant grammatical categories (i.e. lexical categories); and (b) a set of rules that are called phrase structure rules; that is, a phrasal category (i.e. A) may consist of "any string of lexical and/or phrasal categories". It is possible for phrases to be embedded within other phrases and result in the recursive character within a characteristic that is needed to generate infinite languages. In 1950s and early 1960s, Chomsky, Postal, and others criticized CFGs on grounds of lacking the required "descriptive power to account for all of the syntactic regulations of natural languages", a criticism that was generally accepted (Wasow, 2003, pp. 301,302).

From the 1950s onwards, Chomsky developed TG as a form of generative grammar that consisted of some rules for transformations. Such rules, or rather T-rules, consisted of two parts, that is a structural description (SD) and a structural change (SC). In 1970s, a theory was used to properly recognize TG from other grammar types, namely standard theory or aspect theory (Matthews, 2007).

Gass and Selinker (2008) maintain that innateness is, according to nativists, involved in, at least, some language learning aspects. Having seen it this way, researchers noted two positions: (a) General nativism; and (b) special nativism. The special nativist approach is known as UG. Within UG theory, language consists of abstract invariable principles that characterize the core grammars of all languages and variable parameters that vary across languages. "UG is postulated as an innate language facility that limits the extent to which languages can vary". Hence, an innate language faculty exists in learners (i.e. children) that enables them to obtain adult grammar complexities because they know specific grammar properties that are not learnable from input (i.e. poverty of the stimulus) (p. 161).

Matthews (2007) holds that principles and parameters theory (P&P) was the dominant model practiced from the early 1980s onwards and was developed by Chomsky. Two versions of the P&P model are GB theory that was developed in the 1980s, and its reformulated form that emerged in the 1990s (i.e. MP). P&P model is the theory of UG, namely the genetically inherited mental structures that form the bases of language development. GB is a version of Chomsky's P&P theory that was named by Chomsky's followers in 1981 after Chomsky's lectures on GB. The primary objective for the development of P&P-based MP, which was developed in the early 1990s by Chomsky, was to develop a simplified version of GB theory. Within minimalism, a grammar is viewed as relating two interface levels (i.e. PF and LF), which are the interfaces with different performance systems. Performance systems are those mental systems that interface with grammar at two separate levels, namely PF and LF. PF and LF must be interpretable by the performance systems. The aim has been to eliminate other levels of representation such as deep and surface structures and simplify the computational system (Matthews, 2007).

B. WH-Movement

Interrogatives are of complex syntactic structures and are of two types (i.e. closed and open). Whereas the former shows subject-auxiliary inversion, the latter shows the fronting of the nonsubject interrogative phrase that involves a WH-word with the ability to trigger subject-auxiliary inversion, and, as a result, the occurrence of WH-movement. In addition, such interrogatives can be in the form of multiple WH-questions (Collins, 2006). Interrogatives are multi-clausal sentences that are syntactically related to each other via subordination because their clauses show unequal syntactic status (Huddleston & Pullum, 2006).

An important point in WH-questions is movement. Movement is a process in generative grammar and a syntactic operation by which constituents move and leave behind silent trace copies. Movement, which was formulated from the early 1970s, "move[s] as few constituents as possible the shortest distance possible" (Radford et al., 2009, p. 301).

Movements are either A-movements or A-bar movements. In cases where an expression, such as an NP, is moved to a position that can only be occupied by argument expressions, such as the case of passivization, A-movement occurs, whereas in cases where an expression, such as a WH-phrase, is moved to a position that can be occupied by both arguments and adjuncts, A-bar movement occurs (Radford, 2004). Another type of syntactic movement is head-movement, such as the cases where a V moves to I (Hawkins, 2001).

Movement can occur both overtly (i.e. before spell-out) and covertly (i.e. after spell-out at LF). Feature checking triggers WH-movements, and one of the major characteristics of movements is the resultant chain that is formed between the moved WH-phrases (i.e. head of the chain) and the traces left behind by such movements (i.e. foot of the chain). The syntactic form of movement acts as a distinguishing factor among languages and, as a result, differs from language to language. Whereas in some languages like Japanese and Chinese, questions are formed without movement, in others, such as English, they require movement. Variable movements exist in other languages such as Turkish (Cook, 1993).

Movements are constrained by a UG principle termed subadjacency (Radford, 1997). Subadjacency, which was formulated by Chomsky in the late 1970s, refers to the syntactic constraints that block the movement of a unit if that unit crosses more than one bounding node. WH-movement is constrained by subadjacency and refers to the movement of WH-forms to the beginning of a sentence or even a clause resulting in the formation of WH-traces. The extracted constituents make short-step moves because long moves give rise to ungrammaticality in constructions.

C. WH-Movement in English and Persian

Whereas IPs and NPs (DPs) are the bounding nodes in English, NPs and CPs are the bounding nodes in Persian. Hence, WH-movement must be, in English, to the nearest empty CP to avoid subadjacency violations, whereas it must be, in Persian, to the nearest empty IP. Subadjacency is an example of "subtle parameter variation" that extends far beyond L2 input and cannot be developed by L1 grammar. In bounding nodes, parametric variation is seen across languages (White, 1989, p. 111).

As for multiple WH-questions in English, the fact is that only one of the WH-expressions can move and be preposed. In such structures, the null complementizer at the top of the tree possesses both a WH feature, which necessitates the existence of a WH-expression, and an EPP feature, which requires C to have a WH-specifier. To fulfill its function, C attracts the closest WH-expression that it c-commands based on a UG principle named attract closest principle (ACP); that is, "A head which attracts a given kind of constituent attracts the closest constituent of the relevant kind" (Chomsky, 1998, 1999, 2001, pp. 198-200).

At times, only a WH-word, and not a WH-phrase, moves to form interrogatives without auxiliary movement, but, at other times, a sentence involves both the movement of a WH-phrase and an auxiliary. When a WH-quantifier moves to the sentence-initial position, its accompanying noun must move with it. In other words, the complement of a WH-quantifier must always be pied-piped along with it. Hence, "main-clause questions are CPs headed by a C which carries [TNS, WH, EPP] features" (Radford, 2004, p. 170).

Operator movements in English are triggered by the feature strength, and the moved operator expressions leave behind a trace at their extraction sites. English is a language where the WH-feature of probe is strong; hence, the noninterpretable feature of the probe attracts its interpretable counterpart on goal overtly, that is before spell-out (Radford, 1997).

Upon reaching LF, the checking process checks and deletes the noninterpretable formal features, which have no semantic content, because such features are the viruses of the system, unlike the interpretable formal features that are reserved and interpreted. WH-phrases either move to check (i.e. the operation Attract, or rather Enlightened Self-Interest) or to be checked (i.e. the operation Greed). The feature of probe is weak in Persian; hence, the uninterpretable feature of the probe attracts its interpretable counterpart on goal covertly at LF. Weak features are more economical than strong features, an issue which is called procrastinate (i.e. languages tend to delay movement as much as possible). Unlike overt WH-movement in such languages as English that leaves behind a trace subject to the empty category principle, in languages with covert WH-movement such as Persian, where a WH-word is in deep structure, the ECP is irrelevant due to the nonexistence of traces (Lotfi, 2003).

In some languages where WH-forms are not preposed, such as Persian, WH-forms are called in-situ. Unlike English that is an SVO language, Persian is an SOV language where WH-movement is by no means mandatory, neither in single WH-movement sentences nor in multiple WH-movements. Hence, optionality applies to such WH-movements. Unlike English, Persian WH-movement is not triggered by a WH-feature, but rather a totally syntactic feature.

Persian is a topic-prominent language, but topicalization does not occur in it in cases where, for example, the whole sentence is in focus. Unlike English, the spec-TP position is not a subject position because neither raising to subject nor overt or covert expletives exist in Persian. One of the major issues that justifies the existence of spec-TP is the existence of a background topic.

Persian WH-arguments can either move or remain in-situ that, per se, serves as an instance of scrambling and the cause of change in interpretation; that is, when the WH-phrase remains in-situ, such as the case where it remains in VP, it asks for information-based interpretation, whereas in cases where it moves into the spec-focus position, it asks for contrastive-based interpretation; hence, in the latter case, the speaker has a set of options in mind and wonders which one will be chosen by the listener.

Many of the UG principles are parameterized because they function with varying degrees of effects in different languages. As for the principle of subadjacency, certain construction types are islands; that is, extraction is impossible out of them. Such syntactic islands fall into four categories, namely object noun complements, subject noun complements, complex NPs, and WH-islands. Accordingly, certain general constraints limit the freedom of the WH-movement rules

such as the A-over-A condition, subject condition, the complex noun phrase constraint (CNPC), and WH-island constraint. All of these constraints can be reduced to the cases of subjacency (White, 1988).

D. Grammaticality Judgement Tasks

Davies and Kaplan (1998) maintain that GJ tasks have started to be constantly used in L2 research since the mid-1970s. Moreover, the extended standard theory has been of immense effect in the development of GJ tasks because such a theory, which was a version of TG and was developed in the mid-1970s, differed from its preceding standard theory in that the extended version focused on the surface structure, and not the deep structure, as the structure where the semantic representations of sentences were determined, either wholly or in part. Hence, GJ tasks, whose primary focus had been on the surface structure of the presented sentences to be judged by the L2 learners, evaluated the L2 learners' judgements on the meaning-based surface structure of the presented sentences. The development of principles and parameters theory was also highly effective in the emergence of GJ tasks.

Whereas Selinker (1974) emphasized the importance of observable data in the investigation of L2 when L2 learners try to speak in L2 spontaneously, Corder (1973) focused on the importance of data that are elicited by force and believed that spontaneous speech was not enough. We, instead, need a means of determining learners' grammatical knowledge; hence, tasks can prove helpful in this regard, and GJ tasks are a way of reflecting on the L2 learners' mental processes.

Gass and Mackey (2000) delve further into the issue of GJ tasks and assert that the term knowledge relates directly to cognition; as a result, GJ tasks are used to uncover the true nature of L2 learners' cognition.

As for task components, Ellis (1990, 1991) asserts that the components of a task-based test are such things as the task itself, a procedure for the implementation of the task, and a measure of subjects' performance to assess their performance.

Mackey and Gass (2005) assert that it is technically wrong to use the term Grammaticality Judgement task instead of Acceptability Judgement task. We use the judgements of acceptability to make inferences about subjects' grammaticality because grammar is abstract; hence, we cannot ask about grammaticality directly. The main reason for the use of GJ tasks is to obtain sufficient evidence on which to base the conclusions gained on subjects' L2 knowledge.

White (1990) believes that we, in GJ tasks, include those structures that are fairly complex and simply might not arise in the normal course of conversations to tap the L2 learners' conscious knowledge of, for example, WH-movements. Researchers manipulate the sentence types to be included and try to investigate those various aspects of L2 knowledge on which the operation of UG might have effects by looking at L2 competence and production in a controlled way. It is important that L2 learners be made to reveal, directly or indirectly, whether they know the required knowledge by showing if they have knowledge of ungrammaticality because linguistic competence includes knowledge of ungrammaticality.

The important issue is that violating a universal such as subjacency because of low proficiency does not necessarily mean lack of UG, but only a difficult structure for the students to process.

One way of establishing whether L2 learners' competence includes knowledge that certain forms are impossible is by the use of grammaticality judgement (GJ) tasks, where learners are asked to judge the correctness or otherwise of various sentences (White, 1989, p. 58).

II. METHODOLOGY

This research employed the quantitative method of data collection and analysis; hence, the quantitative part is covered extensively in this article.

A. Research Question and Hypothesis

One research question and one hypothesis guided the quantitative investigation process:

- (a) Research Question: Does EFL participants' proficiency level influence their performance on WH-questions?
- (b) Research Hypothesis: There will be no relationship between proficiency level and EFL participants' performance on WH-questions.

B. Participants

This study was carried out with sixty female EFL university students, within the 19-30 age range, of the Islamic Azad University (Khorasgan Branch) participated in our study. Participants were randomly selected from the accessible EFL student population of the university and divided into two proficiency groups as determined by the Grammar and Listening Modules of the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) (2004). That is, thirty female participants in the Low-Intermediate group with scores falling in the range of 131 to 139 out of 200, and thirty female participants in the High-Intermediate group with scores falling above 141 up to 200. Participants had been permanent residents of Iran and lived in Esfahan.

C. Instrument

The research instruments included four two-choice GJ tasks with the same number of WH-questions to tap female EFL participants' knowledge of forming WH-questions. The GJ tasks examined the effect of such an independent

variable as L2 learners' proficiency levels in L2 on their grammatical performance while rendering WH-questions in the explicit written, implicit written, oral stimulus, and no stimulus GJ tasks where stimuli are presented in different forms to determine the effect of the independent variable on EFL participants' English grammatical performance in GJ tasks under different conditions and from different angles.

The first GJ task (i.e. explicit written GJ task) was a 30-question task based on which female EFL participants were instructed to determine whether the written WH-questions served as proper questions for their pertinent written stimuli that preceded such WH-questions four seconds ago in popping up on the laptop screen. The second GJ task (i.e. implicit written GJ task) was a 30-question task based on which female EFL participants were instructed to determine whether the written WH-questions were congruent with the pictures that preceded such WH-questions four seconds ago in popping up on the laptop screen. Having worn headphones over their ears, participants listened to the oral recording of stimuli four seconds prior to being presented with their pertinent responses in the oral stimulus GJ task. However, participants received no stimuli whatsoever in the no stimulus GJ task to determine if stimuli were of any effects at all in the grammatical performance of female EFL participants (see Appendices A, B, C, and D).

The four GJ tasks tested different cases of subadjacency and included both grammatical and ungrammatical WH-questions of equal complexity, vocabulary, and structure. In addition, filler items were included in the four GJ tasks to blur the point of investigation in the research project. Participants were instructed to select only one of the two choices for each question, namely either acceptable or not acceptable. The GJ tasks investigated syntactic islands in English; that is, those construction types that are islands with respect to movement.

III. ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The data were analyzed through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows. The results are presented in view of the research question that guided the current study.

To address the research question the statistical test of two-way repeated measures ANOVA was employed for testing the null hypothesis in this study. Since the intention was to compare participants' performance on more than one GJ task, the repeated measures ANOVA was used. As a result, the overall performance of the High-Intermediate group was compared with the overall performance of the Low-Intermediate group. Each participant in both High- and Low-Intermediate groups did all the four GJ tasks. Hence, there were eight sets of results to be compared with each other. Each group was analyzed separately using the repeated measures ANOVA to measure how a single group performed on multiple measures (i.e. the four GJ tasks) and to measure if the effects of those measures were independent.

Using the SPSS software package, we conducted computerized data analysis via running the robust statistical procedure of parametric repeated measures ANOVA to experimentally manipulate the independent variable in this study (i.e. L2 proficiency level) to determine its effect, if any, on the dependent variable (i.e. female EFL participants' performance on the four GJ tasks). We used the repeated measures design because participants of the two proficiency groups (i.e. 30 High-Intermediate and 30 Low-Intermediate participants) were measured under different conditions.

Having entered the obtained data for the two hypotheses into the variable SPSS data view window with their descriptive labels, we obtained the indispensable general tendencies in the data and the overall spread of the scores via analyzing measures of central tendency and variability, as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
SAMPLE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Independent Variables	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
LG_ORL_STIM	30	16.00	3.991
LG_EXP_WRI	30	17.03	3.978
LG_IMP_WRI	30	15.93	2.947
LG_NO_STIM	30	15.97	4.165
HG_ORL_STIM	30	17.37	3.378
HG_EXP_WRI	30	17.60	2.811
HG_IMP_WRI	30	17.37	3.113
HG_NO_STIM	30	18.00	3.151

The numerical values of mean indicated that HG-NO-STIM had performed better than the other seven independent variables because the mean value was weighted in its favor. HG-EXP-WRI was the second independent variable that had performed better than the other six variables, and the other two High-Intermediate independent variables were the third independent variables that had performed better than the other four Low-Intermediate independent variables; that is, HG-ORL-WRI and HG-IMP-WRI, which had the same mean values, showed the third best performance on the GJ tasks; hence, proficiency level was of effect in the performance of female EFL participants, and the High-Intermediate group performed better than the Low-Intermediate group in all the four of its performance types in the four GJ tasks. However, the question remains as to whether such differences in favor of the four performance types of the High-Intermediate group in the four GJ tasks were statistically significant. In cases where standard deviation values are smaller than mean values, such as the case in Table 1, mean values can better capture the behavior of the samples.

The level of significance (alpha level) set as the criterion and standard for rejection and acceptance in this study is 5% (.05). The within-subjects factors, as shown in Table 2, are the basis for the repeated measures analysis of each study. In this study, the dependent variables (i.e. 60 female EFL participants' performance types in the explicit written,

implicit written, oral stimulus, and no stimulus GJ tasks) are measured repeatedly for all sample participants across a set of conditions.

The within-subjects factors in this study have four levels for each group due to their four administrations in the forms of four different GJ tasks over four weeks. Hence, the within-subject factors have four levels because measures (i.e. explicit written, implicit written, oral stimulus, and no stimulus GJ tasks) are taken twice per group over four weeks using the within-groups design.

TABLE 2.
WITHIN-SUBJECTS FACTORS

Group	Treatment	Independent Variables
1	1	LG-ORL-STIM
	2	LG-EXP-WRI
	3	LG-IMP-WRI
	4	LG-NO-STIM
2	1	HG-ORL-STIM
	2	HG-EXP-WRI
	3	HG-IMP-WRI
	4	HG-NO-STIM

In order to determine the effects of the independent variable on the participants' dependent variable and see if these effects are significant, we used the multivariate tests, as shown in Tables 3, 4 and 5. We used the multivariate analysis of variance to assess the effects of treatment, group, and group-treatment interaction in terms of repeated observations of the same participants in two groups of different proficiency levels. The grouping variable of group, as shown in Table 3, is the multivariate test of the two-level independent variable of proficiency level that distinguishes the two groups. This effect was not significant, $F(1, 58) = 4.08 > 2.983$, indicating that the two levels of proficiency (i.e. High- and Low-Intermediate proficiency levels) did not differ significantly from each other on the weighted aggregate in terms of having different effects on the High- and Low-Intermediate female EFL participants' performance in the four GJ tasks while rendering WH-questions.

TABLE 3.
MULTIVARIATE TESTS

	Effect	Value	<i>F</i>	Hypothesis <i>df</i>	Sig.
Group	Pillai's Trace	.093	2.983	1.000	.095
	Wilks' Lambda	.907	2.983	1.000	.095
	Hotelling's Trace	.103	2.983	1.000	.095
	Roy's Largest Root	.103	2.983	1.000	.095

† $p < .05$, one-tailed

The grouping variable of treatment, as shown in Table 4, is the multivariate test of within-subjects factor; that is, the four-level independent variable of presenting four GJ tasks to the two groups over four weeks in a counterbalanced way. This effect was not significant either, $F(1, 58) = 4.08 > 1.494$.

TABLE 4.
MULTIVARIATE TESTS

	Effect	Value	<i>F</i>	Hypothesis <i>df</i>	Sig.
Treatment	Pillai's Trace	.142	1.494	3.000	.238
	Wilks' Lambda	.858	1.494	3.000	.238
	Hotelling's Trace	.166	1.494	3.000	.238
	Roy's Largest Root	.166	1.494	3.000	.238

† $p < .05$, one-tailed

Tests of significance of the multivariate effects of group-treatment interaction, as shown in Table 5, describe the multivariate effects of the repeated measures factor and the interaction of the factor with group. In this case, neither of the effects was significant, $F(1, 58) = 4.08 >$, suggesting that there did not exist multivariate effects for both treatment and the group-treatment interaction in either of the proficiency groups. The last use of the three leading multivariate test criteria of group differences, as shown in Table 5, revealed that the effect of the interaction between group and treatment was by no means significant in three of the four tests. That is, neither group showed significant interactions between its proficiency level and treatment. Hence, proficiency level and treatment were of no effects on each other within different groups.

TABLE 5.
MULTIVARIATE TESTS

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Sig
Group* Treatment Pillai's Trace	.096	.959	3.000	.426
Wilks' Lambda	.904	.959	3.000	.426
Hotelling's Trace	.107	.959	3.000	.426
Roy's Largest Root	.107	.959	3.000	.426

†p< .05, one-tailed

The repeated measures ANOVA, which compares participants' performance on more than one task, is a robust parametric test. One of the assumptions underlying parametric tests is that data points are independent, but this assumption does not hold for a repeated measures design because, in repeated measures design, data for different conditions have come from the same people, hence the relatedness of data from different experimental conditions. This issue gives rise to an additional assumption according to which the relationship between pairs of groups is equal, that is the variances of the differences between levels of the repeated measures factor are equal in a within-subjects design. This assumption is called sphericity. This assumption resembles the variance assumption homogeneity in between-subjects ANOVA. The sphericity assumption should not be violated; therefore, the SPSS software package includes a procedure called Mauchly's test that determines if the assumption of sphericity has been violated. Mauchly's test uses the Chi-Square test to test the sphericity assumption. The Mauchly's test of sphericity, as shown in Table 6, and the epsilon multipliers are applicable to the univariate repeated measures tests of the treatment within-subjects effects as well as the treatment-group interaction within-subjects effects.

TABLE 6.
MAUCHLY'S TEST OF SPHERICITY

Within-Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Epsilon		
					Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-Bound
Group	1.000	.000	0	.	1.000	1.000	1.000
Treatment	.772	7.177	5	.208	.869	.962	.333
Group*Treatment	.770	7.233	5	.204	.872	.966	.333

We ran the Mauchly's test to determine whether the condition of sphericity had been met; that is, it tested the hypothesis that the variances of the differences between conditions were equal. Table 6 shows the findings of running Mauchly's test for this study. There are cases where a repeated measures independent variable has only two levels, such as the case in this study where we have two levels for one of the independent variables (i.e. the High- and Low-Intermediate proficiency levels) as shown in Table 6 for the within-subjects effect of group that has resulted in the violation of sphericity. Moreover, there are cases where the estimates computed by the SPSS software package are one (i.e. Mauchly's W=1.000), which indicates perfect sphericity. In addition, the resulting significance test cannot be computed, hence the value of (.000) for the Approx. Chi-Square test, the value of (0) for the degrees of freedom, and a blank space for the significance.

If Mauchly's test statistic is significant (i.e. a probability value less than .05), such as the case for the effect of group in Table 6, it indicates the existence of significant differences between the variance of differences, and, as a result, the violation of sphericity ensues; in this case, one cannot trust the F-ratios. If, on the other hand, Mauchly's test statistic is nonsignificant (i.e. a probability value more than .05), such as the cases for the effects of treatment, and the interaction between group and treatment, it indicates lack of significant differences between the variance of differences, and, as a result, the observance of sphericity.

In cases where the sphericity assumption is violated, several corrections can be applied to produce a valid F-ratio. These corrections adjust the degrees of freedom associated with the F-value. The degrees of freedom are reduced in all cases based on an estimate of how spherical the data are. The result of reducing the degrees of freedom is making the F-ratio more conservative; that is, the F-ratio has to be bigger than the probability value of .05 to indicate the existence of significant differences between the variance of differences. The corrections are three different estimates of sphericity that are made use of to correct the degrees of freedom (i.e. Greenhouse-Geisser, Huynh-Feldt, and Lower-Bound).

Epsilon is a descriptive statistic that indicates the degree to which sphericity has been violated. In cases where the epsilon value is more than 0.75 (i.e. >0.75), such as the case in Table 6 for the effect of group, we must use the Huynh-Feldt correction, whereas in cases where the epsilon value is less than 0.75 (i.e. <0.75), we must use the Greenhouse-Geisser correction.

In cases where Mauchly's test shows violation of sphericity, as shown in Table 6 for the section of group (i.e. the first row), this violation may be compensated by an epsilon adjustment. The condition of sphericity, unlike the section of group, was met in the sections of treatment, and group-treatment interaction. The numerator and denominator degrees of freedom in the F test are multiplied by epsilon. The repeated measures analysis conducted by the SPSS software package offers three epsilon estimates. The strength of a prediction is increased as the number of independent observations or degrees of freedom is increased.

Since the epsilon values from Mauchly's test values are 1.000 (i.e. Table 6) for the section of group in the first row, and all of the three values are $E > 0.75$ (i.e. Green-House Geisser = 1.000, Huynh-Feldt = 1.000, and Lower-Bound = 1.000), we use the less conservative Huynh-Feldt corrected values to adjust both within-subject and between-subject degrees of freedom as shown in Table 7. Since there is violation of sphericity for the section of group, as shown in Table 6, we, using the Table 7, cannot reach a conclusion without a correction as to whether any significant differences exist between the two proficiency groups (i.e. High- and Low-Intermediate proficiency levels) while rendering WH-questions in the four GJ, hence the application of the Huynh-Feldt correction epsilon value, as shown in Table 7.

Applying the Huynh-Feldt correction epsilon value, we obtained no significant differences between the two proficiency groups in terms of their performance on the four GJ tasks. That is, the corrected F-ratio of Huynh-Feldt correction procedure showed the significance value of (.095) according to which High-Intermediate and Low-Intermediate proficiency groups showed no significant differences in their performance in the four GJ tasks over four weeks while rendering WH-questions. Hence, we were incapable obtaining an understanding as to which proficiency group showed significant effects in its performance in the four GJ tasks while rendering WH-questions.

TABLE 7.
TESTS OF WITHIN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

	Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group	Sphericity Assumed	109.350	1	109.350	2.983	.095
	Greenhouse-Geisser	109.350	1.000	109.350	2.983	.095
	Huynh-Feldt	109.350	1.000	109.350	2.983	.095
	Lower-Bound	109.350	1.000	109.350	2.983	.095
Treatment	Sphericity Assumed	17.383	3	5.794	1.025	.385
	Greenhouse-Geisser	17.383	2.606	6.671	1.025	.379
	Huynh-Feldt	17.383	2.886	6.023	1.025	.384
	Lower-Bound	17.383	1.000	17.383	1.025	.320

Having taken the two degrees of freedom into consideration to fit the critical values of the F distribution, we concluded that the calculated F in Table 7 for the case of treatment was $F(1.025)$, was neither equal nor greater than the related critical value for the appropriate degrees of freedom, that is $F(3, 87) = 2.76$; hence, the four GJ tasks in their eight treatments over four weeks were not considered statistically significant at the probability (.05) level. The same case held for the calculated F in Table 8 (i.e. $F[1.026]$) that was neither equal nor greater than the related critical value for the appropriate degrees of freedom, that is $F(3, 87) = 2.76$; hence, there was not a significant interaction between different groups and levels of treatments. Since the significance values of the F-ratios were more than .05 for treatment, as shown in Table 7, we were capable of saying that the effect of different treatments of the four GJ tasks was not significant.

TABLE 8.
TESTS OF WITHIN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

	Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group*	Sphericity Assumed	16.317	3	5.439	1.026	.385
Treatment	Greenhouse-Geisser	16.317	2.615	6.239	1.026	.379
	Huynh-Feldt	16.317	2.898	5.630	1.026	.384
	Lower-Bound	16.317	1.000	16.317	1.026	.319

Hence, the formal reporting of the statistical analysis for the two hypotheses in this study is as follows:

Mauchly's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity had been violated (chi-square = .000, $p < .05$) of the type of group, therefore degrees of freedom were corrected using Huynh-Feldt estimates of sphericity (epsilon = 1.000). Mauchly's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity had not been violated (chi-square = 7.177, $p > .05$) of the type of treatment, therefore degrees of freedom were not corrected. Mauchly's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity had not been violated (chi-square = 7.233, $p > .05$) of the type of Group*Treatment, therefore degrees of freedom were not corrected. The results show that the performance scores of the two proficiency groups (i.e. High-Intermediate and Low-Intermediate proficiency groups) in the four Grammaticality Judgement tasks (Explicit Written, Implicit Written, Oral Stimulus, and No Stimulus Grammaticality Judgement tasks) did not differ significantly, and, as a result, the hypothesis was not rejected, Group $F(1.000, 29.000) = 2.983$, $P > .05$; Treatment $F(3, 87) = 1.025$, $p > .05$; Group*Treatment $F(3, 87) = 1.026$, $P > .05$.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In view of the findings of previous research (Schachter, 1988; Bley-Vroman, Felix & Ioup, 1988; White, 1990), the observed non-significant differences between the grammatical performance of High- and Low-Intermediate EFL participants can be attributed to the profound influence of UG in EFL participants' SLA process and the insignificant influence of EFL participants' L1 in their L2. In addition, in cases where L2 learners' L1 does not resemble their L2,

such as the case in this study where Persian WH-questions do not resemble English WH-questions, L2 learners' observance of subadjacency could only be due to UG. Moreover, L1 is not the only source of the learners' UG-like knowledge, and UG principles remain available in adult L2 acquisition. Hence, subadjacency is a part of the L2 learners' unconscious knowledge, or rather grammatical proficiency, although it may not be consistently obeyed. Analyses of the results attained via other research projects (Clahsen & Muysken, 1986; White, 1996) claim no access to UG at all in L2, a conclusion that stands in sharp contrast to the findings of his study.

Lack of support for this conclusion was provided by such research projects (Schachter, 1989, 1990; White, 1996; and Gass & Mackey, 2000) according to which learners fail to recognize violations of UG principles, such as subadjacency, unless these principles also operate in their L1; further, L2 proficiency level is indeed of significant effects on the grammatical performance of L2 learners in GJ tasks because L2 learners are constrained by their native language patterns, and the limited proficiency of learners operating in their L2s may influence the content of the recalls (i.e. it is possible for the students not to be able to understand or even verbalize the full extent of what they were thinking), hence the important and significant role and effect of L2 learners' L1 and L2 proficiency level on their grammatical performance in L2 given such findings, an issue which can also strongly indicate the significant transfer of L2 learners' L1 in their L2 grammatical performance.

In view of the findings of recent research on proper ways of tapping L2 learners' performance data (Hawkins, 2001 and White, 1989), the use of four different types of GJ tasks in this study can hardly be experimentally supported because L2 learners' performance data are indirect reflections of their grammatical competence, and that a difference exists between L2 learners' competence and their performance. In addition, when L2 learners use their L2 knowledge, as in GJ tasks, they reflect not only their interlanguage but also their performance variables that are not necessarily considered to be parts of their competence. The act of designing a proper method, such as GJ tasks, for tapping the L2 learners' knowledge of subadjacency is quite challenging because having L2 knowledge does not necessarily mean being able to use that knowledge properly because its use is condition-based. Accordingly, GJ tasks cannot be apt testing instruments for tapping L2 learners' grammatical competence and grammatical proficiency because L2 learners' competence cannot be directly tapped, and we, as researchers, can merely use L2 learners' performance in GJ tasks to gain slight insights into their competence. Performance data are complex because samples may involve more than one grammatical property. Hence, the stance adopted in such research projects (Han & Ellis, 1998; and Dekeyser, 2003) towards the inability of GJ tasks in purely measuring implicit or explicit knowledge holds true; otherwise, the High- and Low-Intermediate female EFL participants might have shown significant differences in their grammatical performance, and the effects of their L1 transfer in their L2 grammatical performance would have been significant. GJ tasks can prove to be of effective research applications in such psychological arenas as measuring L2 learners' degree of reaction time spent while rendering WH-questions, and the like.

Since the performance of High- and Low-Intermediate EFL participants did not differ from each other significantly, we can infer that both of the proficiency groups may have used nearly all the strategies identified in the research projects conducted in this regard (Ellis, 1991 and Davies and Kaplan, 1998) while taking the four GJ tasks; that is, feel, rehearsing, rehearsing alternate versions, trying to access explicit knowledge, using analogy, evaluating sentences, and guessing. However, we would have expected the Low-Intermediate group to be using the feel and translation strategies more than the High-Intermediate group due to their lower L2 proficiency level.

A. Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

Having drawn the final conclusions from the findings of this study, it is important to delimit the scope of their generalizability by outlining some important limitations. The first limitation concerns the participant samples. It should be kept in mind that the selected female EFL participants, who were university students, had had an extensive background in English grammar and a high metalinguistic understanding of the syntactic structures of English. For this reason, generalizing the findings emanated from this study to other populations of ESL and EFL learners will not be appropriate, such as those instructed and uninstructed who are of lower proficiency or lack the required metalinguistic competence.

Further, the drawn conclusions regarding the EFL participants should by no means be generalized to environments other than the ones from which the samples were drawn because they may differ substantially in several aspects, such as their English curricula, the methodology of teaching grammar or pragmatics, the intensity of the programs, and the like.

In addition, the use of more balanced testing instruments in the research process would have strengthened the validity of the observed results and could have provided further insights into potential L1 influences on the issues investigated. Furthermore, several replications of the study can further substantiate the reported results.

The importance of this study necessitates conducting research into the other aspects of UG focusing on the effects of such issues as modality, explicitness, implicitness, and congruency on the grammatical performance of L2 learners while rendering WH-questions in different GJ tasks such as the ones used in this study. Moreover, the current study can be replicated in cases where participants' L1 is any language but Persian because there is a distinct probability that L2 researchers find unexpectedly significant differences in the performance of their participants in the four GJ tasks.

B. Theoretical Implications

The findings of this study have consistently provided empirical support for the arguments regarding a lack of relationship between L2 learners' proficiency levels and their cognitive processing capabilities while rendering WH-questions because improvement in proficiency level by no means leads to deep language processing. In addition, the findings support the fact that EFL participants' mental representations of L2 knowledge are indeed structured, hence the verification of UG-based theories. L2 Learners do utilize rule- and exemplar-based knowledge while rendering GJ tasks.

The other theoretical implication of this study is that GJ tasks cannot be of practical applications within the framework of measuring L2 learners' grammatical competence in terms of syntactic knowledge partly because knowledge about grammaticality, ungrammaticality, ambiguity, and other subtle and complex phenomena goes far beyond primary linguistic data. However, GJ tasks can assist SLA researchers with achieving efficiencies in terms of measuring and analyzing L2 learners' RT.

C. Pedagogical Implications

Overall, the findings of this study suggest that classroom teachers can assist L2 learners of different proficiency levels with developing a constructive understanding of the nature of WH-movement in English as well as appreciating and establishing cognitive-semantic relationships between different explicit-implicit and written-oral instructive stimuli and their respective responses via improving the techniques and principles underlying the current pedagogical practices.

In addition, classroom teachers can adopt similar strategies for designing syllabi to ensure L2 learners' mastery over the conceptual processes required for properly using different subjacency cases in unplanned discourse. Such teachers can also adopt similar strategies for developing curricula for teaching the cases of subjacency within the framework of explicit instruction, implicit instruction, written instruction (i.e. via using books), and oral instruction, irrespective of L2 learners' proficiency at schools, colleges, and like academic settings. Teachers can even feel the urgency of developing cognitive-provoking teaching materials at schools, colleges, and like academic settings.

As for GJ tasks, classroom teachers are aware not to employ GJ tasks in pedagogical settings owing to their inability to distinguish between the cognitive processes made use of in processing diverse forms and modes of stimuli presentations by L2 learners of different proficiency levels.

APPENDIX A: SAMPLE OF THE WH-QUESTION USED IN THE EXPLICIT WRITTEN GJ TASK

David Brown made the claim that Bob Green had talked about ART.

About what did David Brown make the claim that
Bob Green had talked?

APPENDIX B: SAMPLE OF THE WH-QUESTION USED IN THE IMPLICIT WRITTEN GJ TASK



Bob Green's good play in what surprised whom?

APPENDIX C: SAMPLE OF THE WH-QUESTION USED IN THE ORAL STIMULUS GJ TASK

Having worn headphones over their ears, participants listened to the oral recording of a stimulus (a) four seconds prior to being presented with its pertinent response (b):

- (a) David Brown has chosen for Bob Green a blue book in Law.
- (b) Which major has David Brown chosen for Bob Green a blue book in?

APPENDIX D: SAMPLE OF THE WH-QUESTION USED IN THE NO STIMULUS GJ TASK

In this type of GJ task, participants receive no stimuli at all. They only receive a variety of WH-questions on their laptop screens.

Who has David Brown appointed a good candidate that can be chosen?

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A Study on L2 Motivation and Applications in Reading Class in Senior High School

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Abstract—Foreign language acquisition is a complicated process, which involved various factors. The personality factors, especially non-intelligence factors, such as motivation, attitude, character, etc. are the most direct and important ones. Among them, apparently, motivation is the key to learning. This thesis extends the previous studies, trying to have a basic understanding of Chinese senior high school students' reasons for learning English and their efforts paid in this learning process. This study was carried out among 96 students in grade 2 in Zhenjiang NO.1 middle school. A language learning motivation questionnaire was constructed based on Gardner (1985) to examine students' responses on 9 items. The results of the study show that students hold stronger instrumental reasons towards English learning, which is similar with the traditional view that instrumental motivation is more characteristic of EFL learners. However, instrumental motivation causes no effect on students' motivational intensity. The findings shed some lights on the teaching practice, especially on the reading class. One thing to emerge meaningfully from this study is that the combination of integrative motivation and instrumental motivation may exert a greater influence on reading class improvement; English teachers shall take some effective applications to arouse students' motivation in reading class and help them develop integrative motivation towards English learning.

Index Terms—instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, senior high school, reading

I. INTRODUCTION

Motivation, as a subjective factor, always affects students' learning behavior. Spolsky, an American linguist mentioned motivation as the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning, plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language, could make a successful achievement in language learning (Spolsky, 1989). Lacking in desire or favorable attitudes, namely lacking in motivation, is one of the most important factors that hinder Chinese senior high school students' progress in reading class.

The role of motivation in language learning has been studied since 1960s. Most language teachers will agree that motivation of the students is one of the most important factors influencing their success or failure in language learning. American linguist Brown said that if one has the proper motivation in second language learning, he could certainly be successful (1994), which bought out the importance of motivation and the way it can overcome unfavorable circumstances in other aspects of language learning.

From the second half of the twentieth century, researchers have begun to analyze child language learning systematically. They have attempted to discover the nature of the psycholinguistic process that enables every human being to gain great control of an exceedingly complex system of communication (Sun Lei, 2005). Linguists have divided motivation into many types, such as integrative / instrumental motivation ---- put forward by Wilkins (1976), Gardner and Lambert (1972), or intrinsic / extrinsic motivation ---- defined by Deci Edward (1975) and Brown (1994). Linguists like Ball (1957), Bruner (1966), Hunt (1965) and Schmidt (2001) also made great contribution to the development of motivation research.

The present thesis addresses some of the above issue by an empirical study investigating a sample of 96 Chinese senior high school students from Zhenjiang NO.1 middle school. Based on a partly self-made questionnaire concerning their motivation in language learning, this study intends to have a basic understanding of students' reasons of English learning and give some suggestions to their English reading class.

The structure of the thesis is as follows. It begins with a brief review of research in the theory of motivation and the classification of motivation types, laying a solid foundation for the theoretical background of the present thesis. Chapter 3 is concerned with the research design of the survey study, which introduces the subjects of the study, the instruments employed to measure students' motivation, and the analytical methods to be adopted. In the next chapter, Chapter 4, the research results is given, and some suggestions are also put forward as the effective ways which can be applied in reading class. It is the main section of the thesis and closely related to the factors that mentioned in Chapter 3. The .final chapter is to summarize the major findings of the study, and will also pinpoint the limitations inherent in this study and make some suggestions for further research.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Theories of Motivation*

What is motivation? Motivation is a rather internal drive and emotional effect that encourages people to pursue a course of action (Wang Xianjie, 1999). Spolsky said, "The more motivation a learner has, the more time he or she will spend learning an aspect of a second language." (Wang Xianjie, 1999, cited in Spolsky, 1989).

Ball (1957) claimed that motivation is the most important concept in any theory of education. Therefore, it is essential to demonstrate different points of view on definitions of motivation in order to achieve a better understanding of the role of motivation in language learning. According to Ball, motivated students refer to those who wish to do things that teachers expect, while unmotivated students are the ones who are unwilling to do things based on teachers' expectation. In contrast with teachers, psychologists (Lewin, 1952) study the concept of motivation to a greater extent. Lewin emphasizes that learning itself is motivation, which determines success. However, Bruner (1966) seems not to be in line with this suggestion, arguing that when learners are forced or pushed to learn, they might fail to maintain their natural curiosity. In contrast, Beard and Senior (1980), two behaviorist psychologists, believe that "incentives and rewards" are motivations for establishing behavior. Spencer (1959) appears to support this idea, suggesting that it is primarily important for teachers to apply various types of "rewards" to stimulate students to possess "interest and goals" in the performance of tasks.

The best-known and frequently quoted definition of L2 learning motivation is Gardner's. According to Gardner (1985, p.10), motivation is "the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language in this activity." Gardner and MacIntyre (1993, p.2) express this again 8 years later, in a simpler way as "motivation is defined by three components: the desire of achieving a goal, the effort extended in this direction, and the satisfaction with the task." On a basis of these conceptions, many language researchers have contributed themselves to the study of the role of motivation in language learning.

Williams, M. & Burden, R (1997, p.6) defined the motivation as: "Motivation may be constructed as a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort order to attain a previously set goals." This definition involves three stages: 1. The initial stage: whatever the cause, the individual's interest or enthusiasm is aroused; 2. The decision-making stage: the individual consciously decided what action to take; 3. The effort-sustaining stage: once the activity has begun, the individual needs to persist until the desired goal is achieved.

As illustrated above, definitions of motivation can be given from different ways of thinking. In the next section, the role of different types of motivation occurring in current research will be examined.

B. *Classification of Motivation Types*

Closely related with the definition problem, is the way motivation is classified. There are 2 major classifications about motivation: integrative / instrumental; intrinsic / extrinsic.

1. Integrative / instrumental motivation.

What is the most impressive in Gardner's traditional research is the famous classification of integrative and instrumental L2 motivation. When learning a target language, some students like the people who speak the language, admire the culture and have a desire to become familiar with or even integrate into the society in which the language is used. This form of motivation is known as integrative motivation. Integrative motivation indicates an interest in learning a foreign language to communicate with members of the foreign language community (Gardner, 1985). This motivation occurs when the learners wish to understand the culture of the foreign language.

In contrast to integrative motivation is the form of motivation referred to as instrumental motivation. Instrumental motivation means learning the language for an ulterior motive unrelated to its use by native speakers (Gardner, 1985). It stresses on the pragmatic aspects of learning a language without particular need of communication with the foreign language community. Wilkins said that the instrumentally motivating learner requires the language as a means to some other end, whereas for the integrative learner the language and all that it brings by way of culture is an end in itself (Wilkins, 1976).

Both integrative and instrumental motivations are essential elements of success, integrative motivation may be a profound one and the other is somewhat superficial. It is integrative motivation that has been found to sustain long-term success when learning a second language. In some of the early research conducted by Gardner and Lambert (1972), integrative motivation was viewed as being of more important in a formal learning environment than instrumental motivation. In later studies, integrative motivation has continued to be emphasized, although now the importance of instrumental motivation is also stressed. It may be that integrative motivation is more important in a second language context such as learning French in Canada, while an instrumental orientation may be more important in situation where English functions as a foreign language such as in Japan (Guo Limin & Zhai Shijun, 2000, cited in Niitsuma, 1992).

2. Intrinsic / extrinsic motivation.

In education psychology a distinction is usually made between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, the former being sometimes thought to relate to long-term success. Intrinsic motivation is usually defined as a motivation guided by an interesting in the task itself in which one is engaged. Edward Deci (1975) defines intrinsic motivation as one for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward. Intrinsically motivation behaviors are aimed at bringing out certain internally

rewarding consequences, namely, feeling of competence and self-determination.

On the other hand, extrinsically motivated behaviors are carried out in anticipation of a reward from outside and beyond the self. It is said be guided by external stimulus, such as to get the parental approval, a reward, a good grade, etc. Behaviors initiated to avoid punishment are also extrinsically motivated.

The relationship between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation is just like that between internal and external causes. Materialist dialectics holds that external causes become operative through internal causes. Traditionally, schools were fraught with extrinsically motivation behavior, influenced by behaviorism. Teaching material, parents and teachers' wishes are all forced onto students, whether they like them or not. Consequently, the students are not taught to develop internalized thirst for knowledge and experience (Brown, 1994). From extrinsic to intrinsic motivation in education institutions depicts what can happen in an institution and turns the extrinsic pressure into an intrinsically oriented direction.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

As is mentioned in chapter 2, many researchers at home and abroad have done a lot of related researches on both motivation and motivation stimulating. With the economic development, China has become a much more open country than ever before, so English, which is a global language, has become a very important means by which Chinese people learn about the world and the indispensable means to communicate with foreigners. Have the students in senior high school realized the importance of English? Do they know quite well about their purpose of learning English? Which ways can stimulate their motivation on learning English? In order to find answers to these questions, the questionnaire was designed. Moreover, study process and results discussion will also be given.

A. Subjects

The subjects for this study consisted of 96 students at Zhenjiang NO.1 middle school, including 42 males and 54 females whose average age at 17.8 years old. They were chose at random from 3 classes in grade 2 in this senior high school.

B. Instruments

A questionnaire was used as the instrument in this study. It consisted of two parts (see appendix). The first part was concerned with personal information, such as the participant's name, class.

The second part of the questionnaire measured the type of English learning motivation. Statements in this section were mostly adapted from the published motivation scales of language learning: the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (Gardner 1985). Because this scale did not contain statements relevant to Chinese students learning motivation, some newly designed questions were added. The participants were asked to rate each item on a five-point Likert scale: 1=never or almost never true of me; 2=generally not true of me; 3=somewhat true of me; 4=generally true of me and 5=always or almost always true of me.

9 items were selected to find out students' language study for integrativeness or instrumentality. Items 2, 3, 5, 7 were for revealing students' integrative motivation and all the items in this factor had the salient trait of internal appreciation of culture in another country and enjoyment of learning the language. Items 1, 4, 6, 8, 9 were for instrumental, which indicated learning a foreign language as a tool to fulfill goals. The total score of the questionnaire was 45, with integrative motivation 20 and instrumental motivation 25. The higher score the respondent got in integrative or instrumental motivation subscale, the more integratively or instrumentally motivated he was.

C. Procedures

The questionnaire was completed during regular class sessions in December. Under their English teacher's supervision, students were asked to give their immediate reaction to questions as accurately as possible. Time spent for the completion did not exceed 5 minutes. The purpose of the questionnaire, its structure and content, and how it was to be filled out were explained to the students. The researchers asked the participants to be honest in their answers and emphasized that they had no predetermined expectations and that no answer would be better than the respondents' true ideas. No communication was permitted before students completed the questionnaire. After the questionnaire was finished, the researcher collected all the paper and checked them one by one to avoid any missing response.

After all the data were collected, they were sorted and processed in the computer. Descriptive statistics was used to reveal the general characteristics of instrumental motivation, integrative motivation and motivational intensity possessed by senior high school students.

IV. RESULTS DISCUSSION AND APPLICATIONS

A. Descriptive Statistics of the Type of Motivation and Motivational Intensity

As can be seen in Table 4.1, there were a substantial number of significant difference involving the two kinds of motivation. Students showed a stronger tendency toward instrumental motivation than integrative motivation, with mean score of instrumental 15.7000 and that of integrative 11.1474 and the difference was significant at the level of .000. Correlation coefficient at .053 showed the items in the respective category of instrumental and integrative were

well defined. There was nearly no overlap between the two types of motivation, for the correlation was very low. This accords with the view expressed by Kruidenier and Clement (1986) that instrumental motivation was generally more prominent in EFL contexts than integrative motivation. Even though many studies have proved the fact that integrative motivation is the main factor that influences students' learning behavior, those studies are nevertheless conducted in the learning context where English is learnt as the second language. Ellis (1994) restated that the factor of social situation helps to determine both what kind of orientation learners have and what kind is most important for language learning. Students' instrumental dominance in this study may stem from the Chinese social environment for language learning. It seems that being a knowledgeable person is the honor of a family. And Chinese youngsters have the tradition to obey their parents' will. Most of the senior high school students are urged to study hard in order to live up to their parents' expectations. Another main reason of students' instrumental orientation is that English becomes a fundamental subject due to the opening-up and reform policy which opened the door of China to foreign countries. Speaking Chinese alone is not enough to ensure a full and productive participation in foreign trade and international communication. With the increasing importance attached to English, all kinds of English level tests were established to test students' proficiency. Against this background, the centrality of instrumental motivation among Chinese senior high school students becomes quite understandable.

TABLE 4.1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE TYPE OF MOTIVATION AND MOTIVATIONAL INTENSITY

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	correlation	sig
Instrumental (item 1,4,6,8,9)	15.7000	96	3.1420	.053	.000
Integrative (item 2,3,5,7)	11.1474	96	3.0113		

B. *Suggestions in English Reading Class*

The real good of any theory lies in its guidance to practice. This is especially true with motivation theories whose researches have always been hand in hand with the study of human learning and language learning, in particular. Since 1990s, motivation study has been currently directed to serve educational purposes. However, the research in the area of designing motivational strategies for classroom application is far from adequate. As foreign language teachers, we are most concerned with how we can intervene. Namely, what we can do to motivate learners. This chapter will pay special attention on five aspects of how to maintain senior high school students' interest and motivation in English reading.

1. Arousing learners' curiosity

To make a lesson lively and interesting, the teacher may create a real-life situation and speak as much English as possible in class. However the method by which the students are taught must have effect on their motivation and interest. If they find it deadly boring they will probably become abstracted whereas if they have confidence in the method, they will be interested greatly, consequently it is necessary to demand the teacher to use various activities to achieve the goal.

a. Use multi-media technologies

The application of multi-media technologies in the 21st century has brought forth opportunities and challenges to foreign language education. Since students in senior high school have their particular mental features, they have sociality and irritability in common which means that they are usually easier to be attracted by fangless, more active to issue their opinions about surroundings, and more yearning to participate in the social life. Their thought developed acuminous but unilateral and extreme; their emotion become intense and always wavy; they have a high curiosity on the unknown world study but easy to distract from the object so that they need various stimulators to excite all their sense organ including eyes, ears, mouths and even noses to keep their interest (Ni Lingjie, 2006). Traditional teaching aids, such as chalk and blackboard, cannot be competent for holding students' interest persistently. It is of great necessity that we develop English teaching models in the teaching-learning environment supported by modern technology. The application of computer-assisted instruction, like multi-media technologies, should play a more and more important role in the English class.

Take Lesson35 *Animals in Danger* in SEFC BOOK II for example, teacher could begin the class with a film editing displays the virgin forest in where a lot of various animals live to attract students' interest immediately, then suddenly switch into the scene that dead whale on the foreshore and a group of running deer capturing by humans. The title of the text---*Animals in Danger* then jumps out. Students can easily comprehend the theme of that lesson imminently.

This is a good method which create abundant language situation, increase class capacity, raise teaching efficiency, enrich teaching resources, and all the points above can stimulate students' interest.

b. Use various methods

Various teaching methods should be run through the whole reading class. There are several efficient activities could be taken through pre-reading, while-reading to post-reading as following:

1) prediction:

There are many good methods for arousing learners' curiosity in pre-reading period, and prediction is one of them. The reader's sense and experience will help him to predict what the writer is likely to say next. A reader who can go

along with the writer's thought in this way will understand the text more quickly. This often occurs but unconsciously. As we read we make hypotheses about what the writer intends to say, these are immediately modified by what he actually does say, and are replaced by new hypotheses about what will follow. We carry on reading like that until suddenly we are brought to a stop by some word or phrase we don't understand or would not fit into the pattern. We have to do something about it and think again. So reading comprehension is a process of constantly making hypotheses or prediction (Sun Yibing, 1995). This is a useful skill in reading. Each time before we start reading we should try to encourage the students to ask some questions on the title, the content of the text, etc., in order to help the students learn to predict.

2) quizzes:

Teacher can use interesting quizzes to have the students practice specific language points acquired from the reading text in while-reading period. This activity can be put up like the model that follows:

Divide students into two groups. Give each group some time to write down a number of questions using the specific language items to be practiced. Then a student from Group A asks a question to a student from Group B. The teacher may mark their questioning and answering. This activity can be quite efficient in cultivating the students' interest and motivation.

3) proper correction:

During the course of any activity the students do in while-reading, they will probably make some errors. However the teacher need not always correct them each time unavoidably, because too much correction will discourage students and they will be reluctant to take part in the activity in fear of making mistakes. The object of correction is to give the students a chance to find their weakness in study and get the new language right by themselves so that their motivation could be aroused.

For example, a teacher could simply indicate to the student that he has made a mistake, by repeating, stressing, questioning or making expressions. The teacher could ask the students, "Is that sentence right?" If the student understands this feedback, he will be able to correct it himself, and this self-correction, will be helpful to him as part of his learning. If the student fails to correct himself, the teacher may ask another student to help him to correct.

It is often the case that the teacher asks for student-student correction only to find that many students are having the same mistakes, and then the teacher may correct them himself, and return to the explanation to make the point clear.

4) role-play:

Role-play can be used in arousing students' motivation in post-reading. In this activity the teacher may ask the students to re-play the text by their own words or phrases. It has at least two purposes: first, to test if the students understand the main idea of the text; second, to vivid the classroom and persist the interest in the post-reading stage.

Take the text "The Lost Necklace" from SEFC BOOK II for example, the teacher may ask one student to play the part of Mathilde, another the role of Jeanne, and then the play may begin. Or the teacher asks some students to pretend that they are at a bookshop to play the roles of customers and shop assistant. All that the teacher is trying to do is giving the students practice in real-world English. In both of these two cases the teacher is asking some students to play roles while others are taking part in a simulation as themselves. And to do this, they all need to do a certain amount of "acting" and this means they have entered the activity with enthusiasm and conviction.

2. Identifying learners' Personal Needs

In view of Chinese students' specific background, they tried to identify students' needs and plan lessons on the ground that they must create an atmosphere in which all students felt the need of continuing to learn English.

Only when the teachers let them learn English for their own future purposes can they learn it actively. (Wang Zanjie, 1994) Thus the English teacher should make full use of their enthusiasm to lead them to efficient English learning and should not make them bear in mind the only reason of learning English, which is to pass the entrance examinations. In this way they can be steady and motivated, and they would like to smooth away the difficulties and find that English learning is not so hard because they have a pursuit of fulfilling their wishes, which drives them to carry out the action of learning the language.

3. Cultivating students' language competence

Many things are involved in cultivating students' language competence. The goal of a reading course is realized through reading activities. The stress of teaching should be placed on the reading process rather than students' grades. Teaching should aim at making students feel that they still need to learn, and they will learn a lot; that they are capable of learning, communicating with English speakers and thinking in English. In short, they are experiencing the joy as well as the value of reading in English so that their motivation in reading would be aroused. For this reason, teachers should help students to cultivate their language competence in several main points as follows.

a. Build up the vocabulary

One with a small vocabulary will find it very difficult in reading comprehension. Many students say they just cannot remember so many words. For encourage students enlarge their vocabulary more self-conscious and motivated, we should take some techniques:

1) learn about word formation:

Students can enlarge their vocabulary by using the rules of word formation, such as prefix, suffix, conversion, derivative and so on.

For example, if students know the prefix “inter-” means between, they will feel easy to understand the word “intercourse” (communicating between), “interpret” (translating between), and “interact” (acting between). When students know the suffix “-ial” means characteristic of doing, they could understand the word “beneficial” (characteristic of doing good), “facial” (characteristic of doing something about face), “referential” (characteristic of referring). The same case can be found in the mastery of derivatives, once they know the word “courage”, “encourage, discourage, courageous” will not be new to them.

Students could identify the word they willing to know by using the rule of word formation so that they may be more active in English study and more interested in language learning.

2) encourage students to guess the word’s meaning:

Teacher can collect some new words that students often meet in reading. This doesn’t mean encouraging them to consult the dictionary whenever they met a new word in reading. The appropriate way is to try to guess the word’s meaning from context clues, from the words around it, and then they will gradually know the clear meaning of the word after meeting it often. After that, if they look it up in the dictionary, they will have a good memory of it.

3) learn the frequently used words every day:

Young students have good memories. It is possible for them to memorize some words every day without much difficulty. But if they can’t use them in daily life, they will forget them quickly. In order to avoid the inefficient words acquirement, the teacher may choose some useful and frequently used words for them, and encourage them use them as many as possible in their daily life. When students meet these words in their reading, they will feel easy and more confident with themselves, which can make them become more interested in reading.

b. Develop broad background knowledge

To become a good reader, one should also read often and read a lot. And to learn about English culture will be of great help, too. When readers have sufficient knowledge of a given text and language, they may discover their own strategies to understand the meaning of text.

The background knowledge can be broadened by reading newspapers, magazines, and books; become interested in world events. Teacher can also select some correlative and particular materials for them to develop students’ background knowledge.

4. Choosing interesting materials

The choosing of reading materials is very important for effective teaching of a reading course, because reading materials directly affect students’ reading interest and their motivation. Sometimes, teacher in senior high school may use as more as possible interesting materials especially written for extensive reading, because most of the textbook are abridged and therefore are not authentic in the sense of originality. We should provide them with suitable texts, such as texts in science and technology, literature, advertisements, business letter, charts, instructions or directories, etc. from simplified to authentic. The texts should be interesting and it would be better if there lays the concern of students.

Students in senior high school at 16 to 19 years old, are always interested in the reading materials whose contents are about students’ life inside and outside school, house life, weather, festivals, health and so on (Duan Bixi, 2001). Therefore, as chapter 3 has mentioned, if talking about computer, it is better to provide them the article about what amazing work can a computer does rather than what is a computer made of.

There also should not be too many new words in these articles. As for extensive reading the average new word percentage is approximately 3% to 6%. (Sun Yibing, 1995) In this way the students’ motivation for reading can be stimulated.

Besides choose more interesting materials, teacher may also introduce some global issues to activate students’ interest in reading, and even conduct some classroom discussions about global issues as the post-reading activity.

It is important for the teacher to take advantage of such discussion topics and help students to realize that, even though they may see no need to become proficient in a second language, the study of another language and culture can only enhance their perception and understanding of other cultures.

5. Teacher’s role in motivating students

In teaching reading, a teacher is not expected to teach language only. His major aim is to help the students learn how to get rid of the obstacles in their way of comprehension and how to read effectively and also learn how to use the language.

It is easy for the teacher to give too much help, or help of the wrong kind. We should not provide so much help that it becomes a crutch the students cannot do without. The help we offer can only serve as a baby’s walking-chair, which they can rely on for merely a short period of time, not all their lives.

According to Chinese researcher Song Yuelan (2002, p.49), a good teacher usually has the main qualities, which help providing students’ intrinsic motivation as follows:

- a. Makes his course interesting;
- b. Has good pronunciation;
- c. Explains clearly with simple English;
- d. Shows same interest in every student;
- e. Makes students participate;
- f. Shows great patience;

- g. Shows sympathy for his students;
- h. Inspires confidence.

Apart from the qualities above mentioned, a good teacher must be able to show his acquaintance of his subject.

There are many different factors that affect a student's motivation. Above all, both positively motivated students and those who don't have this motivation can be influenced by what happens in the classroom. Thus, the attitude toward English of those around the students and the teacher's personality are vital important for them to get motivated. And students who are frequently praised or positively commented will result in greater success.

To draw a conclusion, no matter what the underlying motivation to study a second language, what cannot be disputed is the fact that motivation is an important variable when examining successful second language acquisition. Although change may be slow to the education system, the introduction of the English language as a subject in senior high school should always help to further motivate students to achieve higher levels of proficiency in the future.

V. CONCLUSION

A. *Major Findings in This Study*

How people learn and what is learning have been the focus of educators, theorists, researchers and others for a long time. Understanding the learner and how learning takes place for that individual is the key to know how to teach that individual. We know motivation has greatly influenced a learners' second language learning, especially in reading case. And it is absolutely true that some L2 learners do better in reading class than others because they are better motivated. The usual meaning of motivation for the teacher is probably the interest that something generated in the students. L2 motivation should not be considered as a forced choice between the integrative and the instrumental. Both types are important. A student might learn a L2 well with an integrative motivation or with an instrumental one, or indeed with both, for one does not rule out the other, or with other motivations.

Nevertheless students will find it difficult to learn a second language in the classroom if they have neither instrumental nor integrative motivation, as is probably often the case in school language teaching. Schoolchildren have no particular contact with the foreign culture and no particular interest in it, nor do their job prospects depend on it. A problem teachers facing is that motivations for L2 learning are deep-rooted in the students' minds and in their cultural backgrounds. The general issue is how the students' cultural background fits the background projected by the L2 culture. Students should enter the classrooms admiring the target culture and language, wanting to get something out of the L2 learning for themselves, and thirsting for knowledge. In practice teachers have to be aware of the reservations and preconceptions of their students. What they think of the teacher, and what they think of the course, heavily affects their success. This is what teachers can influence rather than the learners' more deep-seated motivations. Motivation also goes in both directions. High motivation is one factor that causes successful learning; successful learning, however, may cause high motivation. The latter process of creating successful learning, which can spur high motivation, may be under the teacher's control, if not the former. The choice of teaching materials and the information content of the lesson, for example, should correspond to the motivations of the students.

In order to make the language learning process a more motivating experience, teachers need to put a great deal of thoughts into developing programs which maintain student interest and have obtainable short term goals. English teachers in senior high school need to create interesting reading lessons in which the students' attention is gained. This can sometimes be accomplished by the use of teaching strategies, which are not often called upon by other teachers in mainstream subject areas. Encouraging students to overcome more active participants in a lesson can sometimes assist them to see a purpose for improving their communication skills in the target language. Successful communication using the target language should result in students feeling some sense of accomplishment. Research in the area suggests L2 achievement strongly affects learner motivation.

The use of an interesting text can also help to increase the motivation level of students in the reading classroom. It is important for the teacher to take advantage of such discussion topics and help students to realize that, even though they may see no need to become proficient in a second language, the study of another language and culture can only enhance their perception and understanding of other culture.

Although statistics in Chapter 3 showed that Chinese students have a stronger tendency toward instrumental motivation than integrative motivation, the integrative motivation and instrumental motivation should play an equal indispensable part in L2 reading learning. Language learners and teachers should take advantage of the positive role of the motivation to attain the end that is to learn and teach L2 reading efficiently. No matter what the underlying motivation to study a second language, what cannot be disputed is the fact that motivation is an important variable when examining successful second language acquisition. It cannot be denied that there are some more or less problems in our language learning and teaching system, and change may be slow to the education system. Students and teachers in senior high school should overcome the present difficulties to achieve higher level of proficiency.

B. *Limitations in This Study*

Though this study has successfully investigated Chinese senior high school students' motivation in English learning, it has some limitations, which provide some insights for the future study. The first limitation is the subjects in the study. Since the results of the present study are drawn 96 students whom com from the same school, the ability to generalize

its findings to all students may be restricted. The second limitation is the questionnaire. Since time was limited, the questionnaire was too simply designed that some researchers will have doubts on its reliability and validity. Future studies call for continuous efforts to improve the questionnaire. This study, on the whole, is an integral part of motivation research and will bring more researchers to plough this field.

APPENDIX LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

外语学习动机调查问卷

姓名: 班级:

本问卷旨在调查高中生英语学习动机的有关情况。学生所选取的任何答案都无对错之分, 更不会记入成绩。请根据自己的实际情况, 按照数字“1”, “2”, “3”, “4”, “5”所代表的含义, 如实地选出其中最符合自己情况的一项。谢谢合作!

- 1: 这完全不符合我的情况
- 2: 这通常不符合我的情况
- 3: 这有时符合我的情况
- 4: 这通常符合我的情况
- 5: 这完全符合我的情况

外语学习动机:

- | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. 我学习英语是为了通过考试 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. 我学习英语是为了更轻松地与外国人交流 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. 我学习英语是因为对英语国家的人以及他们的生活方式感兴趣 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. 我学习英语是为了不辜负父母的期望 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. 我学习英语是为了能更自如地参与英美文化团体的活动 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. 我学习英语是为了毕业后进入更好的大学 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. 我学习英语是为了更好地欣赏外国的文学作品和音乐 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. 我学习英语是为了出国 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. 我学习英语是因为说英语是教育程度和修养的象征 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

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A Closer Look at the Relationship between Academic Achievement and Language Proficiency among Iranian EFL Students

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Abstract—This study intended to find out the relationship between Iranian college students' language proficiency and their academic achievement. To achieve this goal, 151 female and male college students majoring in English Literature at Shiraz University participated in the study. The analysis of the data obtained from the sample revealed that there is a significant positive relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement. Moreover, the results of the independent t-test indicated that male and female participants did not differ significantly with regard to their language proficiency and academic achievement. In addition, one-way ANOVA which was run to determine the impact of academic level on each of the variables under study revealed that seniors outperformed the other levels on their language proficiency. Besides, the findings indicated that juniors significantly differ from the other three groups in terms of their academic achievement.

Index Terms—language proficiency, academic achievement, academic level

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning a foreign language and factors that may affect this process have attracted language researchers' attention for many years. Variables which are related to language learning in an EFL context are studied and their relationships with each other are being sought in order to enhance the learning process. It is obvious that learners are of different language proficiency levels; but, any language researcher may wonder whether proficient language learners are successful students with regard to their academic achievement or not. Maleki and Zangani (2007) believe that many students who major in English language in the Iranian universities have chosen their field of study with little capability to use the language and its components, in other words, when they begin to study, they are not proficient enough in English language use and usage. Maleki and Zangani think that when students have difficulties in understanding the contents and concepts of the course which are presented in the target language, their academic success would be affected in a negative way; in other words, less proficient language learners who have little degree of capability in language use and its components may be weak with regard to their academic achievement too. Therefore, their weakness in general English can cause a drastic impact on their academic success. However, Farhady et al., (1994) believe that though having passed some courses and being graduated, Iranian EFL students in general seem not to be as proficient and qualified in language use as might be expected; in other word, Farhady et al., think that though some Iranian EFL learners seem to be successful in achieving the materials presented in their academic courses, they can not communicate successfully in real situations. Following the similar line, Savignon (1983) argues that communication does not only occur in the classroom but also in an indefinite variety of situations and success in a particular role depends on one's understanding of the context and on the prior experience of a similar kind (cited in Maleki & Zangani, 2007). A proficient language learner has the sufficient capability to recognize, comprehend, or produce language elements (Farhady et al., 1994).

In order to clarify the issue and find out whether language proficiency and academic achievement are related, this study was conducted to determine the relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement in an EFL context. Accordingly, the following research questions were formulated:

1. Is there a significant relationship between English language proficiency and academic achievement of Iranian EFL college students?
2. Are there significant differences in the students' performances on language proficiency and academic achievement with regard to their years of study?
3. Is there a significant difference between males and females' performances on the language proficiency test and their academic achievement?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Several studies aimed at investigating the relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement among different groups and in disparate contexts. Some of those studies have yielded positive relationships between proficiency in language use and academic success; while other studies have indicated negative relationships between the two variables under their discussions. The studies regarding the relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement are classified into two groups according to their findings. First, the studies which show a significant relationship between foreign language learners' proficiency and their academic achievement are presented. Then, brief portraits of the studies which do not support the existence of a significant relationship between foreign language learners' proficiency and their academic achievement are provided.

Burgess and Greis (1970), after studying a sample of 17 college students, found that participants' TOEFL scores did correlate significantly with their grade point average, particularly, when grades for courses requiring little English (such as art, music, and math) were deleted from the GPAs (TOEFL with total GPA, $r = .53$; TOEFL with weighted GPA, $r = .56$).

A study done by Gue and Holdway (1973) reached a similar conclusion. They investigated the relationship between academic achievement and language proficiency among 123 Thai education majors who were tested both before and after a summer language program. The correlation between the summer TOEFL scores and GPA was 0.49 and between the fall TOEFL scores and GPA was 0.59, in which both correlations were significant at the .01 level.

In addition, Garcia-Vasquez et al. (1997) compared the academic achievement of Hispanic middle and high school students with measures of their proficiency in English. They found that there is a significantly high correlation between English proficiency and English academic achievement ($r = 0.84$).

In a similar study, Bulter and Castellon-Wellington (2000) aimed at finding the relationship between academic achievement and language proficiency. They compared students' content performance to their concurrent performance on a language proficiency test. Meanwhile they measured students' academic success by means of standardized achievement tests. Their study showed that there is a significant relationship between English Language Proficiency and academic achievement (cited in Maleki & Zangani, 2007).

In order to determine whether language proficiency affects the academic achievement of EFL students, Maleki and Zangani (2007) carried out a piece of research in which a sample of 50 students was studied. 80% of the participants were female and 20% were male. To decide on their overall language proficiency, a standardized TOEFL paper test has been used. Meanwhile students' grade point averages (GPAs) were used as the indicators of learners' academic achievement. Finally,

The result of the correlation revealed a significant relation between English language proficiency and academic achievement (GPA). The correlation coefficient of the two sets of scores was 0.48. This suggests that as English proficiency increases, so does academic success. In other words, there is a positive correlation between the two variables (Maleki & Zangani, 2007, p. 91).

The reason for the outcomes of the aforementioned studies is the idea that when learners are more proficient in language use, they can achieve course materials better and consequently they will get higher scores; therefore, the more language proficient they are, the better they achieve in their classes. Though the previously presented pieces of research highlighted positive significant relationships between foreign language proficiency and academic achievement, the following studies have come into the result that language proficiency and academic achievement do not correlate significantly.

Hwang and Dizney (1970) studied a group of 63 Chinese graduate students at the University of Oregon. They administered a standardized TOEFL test to measure students' language proficiency; and, used their GPAs as the indicators of their academic achievement. The researchers found that there was not a significant correlation between language proficiency and academic success ($r = .19$).

In a similar study, Wilcox (1975) carried out a piece of research in which he studied two groups of foreign undergraduate students to examine the link between their high school GPA and academic success as well as their language proficiency. The study revealed a significant correlation between the high school GPAs and students' academic success ($r = .50$). But, correlations between TOEFL scores and GPAs were considerably different for the groups of students in the sample. For the group from Hong Kong, the correlation between students' language proficiency and their academic achievement was .00; however, for the group from Vietnam, the correlation between TOEFL scores and GPAs was 0.46.

Besides, Odunze (1982) studied 118 Nigerian students in Missouri to seek the kind of relationship that might exist between academic achievement and language proficiency. TOEFL scores were used as measures of student's

proficiency in language use, and, their grade point averages (GPAs) were considered as indicators of their academic achievement. The results showed no significant correlation between the TOEFL and students' first year grades ($r = .259$).

Stover (1982) conducted an experiment in which 159 undergraduates and graduates at the University of Arizona participated. TOEFL scores and grades in a preuniversity program were used in the study. The results yielded conflicting outcomes: Both undergraduates and graduates with TOEFL scores of less than 500 were able to achieve at a satisfying level in their first semester. Though, while the TOEFL scores and the GPAs in the preuniversity English program were significantly related to the academic success in the case of the undergraduate students ($r = .21$, $p = .05$), they were not significant in the case of the graduates ($r = .13$).

In addition, Stevens et al. (2000) investigated the relationship between the language and academic success of seven-grade English language learners by means of two tests: a language proficiency test and a standardized achievement test. They stated that since the correspondence between the languages of the two tests was limited, one can not consider a significant correlational relationship between the two variables under discussion.

Bayliss and Raymond (2004) also examined the link between academic success and second language proficiency in the context of two professional programs. They conducted two studies. First, they investigated the link between ESL scores on an advanced ESL test and the grade point average (GPA) which was obtained over two semesters. Second, they investigated the link between French second language scores on an advanced L2 test; finally, they came to know that there is not a significant relationship between academic achievement and second language proficiency.

However, Wayne (2006) who was interested in seeking the relationship between language proficiency and academic success came into a different conclusion. His study was investigated in the immigrant population at the general college, university of Minnesota. 57 students enrolled in his study. Participants' English language proficiencies were measured by means of standardized English language proficiency tests; and students' second year GPAs were used as indicators of their academic achievement. The results showed a negative correlation between participants' language proficiency and their academic success. Wayne thought that because of the relatively few academic challenges for graduation, many refugee students graduate from high school and enter colleges and universities with limited proficiency in academic reading and writing, as well as limited content knowledge acquisition.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the study consisted of a total of 151 Iranian university students majoring in English Language and Literature. They studied English as a foreign language (EFL) at Shiraz University. There were 113 female and 38 male participants; therefore, the majority of them were female. All students were young with an age range of 18 to 28. The subjects were selected through convenient sampling since random sampling was not much practical for this study; thus, all the students who were willing and present in the administration sessions could participate in the study. The following tables indicate how the participants are distributed in different academic levels and sex.

TABLE 1
THE PARTICIPANTS DISTRIBUTION IN DIFFERENT ACADEMIC LEVELS.

Academic Level	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Freshman	34	22,5	22,5
Sophomore	42	27,8	50,3
Junior	34	22,5	72,8
Senior	41	27,2	100,0
Total	151	100,0	

TABLE 2
SEX

Sex	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Female	113	74,8	74,8
Male	38	25,2	100,0
Total	151	100,0	

1=Female 2=Male

B. Instruments

A proficiency test which was a truncated version of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) was employed in the present study. This proficiency test included 60 items. The items are multiple choice types. The test consists of 15 structure items, 15 written expression items and 30 reading comprehension items. The test has been used in another study by Rahimi (2004) and the reliability index of the test calculated through KR-21 has been reported as 0.85; the criterion-related validity of this test in relation to a complete TOEFL test is 0.76; therefore, it has been proved that this test is reliable and valid. Rahmani (2007) also applied this test in his study. The reliability of the test Rahmani

calculated through KR-21 has been 0.85. In the present study the reliability estimate which was calculated by Kurder-Richardson Formula 21 turned out to be 0.854.

C. Procedure

The data were collected in the Fall semester of 2007-2008 academic year. The subjects were requested to take the proficiency test during their regular class time and without a time limit. Having collected the prerequisite data the procedure of which was explained above, permission was sought from the Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics of Shiraz University to use the grade point averages (GPAs) of the subjects under the study in the current semester as the indicator of their academic achievement. In order to achieve the goals of this study in seeking the relationship among variables in this specific context, the data gathered were analyzed by the following statistical methods using SPSS software. First, descriptive statistics were calculated. Then, Kurder-Richardson Formula 21 was used to calculate the reliability estimate for the language proficiency test. In addition, Pearson Product Moment formula was used in order to find the correlation between variables under the study. In addition, T-test and ANOVA were utilized to find the differences among groups.

IV. RESULTS

Utilizing the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, the results are provided in this part. Table 3 shows descriptive statistics for students' performances on the language proficiency test.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

	No. of Participants	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Language Proficiency	151	16,00	58,00	45,96	8,20

The results in the above table show that the scores ranged from a minimum of 16 to a maximum of 58, with an average score of 45.96 and a standard deviation of 8.20.

The scores are classified into four groups according to the participants' academic level. Table 4 shows this classification.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PARTICIPANTS ON THE LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

Academic Level	No. of Participants	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Freshmen	34	16	54	41.82	9.14
Sophomores	42	25	58	45.23	8.85
Juniors	34	27	57	44.47	6.99
Seniors	41	43	57	51.36	3.98

According to Table 4 the results indicate that the mean of the freshmen is 41.82 with a standard deviation of 9.14, meanwhile their scores ranged from 16 to 54. The mean of the sophomores is 45.23 with a standard deviation of 8.85 and the range of scores is 25 to 58. The mean of juniors is 44.47 with a standard deviation of 6.99 and the scores vary from 27 to 57. Finally, seniors' average is 51.36 with a standard deviation of 3.98 and their scores range from 43 to 57. The results show that the most variability of scores belong to the freshmen (their scores ranged from 16 to 54) and as it was expected the standard deviation related to the freshmen was higher than the other three groups. In addition, the dispersion of the seniors' scores appeared to be less than those of the other three groups (variability of their scores was from 43 to 57) and as a result they have the least standard deviation (SD=3.98). Therefore, it can be concluded that the freshmen were the least homogeneous and the seniors were the most homogenous group with regard to the foreign language proficiency, the sophomores and juniors were almost in the same level of language proficiency.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR TWO SEXES ON THE LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

Sex	No. of Participants	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Males	38	34	58	49.18	5.68
Females	113	16	58	44.87	8.65

Table 5 reveals the descriptive statistics for the male and female participants on the language proficiency test. The mean score for males is 49.18 with a standard deviation of 5.68; while the average score of females is 44.87 with a standard deviation of 8.65. The variability of scores among females is much more sensible (the scores range from 16 to 58) than the dispersion of scores among males (for whom the scores vary from 34 to 58), and this can be due to the inequality of the number of male and female participants. On the whole it can be concluded that males performed almost better than the females, since the males' average score is 49.18 while the females' mean is 44.87. In order to be sure further inferential analysis will make this clear. Descriptive statistics obtained for the participants' academic achievement manifested by their GPAs utilizing SPSS software are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

	No.	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Academic Achievement	151	13,00	20,00	16,88	1,40

As can be seen in the Table above, the average scores for participants' academic achievement is 16.88 with a standard deviation of 1.40, and the scores range from 13 to 20. Figure 4.8 displays participants' academic achievement.

Table 7 shows the descriptive statistics for different groups of the participants' academic achievement.

TABLE 7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR DIFFERENT GROUPS ON GPA SCORES

Academic Level	No. of Participants	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Freshmen	34	13.25	19.13	17.13	1.23
Sophomores	42	14.47	19.55	17.37	1.21
Juniors	34	13.00	19.12	15.58	1.42
Seniors	41	15.70	20.00	17.25	1.01

According to the results which appear in Table 7, the mean score of the freshmen is 17.13 with a standard deviation of 1.23, meanwhile their scores range from 13.25 to 19.13. The average score of the sophomores is 17.37 with a standard deviation of 1.21 and their scores vary from 14.47 to 19.55. The mean of juniors' GPAs is 15.58 with a standard deviation of 1.42 and their scores range from 13.00 to 19.12. Finally, seniors' average score appeared to be 17.25 with a standard deviation of 1.01 and their GPAs vary from 15.70 to 20. On the whole, one can notice that the juniors seemed to be weaker than the other three groups with regard to their academic achievement; since the lowest minimum score and the lowest mean belong to this group.

Table 8 reveals the descriptive statistics for males' and females' academic achievement.

TABLE 8.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR MALES' AND FEMALES' ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Sex	No. of Participants	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Males	38	14.14	20.00	17.15	1.25
Females	113	13.00	19.55	16.79	1.44

According to Table 8 males' average score is 17.15 with a standard deviation of 1.25; besides, males' scores range from 14.14 to 20. The mean of the females' academic achievement is 16.79 with a standard deviation of 1.44 and their scores vary from 13 to 19.55. Therefore, the variability of males' scores tends to be similar to that of females. Figures 4.13 and 4.14 illustrate the exact performance of males and females on the academic achievement.

In order to find out the possible effect of gender on language proficiency and academic achievement scores, two independent t-tests were run and studied. Table 9 reports the results of independent t-test for the males and females' scores on the language proficiency test.

TABLE 9.
T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE MALES AND FEMALES' PERFORMANCE ON LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

Language Proficiency	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
	Equal variances assumed	5,230	,024	-2,865	149	,005	-4,308	1,503
	Equal variances not assumed			-3,503	97,530	,001	-4,308	1,229

The first section of Table 9 gives the results of Levene's test for equality of variance between the groups. Since the sig. value obtained from the Table is less than .05 ($p=.024$); therefore, the second line of the table which is related to the inequality of variance (equal variances not assumed) provides the information required to determine if the males and females' performance on the language proficiency test significantly differs. In addition, the sig. level in testing the equality of means appeared to be .001 ($p<.05$) which reveals a significant difference in scores for males ($M=49.18$, $SD=5.68$), and females [$M=44.87$, $SD=8.65$; $t(97.53)=-3.50$, $p=.001$]. However, the magnitude of the differences in the means is almost small ($\eta^2=.075$).

Table 10 reports the results of the t-test for the males and females' scores on academic achievement.

TABLE 10.
T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE MALES AND FEMALES' SCORES ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Academic Achievement	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
	Equal variances assumed	1,445	,231	-1,363	149	,175	-,357	,262
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,460	72,387	,149	-,357	,244

The results obtained from Table 10 show a significance level of .231 for testing the equality of variance for males and females' scores and since the sig. value is higher than .05, one can notice that variances are assumed to be equal; therefore, the information related to the equality of variances reveals that there is no significant difference in scores for males ($M=17.15$, $SD=1.25$), and females [$M=16.79$, $SD=1.44$; $t(149)=-1.363$, $p=.175$]. Besides, the magnitude of the differences in the means is small ($\eta^2=.012$).

In order to determine the impact of years of university study (academic level) on the language proficiency and academic achievement two one-way ANOVAs were run separately. Table 11. reports the results of the one-way ANOVA for the language proficiency scores.

TABLE 11.
ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULTS FOR THE LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY SCORES

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1877,219	3	625,740	11,179	,000
Within Groups	8228,543	147	55,976		
Total	10105,762	150			

In order to conduct the one-way ANOVA which provided the results of Table 11, academic level was considered as the independent variable and the scores on the language proficiency test as the dependent variable. The results revealed statistically significant differences across the language proficiency of freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors ($F=11.179$, $p<0.05$) which show that students' language proficiency tends to increase as a function of years of university study. In order to locate specifically the differences among the four groups, a post hoc (Scheffe) test was run and the results are summarized in Table 12.

TABLE 12.
SCHEFFE TEST ON THE LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY SCORES

(I) Academic Level	(J) Academic Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Freshman	Sophomore	-3,4146	1,7260	,275
	junior	-2,6471	1,8145	,548
	senior	-9,5423(*)	1,7354	,000
Sophomore	Freshman	3,4146	1,7260	,275
	junior	,7675	1,7260	,978
	senior	-6,1278(*)	1,6425	,004
junior	Freshman	2,6471	1,8145	,548
	Sophomore	-,7675	1,7260	,978
	senior	-6,8953(*)	1,7354	,002
senior	Freshman	9,5423(*)	1,7354	,000
	Sophomore	6,1278(*)	1,6425	,004
	junior	6,8953(*)	1,7354	,002

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 12 clearly reveals that seniors out performed the other three groups. Post-hoc comparisons indicated that the mean score for seniors ($M=51.36$, $SD=3.98$) significantly differs from that of freshmen ($M=41.82$, $SD=9.14$), sophomores ($M=45.23$, $SD=8.85$) and juniors ($M=44.47$, $SD=6.99$). The effect size calculated using η^2 was 0.185. In addition, the results indicate that sophomores and juniors did rather similarly on the test.

Table 13 presents the results of the one-way ANOVA for the academic achievement.

TABLE 13.
ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULTS FOR THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT SCORES

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	75,016	3	25,005	16,740	,000
Within Groups	219,580	147	1,494		
Total	294,596	150			

Table 13 highlights statistically significant differences across academic achievement scores of first, second, third and fourth year EFL students ($F=16.740$, $p<0.05$). In order for locating the difference between groups, a post-hoc (Scheffe) test was conducted. The results of this test are reported in Table 14.

TABLE 14.
SCHEFFE TEST ON THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT SCORES

(I) Academic Level	(J) Academic Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Freshman	Sophomore	-.2381	.2819	.870
	junior	1.5462(*)	.2964	.000
	senior	-.1249	.2834	.978
Sophomore	Freshman	.2381	.2819	.870
	junior	1.7843(*)	.2819	.000
	senior	.1132	.2683	.981
junior	Freshman	-1.5462(*)	.2964	.000
	Sophomore	-1.7843(*)	.2819	.000
	senior	-1.6711(*)	.2834	.000
senior	Freshman	.1249	.2834	.978
	Sophomore	-.1132	.2683	.981
	junior	1.6711(*)	.2834	.000

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 14 shows that juniors outperformed the other levels. Post-hoc comparisons revealed that the mean score for juniors ($M=15.58$, $SD=1.42$) significantly differs from that of freshmen ($M=17.13$, $SD=1.23$) sophomores ($M=17.37$, $SD=1.21$), and seniors ($M=17.25$, $SD=1.01$). The effect size calculated using eta squared appeared to be 0.25.

In order to determine any possible relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement and to find out the strength of this relationship, Pearson correlation analysis was carried out. Table 15 displays the results of the correlational analysis.

TABLE 15.
PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

		Language Proficiency	Academic Achievement	Fear of Success	Imposter Phenomenon
Language Proficiency	Pearson Correlation	1	.533(**)	-.033	.100
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.685	.223
	N	151	151	151	151
Academic Achievement	Pearson Correlation	.533(**)	1	.000	-.130
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.997	.112
	N	151	151	151	151

Table 15 reveals a significant positive correlation between the language proficiency and the academic achievement scores ($r=.53$, $p<0.01$), which highlights the idea that EFL students who are more proficient in English language can achieve better in their classes.

V. DISCUSSION

Having analyzed the collected data, the research questions can be answered and discussed in this part.

1- *Is there a significant relationship between English language proficiency and academic achievement of Iranian EFL college students?*

The results reported in Table 15 indicate a significant positive relationship between students' language proficiency scores and their GPAs ($r=.53$, $p<0.05$). The figures show that this relationship is almost strong and its direction is positive, in other words, the more language proficient they are, the better they achieve in their classes. Therefore, the students who scored higher on the language proficiency test had better GPA scores. This finding of the present study is in line with those of the other studies who resulted in the idea that highlights the existence of a significant correlation between students' proficiency in English and their academic achievement. For example, Maleki and Zangani (2007) carried out a piece of research in which a sample of 50 students was studied. To decide their overall language proficiency a standardized TOEFL paper test has been used. Meanwhile students' grade point averages (GPAs) were used as the indicators of learners' academic achievement. Finally, the results of their investigation revealed a significant correlation between English language proficiency and academic achievement (GPA). The correlation coefficient of the two sets of scores was 0.48. Bulter and Castellon-Wellington (2000) who aimed at finding the relationship between academic achievement and language proficiency also found out that there was a significant relationship between English language proficiency and academic achievement. In addition, Garcia-Vasquez et al. (1997) compared the academic achievement of Hispanic middle and high school students with measures of their proficiency in English found that there is a significantly high correlation between English proficiency and English academic achievement ($r =$

0.84). In a similar study, Gue and Holdway (1973) reached a similar conclusion they investigated the relationship between academic achievement and language proficiency among 123 Thai education majors who were tested both before and after a summer language program. The correlation between the summer TOEFL scores and GPA was 0.49 and between the fall TOEFL scores and GPA was 0.59, which both correlations were significant at the 0.01 level. Besides, Burgess and Greis (1970), after studying a sample of 17 college students, found out that participants' TOEFL scores did correlate significantly with their grade point averages, ($r = .53$). However, the result of the present study contrasts with some other studies in which academic achievement and language proficiency do not have a significant relationship. For example, Bayliss and Raymond (2004) who examined the link between academic success and second language proficiency in the context of two professional programs came to know that there is not a significant relationship between academic achievement and second language proficiency. In addition, Stevens et al. (2000) who investigated the relationship between the language proficiency and academic success of seven-grade English language learners found no significant correlational relationship between the two variables under discussion. Furthermore, after studying 118 Nigerian students in Missouri, Odunze (1982) found no significant correlation between the TOEFL and students' first year grades ($r = .259$). Besides, Hwang and Dizney (1970)'s study of 63 Chinese graduate students at the University of Oregon showed that there was not a significant correlation between language proficiency and academic success ($r = .19$). However, the results of Wilcox (1975)'s study both appears to be similar and contrasted with the finding of this study. Wilcox (1975) carried out a piece of research in which he studied two groups of foreign undergraduate students to examine the link between their high school GPA and their language proficiency. But, correlations between TOEFL scores and GPAs were considerably different for the groups of students in the sample. For the group from Hong Kong, the correlation between students' language proficiency and their academic achievement was .00; however, for the group from Vietnam, the correlation between TOEFL scores and GPAs was 0.46. Finally, regarding the different results obtained in disparate situations, one concludes that the field still needs more investigations.

2- Are there significant differences in the students' performances on language proficiency and academic achievement with regard to their years of study?

The results obtained from the one-way ANOVA reported in Table 11 revealed statistically significant differences across the language proficiency of freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors ($F=11.179$, $p<0.05$). Table 12 indicates that seniors outperformed the other three groups. Post-hoc comparisons showed that the average score for seniors ($M=51.36$, $SD=3.98$) significantly differs from that of freshmen ($M=41.82$, $SD=9.14$), sophomores ($M=45.23$, $SD=8.85$) and juniors ($M=44.47$, $SD=6.99$). The effect size calculated using eta squared was 0.185, which is acceptable. In addition, the results indicated that sophomores and juniors did rather similarly on the test. The findings showed that seniors were more proficient in English than the other three groups, therefore, years of university study affected students' language proficiency significantly. This outcome coincides with the finding of Celce-Murcia (1993)'s study. She also found that students who have been in contact with the language for several years will be more proficient in language. This may be because they have experienced more ways of learning and exposure to language use compared to those who have not had sufficient contact with the language.

Furthermore, the results of the one-way ANOVA run to see if there were any significant differences in the GPA scores of students at different years of study revealed statistically significant differences across academic achievement scores of first, second, third and fourth year EFL students ($F=16.740$, $p<0.05$). The findings reported in Table 13 showed that juniors' academic achievement scores significantly differ from the other levels' GPAs. Post-hoc comparisons revealed that the mean score for juniors ($M=15.58$, $SD=1.42$) significantly differs from that of freshmen ($M=17.13$, $SD=1.23$) sophomores ($M=17.37$, $SD=1.21$), and seniors ($M=17.25$, $SD=1.01$). The effect size calculated using eta squared appeared to be 0.25. Therefore, juniors were less successful than the other three groups with regard to their academic achievement.

3- Is there a significant difference between males and females' performances on the language proficiency test and their academic achievement?

The results reported in Table 9 revealed a significant difference in the language proficiency scores for males ($M=49.18$, $SD=5.68$) and females ($M=44.87$, $SD=8.65$; $p<0.05$). Therefore, males are more proficient in English than females.

Moreover, the outcomes of the t-test presented in Table 10 revealed that there is no significant difference in scores for males ($M=17.15$, $SD=1.25$), and females ($M=16.79$, $SD=1.44$; $p<0.05$) with regard to their academic achievement. In addition, the magnitude of differences in the average scores for each gender is small (eta squared=0.012). Thus, males and females do not differ in their academic achievement significantly. This finding is consistent with the outcome reported by Halawah (2006). He also found out that difference between males and females on academic achievement was not statistically significant.

VI. CONCLUSION

The Analysis of the data proves a profound relationship between students' language proficiency and academic achievement which indicates that those who are more proficient in English can achieve academically better. Therefore,

it is suggested that more appropriate courses which aim at improving students' proficiency in language be included in the curriculum so that students' academic achievement will promote as a result.

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A Study on the Effects of Reciting on Chinese College Students' Oral English Proficiency

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Abstract—This paper aims to illuminate the relationship between reciting and the efficiency of English learning among Chinese college students. Through a series of experiments and tests, the research draws the conclusion that the traditional English learning strategy----reciting promotes the students' oral English proficiency.

Index Terms—reciting, oral English, proficiency, effectiveness, input and output

I. INTRODUCTION

Chinese college students have learned English for at least six years, but strangely enough, they can hardly communicate in English. They have accumulated much knowledge about English, but that does not guarantee the use of English. Is there a way to bridge the gap between what they have learned and what they can say? This paper aims to find out such an efficient way to help college students out of bafflement. This method is recitation. In order to testify the effects of reciting on college students' oral English, an experiment has been conducted. This experimental study aims to find out if reciting is really helpful in achieving college students' oral fluency. And to what degree and in what aspects it is helpful.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. Production of Oral Speech

Following Levelt (1989), speech production consists of four major stages: conceptualizing a thought to be expressed, formulating a linguistic plan, articulating the plan, and monitoring one's speech.

B. Linguistic Input

Input is the starting place for language acquisition. A natural language environment is the ideal setting for sufficient and efficient language input. Canadian immersion or exposure programs are of this kind. Many language researchers have proposed relevant theories on this respect. Rod Ellis (1985) holds that input refers to the language addressed to the L2 learner either by a native speaker or by another L2 learner. Interaction consists of the discourse jointly constructed by the learner and his illocutions; input, therefore, is the result of the interaction. Stephen Krashen (1987) argues the best methods are therefore those that supply 'comprehensible input' in low anxiety situations, containing messages that students really want to know. These methods do not force early production in the second language, but allow students to produce when they are ready, recognizing that improvement comes from supplying communicative and comprehensible input, and not from forcing and correcting production.

C. Input and Output

To the functions of learner's output on SLA, there are some controversial opinions. According to Krashen (1985), learners' output has no direct effect on acquisition. The skill building hypothesis states that we first learn rules or items consciously and then gradually atomize them through practice. The representative of this hypothesis is Swain. She argues that comprehension of language does not need close attention to its form, so enough input of linguistic materials does not automatically lead to the intake the language form. There are many learners who can be quick in understanding but slow in producing language. Swain's claim is that production will aid acquisition only when the learner is pushed into producing output that is concise, coherent and appropriate in order to develop full grammatical competence.

These are all hypothesis about the possible functions that input may play in SLA. Though no explicit conclusion have been drawn so far concerning input functions in SLA, the essential role of input is generally accepted. As to the specific effect of frequency, comprehensibility and output, further research is called for. Nevertheless, it is generally agreed that there is a positive correlation between the above mentioned three aspects and SLA.

D. Inspiration to Chinese Learners

Contrast with learners who can immerse in the language being studied, oral speech production is an easy task, for Chinese learners the production of oral speech is the most difficult and also the worst performed part in their learning

process. What causes such big difference? Apart from the difficulties in speech organs to pronounce the intended sounds, another critical problem is the deficiency in language input, which contains three aspects: (1) the monotonousness in input style-written text. (2) the limitedness in input time-English class. (3) the finiteness in input processing- bottom up analyzing. Here, “bottom” refers to the basic linguistic units such as alphabetic letters, phonemes and syllables. The bottom up process proceeds from the smaller linguistic units to the larger parts, i.e., words, phrases, sentences and paragraphs. As a result of deficient linguistic input, the learner has not stored adequate linguistic information in their mind to meet the needs of spontaneous oral production. Here, one thing should be made clear, i.e., to know the Chinese translation of vocabularies does not guarantee the proper use of them, for an overall information of any vocabulary contains generally four concepts. They are phonology, morphology, syntax and sometimes pragmatics. Without a thorough mastery of all the related aspects, learners either find hesitant in using them in their speech or make errors in their attempt to take risks. Then in Chinese learning environment, is there a good solution to this problem? The answer is positive. That is to make good use of those input language materials. To be more specific, it is to process the material in a different way. In addition to the widely accepted bottom up practice, learners should go step further. On the one hand, they should familiarize themselves with the English pronunciation by practicing their speech organs. On the other hand, they should commit those vocabularies to memory by remembering them in their linguistic contexts, from the sentences and texts that they are used. Since these texts are explained in class with the teacher’s help, they are comprehensible. According to the above mentioned input theories, comprehensible linguistic input is helpful to the learners, but it does not ensure intake. To promote intake, apart from increasing the input frequency, the more important task is to raise the learners’ awareness of the gap between what they want to say to what they can say; and between what they said last time and the correct expressions they have just come across. Without real English speaking environment, the learners can practice speaking to themselves trying to remember as many correct expressions as possible. Then a practical and helpful way develops, which has been proved to be efficient by many learners. It is the reciting of English texts. In the reciting process, the learners must repeatedly read and till at last say the language materials with their speech organs, thus they can be ready to produce any words that they have practiced as accurately and quickly as possible. That is required in the third stage of oral speech production as have mentioned in the first part of the paper. At the same time, learners can learn the specific usage of words or expressions in their linguistic context. Or mostly they can combine the separated linguistic elements into chunks, which will be of great help both in storage and later retrieval, thus can largely reduce the time spent in the second stage of oral production.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Subjects

The subjects of this study are 100 freshmen from two parallel classes in Inner Mongolian Finance and Economics College. They major in Tourism Management and Finance Engineering respectively. They are divided into two groups, the control group (20males, 30females) and the experimental group (26males, 24females). Both groups have attended the English proficiency test at the beginning of the semester. The statistical results show that the two groups have equivalent English proficiency level when they enter college ($p=0.133>0.05$). See table 1 for detailed information. The two groups study the same text book: New Horizon College English Book1, published by Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press. They are taught by the same English teacher in the same way and with the same learning class hours. The only difference is that after finishing each unit, the experimental group is required to recite some paragraphs selected carefully by the teacher while the control group does not.

TABLE1
THE STATISTICAL RESULTS OF BOTH GROUPS IN THEIR ENGLISH PROFICIENCY TEST

Group	N	Mean	SD	T scores	P(level of significance for two-tailed test)
E Group	50	50.5541	5.50982	-1.520	0.133
C Group	50	52.6176	5.93150		

* $p<0.05$ E=experimental C=control

B. Research Instruments

The research instruments include two vocabulary tests pre-oral-test, post-oral-test, reciting test and reciting report.

Vocabulary Test1 is designed according to the new vocabularies in unit1 and unit2. There are totally three parts: the first is 15 incomplete sentences, and the students are required to complete the sentences with one appropriate item chosen from the four choices. The total score is 30. The second part is some frequently used expressions from text A of this unit, and the students are asked to translate them into correct Chinese. The score for this part is 40. The third part is paragraph translation, and the students are required to translate a paragraph with the use of the expressions in this unit. The score for this part is 30. The total score for vocabulary test1 is 100. This test was conducted in both the groups.

Vocabulary Test 2 is from the final exam paper. Two categories are included: the first is vocabulary choice (15 items and 15 scores), the second is 10 phrases translations (20 scores). The total score for this part is 35.

The pre-oral-test was done at the beginning of the semester. The students were asked to present a speech in 3 minutes on the title “My First Impression on This College”. The total score is 9, fluency, accuracy and complexity each

accounting for 3. The grades were given by five teachers by averaging the total scores of each student. The reference for the judges is based on Skehan's three-dimension evaluation of language production, Rod Ellis proposed measures on each aspect, which is displayed in the table 2.

TABLE 2
REFERENCE FOR ORAL TEST

Dimensions	Measures
1. Fluency	Number of words per minute Number of pauses of one/two seconds or longer Mean length of pauses Number of repetitions Number of false starts
2. Accuracy	Number of self corrections Percentage of error-free clauses Target-like use of verb tenses Target-like use of articles Target-like use of vocabulary Target-like use of plurals Target-like use of negation
3. Complexity	Number of turns per minute Lexical richness. e.g. number of word families used. Percentage of lexical to structural words Percentage of occurrence of multi-prepositional utterances Amount of subordination, e.g. total number of clauses divided by total number of c-units

Post-oral- test was made in the end of the semester. The students were required to give a spontaneous speech on the topic "My English Learning" The spontaneous speech is conducted and evaluated the same as the pre-oral-test.

Finally is the Reciting Test. The content of the reciting is the selected paragraphs from the seven units of the textbook. Before the test, the teacher prepares seven small cards, on each of which the first sentence of one selected paragraph is offered. The students were required to recite according to the card. And the evaluation is based on the pronunciation, fluency and accuracy.

TABLE 3
RECITING ASSESSMENT TABLE

Items	Grade scales					Grade
	excellent	better	good	middle	poor	
pronunciation(10 score)	10	8	6	4	2	
Fluency (10 score)	10	8	6	4	2	
Accuracy (10 score)	10	8	6	4	2	
Total Score						

TABLE 4
A QUESTIONNAIRE

Do you think reciting is relevant to the following statements	Very relevant	relevant	Not relevant
Practice speech organs			
Promote the use of new words and language chunks			
Enhance language sense			
Overcome negative transfer			
Improve overall oral English level			

C. Data Collection

The data collection lasted for 16 weeks. They include two vocabulary tests, pre-oral-test, post-oral-test, reciting test and the questionnaire.

The vocabulary test1 was conducted after the students have learned five units. It was asked to finish in 30 minutes. The test2 was done at the end of the semester in the final exam. The required time is 25 minutes. The results of the two tests are for statistical analysis.

The pre-oral-test was done in the first week of the semester, while the post-oral-test was at the end of the semester, and the duration between the two tests is 16 weeks. All the spoken language materials were transcribed.

Reciting Test was designed for the experimental group, and it was conducted in the last week of the semester. Each student was asked to recite about three minutes.

The questionnaire was carried out at the end of the experiment. The students of the experimental group were asked to fill in it carefully and the teacher collected, analyzed and categorized the reports so as to have a more thorough understanding of the students' attitudes towards reciting.

D. Data Analysis

The involved data in this research were analyzed with SPSS statistical method. The Independent-samples t-test was employed to compare the grades of the two groups to see if reciting is helpful to the use of new words, expressions and

language chunks. At the same time, the correlation analysis was conducted to prove that the effect of reciting on the experimental group in both test1 and test2 were consistent. The analysis of the pre and post oral test was in two stages. In the first stage, the Chinglish expressions in the students' pre and post oral test were categorized and analyzed statistically, to find out if there were any differences between the two tests, so as to make sure that reciting input is helpful to reduce students' Chinglish expressions. In the second stage, the Independent-samples t-test was employed to compare the students' grade in the two oral tests to verify if reciting had a significant effect on improving students' overall oral English. What's more, correlation analysis was conducted to make certain that reciting and students' oral proficiency were relevant. In the end, the attitudes towards reciting of the students in the experimental group were studied with frequency statistics.

E. Research Results and Discussions

The independent-samples t-test showed that (see table 5 and table 6) the students of the two groups had significant difference in the grades of their two vocabulary tests. (It is respectively $T=2.768$, $P=0.007<0.05$; $T=2.516$, $P=0.014<0.05$). The experimental group performed much better than the control group, which indicates that reciting was quite effective in promoting the use of vocabulary, and language chunks in students' oral output. This finding was in accordance with some previous researchers (Ding Yanren, etc. 2001; Dong Wei, etc. 2003). The major attributive factors for the differences between the two groups are the students of the experimental group have elevated their noticing attention to the specific words, fixed phrases and language chunks through reciting, which reinforces the language input, consolidates memory and facilitates vocabulary acquisition and application.

TABLE 5.
THE T-TEST RESULT FOR VOCABULARY TEST1

Group	N	Mean	SD	T values	P values (level of significance for two-tailed test)
E Group	50	78.3243	11.41163	2.768	0.007
C Group	50	70.4118	12.67811		

*total score: 100; $P<0.05$

TABLE 6.
THE T-TEST RESULT FOR VOCABULARY TEST2

Group	N	Mean	SD	T values	P values (level of significance for two-tailed test)
E Group	50	19.5270	4.37472	2.516	0.014
C Group	50	16.7206	5.02296		

*total score: 35; $P<0.05$

The consistency effect of reciting on both vocabulary tests were tested by Pearson r. The result shows (table 7) a salient consistency. The Pearson r between the test1 and the test2 is 0.403, and the P value is $0.013<0.05$. This shows that the reciting effect on the efficiency of language input is consistent in the two tests. In other words, if the experimental students perform better in test1, they would also do well in test2, though the tested vocabularies are from different units, which prove that the reciting effect will not change due to different time.

TABLE 7
THE CONSISTENCY EFFECT OF RECITING ON BOTH VOCABULARY TESTS

Items		Vocabulary test 1	Vocabulary test 2
Vocabulary test1	Pearson r	1	0.403
	P values		0.013
	N	50	50
Vocabulary test 2	Pearson r	0.403	1
	P values	0.013	.
	N	50	50

* $P<0.05$

The categorization and statistical analysis on the transcribed texts of the students' pre and post oral tests exhibited that an obvious difference exists between the two groups from the two tests (see table 8 and table 9). In the pre-test paper, the number and types of Chinglish expressions between the two groups are similar, with the control group a little lower in each item than the experimental group. After the experiment, the experimental group has reduced the number of Chinglish expressions in each of the three isolated categories as well as in the distribution of the total number, to be exact the reduced expressions are 154 in number. That indicates reciting is a high quality language input, which enlarges students' implicit language knowledge, thus reinforces students' language sense and greatly overcomes the negative transfer. As a result, students' overall oral English proficiency is improved.

TABLE 8
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS ON CHINGLISH DISTRIBUTION IN PRE-ORAL-TEST

Category	Number/percentage	E group	C group
Literal translation	number	115	106
	percentage	28%	27%
Unmarked native expressions	number	60	55
	percentage	15%	14.2%
others	number	135	126
	percentage	42%	40%
total	number	310	287
	percentage	100%	100%

TABLE 9
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS ON CHINGLISH DISTRIBUTION IN POST-ORAL-TEST

Category	Number/percentage	E group	C group
Literal translation	number	43	89
	percentage	24%	27%
Unmarked native expressions	number	22	53
	percentage	12%	16%
others	number	114	191
	percentage	64%	57%
total	number	179	333
	percentage	100%	100%

The pre oral test shows that the score distance between the total mean score of the two groups is only 0.16, and the P values is $0.025 < 0.05$, which indicates that the two groups' English oral proficiency has no significant difference. After the experiment, the above mentioned two values are respectively 2.08 and $0.025 < 0.05$, which shows that reciting has caused a big difference in the oral performance of the two groups. The experimental group has accumulated a lot of vocabularies, grammar information and language chunks, which adds to the students' explicit knowledge in English. At the same time, with the increasing of reciting input, the students become more sensitive to the target language and their implicit knowledge is enlarged, which contributes to the reinforcement of students' language sense. Moreover, in the reciting process, the students can build a direct connection between the meaning of words and their pronunciation and sound, which ensures correct speech production and comprehension. The two parts are indispensable in normal speech production. Another fact is during the reciting process the students are rehearsing the real communication, which functions as both language input and output. We all know Chinese learners lack language environment, reciting is an ideal compensatory strategy. By doing this, the students become quick in oral production and comprehension. With consistent reciting practice, students can achieve an automatic level in their speech. Also, the reciting process helps to practice the students' speech organs, so they are ready to produce any sounds as quickly as possible. In one word, reciting promotes students' fluency, accuracy and complexity in their oral speech, which is shown clearly in the experiment (see table 10 and table 11).

TABLE 10.
PRE-ORAL-TEST DESCRIPTION

Groups	N	MEAN	SD	T value	P value
E group	50	4.5000	.80795	.785	.435
C group	50	4.3382	.92704		

*total score: 9; $P < 0.05$

TABLE 11
POST-ORAL-TEST DESCRIPTION

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T value	P value
E group	50	6.8622	.69775	2.291	.025
C group	50	4.7794	.70915		

*total score: 9; $P < 0.05$

As showed by table 12, the experimental group exhibits a clear positive correlation between the grades in reciting and post-oral-test. The Pearson r is 0.541, and the P value is $0.001 < 0.01$. That indicates the reciting result and the post-oral result has statistical significance, and reciting has effective correlation to Chinese college English learners' oral English. The reason for this effect is as following: first, Chinese learners lack of sufficient English input, which makes it hard for the learners to achieve a fundamental improvement in their oral English. Second, the traditional teaching method is still prevailing and some new attempts prove to be unsuitable for Chinese learners due to various reasons. Most important of all, Chinese learners have no environment to produce output, which is critical for oral English. Reciting plays a role both in input and output. By paying noticing attention to the language material, the learners input quality is greatly enhanced. They focus both on linguistic structure and content, and they must be aware of the last details, such as the usage of the articles, prepositions and adverbs. Moreover, the reciting materials are sentences, paragraphs or a whole text, which is helpful for the students to master language in its ready made forms and in its proper contexts. With the

accumulation of such ready made materials, learners can save much time and achieve greater fluency, accuracy and complexity to meet the needs of spontaneous speech.

TABLE 12
THE COEFFICIENT BETWEEN RECITING GRADE AND POST-ORAL-TEST GRADE

		Reciting grade	Post-oral-test grade
Reciting grade	Pearson r	1	.541
	P value	.	.001
	N	50	50
Post-oral-test grade	Pearson r	.541	1
	P value	.	.
	N	50	50

• significantly coefficient above 0.01

According to the feedback of the questionnaire from the experimental group (table13), most students hold positive attitudes towards reciting. They believe reciting increases the language input by remembering the language material in chunks, which can help to save the cognitive space and promote long term memory and can make the future retrieval easier and faster. In addition, during reciting the learners rehearse the speech process by fully involving the related speech organs, thus they find it easier to open their mouth and express themselves in English. With the accumulation of the language input and the readiness of expressing themselves, the learners' language sense has greatly improved and their implicit English knowledge has also increased, which is essential in reducing their Chinglish expressions. It is not surprising that the experimental group has done better than the control group in oral English performance. Actually, as is illustrated before, the effects of reciting is not confined to oral speech. It is beneficial to all aspects of English learning.

TABLE 13
FEEDBACK OF THE QUESTIONAIRE

Do you think reciting is relevant to the following statements	Very relevant		relevant		Not relevant	
	frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
Practice speech organs	48	96%	2	4%	0	0%
Promote the use of new words and language chunks	45	90%	5	10%	0	0%
Enhance language sense	40	80%	8	16%	2	4%
Overcome negative transfer	42	84%	6	12%	2	4%
Improve overall oral English level	46	92%	4	18%	0	0%

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

A. Implications

This study aims to find if reciting is an effective method for Chinese college students to promote their oral output and make up for the shortage of English environment. The experimental findings exhibit a positive correlation between the two parts. Reciting has proved to be a quite facilitative way for Chinese college students to have a breakthrough in their oral English. It is an efficient and ideal language input. In quality, this input corresponds to Krashen's $i+1$ standard, since the reciting materials are all mostly from the textbook, which is carefully selected so as to match the college students' English proficiency, which has also been illustrated by the teacher in details to ensure complete comprehension. In quantity, this input is enough but not overwhelming. Enough does not refer to the number of the recited materials but the detailed processing of the material. Students are required to recite some selected sentences or paragraphs of the learned texts, which does not take too much time and energy. Since it is easy to implement, after completing the task and applying the recited contents in their own English expression, students tend to gain a sense of fulfillment and develop confidence in English learning. Meanwhile, reciting is also a kind of oral output. Though this output is closely adhered to the written language material, it contains some common features of the real oral English output. First of all, it involves the participation of the speech organs, otherwise learners usually find themselves tongue-tied in real speech circumstance, because their speech organs have been accustomed to the Chinese pronunciation and without practice it is hard for them to meet the needs of real communication. Secondly, as Swain has claimed output forces the students to notice the gap between what they want to say and what they can say. The reciting process offers this chance and the reciting materials tell the learners what they should say and thus bridge the gap between their expressions and the proper expressions. This helps to build up the learners' language sense or we call it implicit language knowledge. Lastly, the reciting styles can be various and interesting, for example by playing roles, seeing films or performing programs. As the experiment has showed reciting is really helpful for Chinese college students to improve their oral English. It should be promoted and widely applied.

B. Limitations of the Study

Due to various reasons, this study has three major limitations. First, the experimental duration is not long enough, so some expected results can not be fully demonstrated. In other words, the far reaching effects from reciting can hardly be

tested. Second, it is obvious that many factors may contribute to the change in one's learning. During this experiment, the other variables have been controlled to the minimal degree, but still some factors are beyond this subjective control, for example, learner's emotions, attitudes, and adaptability to the new environment and learning strategies. The biggest problem exists in the experimental instruments. In an ideal oral test record, the subjects' oral presentation should be recorded and analyzed in details. Nevertheless, in this study due to the limited time and energy, the general evaluation was conducted by five judges according to the given assessing references. Therefore, subjectivity is inevitable and it may influence the overall validity and reliability of the experiment.

C. Suggestions for Future Study

If researchers conduct studies in this area, the following suggestions can be of their reference. First, the duration of the research should be at least one year or if possible for two years. Since college students have two years' formal English class learning, it will be convenient for this study. The findings from two years' research are more convincing and scientific and the expected results can be more obvious. Second, the modern language lab should be applied to the recording and analysis of the oral speech. That will attribute to the accuracy of the results in the experiment and achieve high validity and reliability. Lastly, the researchers can vary the reciting styles and materials. For the reciting styles, the subjects can have more options, for example, they can relate the main idea of the target materials by using as many original expressions as possible; or they can remember the materials by role playing. As for the reciting materials, apart from the passages from the textbook, some other more interesting materials can be of their choice, such as cartoons or films. In a word, it is of great help if students can find pleasure in this practice and they can assume it as a learning habit. Therefore, a fundamental task for the researchers in this area is to develop a helpful method to guarantee its consistent practice and ensure its maximum facilitation in oral proficiency.

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Teaching Culture Explicitly through Literature to EFL Learners

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Abstract—Teachers/learners of foreign language (FL) have always faced a demanding task of learning/teaching L2/FL culture and despite the fact that diverse methods have been proposed to teach FL/L2 culture in language classes, the difficulties have not been completely removed. One of the possible ways would be using literary works to teach the cultural issues of the L2 to the learners. The purpose of this paper is to discuss the importance and the effect of using literature to teach L2 culture in the English language classes. To this aim, 40 upper-intermediate English language students were randomly selected and also randomly assigned to experimental and control groups (20 students for each group). Both groups were given a pre-test of some 20 L2 cultural questions. As the treatment, the experimental group was given a fifteen-session teaching of literary texts specifically selected for their cultural points together with a thorough explanation of those points while the control group went through a normal reading class with ordinary texts. Finally, a post-test was administered to both groups. The results showed a significant difference between the experimental and control groups. The delayed post-test administered after two weeks confirmed the results, too. The findings may contribute to explicit teaching of culture through literature in L2/FL classrooms.

Index Terms—teaching culture, literature, EFL learners

Anyone who has ever tried to learn/acquire a second/foreign language knows that it is a very hard, demanding, and even for some people, a tiring task. In fact, “learning/acquisition of a second/foreign language is comprised of different factors many of which can affect the way a person learns/acquires it. Some of these factors are cognitive, others are affective, still others are social, some others are biological and the rest are personal” (Brown, 2007, pp. 2-3). Previously, it was believed that to “learn a second language successfully, one has only to get the linguistic competence in that language” (Brown, 2000, p. 247). In other words, when someone has a good listening and pronunciation, a sound knowledge of vocabulary together with a good mastery over meaning of sentences and structures, he has the linguistic competence. However, nowadays it is believed that although it is necessary to have a grammatical competence in a language, it is by no means sufficient. In other words, besides the knowledge of the four issues mentioned above, one needs other aspects of language to be able to claim mastery over that language. Hymes (1972) introduced the issue of communicative competence which was composed of different types of competencies such as discourse, pragmatic, sociolinguistic and also strategic competences. However, newer dimensions that some other scholars (e.g., Bachman, 1990) have assumed for communicative competence have become broader and have considered cultural issues a subcategory of competence as well. Nevertheless, scholars (Byram, 2000) have introduced even a more recent category called intercultural competence, which according to him has five elements. Two of these elements are related to Attitudes and Knowledge which are as follows:

- ◇ Attitudes: curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own.
- ◇ Knowledge: of social groups and their products and practices in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction. (p. 9)

Then he states that the other three are related to Skills and Critical cultural awareness/political education and are as follows: “Skills of interpreting and relating; Skills of discovery and interaction; and Critical cultural awareness/political education” (Byram, 2000, p. 9).

Too, he states that “Intercultural competence together with learners’ linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse competence form intercultural communicative competence (ICC). Learners with an ICC can link the knowledge of the other culture to their language competence through their ability to use language appropriately” (Byram, 2000, p. 10).

In the meantime, some researchers emphasize some of the important roles of culture like its necessity in language classes. Along the same line, Chan and Herrero (2010) clearly argue that, “Literacy pedagogy should be linked with the changing social environment calling for a much broader view of literacy than portrayed by traditional language-based approaches” (p. 8). At the same time, they state that “We must recognise the increasing cultural and linguistic diversity, proposing through the use of multiliteracies a fairer social and cultural participation” (p. 8).

With such an emphasis on teaching culture, it gets clear that there are different ways to teach culture to language students. Of course, there are situations in which the students, especially second language learners, have access to the target culture and can learn it easily, but in other cases, the students can't have access to the L2/FL culture and so, they will have problem with them. In the latter condition, students must be taught culture, but how.

Different ways and methods have been proposed for teaching culture in language classes. For example, Jones (2011) proposes ways such as "Using role play", "developing a mental image of the target culture", "Celebrating a holiday or festival of the target culture", or "Teaching culture through nonverbal communication" (p. 1). However, Chastain (1988) talks about two general ways of presenting L2 culture to language students. The first way is "In Class" which is divided into 'Culture Capsule', 'Culture Cluster', and 'Minidramas' or 'Miniskits', 'The Micrologue', and 'Cultoon', while the second way according to Chastain is called "Out Of Class" which is divided into 'Pen Pals', 'Special Programs and events', 'Community Resources', 'Travelogue Films', 'Summer Camps' and so on. (p. 130) Of course, each of the above-mentioned ways has some demerits which make its use very difficult at some points. But, one of the best ways to teach L2 culture is through using L2 literature. It should be mentioned though, that research in using literature to teach L2 culture has focused on just one aspect of literature and that is, "Using L2 folktales and short stories" to teach L2 culture. In fact, according to researchers, using folktales can be a magic in teaching L2 culture and language. (Price, 2001) But what is Folktale and how can it be defined? According to Baynham (1986),

Folk stories have long been part of the repertoire of the language teachers, and many simplified reading series recount stories of Mullah Nasreddin and other archetypal folk figures. The themes often have a universal appeal and are frequently very widely distributed across cultures, so they make ideal reading in the early stages of the language-learning process (p. 113)

However, other studies have come to the conclusion that using folktales in teaching L2 culture was not so much successful and useful as expected, though it was better than the methods mentioned by Chastain (1988) and Jones (2011). In this regard, Baynham (1986) talks about one of the difficulties in working on folk stories with a group of students. According to him, when the topic is raised out of context in the ESL classroom, the response may well be 'oh, I don't know any' or other similar responses. Another problem was that the stories were used mostly for the purpose of teaching 'Spelling', 'Grammar', 'Vocabulary', and 'Punctuation'. Culture was the last issue to be considered. Nevertheless, it must be mentioned that except the papers mentioned above (about folktales), the number of studies done on using folktales to teach L2 culture is very few and as mentioned above, almost all of them have focused on using folktales to teach other aspects of language in the classroom rather than using it primarily to teach L2 culture. For this very reason, the present authors have tried to do this study. Thus, the following research question came into their minds:

What is the effect of using L2 literature on teaching L2 culture explicitly to EFL learners?

Based on the above research question, a null hypothesis can be given as "Using L2 literature has no effect on teaching L2 culture explicitly to EFL learners".

I. METHOD

A. Participants

40 upper-intermediate English language students (in two experimental and control groups of 20) were selected randomly through simple randomization from among 89 upper-intermediate students at the author's own language institute. (It is worth mentioning that the upper-intermediate level in the mentioned institute has three grades of 1, 2, & 3; however, all of the 89 students from whom 40 subjects were selected, were either upper-intermediate 2 or upper-intermediate 3). Since all of the 89 students were almost in the same grade level (based on their final scores of the previous semester), they were paired on the basis of that final score and so, no general English test was used to select the subjects and only a simple sampling was used for that purpose. The subjects were randomly assigned to control and experimental groups. The subjects in both groups had an age range of 23 to 27 years old, i.e., there was only an age range of four years. All of the subjects were female and BS students at the university in different fields (Other than English language).

B. Tasks and Data Collection Procedure

Since a pre-test and a post-test were going to be used in this research, at the beginning of the study, as a pre-test, both the control and the experimental groups were given a pre-test of some 20 L2 cultural questions randomly selected from some short stories. Two university EFL professors who had lived in English speaking countries for more than 6 years were asked to score the pre-test. To ensure the reliability of the agreement between the raters, the correlation between the raters was calculated and determined to be adequate. Then, the experimental group went through 15 sessions of instruction in which they were taught some 20 short stories and folktales. The literary works were selected randomly based on the cultural issues they had. The procedure to teach short stories and the cultural content for the experimental group was as follows. First of all, the students who had been asked to read the short stories as their homework at home, discussed the concept of the short stories and folktales in groups and if there was any misunderstanding regarding the texts, the instructor and students contributed their own ideas. Then, they were asked to find specific cultural issues introduced in the folktales, and short stories. In the next step, the students were required to compare the cultural point(s)

with that (those) of their own (Persian culture) and discuss their ideas with the rest of the class. Finally, the instructor explained explicitly the cultural point(s) and gave the background of the related issue. As to the control group, they attended a reading course in which the same reading passages were taught based on the conventional techniques to teach literary texts. The conventional method of teaching short stories in literature courses consisted of instructors giving lectures and students receiving the information and the interpretation of the story. There was no implicit or explicit mentioning of cultural issues for this group. After 15 sessions of instruction for both groups, a post-test was administered with some 20 questions related to the American cultural issues which had appeared in the folktales and literary works taught throughout the fifteen-session course. These were the same questions used in the pre-test. Each question had 1 score, the total of which would be 20. However, in cases in which students could point at a specific piece of information, they could get .25, .5 or sometimes .75 because they knew some parts of the answer to the question. Like the procedure in the pre-test, to ensure the inter-rater reliability, the correlation between the scores of the raters was determined. To get more confident that the subjects (especially the experimental group) did not memorize the cultural issues that were presented in the short stories and folk-tales, 20 different and additional American cultural-related questions were administered to both the experimental and the control groups in the same exam session and scored in the same manner. To make even more confident about the results and to ensure that the results were not due to memorizing the cultural issues merely for the purpose of the Post-test, a delayed Post-test was administered for both the Control and Experimental Groups two weeks after the Post-test to be sure that there was real gaining in the treatment for the Experimental Group and in fact to make confident that the treatment was really effective. Then, there was a comparison between the Control and the Experimental Groups regarding the descriptive statistics and also a paired t-test was administered based on the results.

C. Data Analysis Procedures

To study the differences between the two groups, the researcher used different statistical instruments such as mean, mode, variance, SD, and three paired t-tests (between group t-tests) with .05 Level of Significance.

II. RESULTS

Looking at Table 1 (Descriptive statistics of the pre-test taken by both control and experimental groups), we see that there is no significant difference between the two groups regarding their mean and Standard Deviation. As we see, the SD of Control Group Pre-test is .48310 and the SD of Experimental Pre-test is .38453. The range in Pre-test Control Group is 1.75 and it is 1.5 for Pre-test Experimental Group (The Mean of Control Group Pre-test is 1.6375 and the Mean of Experimental Pre-test is 1.5125). However, looking at Table 2., we can see that the SD in Post-test Control Group is .31519 while the SD of Post-test Experimental Group is .63037 (Almost double that of the Post-test Control Group SD). Too, the Mean in both groups is very much different. In other words, the Mean of Post-test Control Group is 1.6750 but the Mean of the Post-test Experimental Group is 8.6000.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CONTROL/EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS PRE-TEST

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic
PreCGroup	20	1.75	.75	2.50	1.6375	.10803	.48310	.233
PreEGroup	20	1.50	.50	2.00	1.5125	.08598	.38453	.148
Valid N (listwise)	20							

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CONTROL/EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS POST-TEST

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic
PoCGroup	20	1.00	1.25	2.25	1.6750	.07048	.31519	.099
PoEGroup	20	2.00	7.50	9.50	8.6000	.14096	.63037	.397
Valid N (listwise)	20							

Meanwhile, looking at Table 3., we see the results based on paired t-test which showed that there was no significant difference between the performance of subjects in the Pre-test Control Group and that of the Experimental Group. The T-Observed with 95% Confidence interval of the differences with 19 degree of freedom was .990 which is by far lower than what it should be to show a meaningful difference between the performance of the Control and Experimental Groups. (To be meaningful, the amount of Observed T with 95% Confidence interval of the differences with 19 degree

of freedom must be at least 2.093). So, we can conclude that there was no significant difference between the two groups regarding their performance. In other words, there was no superiority of one group over the other. However, Table 4. (Paired t-test of Post-test Control/Experimental groups), shows a great difference between the performance of subjects in the two groups. This means that the amount of Observed T with 95% Confidence interval of the differences with 19 degree of freedom was -51.911 which shows a significant difference between the two groups (The Experimental Group performed much better than the Control Group). In other words, the amount of Observed T shows that the Experimental group in the Pos-test Experimental Group could answer the cultural questions very well as they had learnt the American cultural points by attending the fifteen-session of classes in which the teacher analysed the L2 cultural issues. But this was not the case with the Post-test Control Group as they went through the ordinary reading classes in which ordinary texts were taught in a traditional manner. One point is also worth mentioning here and that is, in the “Tasks and data collection procedure” it was stated that, 10 different and additional American cultural-related questions were administered to both the experimental and the control groups in the same exam session to get more confident that the subjects (especially the experimental group) did not memorize the cultural issues that were presented in the short stories and folk-tales. The results revealed that still the experimental group was much better in their performance and this showed that they had not memorized the cultural issues as the questions were different from those taught in the classes and the latter set of questions were not among the materials used in the classes.

TABLE 3.
PAIRED T-TEST OF PRE-TEST CONTROL/EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

TABLE 1. TEST OF PRE-TEST CONTROL EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS								
	Paired Differences							
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 PreCGroup/PreEGroup	.12500	.56487	.12631	-.13937	.38937	.990	19	.335

TABLE 4.
PAIRED T-TEST OF POST-TEST CONTROL/EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	PAIRED T-TEST OF POST-TEST CONTROL EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS							
	Paired Differences							
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 PosCGroup/PosEGroup	-6.92500	.59659	.13340	-7.20421	-6.64579	-51.911	19	.000

As mentioned in the “Tasks and Data Collection Procedure” section, to make more confident that the results gained after the treatment were really due to the treatment not other things such as memorization, a delayed Post-Test was administered in which both the Control and the Experimental Groups took the test for the third time with the results given in Tables 5 and 6.

As we see in Table 5., there is still a great difference between the means of the Control and Experimental Groups in the Delayed Post Test (1.6875 vs. 7.9875). Meanwhile, the SD of the Control and Experimental Groups in the Delayed Post Test is by far different from each other (.40454 vs. 1.71961).

Meanwhile, regarding the paired t-test results gained for the Control/Experimental Groups’ Delayed Post-Test (as shown in Table 6), we can see that still the amount of observed t is -16.957 which means that still there is a significant difference between the two groups regarding their performance on the test results. In other words, after two weeks, still the Experimental Group did have a much higher performance than the Control Group in the test given after the treatment. So, we can be more confident that the results gained are due to the treatment.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CONTROL/EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS’ DELAYED POST-TEST

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic
DPosCGroup	20	1.50	1.00	2.50	1.6875	.09046	.40454	.164
DPosEGroup	20	8.25	1.25	9.50	7.9875	.38452	1.71961	2.957
Valid N (listwise)	20							

TABLE 6.
PAIRED T-TEST OF CONTROL/EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS’ DELAYED POST-TEST

PAIRED T-TEST OF CONTROL/EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS DELAYED POST-TEST								
	Paired Differences							
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 DPosCGroup/DPosEGroup	-6.30000	1.66148	.37152	-7.07760	-5.52240	-16.957	19	.000

III. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

Taking a second look at the results, we can see that before the treatment, both groups were almost the same and there was no significant difference in the performance of the two groups. But, after the treatment, there was a significant difference in their performance in that the Experimental Group had by far a better performance than the Control Group. This means that the treatment was significantly effective. However, we can have some implications by looking at the tables. The first implication can be gained by looking at Tables 1 and 3. The implication is that in our language classes, culture is taught very little (if done at all). Unfortunately, instead of teaching L2/FL culture, teachers try to teach other things such as grammar or writing. This can be due to teachers' lack of familiarity with the L2/FL cultural issues. Another implication from Table 1 is that students might have heard some cultural issues from here and there (because all of the scores of both Control and Experimental Groups were above zero). This means that they might have some ideas of those cultural issues, but these ideas are either partly correct or half-clear and half-vague. This shows that there are some ideas, and students are not completely blank about the cultural issues; however, the point is that we don't know where they have got those ideas. Still, an implication taken from Table 4 is that although the treatment was successful before the Post-test, none of the subjects could answer the Post-test questions 100% correctly. Why? The reason can be due to the fact that learning L2 cultural issues is not a one-shot performance. In other words, one can't learn cultural issues by hearing or seeing them only once as some of them might be so strange that one may need to see or hear them several times in order to learn them or to keep them in mind. However, they were useful as they caused a drastic change in the scores of the Experimental Group.

Based on what was said above, one can state that language and culture are inseparable from each other and to learn a language well, one must try to learn the culture of that language as much as possible. So, without learning the L2 culture, it is almost impossible to get a sound knowledge of the second language. Too, different definitions of the word culture were presented from different scholars and it was pointed out that culture can mean different things to different scholars as some of them use it with small 'c' to refer to the behavioural patterns and the everyday lifestyles of people while others use it with capital 'C' to mean art, music, literature, politics, etc. Meanwhile, as it was said, though teaching culture is very much important, unfortunately so few teachers pay attention to this very important issue and instead, pay more attention to other aspects of language such as grammar and vocabulary and spend the class time mostly to those parts. This is because they don't know how to teach culture. Besides, it was stated that learning culture in conditions in which there is an opportunity for language learners to travel to the L2 countries is much more appropriate but not all learners have this opportunity. So, the best possible way would be using literature or literary works to teach the cultural issues of the L2 to the learners. However, it should be mentioned that using literature or literary works for the purpose of teaching culture and cultural issues must be done in an organized way and under complete supervision. Otherwise, there will be no proper result other than mere waste of time.

APPENDIX A SAMPLE OF CULTURAL QUESTIONS ASKED IN BOTH PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

1. When is the Independence Day in America?
2. When is President's Day?
3. When is Halloween and what do American people do on that day?
4. Why do people hold Thanksgiving Day and what do they do in that day?
5. When is Mother's Day in America?
6. When is April Fool's Day?
7. What is Good Friday?
8. When is Holy Saturday and why is it called Holy?
9. What is Inauguration Day?
10. What is Ladies' Day and why is it significant?
11. When is Ester? What is so specific about that day?

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On WebQuest-based Metacognitive Speaking Strategy Instruction

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Abstract—Under the guidance of WebQuest theory and O'Malley and Chamot's five-step mode strategy learning theory, This paper has designed a WebQuest-based metacognitive strategy learning activity and made it into practice on a college junior class, not only the necessity of strategy training in oral English instruction is highlighted in the study, but also study results show that the designed program has enhanced learners' ability to plan, adjust, and evaluate in oral English learning.

Index Terms—WebQuest, metacognitive strategy, oral English instruction

I. INTRODUCTION

A. *WebQuest*

WebQuest is an instructional procedure or learning plan which is developed by Professor Borne Dodge and Professor Tom March in the year of 1995. According to the complexity of tasks, WebQuest plan can be as short as one course or as long as one week even one month. Learners need to actively participate in certain given activities so as to complete the given tasks through analysis of abundant resources. Generally speaking, a complete WebQuest course is made up of four parts:

In the introduction part, the background information of the learning task is presented and certain learning circumstances are established to inspire learners' interest and to encourage learners to make efforts to solve learning problems.

In the task part, specific task will be described in detail, and learners are asked to hand in a piece of elaborate work which is in the form of a whole document such as a PPT, a Webpage, a report or a paper and so on.

In the resources part (the process part), This part is mainly a material center; some information can be offered in advance as the anchor point for students to search for other information.

In the evaluation part, a certain set of criterions to identify whether the learning achievement are satisfying or not.

B. *Metacognitive Strategies in Oral English (OE)*

Researchers seem to commonly agree that metacognition refers to a persons' cognition about cognition, and during the past few years, researches showed that metacognition plays an important role in language acquisition especially in writing. Studies indicated that metacognition can be taught to learners and metacognitive strategies can be trained, still many experimental studies at home and abroad having shown that metacognitive strategy plays a potential role in promoting oral English. Given the length of this article, those studies and researches will not be detailed illustrated, but the following is an experimental study which will too, re-affirm the idea above. Doubtless, while using a language, speakers need to distinguish meaningful information from meaningless information; they also need to recognize their own roles according to the context, whereas these skills are what metacognitive strategies can help with. Therefore, metacognitive speaking strategy instruction is necessary.

C. *Extracurricular Learning*

Since we pay attention to extracurricular English learning in this study, the concept of learner autonomy cannot be overlooked. The term learner autonomy was first put forward by Holec in the 1970s. Holec's definition of learner autonomy was: the ability to take charge of one's own learning and to take charge of one's own learning is to have, to hold, the responsibility for the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning. Ever since the birth of learner autonomy, it has become a hot topic for foreign language educators both at home and abroad. In the recent years, Holec's definition of Learner autonomy has been misunderstood as being no more than self-instruction by many teachers and researchers. Until now, the meaning of this term remains uncertain because different definitions are established by researchers from

different perspectives.

In recent years, educationists have made great efforts in helping learners study English in out-class environment, and extracurricular activities have been so popularly used since English learning has been hot in China. Newspapers, internet and some other kinds of mediums are all taken advantage of to implement extracurricular learning; meanwhile, with the development of new technology, various materials including audio, video tape and other digital materials online have appeared. The appearance of various digital materials proves that the learning of English enjoys a more particular advantage in the Web-based learning environment compared with the learning of other knowledge; to optimize the effectiveness of language teaching, teachers should and must best explore the potential of extracurricular learning space.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

The current study is aimed at designing a WebQuest-based Training (WQT) program and applying it to an experimental study. The following two questions need to be answered:

Firstly, whether Integrating WebQuest construction into metacognitive strategy training steps is feasible or not?

Secondly, whether the WQT program could enhance learners' ability to plan, adjust, and evaluate their oral English or improve their speaking performance.

The subjects of the experiment were 60 college junior students chosen from a military college. The subjects took part in the regular OE course (five-week optional course). They met twice a week, every time in 100-minute classes, instructed by the same teacher, and followed the same syllabus. In light of WebQuest-based instruction, the subjects were divided into six groups on the basis of voluntary, they are required to collaborate after class in order to construct a complete set of WebQuest regarding the three different metacognitive strategies (self-planning, self-monitoring and self-evaluation). Our instructions for WebQuest construction focus on the following four aspects:

Firstly, in the introduction part, after each group has chosen one metacognitive strategy as their common topic. Teachers tell the learners that the aim of this part is to present background information of the learning task, and then certain learning circumstances can be established to inspire the other learners' interest and to encourage them to make efforts to solve relevant learning problems.

Secondly, in the task part, the requirements are: specific task should be described in detail by each group according to their chosen topic, and a piece of elaborate work which is in the form of a whole document such as a PPT, a report or a paper and so on should be specifically requested. The most important thing is that those works should be authentic, feasible and attractive to students.

Thirdly, the resources part is mainly finished by the teachers, but learners are authorized to renew or complement it with their own materials.

Lastly, in the conclusion part, and designers are required to set up certain set of criteria to identify whether the learning achievement are satisfying or not, the criteria should be clear and easy to understand by learners. Each group should present their WebQuest so as to be shared by other groups.

Totally, There are four weeks to do the instruction (as required, the foreign teacher will give lectures for one week, thus the three metacognitive strategies are distributed in three weeks respectively and the last week was for teacher to make evaluation). Two parallel components were consisted of in the procedure of data collection: quantitative and qualitative parts. In the quantitative part, all sixty students were asked to answer two questionnaires regarding their speaking preferences and views on oral English instruction. The former questionnaire before the learning program was to explore the level of students' metacognitive awareness, and students' expectations for oral language teaching were also identified. The latter questionnaire was conducted after the program; the purpose was to see whether any changes in students' metacognitive awareness have occurred and whether this kind of program is acceptable to students. All questions were designed with a 5-point scale, from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

In the qualitative part, six of the subjects were chosen to accept interviews respectively before and after the WQT program. Interviews before the learning were to supplement with some information about students' difficulties in oral English and their current knowledge about metacognitive strategy. Both of the quantitative and qualitative data were equally important since they answered the same set of questions from different perspectives.

III. RESULTS ANALYSIS

A. Attitudes toward English Oral English and Oral English Instruction

As the table below has shown: most of the students have realized the importance of oral English in their English study, and they indeed have made many efforts to improve oral English performance, but few of them consider that their current oral English achievement is as satisfying as what they expect (Means=3.25). Therefore, students hold great expectation for improving their oral English performance with the help of teachers.

TABLE 3.1
INFORMATION OF WEBQUEST ACTIVITY

Item	Experimental group	
	Means	Std
I think oral English plays an important role in English study.	1.30	0.44
I make great efforts to practice oral English.	1.29	0.68
I am satisfied with my oral English.	3.25	0.55
I know how to learn oral English well	3.61	0.81
I am satisfied with the current teaching method in oral English class	2.31	0.64
I hope the teachers could offer more help and guidance for me to practice oral English after class.	1.77	0.43

B. Attitudes toward WebQuest-based Learning

As for the popularity and effectiveness of WebQuest-based learning mode, there are six questions concerned. See table 3.2:

Forty-four students out of sixty consider that WebQuest is beneficial to their studies (Item 3). But less than half of the subjects are fully engaged in the learning mode (Item 2), in order to identify the reasons, the experimenter has designed specific interviews with some subjects. It is said that students feel a little at loss at first sight of WebQuest because they have never studied in this way, some reported that they were very suspicious of the effect at first but days later they gradually got enough confidence in themselves because they thought it was funny to do some work like this and they can enjoy their working hours very much. In the end of the learning program, six complete WebQuests are handed in and four of them are done eligibly, they mainly contain the six parts: introduction, task, process, resources, evaluation and conclusion.

TABLE 3.2
INFORMATION OF WEBQUEST ACTIVITY

Item	Number of students for each Choice					Mean Score
	1	2	3	4	5	
1	32	22	1	1		1.61
2	24	26	4	5	1	1.90
3	44	15	1			1.32
4	30	18	11	1		1.77
5	56	2	2			1.16
6	28	22	10			1.70

C. Changes of Learners' Metacognitive Awareness

The mean and standard deviation reflect subjects' awareness and employment of metacognitive strategy. The higher the mean is, the less the subjects are likely to comprehend metacognitive strategy; the higher the standard deviation is, the more different the subjects are in realizing and choosing MS. Since subjects rated their statement on a 5-point scale, the higher the score, the less confirmative answer was made by the students; otherwise it was more agreed by the students.

TABLE 3.3
INFORMATION OF METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS

Item	Exp-group			
	Be-WQ		Af-WQ	
	means	Sd	means	Sd
1	1.26	0.56	1.02	0.44
2	2.33	0.79	1.05	0.29
3	3.49	0.76	1.26	0.54
4	2.89	0.52	1.47	0.56
5	2.77	0.45	1.14	0.58
6	1.36	0.71	1.07	0.55

D. Effect of WebQuest on Oral English Instruction

Scores of the following items in table 2.4 has decreased most which indicates that after the WebQuest-based learning of metacognitive strategies, students' metacognitive awareness has improved and they are more willing to conduct self-evaluation and self-planning compared with self-monitoring. The awareness of self-monitoring has also improved, though not as high as that of self-evaluation and self-planning.

TABLE 3.4
IMPROVEMENTS IN METACOGNITIVE STRATEGY USE

I can tell exactly whether I have finished a good or bad oral English task	1.26 vs. 1.02
I know what my shortcomings and strong points are in oral English.	1.78 vs. 1.45
I can use strategies to help me speak English better.	2.21 vs. 1.17
I make plans for achieving oral English goals.	2.33 vs. 1.05
I always check whether I have carried out the oral English plans well.	2.77 vs. 1.14

IV. FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Although there are some limitations regarding this study. First, the focus on the non-English majors limits generalization to learners in other regions. Second, the current research held a high demand for teachers who should have a knowledge system about WebQuest and constructivist theory, since it is difficult to find another teacher that is qualified for the work, only the experimenter herself as an instructor has taken part in the experiment. The main findings of this study are given below:

Firstly, the necessity of improving oral English instruction is highlighted. Compared with other students in universities, military college students are a special group of English learners in China: firstly, students in MC spend less time studying English because of other tough work and responsibilities; secondly, after graduation more practical ability are required for MC students. In consideration of the above factors, practical and effective ways should be found to better MC students' oral English instruction.

Secondly, WebQuest is a very good way to realize students' extracurricular learning under teachers' guidance. WebQuest has a great significance in assisting college students in autonomous learning, cooperative study and creative ability.

Thirdly, students had a favorable perception of the WebQuest-based learning. The WQL (WebQuest-based Learning) mode does facilitate instruction. As a learning outcome of the experiment, students improved their knowledge of metacognitive strategies, strengthened their metacognitive awareness. The experiment has also indicated that the metacognition-centered learning based on WebQuest was effective in promoting speakers' proficiency.

In all, Metacognitive strategies could be well mastered through self-construction of WebQuest. By developing students' capacity for becoming autonomous learners, metacognitive awareness in oral English learning has been strengthened.

Still some recommendations:

1. Students in Millitary College hold high expectations for improving their oral English, since class time is limited for students to study oral English, it is necessary and feasible for teachers to take advantage of extracurricular time to optimize oral English instruction.

2. Metacognitive awareness is a significant factor that affects learners' performance, both teachers and researchers should pay special attention to learners' metacognitive awareness training.

3. Teachers should, on one hand, take full advantage of extracurricular activities to encourage and guide students to use metacognitive strategies in English learning; on the other hand, tools like emails, OICQ, WebQuest, Weblogs or any other techniques to learn metacognitive strategies, activities such as group work, reviewing and discussion are suggested.

All in all, with the development of information age in which more and more teachers and students can easily get access to internet, the application of WebQuest in students-centered learning should and will display its great potentials in many ways, oral English instruction based on WebQuest in China leaves much room for teachers to take practice.

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An Analysis of Culture-specific Items in the Persian Translation of “*Dubliners*” Based on Newmark’s Model

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Abstract—Different cultures influence the way the members of a society view and perceive the world. This principle is important in the translation phenomenon. What is important for a translator is the purpose of conveying the message of the source text in a way understandable for the audience in the target text (TT). Therefore, every translator should have some knowledge about how to deal with different strategies of translating culture specific item (CSI); hence this issue is one of the most important concerns for all translators. In translation CSI refers to those concepts and references of the vocabulary items which are peculiar to the given culture. Sometimes these concepts and references are common to all languages, but they are expressed in a way peculiar to the culture of the source text (ST). Using an appropriate and suitable method in dealing with CSIs is one of the main duties of every translator. In this paper an attempt has been made to show how the translation of *Dubliners* jointly by Safaryan and Salehhosseini handle the translation of CSIs in this story based on Newmark’s model (1988). Newmark described fourteen methods for translating CSIs: transference, naturalization, cultural equivalent, functional equivalent, descriptive equivalent, componential analysis, synonymy, through-translation, shift, modulation, accepted standard translation, compensation, paraphrase, couplet and finally notes. Although there are different ways and methods for translating CSIs, we show here that the translator sometimes cannot find a completely corresponding equivalent for them in the TT. This is somehow related to Jakobson’s (1959/2000, p.114) idea that in translation “there is ordinarily no full equivalence between code- units”.

Index Terms—translation, culture-specific items, Newmark, literary translation, equivalence, *Dubliners*

I. INTRODUCTION

Many translation theorists have tried to define culture. Newmark sees culture as “the way of life and its manifestation to uses a particular language as its means of expression” (1998, p. 94). Finding the best equivalent for culture specific items (CSIs) in translation is one of the main concerns for each translator. Translation as defined by Miremedi (1993, p.23) is a reciprocal process from one culture to the other and from other cultures into one culture. In other words, there is a “give- and-take process”. In this process, translators deal with some non-equivalent words for which they should find an appropriate equivalent.

The translators need to find an equivalent with the same concept in the target text (TT). In cases where concepts are not identical, they cannot be used interchangeably in even two dialects of the same language. There are many words in each language for which there is no “full equivalent” (Jakobson, 1959/2000, p.114) in the TT. One of the most difficult problems a translator face is how to find lexical equivalents for the areas and aspects which are not known in the receptor culture i.e. there is not a corresponding word or phrase in the receptor language easily available for the translation. A translator has to consider not only the two languages but also the two cultures, since there will be some concepts in the source language, which do not have lexical equivalents in the target language. This may be due to difference of geography, customs, beliefs, worldview, and various other factors (Larson, 1998, p.163). Even if close equivalents are found, they can rarely reveal and convey exactly the same messages.

Sometimes, there are some words or phrases in one language which are unknown for another language. This phenomenon is called “semantic void or lexical gap” (Gambier et.al, 2004, p.11). In some cultures lexical gap may be observed in a way that people make distinctions between different aspects of a concept. For instance, the Arabs use 20 different words to identify different kinds of camels and they “conceptualize camels more specifically...in their cultural groups” (Stemberg et.al, 2009, p.388). However people in other countries like Iran do not make any distinctions between different kinds of camels; they use a generic word for all these different aspects. In their hypothesis of linguistic relativity, Edward Sapir and Benjamin Whorf also hold that the language we speak both affects and reflects

our view of the world (cited in Armstrong, 2005, p.16). In a popular 1940 article, Whorf referred to Eskimo languages having seven distinct words for snow. In some communities, this concept may not have been lexicalized. For example in some parts of the world the inhabitants have not seen snow, hence they don't have any word to carry the concept.

It is obvious that each community has its own CSIs peculiar to its language. Each word or expression may refer to a concept which is different from one language to another. For example, *pig* or *owl* may have the same denotative and dictionary meaning in different languages, but they may convey totally different and even opposite senses in two different languages depending on the culture of the society. It is necessary for a professional translator and even the students of translation to be aware of cultural differences. Translators should be able to find a range of possibilities that include all the diversities of translation strategies which can be used to solve the problems of translating CSIs between languages.

This research intends to identify some strategies for finding the meaning of culture specific items which are applied by different translators in different literary texts. The debates of this paper are illustrated by the use of some examples of the book *Dubliners* by James Joyce (1914) and its Persian translation jointly by Mohammad Ali Safaryan and Saleh hosseini (1993). The current study tries to investigate whether the translators have been successful in conveying the embedded culture specific items of the original text or not. Newmark's (1988) classification of CSIs has been adopted as the theoretical framework of this study.

II. CSIs IN TRANSLATION

Cultural aspects are of paramount importance in translation studies. This issue attracts the attention of many scholars in a way that we can say cultural debates are one of the central issues in "translatology". Talking about the translation of CSIs is also controversial, since a single identical word or phrase may be translated in different ways by different translators. However, what is important is the solution of a translator facing CSIs in the text for finding their appropriate meaning and a suitable equivalent for these items in the TT. Consequently it is important for translators to be familiar with different methods and strategies in dealing with CSIs.

A. Conveying Form and Meaning in the Translation of CSIs

There are different methods adopted by translators for translating CSIs. Some people may believe that we can't translate CSIs, since they are related to a specific culture. But Baker (1992, p.68) believes that "idioms and fixed expressions which contain culture-specific items are not necessarily understandable. It is not the specific items an expression contains but rather the meaning it conveys and its association with culture-specific context which can make it understandable or difficult to translate."

Based on this statement, the translation of CSI is not impossible, but rather complicated for the translator. Although the translator should try to convey both form and meaning, their goal is "to keep the meaning constant" and sometimes "the receptor language form should be changed in order that the source language meaning not be distorted" (Larson, 1998, p.12). In addition, Nida (1964) mentioned that whenever there is a "conflict" between form and content "correspondence in meaning must have priority over correspondence in style" (cited in Munday, 2001, p.42). Hence in the translation of CSIs the translator tries to focus on conveying the meaning, not the form. In other words, in the translation of these instances the priority is the meaning. We can consider idioms as a subdivision of CSIs because they reflect aspects of the life of the TL speakers. For example, when the translator wants to translate "to carry coals to Newcastle" to Persian by conveying the form of the original, the meaning will be lost. In Persian the meaning of this equivalent is expressed in the following proverb:

زیره به کرمان بردن

/zIrə bə kərman bordan/

To take caraway to Kerman.

A Persian native speaker knows that زیره (caraway) is something that we can find large quantities in Kerman. Therefore, it is the translator's duty to keep the meaning of the original sometimes at the cost of SL form.

B. The Translation of CSIs in the Context of Globalization

Globalization describes a social trend that intensifies relations between societies and nations, a process by which decisions, events and activities from one part of the world have strong influences on other distant parts of the world (Sandrini, 2006, p.110). It plays an important role in different aspects of our life such as economy, politics, language, translation, etc. However, in the globalized world, translation studies and more specifically translation of CSIs become more important. Globalization makes people interested in familiarity with other cultures in different aspects. Translation and globalization, therefore, are interrelated.

Wiersema (2004) believes that globalization is important in translation, because it makes different cultures closer to each other. He expresses that "context explains culture, and adopting (not necessarily adapting) a selection of words enriches the target text, makes it more exotic and thus more interesting for those who want to learn more about the culture in question". As a result each text is produced in the context of a certain culture and has its specific values, behaviors and norms and is expressed by CSIs in that culture. In some cases these CSIs are global. It means that they

may have the same sense and concept in many different languages which are expressed by different forms. Therefore there is no problem in translating of the text. The problem is when the concept has been globalized.

C. Language and Culture

It is obvious that language and culture are closely interwoven. Human beings can express different aspects of their culture by using language. Therefore, language can influence the way of our thinking. Sapir acknowledges the close relationship between language and culture, he believes that these two aspects are inextricably related; consequently, we cannot understand or appreciate the one, without knowledge of another (1929, p.207). He describes that "No two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality" (ibid, p. 69).

In Whorf's view, language provides a screen or filter to reality; it determines how speakers perceive and organize the world. Consequently, the language that we speak helps us to shape our world view. It defines our experience (cited in Wardhaugh, 2010, p.233). Language is, therefore, not just a means for communication, but rather an influential factor in our way of thinking. Considering Sapir and Whorf's hypothesis, we can conclude that the person's environment and culture affect his understanding of the message.

Snell-Hornby (1988, p.35) stated that "both the translator and the translation theorists are... concerned with a world between disciplines, language and culture". She adds that the relationship between language and culture was first formally formulated by Wilhelm Von Humboldt who knows language as something dynamic and also as an expression of culture of the speakers, who understand and perceive the world through language (ibid. p.40).

D. Problems in Translating CSIs

The world that we live in, is full of different languages; these languages live in the context of different cultures manifesting different aspects of life. As far as the relation among these languages is concerned, translation becomes an indispensable necessity. Translators face many problems in translating CSIs, and translation scholars suggest some methods to solve them.

In translation of CSIs the translator may confront some problems. As Leppihalme (1997, p.2) reports, some researchers consider "extralinguistic phenomena from natural to man made. Extralinguistic problems are often expressed as lexical... Others see culture bound translation problems as mainly intralinguistic and pragmatic". He adds "Culturally oriented translation studies do not see the ST and TT as samples of linguistic material. The texts occur in a given situation in a given culture in the world and each has a specific function and an audience of its own" (ibid, p.3).

People belonging to the same linguistic community are members of a certain type of culture. They possess shared traditions, habits, behavior, and common knowledge about their society and many other aspects. Consequently, in interlingual communication where two or more cultures exist, the translator may face some limitations which impede the process of understanding the TT by the reader. The translator has not only the problem of linguistic obstacles but also the problem of cultural barriers (Komissarov, 1991, pp.33-4). What is necessary for translators is that they should find an appropriate method in dealing with CSIs based on the text and the situation. Lacking some concepts in one of the two languages in translation process is problematic for the translator. There are some concepts in one language that are completely absent in another language. For example in Persian we have some new words which are common often among young people, like *خفن* /xafan/ (The perfect and best way or thing) or *ضایع* /zaye/ (Very bad thing and situation; used for animate and inanimate things).

On the other hand sometimes it is possible that the TT and ST reader have totally different understanding of a single concept in two different languages. For example, some religious words like *کافر*, *زکات*, *حج*, *جهاد*, *نماز* may have a near-synonym equivalent in the TT, but they cannot render the same concepts as the original. Obviously understanding these words by a reader of the ST is different from the understanding of the TT readers. Different categorizations of the concepts in languages are also problematic in the translation process. Among these concepts, *divergence* and *convergence* are two main points that should be noticed by a translator (Fawcett, 1997, p.43). Divergence occurs when a single item in the ST splits to two or more items in the TT. For example, the verb *دیدن* /didan/ in Persian can diverge into English *see*, *watch*, *look at*. In contrast, when two or more items in the ST merge into just one item in the TT, it is called *convergence*. For example, the Persian *خاله* /xale/, *عمه* /amme/, *زن دایی* /zandayee/ and *زن عمو* /zan amoo/ (differentiate by their relationship to father or mother) converge into English *aunt*. However in English there is no such a distinction.

III. STRATEGIES IN TRANSLATING CSIs FROM DIFFERENT POINT OF VIEWS

Different scholars have analyzed the strategies and procedures involved in the translation of CSIs, suggesting various classifications of such strategies. One of the pioneers in this field was Newmark (1988). He suggests a number of procedures for translating CSIs, namely transference, naturalization, cultural equivalence, functional equivalence, descriptive equivalence, synonymy, through-translation, shift or transposition, modulation, recognized translation, translation label, compensation, componential analysis, reduction and expansion, paraphrase, couplet, and notes (1988, pp.81-93).

In more recent studies some other classifications have been suggested for such strategies. Graedler (2000, p.3) observes translators applying such methods as: making up a new word, selecting a word in the TL which seems similar

to or has the same “relevance” as the SL term, preserving the SL term intact, explaining the meaning of the SL expression instead of translating it.

Pederson (2005, p.3) employed the word “rendering” instead of “translating” and also the term Extralinguistic Culture-bound Reference (ECR) instead of Culture Specific Item (CSI). According to Pedersen, culture-bound terms may be intralinguistic and extralinguistic culture-bound references. Based on Pederson’s statement, strategies for rendering extralinguistic CSIs are SL oriented and TL oriented.

Source language oriented strategy consists of three subcategories: (Pederson, 2005, pp.3-9)

a. Retention. This strategy is SL oriented, since an item from the SL can enter the TT. In some cases the culture-bound term is distinguished from other parts by the employment of some symbols like quotation marks and italics.

b. Specification. It means that the translator doesn’t translate CSI and leaves it in “its untranslated form”, but s/he adds some extra information in the TT that doesn’t exist in ST, thus making the target CSI more specific than the CSI of the ST. This is done through Explication or Addition.

b.1. Explication. “Explication could be seen as any strategy involving the expansion of the text, or spelling out anything that is implicit in the source text.”

b.2. Addition. It means that the added material is not obvious in the CSI of the ST, “as part of the sense or connotations of the term”.

c. Direct translation. In this strategy “the semantic load”, of CSI of the ST doesn’t change and “nothing is added, or subtracted.” This strategy has two subgroups: *calque* which is the result of literal translation, and *shifted direct translation* which refers to those terms that are common in target culture and are “less SL oriented”.

Pederson suggests three subcategories for target language oriented strategies:

a. Generalization. This involves replacing a CSI “referring to something specific by something more general. Typically, this involves hyponymy”.

b. Substitution. It is the removal of CSIs of the SL and “replacing them with something else, either a different term or some sort of paraphrase, which does not necessarily involve” a cultural term. This strategy consists of two subgroups: cultural substitution and paraphrase.

b.1. Cultural substitution. It means that the CSI of the ST is removed, and replaced by a different CSI. These CSIs which are used in TT are completely known by the audience.

b.2. Paraphrase. “This strategy involves rephrasing the source culture-specific item, either through reduction to sense, or by completely removing all trace of the cultural term and instead using a paraphrase that fits the context”.

c. Omission. It means “replacing the ST with nothing.” Of course, what is obvious is that this strategy should be the last choice of the translator if we believe that a good translator should be faithful to the original text.

We can see many of these strategies described by different scholars are the same and they describe identical phenomena, but they are called by different names.

Hervey and Higgins (2006) mentioned that it is better for a translator to use cultural translation instead of literal translation. They believe that cultural transposition has a scale of degrees. This scale is from a degree which is based on source culture (exoticism) and moves toward the degree which is mostly based on target culture (cultural transplantation). It includes: (cited in Mizani, 2003)¹.

a. Exoticism: “The degree of adaptation is very low here. The translation carries the cultural features and grammar of SL to TL. It is very close to transference”

b. Calque: “Calque includes TL words but in SL structure therefore while it is unidiomatic to target reader but it is familiar to a large extent”.

c. Cultural Borrowing: “It is to transfer the ST expression verbatim into the TT. No adaptation of SL expression into TL forms. After a time they usually become a standard in TL terms. Cultural borrowing is very frequent in history, legal, social, political texts; for example, “La langue” and “La parole” in linguistics”.

d. Communicative Translation: “Communicative translation is usually adopted for culture specific clichés such as idioms, proverbs, fixed expression, etc. In such cases the translator substitutes SL word with an existing concept in target culture. In cultural substitution the propositional meaning is not the same but it has similar impact on target reader. The literal translation here may sound comic. The degree of using this strategy sometimes depends on the license which is given to the translator by commissioners and also the purpose of translation”.

e. Cultural Transplantation “The whole text is rewritten in target culture. The TL word is not a literal equivalent but has similar cultural connotations to some extent. It is another type of extreme but toward target culture and the whole concept is transplanted in TL. A normal translation should avoid both exoticism and cultural transplantation”.

IV. PROCEDURE

This study is a descriptive and library research and its aim is to carry out an analysis and description of strategies applied by different translators to cope with CSIs and to find whether these strategies are universal or idiosyncratic. Therefore, the translation of a literary text was compared with the original text and each strategy was illustrated by examples for better understanding.

¹. <http://www.translationdirectory.com/articles/article1507.php>

After studying the classifications of cultural categories by translation scholars, a general view about these categories was acquired and then during the comparison of the source and the target text the culture bound terms or CSIs were extracted. The theoretical framework of this research is based on what Newmark (1988) expressed in his book “*A Textbook of Translation*” about the translation of CSIs.

The English sentences in which the CSIs occurred and their translation were extracted from *Dubliners* by James Joyce (1914) and its Persian translation *دوبلینی‌ها* /dublInIha/ which is translated by Salehhosseini and Mohammad Ali Safaryan (1993). For a few number of strategies, we found no examples. In these cases, an attempt has been made to use some other Persian translations just for the sake of exemplification.

The next process was searching for the exact meaning of the terms in the Webster and Oxford dictionaries. Having identified CSIs of the literary text, we went on to the last step which was selecting different semantic voids from different domains.

A. Newmark's Model

There are some strategies which translator can use to fill the lexical gaps in the translation of culture specific items. These strategies are described by many translation scholars. For Newmark (1988, p.82) the term *cultural equivalent* means “an approximate translation where a SL cultural word is translated by a TL cultural word”. In this part, strategies described by Newmark (mentioned in part 3), will be explained and illustrated in detail through some Persian sentences extracted from the translation of *Dubliners* for better understanding.

In 1964, Nida took up the problems of correspondence and translation of some items which are different culturally in SL and TL. He concluded that the differences between the cultures will cause the translator to face many problems and complications. He also explained that the parallels in culture often provide a common understanding despite significant formal shifts in translation. Newmark used this point of view and described his five “cultural categories” and their sub-categories that culture specific items may come from (1988, pp.94-103).

He proposed a classification for classifying foreign cultural words. These five categories are:

- 1) Ecology (flora, fauna, winds, plains, hills)
- 2) Material culture (food, clothes, houses and towns, transport)
- 3) Social culture (work and leisure)
- 4) Organizations, customs, activities, procedures, concepts (political and administrative, religious, artistic)
- 5) Gesture and habits

In what follows, some strategies are described accompanied by their example (s) for finding an appropriate equivalence for CSIs which are described by Newmark (In some cases it is also expressed by some other translation scholars by different names). We, then, identify the class into which each example falls.

a. Transference

According to Newmark (1988, p.81) “Transference is the process of transferring a SL word to a TL text as a translation procedure”. He believes that only cultural objects or concepts related to a small group should be transferred (ibid). When the translators face the following cases, they should use the method of *transference*: name of all living or dead people, geographical names, name of the periodical and newspapers, titles of untranslated literary works, plays, films; names of private companies and institutions, names of public institutions; street names and addresses (ibid, p.82). As Kalèdaitè (2005, p.32) puts in his article, Newmark's *transference* (1988, p.81), Harvey and Higgins' *cultural borrowing* (1992, p.31), Baker's *Loan words* (1992, p.34), Chesterman's *exoticizing* (1997) and finally Schaffner and Wiesemann's *naturalization* (2001) are identical. Newmark believes that the translator uses this method to “attract the reader or to give a sense of intimacy between the text and the reader” (Newmark, 1988, p.82).

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
1	The Rev. James Flynn , aged sixty- five years.	James Flynn died in sixty-five years.	جناب قدسی مرتبت جیمز فلین در شصت و پنج سالگی به رحمت ایزدی پیوست.

James Flynn is the name of “living people”, so the translator transferred (transliterated) it.

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
2	He had a little library made up of old numbers of The union Jack, Pluck and The Halfpenny Marvel .	He had a little library full of old version of some magazines of The union Jack, Pluck and The Halfpenny Marvel.	کتابخانه ی کوچکی داشت از نسخه های قدیمی مجله های دیوینون جک، پلاک و هاف پنی مارول

In this sentence we have the name of some “untranslated literary texts” so they should be transferred to the TT. This example falls into Newmark's third kind of categorization (*social culture*).

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
3	Near it on plate lay a very light plum- pudding .	Beside it, on the plate, there was a piece of very soft plum	کنار آن در بشقاب تکه ای پودینگ آلوی بسیار نرم قرار داشت.

Pudding is a sweet and usually hot dish made with pastry, flour, bread or rice, and often fruit. In this sentence the translator has used the word itself in the Persian sentence and *pudding* is transferred into TL.

It falls into Newmark's second categorization, *material culture* because *pudding* is the name of a *food* which is one of the sub-categories of *material culture*.

b. Naturalization

"This procedure succeeds transference and adapts the SL word first to the normal pronunciation, then to the normal morphology of the TL" (ibid, p.82).

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
4	...like the word <i>gnomon</i> in the Euclid and the word <i>simony</i> in the Catechism.	—	مثل کلمه ی نومون در هندسه ی اقلیدسی و کلمه ی «شمعونی» در شرعیات.

This example falls to Newmark's forth categorization; since we deal with *religious* terms.

c. Cultural Equivalent

This strategy is "an approximate translation where a SL cultural word is translated by a TL cultural word" (Newmark, 1988, p.83). However, "they are not accurate".

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
5	A companion dish on which lay a solid rectangle of Smyrna figs, a dish of <i>custard</i> topped with grated nutmeg.	There was a plate of custard which was covered by a solid rectangle of Smyrna figs.	یک ظرف <i>فرنی</i> با رویه ای از جوز هندی سوده آنجا بود.

Custard is a pudding-like usually sweetened mixture made with eggs and milk. In Persian, the most natural equivalent for this word is *فرنی*/færni/, however it cannot have the same connotative meaning. Materials which are used for making *فرنی* do not include egg and it has a combination of some other materials. So according to Newmark's statement explained above, the word *فرنی* in Persian is not an "accurate" equivalent for the English word.

فرنی is one of the sub-categories of Newmark's second general categorization which is *material culture*, since it is kind of *food*.

d. Functional equivalent

According to Newmark, functional equivalent "applied to cultural words, requires the use of a culture-free word, sometimes with a new specific term; it therefore neutralizes or generalizes the SL word". He also defines functional equivalent as "The most accurate way of translating i.e. deculturalizing a cultural word" (1988, p.83).

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
6	They <i>drink</i> for luck.	They drank a glass.	برای برخورداری شدن از بخت <i>گیلابی</i> نوشیدند.

In this sentence *drink* is a verb. Here it has been changed to a noun. In the Persian text, *Drink* is *alcoholic liquid* and it is a noun. So it is a general word, but in the translation sentence it is used more specific.

Again we deal with Newmark's second categorization (*material culture* and its sub-categorization that in this sentence is *food*).

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
7	Ignatius Gallaher made a <i>catholic gesture</i> with his right arm.	Ignatius Gallaher made a Cross gesture by his right hand.	ایگناتیوس گالا هر با دست راست به خود <i>صلیب</i> کشید.

Catholic gesture is kind of gesture which is familiar to SL readers, but the readers in Persian can understand it by the use of *صلیب* (cross). So the translator has narrowed the meaning of the word.

This sentence falls in Newmark's fifth category which is *gesture and habit*.

e. Descriptive equivalent

"Description and function are essential elements in explanation and therefore in translation" (Newmark, 1988, p.84). Using this strategy enable us to have a correct perception of CSIs by using other words and phrases. In this strategy the translator uses some descriptions to clarify the meaning for his audience. Nida (1964, p.237) mentioned "descriptive equivalents are deliberate attempts to produce satisfactory equivalents for objects, events, attributes and relationals for which no regular term exists in the receptor language". He also mentioned that the most common types of descriptive equivalents are objects and attributes (ibid).

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
8	Joe had gone to Belfast on a <i>White-Monday</i> trip.	Joe had gone to Belfast for the Holy Spirit.	جو در سفری به مناسبت <i>دوشنبه نزول روح القدس</i> به بلفاست رفته بود.

In this example the translator explains the underlined phrase for his audience in the TT. It is observable that the translator uses some words to describe the clear meaning for the reader of the TT. This sentence falls in to Newmark's fourth categorization (*Organizations, customs, activities, procedures, concepts*), since it is related to *religious* terms.

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
9	He revealed many of the secrets of <u>religious houses</u> on the continent.	He revealed a lot of the secrets of European religious houses.	بسیاری از اسرار <u>اماکن مذهبی اروپا</u> را فاش کرد.

In this sentence *religious house* is translated to *اماکن مذهبی اروپا* (religious places in Europe). The translator has used several words to transfer the exact meaning. Here we deal with Newmark's forth type of categorization which is *Organizations, customs, activities, procedures, concepts* since *religion* in this sentence is one of the sub-categories of the forth type. At the same time we have the word *house* in the sentence which is one of the sub-categories of *material culture* (Newmark's second category).

f. Componential analysis

As Larson (1998, p.59) has mentioned "a word is a "bundle" of meaning component. The translator needs to be able to analyze the lexical items of the source text in order to translate them. This means being able to "unpack" words in order for the meaning to be represented by the lexical form."

Componential analysis is defined as "comparing an SL word with a TL word which has a similar meaning but is not an obvious one-to-one equivalent, by demonstrating first their common and then their differing sense components. Normally the SL word has more specific meaning than the TL word" (Newmark, 1988, p.114).

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
10	He knew that people went there after the theatre to eat <u>oysters</u> and drink <u>liqueurs</u> .		می دانست مردم بعد از تئاتر به آنجا می روند تا غذای <u>خرچنگ</u> بخورند و <u>مشروب</u> بپاشامند.

Oxford advanced learner's dictionary defines *Oyster* as a large flat sea creature that lives in a shell, some types of which can be eaten either raw or cooked. The translator has used the word *خرچنگ* (crab) as the equivalent for it. Comparing SL and TL, it is obvious that both of these two words are sea food, but "there is no one to one correspondence" between them.

Liqueur is also a strong, sweet alcoholic drink which is usually drunk in small amounts at the end of a meal. The word *مشروب* (alcoholic drink) in Persian doesn't transfer such a meaning; so again we can say there is no one to one correspondence between *liqueur* in English and *مشروب* (alcoholic drink) in Persian.

What is obvious is that in translating *oyster* and *liqueur*, the translator deals with Newmark's second general categorization (*material culture*), since both of them are *food*. It is noticeable that the word *oyster* in TL belongs to Newmark's second categorization (*material culture*), however when it is translated into Persian *خرچنگ* (crab) in falls into the first categorization (*ecology*, of which one sub-categorization is *fauna*).

g. Synonymy

According to Newmark, *synonymy* is defined as a "near TL equivalent to a SL word" (1988, p.84).

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
11	My aunt was lading out my <u>stirabout</u> .	My aunt was lading out my soup.	زن عمیم داشت <u>شوریای</u> مرا با ملاقه می کشید.

Based on Webster unabridged dictionary, *Stirabout* is a dish formed of oatmeal boiled in water to a certain consistency and frequently stirred, or of oatmeal and dripping mixed together and stirred about in a pan; a hasty pudding. The best and "near TL equivalent" for this word in Persian which is chosen by translator is *شوربا* (the name of one kind of pottage). This equivalent in Persian can have the same sense on the reader.

Stirabout is the name of the *food* and it is related to Newmark's second categorization (*material culture*).

h. Through-translation

It is "The literal translation of common collocations, name of organizations, the components of compounds and perhaps phrases, which is also known as *calque* or *loan translation*" (Newmark. 1988, p.84).

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
12	But there he was, sitting up by himself in the dark in his <u>confession-box</u> .	He was sitting in the darkness of the confession chamber.	تنها در تاریکی <u>اتفاق</u> / <u>اعترا ف</u> نشسته بود.

No recognized translation exists for this item. It seems that the translator chooses a word-for-word translation.

i. Shifts or transpositions

This strategy "involves a change in the grammar from SL to TL". The first type of shift occurs when there is a change from singular to plural. The second type of shift is required when an SL grammatical structure does not exist in the TL. Finally the third type of shift is the one where literal translation is grammatically possible but may not accord

with the TL (Newmark, 1988, p.86). Of course we should know each of these changes are related to a certain categorization that are described by different translation scholars like Catford (2000, p.141-7) and Vinay and Darbelnet (2000, p.84-93).

Nida (1964, p.237) believes that “a shift may also be necessary when a word that seems to be of the same hierarchical level as the source language word actually occupies a different position because of cultural differences.”

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
13	He paused at last before the window of a shop over which the words refreshment bars were printed in white letters.	He hesitated in front of the window of a shop where were written "refreshment bars" at the top of it with white color.	برابر ویتترین مغازه ای که بالای آن کلمات نوشابه فروشی با حروف سفید چاپ شده بود مکت کرد.

In this sentence we can see the subject in both ST and TT is plural, but the verb is translated in a singular form. In ST both subject and its verb are correspondence but in Persian the subject is singular and its verb is plural. Therefore here we have intra-system shift (Catford, 2000, p.146).

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
14	In the Sacred College , you know, of cardinals and against it ops and bishops there were two men who held out against it.	Two men were not agreeing, in the holy place of cardinals and bishops.	در حوزه ی علمیه مقدس کاردینال ها و سر اسقف ها و اسقف ها دو نفر مخالف آن بودند.

In this sentence *college* is translated as *حوزه ی علمیه*. In this sentence we have some words which are not familiar for the TT reader. In other words we have a situation in which one aspect of a culture does not exist in another culture. As a result a shift has occurred. In this case we deal with Newmark's fourth type of categorization, because it is related to *religion*.

j. Modulation

In this strategy the translators try to create the message of the SL in the TL in conformity with the current norms of the TL. In *modulation* the SL and the TL may be different in terms of perspective (Newmark, 1988, p.88). Vinay and Darbelnet believe this strategy contains a change in semantic and point of view of the source language (1995, p. 94-9). Based on what they have mentioned, modulation may include: abstract for concrete, cause for effect, one part for another, reversal of terms, active for passive, space for time, intervals and limits and finally change of symbols (ibid, p.249).

(MODULATION IN TERMS OF CHANGE IN POINT OF VIEW):

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
15	...talking of faints and worms,...	...taking about malignant spirits and worms.	از ارواح خبیثه و کرم ها حرف می زد.

The meaning of *faint* based on advanced learner dictionary is “when someone suddenly becomes unconscious”. The translator uses the word *ارواح خبیثه* (manes) to TT. This is changing in point of view which is a kind of *modulation*. It means that the translator has changed somehow the view point of the SL writer.

This examples falls into Newmark's fourth categorization; since we deal with *concepts*.

(MODULATION IN TERMS OF CHANGE IN SEMANTIC):

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
16	Somebody'd shoot you for a coyote if you was by yourself. (Steinbeck, of Mice and Men, p16)	They may hunt you, instead of a bear, if you were by yourself.	اگر تنها باشی ممکن است تو را عوضی به جای خرس شکار کنند.

Coyote is a small wolf native to the Western part of North America. The translator replaced *coyote* by *خرس* (bear) and in this way changed the semantic and point of view of the SL which is called *modulation*.

Coyote is a kind of animal so we have *fauna* which is related to Newmark's first categorization (*ecology*).

k. Recognized translation

Newmark (1988, p.89) defined this procedure as “the official generally accepted translation of any institutional term”.

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
17	Farley acts as cavalier	Farley acts as knight.	فارلی نقش شوالیه را بر عهده گرفت.

The definition of *cavalier* in Oxford advanced learners is: a supporter of a king in the English Civil War in the 1640s. In Persian translation of this word the translator has chosen the term *شوالیه* which is “generally accepted” in TT.

l. Compensation

“This is said to occur when loss of meaning, sound- effect, metaphor or pragmatic effect in one part of a sentence is compensated in another part, or in contiguous sentence” (Newmark, 1988, p.90). Fawcett (1997, pp. 31-33) defines compensation as: “...when something in the source language is not translatable”. One example given by Fawcett is the

problem of translating of some words like tu/vous that are different based on the level of their formality. When they translate into English the only valid equivalent for them is 'you'. For illustrating this method in translation we consider a metaphor that has been occurred in the second hemistich of the second verse of the first ode of Hafiz Divan and English translation by Clarck (youssefi, 2009, 127).

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
18	ز تاب جعد مشکینش چه خون افتاد در دل ها	—	From the twist of its musky (dark, fragrant) curl , what blood (of grief) befell the hearts (of the lovers of God)!

As Youssefi has mentioned this translation includes two sets of metaphor, “the perfumed and dark curly hair” and “the dark and twisted path of the spiritual journey toward the true Beloved”. In the original text the two concepts are clear- both smell and color of the hair in just one word (مشکینش) - however in its translation, the word *musky* cannot render it by itself. Therefore in this case loss of meaning is compensated by another part.

m. Paraphrase

“This is an amplification or explanation of the meaning of a segment of the text” (Newmark, 1988, p. 90). Of course it is notable that Newmark is not completely agree to list *paraphrase* in translation procedures, “since the word is often used to describe free translation”. He explains that “if it is used in the sense of the minimal recasting of an ambitious or obscure sentence, in order to clarify it, I accept it” (ibid, p.91). Adopting Newmark’s idea, Kalèdaitè (2005, pp.32-3) suggested that the difference of this strategy and *descriptive equivalent* strategy (which is explained in number 5) is that in *paraphrase* the explanation is much more detailed than that of *descriptive equivalent*. Furthermore he makes a distinction between *paraphrase* and *functional equivalence* (number 4). He said that *functional equivalent* or *neutralization* (number 4) occurs at the word level, but *paraphrase* occurs at the higher linguistic level.

Kalèdaitè (ibid) talks about the similarities between *paraphrasing* and *functional equivalence* or *neutralization* (number 4) by using Newmark’s idea. He believes that *paraphrasing* is the same as *functional equivalent* when SL word become neutralized (number 4) or generalized (which is finding a more general word. For example the translator uses کلاه (hat) as an equivalent for *bonnet*. *Bonnet* is a kind of hat tied with strings under the chin, formerly worn by women. But because of the lexical gap that existed between source text and TT, the translator has to use the general term کلاه (hat) instead of its exact equivalent. This example is related to *clothes* which is one of the sub-categorizations of Newmark’s second categorization, so it related to *material culture*).

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
19	A yachting cap was shoved far back from his forehead.	He put the cloth hat of sailing on the pack of his head.	کلاه پارچه ای قایق رانی را به انتهای سرش سرانده بود.

Here the word is occurred above word level, the translator paraphrases the item to render the meaning. Since it’s related to *clothes*, it can be classified into Newmark’s second categorization (*material culture*).

n. Couplets, triplet, quadruplet

This strategy occurs when the translator combines two or more than two different procedures for dealing with a single problem (Newmark, 1988, p.91). This strategy is called “combination” by Schaffner and Wiesemann (2001, p.34). Chesterman (1997, p.95) used the term “double presentation” for this strategy.

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
20	She was still the leading soprano in Adam and Eve church.	He was still regarded as the first hand singer of Superano in the church.	هنوز خواننده ی سوپرانوی درجه یک کلیسا به حساب می آمد.

Based on what Newmark said (in number 1) in this sentence we have *Transfer* strategy because *soprano* is transfer to the TL without any changing. In the other hand, *Adam and Eve* is omitted. Instead, the translator has used درجه یک (first string). In Persian translation of this sentence we can see the phrase به حساب می آمد which isn’t exist in SL. So here we have a combination of different strategies.

Here we deal with Newmark’s forth type of categorization (*organization, customer, ideas*) since we have an *activity* here.

o. Notes

Notes are “additional information in a translation” (Newmark, 1988, p.91). In This strategy the translator should explain the meaning of the word or phrases in the note. Newmark (1988, p.92) mentioned that notes can be within the text, at the bottom of the page, at the end of the chapter and finally as a glossary at the end of the book.

Number	ST	literal meaning	TT
21	After a while they went out and he calls for another punch .	They went out after a while and he asked for another glass of beer.	بعد از مدتی آن ها خارج شدند و او گیلایس پانچ دیگری خواست.

Punch نوشابه ای است که از مخلوط کردن شراب یا عرق با آب گرم، شکر و ادویه درست می کنند.

Here the translator has used گیلایس پانچ for the word *punch*. And then he gives a footnote for more information.

In this sentence we deal with Newmark's *Material culture* (the second type of his categorization) in the process of translation. Because it is related to *food* or something we eat.

B. The Cultural Items in "Dubliners"

Based on Newmark's five categorizations and what is discussed above we can extract examples of every cultural item in "Dubliners". The Five categories follow with examples.

1. Ecology

Geographical features can be normally distinguished from other cultural terms in that they are usually value-free...their diffusion depends on the importance of their country of origin as well as their degree of specificity (Newmark, 1988, p.96).

According to Newmark (ibid) geographical features "would normally be transferred, with the addition of a brief culture free third term where necessary in the texts." It was observed that Persian translators in this study use different strategies to translate ecology terms. For example *oyster* in number 40 is translated as خرچنگ so the translator has used *componential analysis strategy*.

2. Material culture

In the domain of Newmark's second categorization- *material culture*- in the literary text under this study we deal with three items.

2-1 Clothes

Based on the following examples, in number 1 *tie* is translated to پاپیون, in number 2 *bonnet* is translated into کلاه, in number 3 *cloak* is translated into بالا پوش; therefore, it is clear in some of these examples the translator in this literary text transferred clothes terms by using *descriptive equivalents*. This is in accordance with Newmark's claims that *clothes* as a *cultural terms* may be sufficiently explained for TL general readers (Newmark, 1988, p.97). The translation method depends mainly on the importance of the clothing item in the text, however, "national costumes, when distinctive, are not translated" (ibid).

1. As he stood in the hall giving a last equation to the bows of his dress **tie**.

او همچنان که در سر سر ایستاده بود آخرین دست را به پاپیونش می کشید.

2. The former tenant of our house, a **priest**, had died in the drawing-room

مستاجر پیشین خانه ما کشیشی بود که در اتاق پذیرایی ما مرده بود.

3. Mrs. Kearney wrapped the **cloak** round her daughter.

خانم کرنی بالاپوش را بر دوش دخترش انداخت.

"Food terms are subject to the widest variety of translation procedures" (Newmark, 1988, p.96). By looking at number 3, 5, 6, 10, 11, and 21 above, and also by the most cursory look at a menu of a shop we can find that it is enough to reveal how much lexis in this area is internationalized, *pizza*, *vodka*, *kebab*, etc. For proving this idea in this study we have some words like *soda*, *whisky*, *punch*, etc that the translator has used *borrowing* for translating them. So the translator in this area most of the times has used both *borrowing* and *general words* more than other procedures.

1. **They drank** however it is bohemian.

مشروب هم نوشیدند هر چند که بوهمی بود.

2. A companion dish on which lay a solid rectangle of Smyrna figs, a dish of **custard** topped with grated nutmeg.

یک ظرف فرنی با رویه ای از جوز هندی سوده آنجا بود.

3. They **drink** for luck.

برای بر خوردار شدن از بخت کیلاسی نوشیدند.

4. Near it on plate lay a very light plum-**pudding**.

کنار آن در بشقاب تکه ای پودینگ آلو بسیار نرم قرار داشت.

5. One the glass of the window were two flying inscriptions: **ginger beer** and **ginger ale**.

روی شیشه مغازه دو نوشته به چشم می خورد: آبجو زنجبیلی، لیموناد زنجبیلی.

2-2 House

Newmark (1988, p.97) states "many language communities have a typical house which for general purposes remains untranslated". In this case, the Persian translators use less neutral equivalents and in this way neutralized the original.

3. Social culture

In considering social culture one has to distinguish between denotative and connotative problems of translation (Newmark, 1988, p.96). In this case the translator uses different strategies for translating social cultures in the context. Any activity which does a *work* can be considered in this category. Like 17 to 21. In number 20 the translator has used the word صومعه. In a different context with different purpose the translator can translate this word as مسجد

1. **They drank** however it is bohemian.

مشروب هم نوشیدند هر چند که بوهمی بود.

2. A companion dish on which lay a solid rectangle of Smyrna figs, a dish of **custard** topped with grated nutmeg.

یک ظرف فرنی با رویه ای از جوز هندی سوده آنجا بود.

3. **They drank the health of the queen of hearts and of the queen of diamonds.**

به سلامتی بی بی دل و بی بی خشت نوشیدند.

4. There would be a retreat that week in her **convent**.

این هفته در **صومعه** مجلس ذکر و عبادت داریم.

5. It was his own fault for he frequently mistook his **cards**.

تقصیر خودش بود چون اغلب ورق هایش را عوضی می‌گرفت.

4. Organizations, customs, ideas

4-1 Artistic

In most cases music terms have normally been *transferred*. For example in number 22 the word *waltz* is translated as *number 18, 19 and 20 falls in this case*. Because all of them are related to music and music is related to *artistic* which is one of the sub-categorizations of *organization*.

1. Villona played a **waltz** for Farley and rivers.

ویلونا آهنگ والسی برای فارلی و ری ویه نواخت.

2. The music hall artistes would oblige and **Sheridan** played **waltzes** and **vamped accompaniments**.

هنرمندان تالارهای موسیقی سرگرمشان می‌کردند و **شریدال**، **والس** ها و **بولکاهایی** می‌نواخت یا بدیهه نوازی می‌کرد.

4-2 Religion

As can be frequently found in literary texts, religious features present cultural implications for translation. In most instances, although Persian translators used various strategies to convey religious words, using *general words* occurred more than other strategies. We can find the examples of this area and different kinds of strategies for translating religious features in examples 1 to 21.

1. There would be a retreat that week in her **convent**.

این هفته در **صومعه** مجلس ذکر و عبادت داریم.

2. **Papal infallibility** was the greatest sense in the history of the **Church**.

معصوم بودن باب عظیم‌ترین صحنه در تاریخ کلیسا است.

3. He had sent his son to England to be educated in a big **catholic college**.

پسرش را به انگلستان فرستاده بود تا در **کالج کاتولیکی** بزرگ درس بخواند.

4. We have renewed **our baptismal vows**.

پیمان های مراسم تعمیدمان را تکرار کنیم.

5. He attended to his **religious duties**.

هنوز هم هر هفته **تکالیف مذهبی** اش را انجام می‌داد.

6. Joe had gone to Belfast on a **White-Monday** trip.

جو در سفری به مناسبت **دوشنبه نزول روح القدس** به بلفاست رفته بود.

7. Remembering that the next morning was a **mass morning**.

با یادآوری اینکه بامداد رز بعد بامداد **روز عشاء ربانی** است.

4-3 Politics

In literary texts the translators use various strategies but they often choose *transference*. For example in number 41 *feudal* is transferred in to TL.

1. He emerged from under the **feudal arch** of the king's Inns.

با اندامی تمیز و فروتن از زیر **رواق فنودالی کینگزاینز** بیرون آمد.

5. Gesture and habits

Again we should say that translator may use different strategies and methods in this part. In this study the translator uses *functional equivalence* which occurred in sentences like the following one.

1. Ignatius Gallaher made a **catholic gesture** whit his right arm.

ایگناتیوس گالاهر با دست راست به خود **صلیب** کشید.

V. CONCLUSION

Cultures have their own particular ways in perceiving and naming the world and it is the translator's task to consider measures to bring these worlds closer together. There are different strategies which are applied by different translators in translation of culture-specifics items. One of the most important categorizations in this domain is done by Newmark (1988). To arrive at a conclusion about the occurrences of domains found in literary text under study and the strategies applied by translator, a close study was carried out. One literary text and its translation were compared. The results indicated that among different domains such as *ecology*, *material culture*, *social culture*, *organizations*, *gesture and habits*, the terms related to the domains of *material culture* (like food, clothes) and *organizations* occurred more frequently than those in other domains. The analysis of examples in this research suggests that among all strategies, the translator, in most cases has used general words and borrowing more than other strategies to cope with the lexical gap. Using these strategies is effective in many cases and the translator can make his translation more authentic and tangible in this way. Although in some cases one or more strategies are suggested for each domain, it does not mean that a translator should choose only a certain method or strategy of translation. It is obvious that the translator should choose appropriate strategy based on the situation, purpose and context.

Of course it can also be concluded that in many cases none of these strategies can be applicable and still the translator has many problems for rendering the same meaning and the same effect. The translator may also use other strategies

like omission, deletion, classifier, etc. which are described by different translation scholars and can be a subject for further studies.

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The Literature Review about the Research on Learning Style Both Abroad and at Home

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Abstract—Learning style, as one of the learners' factors which have a great influence on the foreign language teaching, has been laid on more emphasis by some linguists, researchers and teachers in the recent years. According to Keefe, it refers to "cognitive, affective and physiological traits that are relatively stable indications of how learners perceive interact with and respond to the learning environment" (Keefe, 1979, p.4). Making some research on learning styles will facilitate the teachers' further realization on the students' learning prevalence and promote the improvement of their teaching constantly to satisfy the students' demand and raise the foreign language teaching level. Starting with the introduction of the definition and categories of learning styles, the thesis mainly elaborates the researches on learning styles abroad and at home, in the hope of providing most teachers with some references for their further study in the future work and pushing forward the improvement of the foreign language teaching level.

Index Terms—learning styles, learner-centered, the definition and categories, the foreign language teaching, implication

I. INTRODUCTION

In the recent two decades, with the development of the scientific technology and the increase of the international exchange, foreign language teaching has experienced an unprecedented reform, which will surely bring about a series of changes in educational thoughts. Teaching method---a central issue dominating foreign language teaching for about two centuries, is losing its previous appealing power among researchers and language teachers. The emphasis that teachers and researchers are laying on has shifted from "How to teach" to "How to learn", resulting in the prevalence of the "Learner-Centered" in the field of foreign language teaching.

However, the most challenging problem facing all the foreign Language teachers is how to achieve the goal of centering on learners. As a result, more and more researchers and language teachers are paying great attention to some factors related to learners themselves, among which the more salient ones are learning styles --- "cognitive, affective and physiological traits that are relatively stable indications of how learners perceive interact with and respond to the learning environment" (Keefe, 1979, p.4).

II. THE DEFINITION AND THE CATEGORIES OF LEARNING STYLES

A. Definition

As a psychological term, style was formally introduced by Allport in 1937 when he identified it to be a means of identifying distinctive personality types or types of behaviors. With the further development of some social sciences such as Psychology, Linguistics, and SLA, more and more affective, cognitive and physiological factors are integrated into its category. Therefore, Brown (1994) refers to it as a consistent and rather enduring tendency or preference within an individual and styles as those general characteristics of intellectual functioning (and personality types as well) that especially pertain to one as an individual that differentiates one from some one else.

With the emergence of cognitive psychology, some cognitive psychologists put forward a more specific term --- cognitive style, which refers to an individual way of processing information. It is used for describing or analyzing the researches into problem solving and sensory or perceptual abilities. And this research provides some of the first evidences for the distinctive styles.

In 1970s, as researchers turned to styles in learning and teaching, the concept of learning style emerged, which, unlike cognitive style, focused on educational situation where style was seen as most useful (Riding & Cheema, 1991. in Sternberg et al, 2002). It was just then that psychologist and linguists began to do some research on learning styles. Keefe, as a prominent figure at the time, defines them to be "cognitive, affective and physiological traits that are relatively stable indications of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment" (Keefe, 1979. in Brown 1994. p.105).

But Garger and Guild perceive learning styles as "stable and pervasive characteristics of an individual, expresses through the interaction of one's behavior and personality as one approaches a learning task (Garger & Guild, 1984, in Reid, 1995, p.9). From the above definition, we can see that pervasiveness and consistency seem to be common features

of learning styles. Since 1980s and early 1990s, the research about learning styles has become more mature and systematic; some researchers have incorporated their own unique perspectives or new understandings into the definition of the term. Scarcella redefines it as “cognitive and interactive patterns that affect the way in which students perceive, remember and think” (Scarcella, 1995, in Reid, 1995, p.114). And Maine Carob (1986) also provides her definition for learning styles, according to her, learning styles are the ways that the students at any age are affected by their (a) immediate environment, (b) own emotionality, (c) sociological needs, (d) physical characteristics and (e) psychological inclinations when concentrating and trying to master and remember new or difficult information or skills.

The above definitions are summarized by Kinsella: “Learning styles refer to individual, natural, habitual and preferred ways of absorbing, processing and retaining new information and skills which persist regardless of teaching methods and content area” (Kinsella, 1995, in Reid, 1995, p.171).

B. Categories

Concerning the category of learning styles, it is impossible to set a definite one facing many different classifications. Many researchers have made some investigations on different aspects of learning styles, on basis of which some different terminologies are labeled, frequently obscuring our understanding. Often some terminologies and categories overlap, which makes learning styles’ research complicated and challengeable.

Riding and Cheema (1991), after reviewing the descriptions, correlations, methods of assessments and effects on behaviors of more than 30 labels, concluded that they could be grouped into two fundamental dimensions, which they termed holistic–analytic and verbal–imagery. This view was confirmed in a further research by Reynar and Riding: “the holistic–analytical style dimension is the one where an individual tends to organize information in whole or parts, and the verbal–imagery style dimension is the one in which an individual tends to represent information during thinking verbally or using mental pictures” (Riding, 2001, p.48).

However, Reid (1995) classifies learning styles into three categories: Sensory Learning Styles, Cognitive Learning Styles and Affective / Temperament Learning Styles. For Sensory Learning Styles, two subcategories are included --- Perceptual Learning Styles and Environmental Learning Styles. Perceptual Learning Styles consist of four different types --- Auditory, Visual, Tactile, Kinesthetic; while Environmental Learning Styles include two different types --- Physical and Sociological. Cognitive Styles are mainly made up of four different sets --- Field-independent / Field-dependent, Analytical / Global, Reflective / Impulsive and Kolb Experiential Learning Model. And in the domain of affective or temperament, the following three subcategories are contained --- Myers–Briggs Temperament Styles, Tolerance of Ambiguity Styles and Right–Briggs Temperament Styles.

Because of the limitation of the paper length, it is not possible to elucidate one by one in detail. Therefore it is appropriate to illuminate the learning styles that are involved in the research. As we have mentioned above, Auditory, Visual, Tactile and Kinesthetic are subsumed into Perceptual Learning Styles --- a subcategory of Sensory Learning Styles. For visual and auditory Styles, Brown (1994) makes the following descriptions, “Visual learners tend to prefer reading and studying charts, drawing and other graphic information while an auditory style is characterized by a preference for listening to lectures and audiotapes, of course, most successful learners utilize both visual and auditory input, but slight preference one way or the other may distinguish one learner from another, shaping an important factor for classroom instruction” (p.113). Compared to Brown’s description, Oxford’s (1995) accounts are more accurate and specific. From his point of view, visual students prefer to learn via the visual channel, and therefore, they like to read something that requires concentration and time spent alone. Visual students need the visual stimulation of bulletin boards, videos and movies; they must write direction if they are to function well in the classroom. However, auditory students enjoy the oral–aural learning channel, thus they want to engage in discussions, conversations and group work. These students typically require only oral direction. Tactile and kinesthetic preferences are often grouped together into a category called “hands–on or haptic style”. Tactile students need to touch and handle objects; they are happy to make collages, three–dimensional models, shadow–boxes and other artwork that can be related to language learning. Whereas kinesthetic students require movement and frequent breaks in an activity, these are the students who can not sit for longer than 20 minutes at a time, and who like Total Physical Response activities--- games, role plays, that let them get out of their chairs and move around. Group and Individual also belong to the domain of Sensory Styles. Group students often obtain their energy and focus on the events and the persons outside themselves. They share many different interests and lots of friends; they tend to work or learn in groups. In contrast, individual learners usually pay great attention to their inner world, and they are often stimulated by their own ideas and feelings. They prefer to work alone or in a pair with someone they know well; they dislike lots of continuous group work in English classroom.

In the cognitive domain, some researchers make a distinction between Field–dependent and Field–independent, Analytical and Global, Reflective and Impulsive. Field-independent and Field–dependent are the most widely discussed learning styles; quite a few scholars regard FI / FD as an important section in their writings, and give a detail elaboration. According to Oxford (1990), Field–independent refers to the ability to separate easily the key detail from an ambiguous context through the use of analysis. Research with people at all ages suggests that field–independent people are less sensitive to the social context, are more detached and more logical than field–dependent people and they prefer more structured, analytical forms of learning. Field–dependent people conversely tend to be more sensitive to the social context; they are perceived as more outgoing and more considerate than their independent peers and they perform well with less structure in their learning. As for the differences between Reflective Styles and Impulsive Styles, reflection is

defined a tendency to stop and consider options before responding, often resulting in great accuracy while impulsivity is the tendency to respond immediately more fluently and often inaccurately. Concerning Global Styles and Analytical Styles, Global Styles refer to tendencies to process the information and understand the input from a totality, and achieve an overall interpretation of them by analyzing each part respectively. Analytical Styles refer to tendencies to process the information from the details and obtain a complete understanding by integrating the separate parts into a whole. It seems that global learners process information simultaneously and look for patterns. However, when analytical learners process the information, they pay great attention to the details instead of the connection between different parts.

The differences on the tolerant degree of ambiguity between different learners belong to the affective / temperament category, we can see the following descriptions on the persons with tolerance of ambiguity in Brown's writings (1994). The person who is tolerant of ambiguity is free to entertain a number of innovative and creative possibilities and uncertainties. Norton (1975, in Reid, 1995) conceives of intolerance of ambiguity as "a tendency to perceive or interpret information marked by vague, incomplete, fragmented, multiple probable, unclear meanings as actual or potential sources of psychological discomfort or threat" (p.88).

Of course, there are some other classifications for the category of learning styles. As well as the category provided by Reid, Richard and Stephen also put forward a pattern for classifying learning styles. According to them, learning styles can be divided into four categories – Based on learning process; Based on learning orientation; Based on learning preference; Based on the development of cognitive skill. Each category includes many different types of learning styles (Riding & Rayner, 1998). Oxford (1992) also suggests that learning styles have four main aspects, all relating to each other --- cognitive, affective, physiology, and behavioral, here, there is no enough space to illustrate one by one, concerning the limitation of the paper length.

III. RESEARCHES OF LEARNING STYLES ABROAD

A. *Researches of Learning Styles' Influence on Language Development*

In 1993, Carrel and Monroe did a research associated with the relationship between learners' learning styles and language development. By using the Myers-Briggs Type indicator with three groups of students, they found some relationship between MBTI and holistic rating.

Some researches have something to with the influence of learning styles on language achievement and proficiency. In 1986, Chappell and Robert measured tolerance of ambiguity in learners of English as a second language in Illinois, and they found that learners with a high tolerance for ambiguity were slightly more successful in certain language tasks, And the potential impact of learning styles on language achievements was also verified in the later research carried out by Oxford (1992).

Perhaps, the learning styles examined widely for this purpose are Field-independent and Field-dependent. In a study with English-speaking learners who are learning French in Toronto, Naimen (1978) finds that field independence correlates positively and significantly with language success in the classroom. Abraham (1985) finds that second language learners who are field independent perform better in deductive lessons while those with field-dependent styles are more successful in making some inductive lesson designs. Other more recent studies provide further evidences of a field independent style for second language success.

Most researchers try to turn out a close relationship between learning styles and language development, yet there are some still some different opinions existing. Therefore, it's quite early for us to conclude that one pole of the style dichotomies is better than the other.

B. *Researches on Factors Affecting Learning Styles*

In one of his writings, Nelson (1995, in Reid, 1995) from Georgia State University makes a careful investigation on the learning styles of Chinese learners and Japanese learners to find out the influence of cultural factors on learning preferences. As we have seen, both Japan and China are greatly influenced by Confusion philosophic principles, and the Confusion tradition is highly valued on education, particularly in educating the members of society as to how human should relate and interact with each other. Through Condon's (1984) findings, he contends that one of the important characteristics of Japanese learners is reflectivity. They did not impulsively or immediately begin their work; instead, they waited until all of the papers were distributed. The second aspect of Japanese's learning styles, for Nelson, is the sensitivity to the total environment in which learning is taking place, and a third component of a Japanese style is modeling, which means learning by watching someone model a new skill. In term of Chinese learners' learning predilections, one of the most important features is cooperation between different learners, this preference for cooperation contrasts with the U.S preference for individualism and competition. From the analysis and comparison, a close relationship between culture and learning styles can be shown clearly.

Some other researches have something to do with gender. By summarizing and analyzing lots of studies, Oxford (1995) concludes that the tactile and kinesthetic learning styles might relate to the spatial ability prominent in the masculine gender, because males do seem to have an edge in some spatial learning tasks. It is also possible to predict that nontraditional females will show these preferences more frequently than traditional females. Concerning auditory learning styles, the auditory ability in a foreign language may be greater in females than in males which can be shown in the study by Eisenstein (1982).

In the cognitive domain, based on lots of researches, Oxford also has come to the following conclusion. For adolescents and adults, sometimes even children, males are usually more field-independent and females are more field-dependent (Good & Brophy, 1986; Shipman & Shipman, 1995, in Oxford, 1995). Field-independent learners often males have advantages in language achievement. But this might relate to the analytic nature of most written language achievement tests and many grammar-based (analytic) language-learning activities. Analytical, field-independent learners ordinary select logic-based learning strategies such as deductive reasoning (Oxford & Levine, 1992). Field-sensitive individuals often females with their more interpersonal and global orientation, might do better in less analytical aspects of overall communicative competence, such as sociolinguistic competence. Global, field – dependent learners choose non- analytical strategies that involve searching for the main idea and intuitively guessing from multiple to contextual clues – frequently social ones –when some pieces of information are missing (Oxford & Levine, 1992).

Also, Belenky and his colleagues (1986) conduct interviews with college men and women. The researchers assume that in general the two genders have different ways of knowing, men more often through “objectivity and thinking” (abstract analysis), women more often through “subjectivity and feeling” (personality experience).

These researches show that males and females in general, employ different routes in language learning. More males than females might take the thinking approach focusing on rules, facts and logic, avoiding the more personal interactions, whereas more females than males might like the feeling approach in which there is a great deal of interaction, a high degree of empathy and cooperative learning.

C. *Researches on Other Issues Related to Learning Styles*

Rossi-le (1995) studies the perceptual learning styles of 147 adult immigrants in ESL programs from two community colleges, using Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire and the Strategy Inventory for language learning. The goal of the study is to investigate the role that perceptual learning preferences have in determining language-learning behaviors and to examine the relationship between the learners’ preferred perceptual leaning styles and the strategies approaches to language learning that they choose. Consequently, Rossi-le finds that the majority of adult immigrant students display a major learning style preference for the tactile kinesthetic modes; these learning styles contain a practical experiential approach to learning. In addition, all language groups indicate a preference for group learning but they suggest only a minor or negative preference for individual learning.

By collecting the responses from 62 Chinese ITA (International Teaching Assistants), with the Keirsey Temperament Sorter and the Myers-Briggs Temperament Inventory, Torkelson from Kyrgyz State University has done a research on the learning styles of Chinese ITAs.

After comparing the results of the survey with the learning preferences for the general American undergraduates, he notices that the 62 Chinese ITAs are significantly less extroverted and more introverted than the general U.S undergraduates, while three quarters of the U.S undergraduates characterize themselves as extroverts, more than half the ITAs report that they are introvert. Next, one-quarter of undergraduates report having thinking /judging orientations, however more than 40 percent of ITAs describe themselves in that way; in addition, nearly 40 percent of the U.S undergraduates describe themselves as sensing / perceiving orientations while only 4 percent of the ITAs classify themselves into this category.

The results from the KTS also indicate that a great majority of the U.S undergraduates preferred to learn by interacting with others, doing hands-on activities and being stimulated. However most of the Chinese ITAs consider the teaching process to be completely planned, impersonal, instructive and analytical; they conceive the learning process of solitary conceptual work.

Such a result obviously suggests a mismatch between Chinese ITAs and U.S undergraduates in learning styles, which is certain to lead to an unfavorable impact on classroom teaching.

IV. RESEARCHES OF LEARNING STYLES IN CHINA

The study on learning styles in China started much later than that abroad, and it was not until 1990s that some scholars began their researches on learning preferences.

In 1992, Wang Chuming examined 490 English major students, using Reid’s Learning Style Preference Questionnaire with a little modification. By comparing the results with Reid’s and Melton’s, Wang found that most of the students participating in the survey prefer tactile styles and only a few of them favored group work.

Hu Xiaoqiong (1997) also has discovered the same result. Through her observation with 236 English major participants, she has found that most students dislike the learning style of group work. Moreover, they have been found to favor multidimensional styles instead of one only.

With Keefe and Monk’s learning style test and CET band-4 as the instruments, Yu Xinle (1997) tests 149 students from three universities in Beijing. He has found that gender does not play any role in shaping learning styles, and there is a significant correlation between sequential processing information, memory styles and the learners’ English achievement among 24 observed styles, but any considerable correlation has not been found with other 22 styles.

In 2001, Cheng Zhihong, studying for a doctor degree in the university of South Patoka America, tested teachers and some fourth--grade students at Zhonghua Institute of Medical Technology in Taiwan. The purpose of the study was just to compare the preferred learning styles of the students in the seven programs at the institute. As well, according to the

gender, the research examined the preferred learning styles of the students and identified the differences on their preferred teaching and learning styles between the teachers and the students.

Using Reid's Perceptual Learning Style's Preferences Questionnaire as the instruments, after receiving the survey papers from 68 teachers and 666 students in the seven different departments, he came to the following conclusion finally. (a) Students looked on auditory style as their most favorable learning styles and regarded individual styles as their least preferred styles. (b) Both teachers and students liked the individual teaching and learning styles. (c) Most teachers expected their students to do with their learning with the kinesthetic and group styles to a greater degree than students wanted to use them. As well, Liyan (2002) from Wuhan Science Technology University made some investigation on Chinese adults learning styles, analysing factors shaping their different learning preferences. Li Guangchao (2000) from Huanan Normal University also did some research on the relationship between learning styles and English teaching strategies, putting forward four different types of English teaching strategies.

So far, in China, the learning style of English learners in the secondary school hasn't become a prevalent issue especially among most researchers and high school teachers, and only a little has been done on the relevant researches, which can be shown from the studies listed above. Therefore it's not surprising why we put forward the issue and make a further investigation.

V. CONCLUDING WORDS

Learning style, as an issue that has been paid great attention in the recent years by some linguists and scholars, is still a new topic to most of us. Therefore, it will take a long time for us to find out its real implication on the learner's second language acquisition and play its full part in the foreign language. Undoubtedly, it requires the common efforts from most theorists, researchers and teachers. Only by doing this, can we learn about the learning style of the whole learners clearly and make our daily teaching in accordance with the students' requirements; can we center around the learners indeed in our daily teaching and push forward the development of the whole foreign language teaching.

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Inferential Discourse Markers in Discussion Section of Psychology Research Articles across English and Persian

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Abstract—The use of inferential discourse markers (IDMs) as a linguistic device implies significant results in satisfying conversational coherence. Therefore, with the aim of investigating their distribution of the use, this study was developed across three different sets of psychology articles written by English native speakers (NS), Persian non-native speakers (PNNS) and Persian native speakers (PNS) during the years 2005 to 2010. To this aim, Fraser's (1999), and Halliday and Hasan's (1976) suggested taxonomies were adopted in the analysis of IDMs in the discussion section of 198 psychological research articles. As a result, two micro- (13 minor categories) and macro-levels (3 major categories) analyses of the IDMs were presented. The extent of difference in the type and frequency of use was then assessed through Chi-square across these examined groups. Based on the findings, the extent of difference was significant ($p < 0.05$) at the micro-level, yet insignificant ($p > 0.05$) at macro-level. Although *therefore* and *thus* were the commonest markers for all the native and non-native writers, there was a higher record of the former in the English articles written by Persian speakers (38%). Yet, the latter was more frequent among the English native speakers (34.9%). On the other hand, the major function of *general causal relation* proved as the common type of IDMs across all three groups of articles. The findings may promise some implications for syllabus designers, material developers and language practitioners, as well.

Index Terms—discourse markers, inferential discourse markers, genre analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

Among different tenets of language teaching investigation, discourse analysis is the one which widely contributes to the course of research through the examinations of spoken and written language (as cited in Abdi, 2009). It may be possible to widen the field through conducting a quantitative or qualitative study of rhetorical features in a more frequent genre of communication in an academic discourse community (Gee, 2005).

Discourse markers (DMs) as a type of usual linguistic events are frequently used in the course of daily communication. In recent years, they have been considered within a vast framework revealing different areas of research interests, methods, and goals.

During the last decade, the study of DMs has been brought under the spotlight of pragmatic research. However, there is considerable disputation concerning how DMs should be analyzed. Although the appropriate use of DMs plays a facilitating role in the area of successful interaction, their overuse or underuse can lead to failure in spoken or written communication.

Every discourse community makes use of particularly regular ways of communication which result in different genres for obtaining a communicative purpose in response to particular needs (Swales, 1990). Research article is a wide practiced genre of communication among members of academic discourse community for the introduction of new results and achieving feedback (Koutsantoni, 2006).

Following the research attempts in the area of analytic discourse studies and their applied frameworks, this study was an attempt to shed more light on what considers being a coherent and useful statement of the nature and function of inferential DMs. A comparative account of the DMs' frequency of use will further determine the areas of difference as well as its extent in a way to suggest the richest type of research article with reference to the significance of difference in the area of DM use.

The present study tries to elaborate on the inferential category of DMs, with a close look at their roles across different journals research articles of psychology written by three groups of English native speakers, Iranian native speakers and Iranian non-native English speakers. The results were supposed to prove suggestive in the area of helping linguists and teachers to enhance the quality of their practical works.

II. BACKGROUND

According to Schiffrin (1987), DMs are “sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk” (p. 2). Since DMs can occur freely within a sentence, the units of talk can transcend the sentence. According to this definition, DMs are suggested to have a core meaning and primarily establish coherent relations. Fraser (1990) suggested a more detailed account of DMs, stating that the term DM involves a heterogeneous set of words and phrases originating from coordinate conjunctions (and, or but) to interjections (oh, well..).

Apparently, due to the theoretical differences and various background assumptions, no single definition for DM seems to favor a general acceptance among the researchers. Variation of semantic and syntactic properties of these expressions has ended in diversity of ideas among the researchers. Such disagreements highlight the existence of various perspectives and frameworks in which DMs are considered. Under the influence of particular viewpoints, different scholars represent discourse connections under various labels. Ostman (1995) suggested ‘pragmatic particles’ as he believed in their ability to better display the flexibility of these items. Besides, sentence connectives (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), cue phrases (Groze & Sidner, 1986) as devices to direct the hearer to some aspects of change in the discourse structure, discourse particles (Schourup, 1999), and discourse operators (Redeker, 1991) were among the other proposed ideas. Following Blakemore (2002), they were treated as ‘discourse markers’ to entail the idea that these words lack any type of propositional meaning and suggested that their function be analyzed in terms of what they mark rather than what they describe.

Attending to the analysis of DMs from different viewpoints also provides a descriptive account of their different functions. Another influencing criterion in the description of the function of DMs is the type of discourse under consideration (written or spoken). The effect of this factor lies in their property in that they offer different functions in different discourse genres. Furthermore, the type of meaning conveyed by these items at the discourse level affects the way their functions are defined across various studies.

Despite the wide range of studies in the field, no general agreement has been achieved on the central issues of terminology and classification of DMs. As a functional and syntax-independent category, DMs are supposed to work in terms of some categories as adverbs (now, anyway ...), conjunctions (but, because ...), interjections (oh, gosh, boy ...), and verbs (say, look, see ...). In a pragmatic treatment of DMs, Fraser (1993) offered an analysis according to which, each marker is identified in special situations in a text with a core meaning determining how one relates an utterance to the prior discourse. Fraser believed that there are three kinds of messages for each sentence: the basic message that is concluded from the sentences used in direct communication; the commentary message that is displayed by commentary markers like frankly, you are mistaken, and parallel message followed by parallel markers. So, DMs are regarded as commentary with different major types of message-related and topic-related. Topic-related DMs denote “what the discourse participants are talking about at any given time, including various subtopics as they arise” (Fraser, 1993, p.22). Some of these markers signal a different discourse topic (before I forget, by the way, speaking of, in any case) while others indicate the ‘reemphasis’ on the current topic (again, in fact, now, OK, well). Besides, some additional subclasses are proposed under this major type of markers. Fraser (1999) maintains that, they are discourse activity markers, which “signal a discourse activity relative to some part of the foregoing discourse” (p.10).

Message-related DMs are those that relate the aspects of an explicit message conveyed by the segment which is introduced by the discourse marker with aspects of a message, directly or indirectly, associated with the segment in the prior discourse. This major group of markers encompasses four subclasses of contrastive, parallel, elaborative and inferential markers. Contrastive markers refer to those DMs that signal the explicit interpretation of one segment in contrast with the interpretation of preceding segment. Parallel markers indicate that the basic message is somehow parallel to some aspect of the prior discourse. Elaborative markers signal that the current utterance constitutes an elaboration of an earlier one.

The final group as inferential markers signal that the current utterance conveys a message that is, in a sense, consequential to some aspect of the foregoing. This study follows the versions of classification scheme suggested by Fraser (1999), whose subcategories, in turn, were derived from Halliday and Hasan (1976). Hence, the employed DMs were coded to thirteen minor categories at micro level of analysis, that is, General causal relations, Specific reason and Specific result. General causal relation contains those markers as *so, hence, thus, therefore, consequently, and then*. Specific reason markers employed to convey specific causal relations are *because of this, for this reason, after all*. Specific result markers used to fulfill such conclusive functions include *as a result of, as a consequence, in conclusion, and accordingly*.

Since 1980s, research on DMs has existed in a wide extent to encompass analyses and descriptions of nature, characteristics, function and usage of DMs in different languages. They have also been attended to in a variety of genres and interactive contexts. The continuous expansion of research on DMs and similar events in the 1980s and 1990s resulted in their prominent role not only in pragmatic and discourse analytic studies, but in the studies of language acquisition and pedagogy as well as sociolinguistic topics such as gender changes and code switching. Although the research on DMs in general has mostly dealt with the nature of DMs in different contexts like texts, interviews and compositions, the role of particular DMs in as components of discourse has been rarely noted and remains demanding in this course of study. This research is an attempt to study the use of Inferential DMs across English and Persian Research Articles.

III. METHOD

For the purposes of this study, a corpus was composed of a set of research articles from the discipline of psychology, selected from two distinct speech communities of English and Persian. The required data was gained through adapting a classified random sampling to select a number of articles from the corpus. A limited number of 198 research articles was meticulously attended to both from multi-formal and multi-functional nature of discourse markers in the discussion section of the chosen articles. It was believed that such a constraint would hopefully tighten the scope of reflection on the DMs, facilitating the process of deducing an overall framework in the qualitative section of the study.

To analyze this application as well as the underlying functions across different communities a recent taxonomy of DMs formulated by Fraser (1999) and Halliday and Hasan (1976), which lent itself to this research purposes, was taken as the leading model upon which the varieties would be subject to detailed discussion. After the collection of frequency records, a primary comparative analysis would account for the different or similar IDM tendencies across the communities.

IV. RESULTS

With regard to the first two research questions concerning the frequency of IDMs, the frequency of each IDM appearing in the records of Persian psychology articles as well as their English equivalents and non-native English ones are represented in tables 1 to 3, respectively. Then, the next column in each table shows us the overall percentage of each feature on the whole 66 articles investigated across each domain. Besides, the appearance of IDMs is examined through a focus on two major (Macro) and minor (Micro) levels of analysis.

A. Inferential DMs in Persian Research Articles of Psychology (1385-1390)

Concerning the use of individual discourse markers, just four specific markers as *therefore* (27.4%), *because of this* (15.5%), *thus* (12.2%) and *consequently* (10.9%) favored high frequencies among the others.

4.1. MICRO-LEVEL DISTRIBUTION OF PERSIAN IDMS

	Frequency	Percent
Therefore	83	27.4
Thus	37	12.2
Consequently	33	10.9
Hence	24	7.9
So	14	4.6
Then	25	8.3
because of this	47	15.5
for this reason	12	4.0
after all	1	.3
as a result	4	1.3
as a consequence	7	2.3
in conclusion	7	2.3
Accordingly	9	3.0
Total	303	100.0

As shown in Table 4.2, from a macro level point of view, general causal relations have had the biggest figure of occurrences (71.3%) in the articles in this field of Persian Psychology. The reason lies in the high frequencies for its composing subfields of *therefore* (27.4%) and *thus* (12.2%) at the micro- level stage of analysis.

4.2 MACRO-LEVEL DISTRIBUTIONS OF IDMS

	Frequency	Percent
general causal relation	216	71.3
specific reason	60	19.8
specific result	27	8.9
Total	303	100.0

B. Inferential DMs in English Research Articles of Psychology (2005-2010)

At the Micro- level in English research articles of psychology, distribution of IDMs shows that *thus* has the most percentage(33.9%) and *therefore*(31.5%).

4.3. MICRO- LEVEL DISTRIBUTIONS OF ENGLISH IDMS

	Frequency	Percent
therefore	78	31.5
Thus	84	33.9
consequently	11	4.4
Hence	3	1.2
So	5	2.0
Then	29	11.7
because of this	19	7.7
for this reason	2	.8
after all	1	.4
as a result	6	2.4
as a consequence	3	1.2
in conclusion	3	1.2
accordingly	4	1.6
Total	248	100.0

4.4. MACRO- LEVEL ACCOUNT OF ENGLISH IDM USE

	Frequency	Percent
general causal relation	210	84.7
specific reason	22	8.9
specific result	16	6.5
Total	248	100.0

As it is shown in the above tables, similarly in the field of English *psychology*, general causal relation were found to occur most frequently (84.7%). Therefore, at the Micro-level, it is not surprising to see that *thus* (33.9%) and *therefore* (31.5%) are the most frequent IDMs in this corpus, respectively.

C. Inferential DMs in Non-native Research Articles of Psychology (2005-2010)

At the Micro- level in Non-native research articles of psychology, distribution of IDMs shows that *therefore* has the most parentage (36.2%) and *thus* (19.6%).

4.5. MICRO-LEVEL DISTRIBUTION OF NON-NATIVE IDMS

	Frequency	Percent
therefore	50	36.2
thus	27	19.6
consequently	4	2.9
hence	9	6.5
so	16	11.6
then	1	.7
because of this	13	9.4
for this reason	2	1.4
as a result	7	5.1
as a consequence	3	2.2
in conclusion	6	4.3
Total	138	100.0

4.6. DISTRIBUTION OF INFERENTIAL DMs OF NON-NATIVE RESEARCH ARTICLES AT MACRO-LEVEL

	Frequency	Percent
general causal relation	107	77.5
specific reason	15	10.9
specific result	16	11.6
Total	138	100.0

Accordingly, in the case of research articles across non-native English *psychology* writers, similar records were found in that the same general causal relations occurred most frequently (77.5%). Therefore, at the Micro-level, it is not surprising to see *therefore* (36.2%) and *thus* (19.6%) as the most frequent IDMs, respectively.

D. The Extent of Difference at Micro and Macro Levels of Analysis among Persian, English and Non-native Research Articles

Concerning the extent of difference in the use of IDMs, Chi-square was run to assess the significance of such difference among three groups. Following the frequencies mentioned in the sections 3 and 4, the tendency differences are investigated in this part.

As the following tables suggest, there was a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) in the use of IDMs at either micro or macro levels of analysis across three groups of English, Persian and non-native speakers.

TABLE 4.7.
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE IN THE IDM USE AT MICRO-LEVEL OF ANALYSIS ACROSS THREE GROUPS

	minor type	group
Chi-Square	692.441	29.704 ^b
df	12	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000

TABLE 4.8.
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE IN THE IDM USE AT MACRO-LEVEL OF ANALYSIS ACROSS THREE GROUPS

	major type	group
Chi-Square	480.458	29.704 ^a
df	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000

These findings highlighted the importance of close attention to the Persian and non-native writers' tendencies to pave the way for a change toward the English natives' writing paths.

V. DISCUSSION

The findings of this study are indicative of the fact that individual inferential discourse markers are employed by the writers with different degrees of occurrence. Accordingly, 'therefore' was the most frequently used, followed by 'thus', 'because of this', and 'consequently'. Results also suggest a statistically significant difference between the use of individual inferential discourse markers across native Persian, native English and non-native writers. Yet, concerning the use of major inferential marker categories, there is not a significant difference between the three groups. In this regard, Persian native and English native writers made the most use of general causal relations and Persian native writers made the highest use of specific reason and specific result categories.

Responding to the first research question concerning the extent of similarity or difference in the use of inferential DMs across Persian and English, the results are indicative of the point that at the macro-level, there is not a difference between languages in that the occurrence of general causal relations was the most frequent of all. Concerning the numbers and percentages, native English writers made a higher use of general causal relation in their articles. Besides, at the micro-level, there was a rather difference in the occurrence of IDMs. Whereas 'therefore' and 'thus' constituted the highest percentages of general causal relation across Iranian non-native English writers and Iranian native writers, for English native writers 'thus' and 'therefore' represented the most frequent items.

The second research question asked about the extent of difference among the research articles written by English native speakers, Persian non-native speakers and Persian speakers in their use of inferential DMs. In this regard, at both micro and macro levels of analysis, there was a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) among these three groups in the use of IDMs.

VI. CONCLUSION

The difference between two languages appears as a possible cause of interference for Persian learners of English. It is believed that a better knowledge of the nature of inferential DMs in English research articles is of significant importance in the course of language teaching, although it is necessary to develop a mechanism to control the use of inferential DMs. Due to its focus on revealing the nature of factors motivating the use of various IDMs, this process is supposed to be helpful in the development of effective teaching and learning syllabuses.

Although teachers need not spend significant parts of their class time teaching these discourse markers, there is a need to make learners aware of these markers and their pragmatic functions. Language samples from prominent writing pieces published in native journals should be used to highlight their appropriate use.

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On China's Cultural Eco-environment of Translation

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Abstract—The process of translation is a process of communication between different cultures. This process includes not only cultural integration in communication but also deep-rooted cultural conflicts. The discrepancies between different cultures are unfolded in the activity of translation. The activity of translation is inevitably influenced by the cultural eco-environment which, in China includes traditional culture, living customs and ways of thinking which have existed for thousands of years, and the development of translation is inevitably influenced by many ecological factors of culture. This essay discusses China's cultural eco-environment of translation in the perspective of translation ecology from two aspects of ecological environments of translation: the input of foreign cultures and the output of Chinese cultures.

Index Terms—translation ecology, cultural eco-environment, foreign cultures

I. INTRODUCTION

Although the tide of globalization caused the degradation of the ecological system of language, it leads to the forward development of the translation ecosystem, as the well-known translation theorist Michael Cronin (2003) pointed out that globalization does not mean the extinction of nations, but the coexistence of integration, diversification, globalization and localization. Therefore, translation, as a kind of medium of cultural communication, should take effect in the process of globalization; it also conveys the unique value of language and culture during the process of developing culture diversity and multi-national consciousness. Under the trend of globalization, China's translation ecology has greatly changed, not only in such external environmental factors as natural environment, social environment, and normative environment, but also in such internal environmental factors as individual physiology and psychology. This essay discusses China's cultural eco-environment of translation in the perspective of translation ecology from two aspects of ecological environments of translation: the input of foreign cultures and the output of Chinese culture.

II. THE INPUT ECO-ENVIRONMENT OF FOREIGN CULTURES

A. *Respecting Cultural Diversity and Taking a Broad-minded Attitude toward Foreign Cultures*

Cultural globalization has become a new trend in the development of human culture. Language and culture have the characteristics of interaction with and restriction of each other. The vitality of culture lies in its ability to spread. As a tool of spreading culture, language imposes great restriction on the spread of culture, and provides the power for the survival of culture. The relationship between translation and culture is intricate. Translation itself is a part of culture. Translation activity is a social practice of interaction between different cultures. Because of cultural spread, especially the spread of national culture, the translational process would create new words, new forms of expression, thus, culture not only affects but also restricts the language of translation (Ji Shuxian, 2009). The development of translation is inseparable from the cultural eco-environment of translation. There exists a co-evolutionary relationship between them.

The formation of Chinese culture is actually the result of integration with domestic multi-national cultures as well as continuous integration with "foreign" cultures. In the process of today's cultural globalization, the cultures of different countries, regions, and nations make positive dialogues in a more open attitude so as to achieve constant development in mutual communication and to further accelerate the trend of cultural integration. From the development process of the cultural communication between China and western countries, it can be found that there are contradictions and conflicts as well as convergence and complements between different cultures (Pan Haiying, 2009). This is the present macroscopic input eco-environment of foreign cultures in China. China's translators have realized that "Only by putting translation on the level of globalization and comprehensively understanding the discrepancies between different cultures, can the translators break the deadlock, make culture play an active role between different cultures, and make all the human wisdom crystallization shine. Ecological translation in the context of globalization does not only play the role of protecting the balance of natural ecology, but also help to strengthen the localization of language communities and the linkages between communities." (Zu Lijun, 2007, p. 89-92).

In recent years, Chinese translators have begun to attach importance to ecological translation in the context of cultural globalization. In the process of inputting foreign cultures, they value ecological features of language and culture, namely, green attributes, cleanness and ethics. The translators should regulate and restrict the use of language, close the door to “impurities” of other nations’ languages and cultures, keep the cleanness of its own nation’s language and culture. To maintain the purity of language and culture is to protect the ecological balance and ethics of language and culture. In this process, ecological translation is particularly important.

China’s translators are deeply influenced by Chinese traditional cultures and ethics in attitude toward foreign cultures in their translation practice. In dealing with cultural discrepancies, Chinese translators insist on “respecting the fact of cultural diversity, seeking unity in differences with a broad-minded attitude towards ‘foreign’ cultures, achieving mutual understanding, learning from each other through dialogue.” (Xu Jianzhong, 2008, p.52). This has become a recognized moral norm in China’s translation field. The process of overcoming the thought of self culture-centered is to build a cultural bridge or to create a bidirectional angle of view through the interaction of different cultures (Han Hong, 2002). In the context of cultural globalization, China’s translators explore the discrepancies between different cultures continuously to face the integration of global cultures, and to adjust the cultural countermeasures in an active attitude. They try to not only absorb the essence of multiculturalism, but also strengthen the spiritual values of national culture, so as to realize the modernization of national culture when communicating and integrating with foreign cultures and constantly innovate to create an advanced culture with Chinese characteristics.

B. Opposing Cultural Hegemony, Persisting in Cultural Consciousness

Nowadays, in the atmosphere of economic, scientific and technological globalization and cultural diversity, China’s cultural eco-environment of translation is still affected by the mainstream culture from the western countries. Wang Enke (2007) pointed out the reason for this phenomenon as follows: “In addition to the characteristics of the culture itself, cultural influence is mainly determined by the national economy, science and technology, politics, and military power which are associated with culture. The discrepancies of economy, science and technology, politics, and military power will be inevitably displayed their effect in terms of cultural influence. Therefore, some cultures are in a superior status while others in an inferior status” (p. 18). We can clearly see that cultural hegemony and the phenomenon of cultural colonialism shown by strong culture is still quite serious in the translation field. It is still a universal phenomenon that the strong cultures exclude or assimilate the weak cultures.

As messengers who communicate between different cultures, China’s translators lay special emphasis on “cultural consciousness” in the process of communicating with strong cultures. The so-called cultural consciousness refers to the recognition and promotion of one’s own cultural traditions, identifying one’s own cultural values, compared with other cultures’ values, to promote human culture. If there is no such kind of culture consciousness, it is very difficult to complete the mission of understanding, digesting and disseminating foreign cultures. The Chinese translators should not only shoulder the responsibilities of taking initiative to consciously safeguard the histories and traditions of their own culture to make them continue and carry forward, but also pay attention to introduce fresh alien cultures to their own national culture, and continuously increase the intrinsic motivation for the survival and development of Chinese cultures. Dealing with “foreign” cultures, Chinese translators advocate adopting the “use doctrine” attitude proposed by Mr. Lu Xun, that is, accepting the good and rejecting the bad, and to work out the cultural strategy of both actively promoting the building of national culture and interacting with and countering foreign cultures, as well as to implement the strategic adjustment of industrial policy to build a cultural industry system which is suitable for China’s national conditions and to form an important force which could contend with the massive invasion of Western culture, in order to avoid the convergence of culture (Zhang Jieyun, 2004).

C. Filtering Foreign Cultures

The so-called cultural filtration refers to a phenomenon that “when the cultural information of original text is converted into target text, it will inevitably go through the filtration of cultural field of target text, thus a certain degree of refraction phenomenon occurs.” (Hua Xianfa, 2009, p.121). This kind of cultural filtration is an inevitable and unavoidable phenomenon of cultural variation in translation activities, and it is influenced by such ecological environments as translators, social politics, cultures, economies, and by such factors as temporal, spatial, and language distances. Any life pattern exists in a specific historical background, and takes specific customs, habits, institutions, and tradition as a precondition. Translation is a realistic activity of language application carried out in the life pattern, and “language is a habit, a system, a kind of social culture” (Gai Xiaolan, 2009, p.152). Therefore, translators cannot understand and grasp meanings of the text without considering the social, historical, and cultural factors in the translation process. Cultural filtration is a universal phenomenon in translation activities. It can be said that the process of translation is the process of conflicting and grinding between two different cultures, and is the process of cultural filtration. The occurrence of cultural filtration should be constrained by translation ethics, and should not be allowed to magnify, otherwise there will be no “faithfulness” at all.

Chinese translators filter foreign cultures based on the recognition of cultural discrepancies and the respect for different cultures following the rule of equal dialogue, and for the purpose of establishing harmonious dialogue between different cultures and exploring the best way of cross-cultural communication in their translation practice that Chinese translators filter the foreign cultures. This is entirely in line with the translation ethics which is generally accepted by all

states in international cultural communication. Of course, people should not neglect the tendency of culture while being fully aware of cultural discrepancies. With the process of economic integration and the development of the internet age and globalization, the shrinking, combination and symbiosis of cultural differences will become the main features of cultural phenomenon (Han Hong, 2002). The filtration to foreign cultures by Chinese translators has the characteristics of times, individualism, consciousness, and unconsciousness. "The so-called times means that the translators dispose the original text with the consciousness of their era unconsciously; while the individualism means that the translators often read and translate the original text according to their personal will." (Hua Xianfa, 2009, p.126). It is easy to understand the reasons which cause the phenomenon of cultural filtration. Most of the original texts' background of its times has changed when being translated. The translators will be inevitably constrained by ecological environments such as politics, cultures, and translation theories in their era, coupled with the differences of the literacy, interest, cognitive abilities, and life experiences of the translators, so the phenomenon of cultural filtration will inevitably occur when the translators interpret and reconstruct the background, characters, and psychological features of the original text. In fact, the target language produced in the field of the original language is a new language form created in the cultural context and artistic atmosphere of the original language. Therefore, the target language form is very different from the original language. The translator should try to overcome his or her limitations, get rid of conventional influence, and give less subjective opinions in language expression as much as possible (Gai Xiaolan, 2009). "Conscious cultural filtration refers to the change of the expressions, figurative images, literature conceptions of the original language in different degrees etc. to cater to the nation's cultural mentality or succumb to external forces and, while unconscious cultural filtration is to read and handle the original text based on the inherent concept in the inner world of the translator." (Hua Xianfa, 2009, p.127).

The scope of filtering foreign cultures is quite broad for Chinese translators. It often touches upon political, traditional, religious, and geographical, values, and customs. For example, different cultural values will become obstacles in translation when being reflected in different forms of languages. Larry A. Samovar and his co-authors have compared the East-West cultural values from twenty-nine aspects, such as personality, motherhood, etc. in their book *cross-cultural communication* (2000), and found up to twenty-five discrepancies. These discrepancies will be inevitably filtered in the cultural field of target text in various degrees in translation. In the specific process of translation practice, the forms of filtering foreign cultures by Chinese translators are various in kind, such as cultural misunderstanding, over-representation, under-representation, selective translation, adapted translation, and modification. To reduce the impact of cultural filtration, the translator should have a better understanding of the original text, and strive to truly understand the original text, "to achieve the conversion of the author's emotional space and time, truly and effectively convey the author's original intent." (Gai Xiaolan, 2009, p.153). The translator should try to choose the appropriate translation strategies to convey the discrepant features of the original text, to make translation work fresh and exotic, and to show the unique charm of the original work. "Before translating a text, the translator should understand and grasp social, cultural and even customary patterns of the author and works of his respective era as much as possible, as well as the period of historical described in the works, comprehensively understand and research the author's idea of life, ideological tendency, artistic point of view, aesthetic characteristic and language style, etc." (Song Xiaochun, 2006, p.89).

III. THE OUTPUT ECO-ENVIRONMENT OF CHINESE CULTURE

A. *Focusing on the Promotion of the Fine Traditions of the Nation*

National factors fall within the category of cultural ecology. It refers to the totality of a nation's inherent characteristics, sentiments, beliefs and habits. China's cultural eco-environment, such as traditional cultures, customs, and thinking models formed for thousands of years, will inevitably influence the translation activity. The three words translation theory: "faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance" proposed by Yan Fu, which is rooted in the Chinese literary tradition, is in line with Chinese thinking, habits, and norms. China's translators shoulder the historical mission of promoting the fine traditions and style of Chinese nationality and overcoming the national weakness.

The output of Chinese culture is mainly carried out by the activities of Chinese-foreign translation. The Chinese-foreign translators should realize that translation of Chinese works should adapt to the need of the nation's revitalization. Only by rooting the Chinese-foreign translation and its research in its own nationality, can the Chinese culture be introduced into the world through the translation of literature in such fields as politics, sociology, philosophy, law, education, history, and finance, thus providing a medium for the world to understand China. China's translators should pay more attention to understanding and inheriting the fine traditions and style of Chinese nationality. Thus they can play an active role in Chinese-foreign translation. Their contributions are mainly reflected in upholding the following principles: First, Chinese-foreign translators should emphasize the adherence to the principle of supremacy of the national interests and the overall interests, and promote the unselfish sense of social responsibility and mission; second, they should have national self-esteem and pride while learning all useful things of other nations, observe the principle of promoting the Chinese culture while admitting its reality gap, make China's traditional culture communicate with the world, and form a good ecosystem with an atmosphere suitable for outputting Chinese cultures; third, the output of Chinese cultures should stick to the "three close to" principles in international communication. The so-called "three close to" principles refer to (1) close to China's actual development, realistically reflecting China's

modernization process; (2) close to the needs of overseas audience for information about China, providing foreign audience with the information about China comprehensively, multi-dimensionally, objectively, and chronologically; (3) close to the thinking and language habits of foreign audience, studying foreign cultures and psychological thinking mode of foreigners, noting the discrepancies between Chinese and foreign cultures, and translating according to the thinking habits and language habits of foreign audience, so as to achieve the best effect of spreading Chinese cultures. Fourth, the translators should adhere to the translation principle of highlighting and strengthening exotic characteristics and ethnic characteristics of original culture, produce “authentic” translation based on maintaining the original meaning; fifth, they should promote moral principles of self-discipline and devotion to practice. Chinese people attach great importance to strengthening the cultivation of personal moral quality, which is a unique culture of Chinese traditional ethics. Chinese translators should not only pay attention to cultivating self-knowledge, but also focus on self-personality cultivation, and correctly treat the national culture: neither being arrogant and advocating nationalism, nor being self-denying, exaggerating the national weakness, and producing national inferiority.

B. Trying to Change the Weak Status of Chinese Culture and Make China Go Global through Chinese-foreign Translation.

Chinese culture belongs to the weak side in world culture. Compared with the connotation and profoundness of Chinese culture itself, its external spreading and the influence in the world fall much behind. We have to face such a reality that international communication and spreading of Chinese culture is in a serious cultural deficit status. Taking books for an example, the China’s import and export trade deficit of books has been about 10:1 for many years. Books are mainly exported to some Asian countries and regions. In 2005, the total export of the books, newspapers and periodicals is U.S.\$ 32.87 million, and the import is U.S.\$ 164.18 million. This gap objectively reflects the ecological imbalance of our work in Chinese-foreign translation, the gaps and deficiencies in Chinese-foreign translation talents’ training, and the problems and challenges faced by Chinese-foreign translators. In the new century, China’s political and economic integration with the international community are increasing. The world is paying close attention to China’s development. Since the reform and opening up, the work of Chinese-foreign translation has seen gratifying achievements in political, economic, cultural, diplomatic, press, publishing and other fields of China. Our Chinese-foreign translators translate the work of the Party and state leaders as well as diplomatic files into a variety of foreign languages and transmit them to the world. People in more and more regions of the world can read newspapers, books, and magazines translated by Chinese translators, hear the voices of a variety of foreign languages of China Radio International, and watch foreign TV programs broadcast by China Central Television. In recent years, China has launched the “China Book International Promotion Program” and published “Greater China Library”, which have aroused widespread concern both at home and abroad and made efforts in creating a favorable ecological environment of Chinese-foreign translation.

Language is the precipitation of culture, while lexicon and semantics are inevitably stamped with the national culture, which in turn implies connotations of national culture. Translating these works involves communicating and transplanting alien culture in order to achieve equivalent conversion of pragmatic meaning to realize cross-cultural exchange. In this process, as the cultural bond, the translators should be duty-bound to complete the mission to show the unique style and features of every region (Gai Xiaolan, 2009). China’s translators have clearly realized that in order to make China known by the world, to go global, and to accurately reveal China and its culture to the world in the process of modernization, the work of Chinese-foreign translation will play a key role in achieving this. China needs to take great efforts to cultivate a large number of high-quality Chinese-foreign translation talents to accelerate the development of China’s foreign international career. Only by doing this can a harmonious ecological environment of Chinese-foreign translation be built up, and can the Chinese culture go global on a large scale.

IV. CONCLUSION

“Culture is the main regulatory environment to translation ecology. Since translation is developed in culture, it will be influenced by a variety of cultural ecological factors. Meanwhile, translation plays an important role in cultural transmission, dissemination, development and creation.” (Xu Jianzhong, 2009, p.42). To create a balanced, harmonious cultural eco-environment of translation, Chinese translators should be able to understand the rich cultures behind the languages used in translation, and they should not only treat foreign cultures with respect, but also be quite familiar with the unique ways of communication with foreign cultures. More important is that translators strive to promote the fine traditional culture of Chinese nationalities, understand the discrepancies between Chinese cultures and foreign cultures, try not to make these discrepancies become cultural barriers, and truly realize the integration of Chinese culture with world culture.

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The Effects of Focused and Unfocused Written Corrective Feedback on Grammatical Accuracy of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—This study aimed at investigating whether direct focused corrective feedback and direct unfocused corrective feedback caused any differential effects on the accurate use of English articles by EFL learners across two different proficiency levels (low and high). The participants were divided into low and high proficiency levels by administering a TOEFL test. Then, sixty learners in each proficiency level formed two experimental groups and one control group, 20 learners in each group. One experimental group received focused written corrective feedback and the other experimental group received unfocused written corrective feedback. The statistical analysis indicated that focused group did better than both unfocused and control groups in terms of accurate use of English articles in both proficiency levels. Therefore, these results suggested that unfocused corrective feedback is of limited pedagogical value, whereas focused corrective feedback promoted learners' grammatical accuracy in L2 writing more effectively.

Index Terms—written corrective feedback, focused feedback, unfocused feedback, English articles, proficiency level, grammatical accuracy

I. INTRODUCTION

The question of whether teachers should provide feedback on grammar in the writing assignments of ESL/EFL learners, and if so how, has been a matter of considerable debate in the field of SLA. Some researchers (e.g., Kepner, 1991; Sheppard, 1992; Truscott, 2007) claim that grammar corrections do not have a positive effect on the development of L2 writing accuracy. According to the most extreme views, such as Truscott (2007), corrective feedback (CF) is seen as not only ineffective but also potentially harmful. In contrast, other researchers (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2008a; Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2002; Sheen, 2007) claim that CF is of value in promoting grammatical accuracy. What makes this issue even more controversial is the variety of strategies for carrying out written CF. It is not just a question of whether CF is effective but also which type is effective.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As pointed out by Nunan (2001), producing a coherent, fluent, extended piece of writing is probably the most difficult thing there is to do in a language. Harmer (2001) believes that, when a student produces a piece of language and sees how it turns out, that information is fed back into the acquisition process which means that output becomes input. Such input or feedback can be provided by the writer himself, by the people he is communicating with, and, of course, by the teacher. Hyland (2003) has asserted that one of the major concerns of L2 writers is error-free work since their work may be evaluated in academic setting where accuracy in an important matter, so learners require and value feedback to their works. Also, Freedman (1987) believes that if students fail in well performance in writing, further feedback is necessary to help them take correct actions about their writing in order to improve it and reach an acceptable level of performance.

A. Research Evidence for and against Written CF

Since Truscott (1996) claimed that providing corrective feedback on L2 writing is both ineffective and harmful and should therefore be abandoned, debate about whether and how to give L2 learners feedback on their written grammatical errors has been of considerable interest to researchers and classroom practitioners. Ferris (1999) has disputed this claim, arguing that it was not possible to dismiss correction in general as it depended on the quality of the correction – in other words, if the correction was clear and consistent it would work. Truscott replied by claiming that Ferris failed to cite any evidence in support of her contention. In his most recent survey of the written corrective

feedback research, Truscott (2007) again critiqued the available research and concluded that "the best estimate is that correction has a small harmful effect on students' ability to write accurately" (p. 270).

Several researchers have argued that written CF does not have a positive effect on the development of learners' L2 writing accuracy (e.g., Kepner, 1991; Truscott, 2007; Sheppard, 1992). For example, Sheppard (1992) analyzed the effects of two types of CF (indirect error coding CF vs. holistic comments in the margins) on the development of L2 students' accurate use of verb tense, punctuation, and subordination. He reported that the group that received holistic comments outperformed the group that received CF and further noted that the CF group regressed over time. This led him to conclude that grammar error correction had a negative effect. Similarly, Kepner (1991) compared error corrections and message-related comments on American university learners' written Spanish. The results of his study showed that grammar error correction did not lead to significant improvement in accuracy. Kepner (1991) also concluded that corrective feedback which focuses on grammar has little value.

In contrast, there is now a growing body of literature on the efficacy of written CF for helping L2 writers improve the accuracy of their writing. On the one hand, there is evidence that written CF can help writers improve their written accuracy when asked to revise their texts (Ashwell, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1999, 2006; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). On the other hand, there is mounting more recent evidence of the long-term effectiveness of written CF on accuracy improvement, revealed in the writing of new texts (Bitchener, 2008, 2009; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008a, 2008b, 2010a; Bitchener, Young & Cameron 2005, Chandler, 2003; Ellis, Sheen, Takashima, Murakami, 2008; Robb, Ross & Shortreed, 1986; Sheen, 2007; Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa, 2009).

For instance, Ferris and Roberts (2001) investigated 72 university ESL students' abilities to self-edit their texts across three feedback conditions: (1) errors marked with codes; (2) errors underlined but not otherwise marked or labeled; (3) no feedback at all. They found that both groups who received feedback significantly outperformed the no-feedback group on the self-editing task but that there were no significant differences between the "codes" and "no-codes" groups. However, as mentioned before, more recently studies have examined the value of written CF by measuring progress in new pieces of writing. Bitchener et al. (2005), for example, investigated the extent to which different types of CF (direct CF with and without oral conferencing) influence the accuracy in new pieces of writing. They concluded that both types of direct CF had a significant impact on accuracy in new pieces of writing but that this was only evident for the definite article and past tense. The same type of feedback did not have a significant positive effect on accurate use of prepositions. Also, Chandler (2003) found that both direct correction and simple underlining of errors are significantly superior to describing the type of error, even with underlining, for reducing long-term error.

B. Research Evidence on Efficacy of Different Types of Written CF

A range of studies has investigated the extent to which different types of written CF may have an effect on helping L2 writers improve the accuracy of their writing. Most often, these studies have categorized written CF as either direct (explicit correction of linguistic form above or near the linguistic error) or indirect (indicating that in some way an error has been made but not providing a correction). Among those that have compared direct and indirect types, Lalande (1982) investigated the effects of direct error correction and indirect coding correction on 60 German FL intermediate learners, consisting two experimental groups and no control group, during 10 weeks and reported an advantage for indirect feedback. Also, Robb et al. (1986) and Semke (1984, as cite in Bitchener & Knoch, 2010b) reported no difference between the two approaches; and Chandler (2003) reported positive findings for both direct and indirect feedback.

Several recent studies (e.g. Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010b) have examined the relative effectiveness of different types of direct CF on improved accuracy. For example, Bitchener (2008) investigated the effectiveness of direct feedback combinations: (1) direct error correction with written meta-linguistic explanation and oral meta-linguistic explanation; (2) direct error correction with written meta-linguistic explanation; (3) direct error correction; and (4) no corrective feedback. Feedback was provided on only two functional uses of the English articles (the indefinite article "a" for first mention and the definite article "the" for subsequent or anaphoric mentions). Groups one and three outperformed the control group while group two only just failed to do so.

A further distinction that needs to be examined is between 'unfocused' and 'focused' CF. Sheen (2007) examined the effects of focused CF on the development of 91 adult ESL learners' accuracy in the use of two types of articles ('the' and 'a'). The study included a direct only group (the researcher indicated errors and provided correct forms), a direct-metalinguistic group (the researcher indicated errors, provided correct forms, and supplied metalinguistic explanations), and a control group. The effectiveness of the CF was measured on pretests, posttests, and delayed posttests. Sheen found that both direct CF groups outperformed the control group. She explained this finding by pointing out that the feedback supplied to the students with the correct form was limited to two linguistic forms (i.e., articles 'the' and 'a'), which made the processing load manageable for them.

To date only a few numbers of studies have focused on comparing the effects of focused and unfocused CF. For the first time, Ellis et al. (2008) compared the effects of focused and unfocused CF on the accurate use of English definite and indefinite articles and reported that both focused and unfocused CF groups gained from pre-test to post-tests on both an error correction test and on a test involving a new piece of narrative writing and also outperformed a control group, which received no correction, on the second posttest. Therefore, the CF was equally effective for the focused and unfocused groups. However, as mentioned by Sheen et al. (2009), one of the methodological problems with this study,

acknowledged by the authors, was that the focused and unfocused CF were not sufficiently distinguished (i.e., article corrections figured strongly in both) and another limitation of this study was that their measure of learning involved just one structure – articles (i.e., they did not examine whether focused CF had any effect, on the accuracy of structures not targeted by the CF).

To overcome some of the limitations of previous study, Sheen et al. (2009) ,using six intact adult ESL intermediate classes totaling 80 students, investigated the effects of the focused and unfocused approaches on both single grammatical target (articles) and on a broader range of grammatical structures (i.e., articles, copula ‘be’, regular past tense, irregular past tense and preposition). They had four groups in this study consisting: focused written CF group, unfocused written CF group, writing Practice Group and Control Group. Interestingly, they reported that focused CF group achieved the highest accuracy scores for both articles and the other four grammatical structures. Therefore, they concluded that unfocused CF is of limited pedagogical value while focused CF can contribute to grammatical accuracy in L2 writing.

To date, the findings of research on feedback types have revealed some interesting patterns, but the inconsistency of the findings makes it clear that more research is needed. Much of the available research has been done with lower proficient or intermediate learners, so the extent to which the effectiveness of different types of feedback is dependent upon the proficiency level of an L2 writer is under question. As Ellis (2008) has stated, “the effectiveness of direct and indirect feedback is likely to depend on the current state of the learners’ grammatical knowledge” (p.355). Therefore, besides the obvious needs for clearer empirical evidence about implementation of whether focused or unfocused written CF, the present study aimed to investigate the differential effects of focused and unfocused CF on accurate use of targeted grammatical forms (English articles) by foreign language learners across two different proficiency levels (low and high).

III. METHOD

A. *Research Questions and Hypotheses*

RQ1: Are there any significant differences in the effects of focused and unfocused written CF on accurate use of grammatical forms by low-proficient EFL learners?

H01: There are no significant differences in the effects of focused and unfocused written CF on accurate use of grammatical forms by low-proficient EFL learners.

H1: There are significant differences in the effects of focused and unfocused written CF on accurate use of grammatical forms by low-proficient EFL learners.

RQ2: Are there any significant differences in the effects of focused and unfocused written CF on accurate use of grammatical forms by high-proficient EFL learners?

H02: There are no significant differences in the effects of focused and unfocused written CF on accurate use of grammatical forms by high-proficient EFL learners.

H2: There are significant differences in the effects of focused and unfocused written CF on accurate use of grammatical forms by high-proficient EFL learners.

B. *Participants*

The participants for the study were 120 Iranian EFL learners including 50 males and 70 females with age range of 18-35. A TOEFL test was administered in order to divide them into two proficiency levels, low proficient (LP) and high proficient (HP). Then 60 learners in each proficiency level formed three groups, 20 learners in each group, two experimental groups and one control group. The experimental groups consisted of (1) a focused written CF group, and (2) an unfocused written CF group.

C. *Instruments*

The first instrument utilized in the present study was an actual TOEFL proficiency test administered in 2004 by ETS in order to assign participants into two levels of proficiency (low and high). The other instruments were ten short fables, five for each proficiency level, based on Aesop.’s fables which were used as written narrative tasks. Additionally, to examine the effects of the two types of treatments on learners’ use of the indefinite article (for first mention) and the definite article (for anaphoric reference), two different picture compositions taken from Byrne (1967) were used as narrative writing tests in both proficiency levels. One of the tests was administered in pre-test session and the other one in post-test session. These picture compositions consisted of six pictures shown sequentially and the learners were asked to look at them and write a story.

D. *Procedures*

After dividing the participants into two proficiency levels (low and high) by administering a TOEFL test, each proficiency level was classified into three groups, two experimental groups and one control group. Then, a week prior to starting the treatment sessions, a narrative writing test (picture composition) as a pretest was given to all participants in order to be sure of their homogeneity and to measure their writing proficiency in use of the indefinite article (for first

mention) and the definite article (for anaphoric reference) at the beginning of the study. The participants were asked to look at the pictures and write a story in details about 150-200 words within a given time (15-20 minute).

Afterwards, over the next three weeks, all three groups in both proficiency levels completed five written narrative tasks in every other session, each of which followed by a CF treatment session in the following class. The narrative tasks involved reading and then rewriting fables. The tasks given to each proficiency level were different in terms of difficulty and complexity. In both proficiency levels, the first experimental group received focused CF; the second experimental group received unfocused CF, while the control group received no feedback. The grammatical target for the focused group was the use of English definite and indefinite articles whereas the target for the unfocused CF group included the following five grammatical features: (1) English articles, (2) copula 'be', (3) regular and irregular past tense, (4) third person's, and (5) prepositions (e.g., at, in, on).

Finally, one session after receiving CF for the last writing task, the learners were given another narrative writing test (picture composition) as a post-test. Writing test scores were calculated by means of obligatory occasion analysis (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005) in order to measure the differential effects of our treatments on the acquisition of the accurate use of the indefinite article (for first mention) and the definite article (for anaphoric reference).

IV. RESULTS

A. Testing the First Hypothesis

Table 1 presents the means and standard deviations for the pre-test and post-test of the low proficient learners in each of the three groups. All three groups increased the accuracy of their use of articles from the pre-test to post-test. However, the gained mean score by focused group on the post-test is much higher than the other two groups.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE NARRATIVE WRITING TESTS (LP)

Groups	N	Pre-test M	SD	Post-test M	SD
Focused	20	44.22	9.7	85.56	7.01
Unfocused	20	43.19	12.24	59.85	9.12
Control	20	44.83	10.58	55.94	10.06

In order to find out whether there are any statistically significant differences in the effects of focused and unfocused CF on the accurate use of English articles in the post-test by low proficient learners, a one way ANOVA was performed. The results of the ANOVA test are shown in Table 1. This revealed that the difference between groups is statistically significant ($p=0.000$, $\alpha=0.05$, $p<\alpha$) and it means that the groups performed differently after receiving different types of feedback. Consequently, the first null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is confirmed. In light of these findings, Tukey's post-hoc pairwise comparisons were also computed to isolate where the significant differences lay among the groups (with an alpha level of .05). These analyses revealed that in the post-test, the focused CF group performed better than both the unfocused CF group and the control group.

TABLE 2:
COMPARING POST-TEST MEAN SCORES (LP)
ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	10353.397	2	5176.699	66.443	.000
Within Groups	4440.974	57	77.912		
Total	14794.372	59			

B. Testing the Second Hypothesis

In Table 3, the mean scores and standard deviations for the pre-test and post-test in high proficiency level are shown. The mean scores of the learners on the post-test are different from each other across the three groups unlike the pre-test mean score which are very close to each other. These obtained results mean that after receiving the treatment of the study, the three groups showed dissimilar performances; therefore, our treatment had some effects on the learners' accuracy performance but not the same effect.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE NARRATIVE WRITING TESTS (HP)

Groups	N	Pre-test M	SD	Post-test M	SD
Focused	20	56.02	9.46	81.49	10.97
Unfocused	20	54.5	7.63	64.12	7.12
Control	20	52.81	8.97	58.96	8.28

Therefore, another one-way ANOVA analysis was applied to see whether the differences across the three high-proficient groups are statistically significant or not. The results shown in Table 4 indicate that the level of computed significance or p value is less than the level of significance set in this analysis ($p=0.032$, $\alpha=0.05$, $p<\alpha$). Therefore,

providing the two different types of feedback had significantly different effects on written accuracy performance of high-proficient learners in the use of definite and indefinite English articles. In other words, the second null hypothesis is also rejected and consequently the second alternative hypothesis is accepted. Also, Tukey's post hoc pair-wise comparison (with an alpha level of .05) was performed to see the difference between which groups is statistically significant. These indicated that on the post-test, participants in focused CF group significantly outperformed those in the unfocused CF and control groups.

TABLE 4:
COMPARING POST-TEST MEAN SCORES (HP)
ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5573.466	2	2786.733	34.840	.032
Within Groups	4559.172	57	79.985		
Total	10132.638	59			

A short look at the results of the post-tests makes it clear that in both proficiency levels the two experimental groups receiving two different types of feedback did better than the control group. Therefore, it can be said that one of the similar points about these two proficiency levels is that providing feedback had positive effect on both low-proficient and high-proficient learners. Another similarity between the levels is that the group receiving focused written CF did better than the group being provided by unfocused written CF in both levels.

Although there are some similarities such as the ones mentioned above, there is a difference in the effect of focused written CF across the two proficiency levels that catch the attention in Figure 1. The low-proficient focused CF group gained more than high-proficient one on the post-test. Therefore, it can be concluded that providing focused written CF had more positive effect on low-proficient learners rather than high-proficient ones. To summarize, focused written CF had different effect on learners across two levels of proficiency.

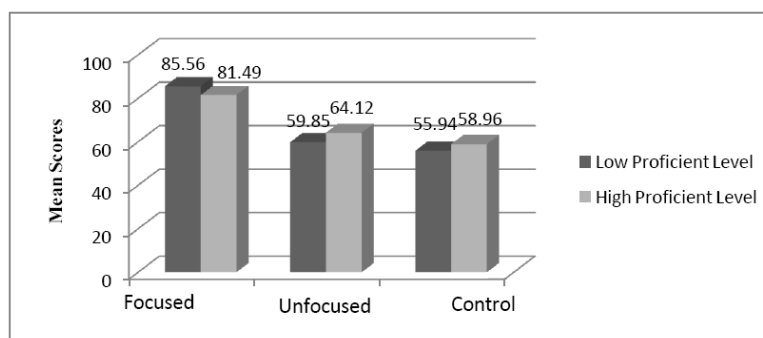


Figure 1: LP and HP Learners' Post-test Mean Scores

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The first research question concerned the differential effects of focused and unfocused CF on the learning of English articles by low proficient EFL learners. The results indicated that the focused CF group outperformed not only the control group but also the unfocused group in the post-test. Concerning the general effectiveness of written CF, the results of the study corroborate those of recent studies on article use with lower proficiency writers (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008a, 2008b, 2010a; Sheen, 2007; Sheen et al., 2009). However, concerning the differential effects of focused and unfocused CF, this study's findings differ from those of Ellis et al. (2008). Ellis et al. failed to find significant differences in the effects of focused and unfocused CF, with both proving to be equally more effective than no correction. On the other hand, the results of the current study were very similar to those of Sheen et al. (2009) in displaying the clear distinction between the effects of focused and unfocused CF approaches. They proved that the group receiving focused CF achieved the highest accuracy scores than the unfocused CF, writing practice, and control groups.

The second research question investigated whether focused or unfocused written CF on English articles enabled high-proficient writers, who had already achieved a reasonable level of accuracy, to further improve this level of achievement. The results showed that although both focused and unfocused CF groups did better than the control group, focused CF group outperformed both. Therefore, it can be concluded that first of all, providing written corrective feedback is an effective way for responding to high-proficient learners' written performance in general, and secondly that focused written CF has more positive effect on these learners' acquisition of the targeted structures than the unfocused written CF.

Concerning the general effects of written CF apart from its specific type, the results of this study are in line with the study of Bitchener and Knoch (2010b) who found that advanced L2 writers were able to make further gains in accuracy as a result of targeted written CF. In this respect, the findings of their study informed us that "there is potential for

written CF to also be effective in targeting certain types of errors made by advanced L2 writers, even when their existing levels of accuracy are quite high, and that these can be targeted successfully with one feedback treatment" (p. 215).

Concerning the differential effects of these two types of feedbacks across two different proficiency levels, the findings of the study showed that in both proficiency levels the two experimental groups receiving feedback did better than the control group. However, the focused CF group outperformed the unfocused group CF in both levels. Moreover, a very interesting point found in this study was that the low-proficient focused CF group showed a bit higher accuracy level than high-proficient one on the post-test while the high-proficient group was expected to gain more due to its higher level of English knowledge. Therefore, it can be concluded that providing focused written CF can lead to more improvement in accurate use of targeted structures by low-proficient learners.

According to Sheen et al. (2009), one reason that unfocused CF was not effective is that when the correction addresses a range of grammatical errors, learners are unable to process the feedback effectively, and even if they attend to the corrections, they are unable to work out why they have been corrected. Han (2002), has also argued that "a consistent focus on one aspect of L2 use" is one of the key conditions for recasts (as one type of CF) to have an effect on acquisition. Finally, Sheen et al. (2009) has pointed out the probable reasons of differential effectiveness of focused and unfocused CF as follows:

Focused CF may enhance learning by helping learners to (1) notice their errors in their written work, (2) engage in hypothesis testing in a systematic way and (3) monitor the accuracy of their writing by tapping into their existing explicit grammatical knowledge. In contrast, unfocused CF runs the risk of (1) providing CF in a confusing, inconsistent and unsystematic way and (2) overburdening learners. (p. 567)

VI. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

From the pedagogical point of view, the results of this study are important for second and foreign language teachers to establish which type of written CF, whether focused or unfocused, helps to improve accuracy of learners' written works. As this study revealed, teachers should feel confident that providing error correction alone on specific functional uses of limited number of rule-based features (focused CF) is more effective and helps learners to improve better in accurate use of these features than correcting all of the existing errors from different grammatical features in learners' one piece of writing. Additionally, the findings of the present study make it clear that the effectiveness of teachers' reactions to learners' writing can be dependent on their proficiency levels. As discussed before, this study showed that focused CF is more effective in concern with the learners in lower levels of proficiency than the unfocused one.

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A Comparative Study of Color Metaphors in English and Chinese

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Abstract—Metaphor is a pervasive phenomenon which has traditionally been considered as a figure of speech used for special effects in a speech or an essay. It is pervasive in everyday life. Color terms are usually used to depict the colors of objects in the world. Every object in the world has its own color. There are a large number of metaphorical expressions with color serving as the source domain in both English and Chinese. As a very important human experience, colors have attracted many scholars' attention. The research revealed that possible reason for the similarities and of color metaphor in the two languages can be attributed to the common perceptual and cultural experience, while the dissimilarities originated from the different living environment, religion, custom, and philosophy etc. This thesis makes a comparison of color metaphor about the similarities and differences between English and Chinese. Understanding similarities and differences of color metaphor between English and Chinese is of great importance in the cross-cultural communication. It's beneficial for us to do English teaching, English translation, and appreciation of English culture.

Index Terms—color metaphor, basic color terms, similarities, cognitive study

I. INTRODUCTION

We live in a colorful world. There are a great variety of color words to describe the colorful things in the world. English and Chinese, as languages with a long history, are both abundant in basic color terms.

In recent years, both subjects of metaphor and color terms have received much attention and been widely researched by many researchers. More and more people begin to realize that metaphor plays an important role in human cognition and social activities.

The study of metaphor has a history of more than two thousand years ago. Since Aristotle, metaphor has been viewed as a deviated use of words and expressions outside their normal, conventional meanings. The publication of *Metaphors We live By* of Lakoff & Johnson (1980) brings a turning point of metaphor study. Since then, metaphor is not only a figure of speech, but also a way of thinking. Lakoff's cognitive view on metaphor is regarded as a breakthrough in metaphor study.

We know everything in our natural environment has a color, and every language in the world has its color terms. Among these color terms, there is a special subset known as basic color terms. According to Berlin and Kay(1969), who carry out a landmark research on color terms, English has eleven basic color terms: black, white, red, green, yellow, blue, brown, purple, pink, orange and gray. Obviously, there are nine shared basic color terms in English and Chinese.

This thesis tries to focus on the metaphorical meanings of the basic color terms through the comparative study by using some linguistic data, aiming to examine the similarities and dissimilarities of the usage of color metaphor in English and Chinese, and tries to give a persuasive explanation for the reasons causing the similarities and dissimilarities.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Studies of Metaphors in the West*

"The greatest thing by far is to be a master of metaphor. It is the one thing that can not be learned from others; it is also a sign of genius, since a good metaphor implies an eye for resemblance." (Aristotle, Poetics) The earliest study on metaphor could be traced back to Aristotle who has had a tremendous influence on the history of Western rhetoric and poetics. Metaphor was initially discussed in detail by Aristotle in his two great works, Rhetoric and Poetics. In poetics, Aristotle defined metaphor as "the application of an alien name by transference either from genus to species, or from species to genus, or from species to species, or by analogy, that is proportion" (Aristotle,1950). His view toward metaphor maintains the classical representation theory. According to Aristotle, Metaphor is a kind of expressive way, replacing one word with another. His claims are thought to be the origin of the comparison theory. For more than 2000 years, metaphor has been primarily studied by philosophers, rhetoricians, and literary critics as a matter of language or a figure of speech.

Richards is the first who proposed the interaction theory. He raised "the interaction theory" in *the Philosophy of Rhetoric*. He points out, that "metaphor is the omnipresent principle of language", and that "we cannot get through three

sentences of ordinary fluid discourse without it" (Richard, 1936). Later on, it is Max Black who inherits and develops the theory. He developed and modified Richard's work. He views metaphor as a distinctive accomplishment rather than conveying literal meaning. Furthermore, he sees metaphor as containing positive cognitive content, which may indicate that metaphor can convey much more than the connotative meaning of the word itself.

In 1980, the publication of *Metaphors We Live By* (Lakoff & Johnson) makes a milestone in metaphor study. In this book, the idea of "conceptual metaphor" is put forward for the first time. Lakoff and Johnson claim that, "Metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). They also point out that "the essence of metaphor is to understand and experience one kind of thing in terms of another". In this view, metaphor becomes a valuable cognitive tool and inevitable part of everyday human communication, understanding, and reasoning.

B. *Studies of Metaphors in China*

China has a long history of metaphor (Hu Zhuanglin, 2004), but in the classic Chinese books metaphor wasn't precisely defined as the ancient Western scholars did. People still treat it as a kind of figure of speech that contains no figurative word.

After 2000 years of development, Chinese metaphor has been considered as the rhetoric, meanwhile by means of advanced theories and methodologies from the Western metaphorical study, metaphor develops in a scientific way (Hu Zhuanglin). The cognitive study of metaphor in China didn't begin until the middle of the 1990s, some Chinese scholars began to introduce theories of Western cognitive linguistics and cognitive approach to the metaphor study, of which book reviews of the important.

Works appeared in the core journals of foreign language study, such as Lin Shuwu's *A Review of Metaphor Study Abroad* (1997). The cognitive linguistics and cognitive theory on metaphor have been introduced from the Western academic world, and books on metaphor study are published, for instance, *Metaphor and Cognition* (Hu Zhuanglin, 2004). All of these show a growing interest in metaphor study and the considerable progress that has been made in this field in China. The metaphor study in China turns into the cognitive study from the traditional rhetoric study.

C. *Research on Color Terms Abroad*

The study of color terms has a very long history in Western countries. Nearly 2,500 years ago, the color was systematically studied for the first time as a basic cognitive domain. Aristotle held the view that simple colors related to some basic elements in the physical world and the nature of colors is assumed that simple colors were mixtures of "black" and "white". In 1666, Newton, for the rest time in his life as well as in human's history, distinguished seven colors in the order: red, orange, yellow, green, blue and purple, that pushed forward the study of color a great deal. The color terms study could be explained from the linguistic perspective by using the linguistic relativism proposed by Sapir (1921) and Whorf (1956). In 1969, the ethnologist Brent Berlin and Paul Kay coauthored a book *Basic Color Terms: Their Universality and Evolution*. They found the evidence that people rely on some focal colors for categorization. Correspondingly, these focal colors form the basic color words in languages. Berlin and Kay reached 98 languages, and found the basic color words expressions nearly all orderly came from 11 basic colors, and the following figure shows the order

Black	Green < Yellow	Purple
< Red <	Blue < Brown <	Pink
White	Yellow < Green	Orange
		Gray

This figure tells us that, if a language only has two color words, they must be black and white; if the language has the third color word, it must be red; if it has the fourth one, it must be green or yellow, and the rest may be deduced by analogy.

Influenced by Berlin and Kay's publication, basic color terms theory has resulted in great achievements in cross-discipline researches. Since then, many scholars have studied color terms from different perspectives.

D. *Research on Color Terms in China*

The history of Chinese color terms could be retrospective to the ancient China 2000 years ago and research on color terms could be found in some classic works, for instance, the ones in the book of *Shi Jing* (the Classic of Poetry), but they are restricted to Chinese color terms. Later due to the development of silk industry, the expressions of color terms have been abundant. The systematic studies on color terms did not emerge until the introduction of Berlin and Kay's (1969) *basic color Terms*, which has aroused the interests of Chinese scholars who dedicated themselves to the color issue and achieved some progress.

The period from the late 1980s to 1990s is the peak for the study of color terms and many contrastive researches have been carried out aiming at finding the differences in language and culture and contributing to the cross-cultural communication. Professor Yang Yonglin of Qing Hua University contributes a great deal to this field through a systematic and scientific investigation. In 1990s, his study views college students as the subjects with the aim at the color code cognitive of Chinese learners of English at the university level in an English learning situation and he has

published two books on this aspect.

All of the studies contribute a lot to the research on color terms in China. The color-term system has very distinctive cultural connotation, which makes itself a special window for the researchers to study the whole system of words, to make contribution to better understanding and more effective communications.

III. COLOR METAPHOR

Metaphor is the “mapping of the logic of one domain (usually, but not always a concrete domain) onto another (usually more abstract) domain” (Taylor 2001). As a universal phenomenon, color is an important part of the human experience and plays a vital part in our daily life. People always use color words to express their understandings and thought. Some examples will be shown as followings:

(1) He is black hearted.

(2) 在这里红包喜事他都参加。

In the above sentences, these color terms do not refer to colors, but are used metaphorically. “Black hearted” means evil, negative meaning. It is the basic taboo color in the Western culture to be black, reflecting Westerner’s spiritual abandoning and disgust. Further examples in English may include “a black day”, “a black sheep” and “a black look”. “A black sheep” refers to member “of a family or other groups” who is thought to be a disgrace to other members, just like in “Now every profession has got its black sheep”. “红” and “白” indicate different occasions in China. Occasions do not have colors, but in China the color red plays an important role in Chinese people’s life. People usually associate “红” with weddings and joyful, happy occasions. In Chinese culture, white is also the symbol of death. Therefore “白事” actually means funerals.

(3) He was blue over his dismissal.

(4) 黄色电影

Here (3) sentence simply means “He was sad for his dismissal”. In English blue is usually associated with unhappy feelings. “Having the blues” means a sad, gloomy or depressed mood. “Blue Monday” has the same meaning, as in “It was blue Monday and he didn’t feel like going back to work”. In (4) sentence, “黄色电影” sometimes called “黄片” are pornographic movies. It is not “yellow movies”.

In this sense, a comparative study of color metaphor is very helpful in overcoming language barriers and smoothing cross-culture communication.

IV. A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF COLOR METAPHORS BETWEEN ENGLISH AND CHINESE

We human beings are living in a world full of colors, the blue sky, the green tree, the golden sun and so on. We are familiar with them, so they become a good substance to view and to express something unfamiliar, complicated and abstract. When we use colors to express, explain and comprehend other categories, we use them metaphorically.

According to the metaphorical meanings of each color term, the major color conceptual metaphors include similar and dissimilar between English and Chinese. In this thesis, a comparison will be made between the five basic color terms: black and 黑, white and 白, red and 红, yellow and 黄, blue and 蓝.

A. Black and “hei (黑)”

For human beings, black is the color of mystery, the symbol of darkness, and darkness can afford people the best shelter when engaged in secret business. Illegal things are often carried out in the dark. In Chinese, “黑社会” (literally black society) refers to the illegal world. “black money” refers to “黑钱” (income from illegal activities). In English, such expressions as “black future” and “blackout” are also connected with “darkness”. “Black future” refers to the future without hope, just the same as “你的前途很黑暗” in Chinese. “Blackout” refers to a period of darkness caused by a failure of the electricity supply. Some other expressions related to “black market” can be found out in English, for instance, “black market goods”, “black market trader” and so on.

In Chinese, the color black is often associated with negative qualities, and is related to an awful, evil and illegal meaning. Such as “黑手”, “黑心肠”, the person with “黑手”, here “黑” means rebellious, refers to a vicious person manipulating somebody or something from behind the scenes. “黑心肠” refers to evil mind.

It is not difficult for us both English and Chinese to conceptualize the concept disgrace in terms of black. Let’s see the following examples:

(1) The public scandal left a black mark on his career.

(2) 他的不良行为给家里抹黑了。

As we all know, people’s general psychological reaction to the black color is depressed or unpleasant, and disgrace is of course something unpleasant. Besides, “black” also means a very anger or resentful mood both in English and Chinese. “A black look” refers to an angry look in English. In Chinese, we can find the corresponding words like “黑面”, “黑着脸”.

In English, sadness is often linked with the black term. For example: “He has been in a black mood ever since he lost

his job". "A black mood" refers to a kind of depression, bad temper, etc. With regard to the causes of sadness, people may think of death and misfortunes. In Bible, black is the symbol of evil spirit. "Black Friday" refers to an unlucky day, because it is the day of the Crucifixion to Christians. However, there is an exception in business English, in which the concept black has a positive meaning. The phrases "in the black" and "black figure" indicate the business is run profitably. In Chinese, the color term "黑" has some special connotations. In the Cultural Revolution, as an opposite to "红", "黑" "黑干将", "黑纲领", "黑帮子女" and so on. "黑五类" includes landlords, rich peasants, reactionaries, bad elements of society, and the Rightists as well. In modern Chinese, "黑马" refers to unexpected winners.

B. White and "bai (白)"

White is the color of snow. White conveys purity, cleanness in English and Chinese as well. People in Western countries believe that Jesus and his angels wear white dress, so the color white is the holiest color in Christianity. "White spirit" refers to a person who has a pure heart always does goods to others. "A white man" means a person who has virtues. Weddings taking place in the church are called "white wedding", because the brides are dressed in white, white is applied to describe the quality or state of being pure. Chinese expressions such as "洁白", "白璧无瑕" show purity.

White also bears a meaning of innocence. We can find some commonly used expressions of this in both languages. Such as, "He is white-handed", the meaning is he is honest or innocent. In fact a man who is honest or innocent can be expressed as "white hands". In Chinese, the equivalence of "white" is "白" and "素". The Chinese word "白" in the phrase "清清白白" is associated with purity and innocence. When we say "他是清白无辜的". Here "清白" means innocence and cleanness.

In English, "a white elephant" means possession that is useless and often expensive to maintain. "White" here is useless. Similarly, in Chinese "白说", "白做" convey the meaning of uselessness.

In ancient China, "白衣" was used to refer to "illiterate or commoner". Such as: "白衣" and "白丁". Those who didn't get any positions in offices were called "白身". Food that costs nothing in Chinese is called "白食", which also utilizes the concept white to portray things getting without payment. In Beijing opera, the colors of faces have profound meanings, "唱白脸" here white symbolizes the persons who are slyness.

C. Red and "hong (红)"

Red is usually associated with celebrations and joyful occasions. This is true in English speaking countries and China. In China, the red color plays an important role in Chinese people's life, seen as the color of sun and fire. People get direct benefits from the warmth of the sun and fire. It is the color of luck, associated with prosperity and happiness. In Chinese, the expression "红喜事" refers to a wedding because red is the color of wedding. "披红挂彩" is a traditional way to celebrate an event of happiness. "开门红" the red color shows the symbol of good luck. In English, we find such expressions as "a red-letter day", "holy red" and so on. "A red-letter day" refers to holidays such as Christmas and other special days. When some important visitors come, English people will "roll the red carpet" for reception.

In Western countries, red is the color of life, as well as the color of fire and blood. In English, "red" is used to be a sign of warning some dangers in most of the cases. For example, "Red Cross" is an international organization that helps people who are suffering from disease or who are injured in wars or some natural disasters. "A red alert" is the state of being to deal with a sudden dangerous situation.

Both in English and Chinese, Red conveys feelings of anger and embarrassment. "To become red-faced" shows embarrassment or shyness. If somebody sees red, it means he or she is very angry. In Chinese, "他气得脸红脖子粗" means he is red with anger.

Red is considered as the symbol of revolution and communism in China as well as in Western countries. In English, the term red can be used to indicate a person supporting revolution or radical policies. The expression "red in tooth and claw" describes a violent revolutionary who shows no mercy and makes no compromises. In Chinese, "红区", "红色政权" are all related to revolution.

In English, "be in the red" means owing money or in debt. For example, "He is in the red now". On the contrary, he is out of the red when he is no longer in debt or gets into a state of credit. In Chinese, "赤字" has the same meaning as "be in the red".

In Chinese, red is also closely related to females because ancient Chinese girls liked using rouge to dress up, such as "红颜", "红妆", "红粉佳人" and so on. While in English pink refers to pretty women or fair ladies.

D. Yellow and "huang (黄)"

Yellow is bright, sunny, cheerful. Lots of its associations both in Chinese and English are positive. In English, "yellow boy" is gold, equal to "黄金" in Chinese. "黄金时代" is golden age and "黄金周" is golden week.

In English, the term yellow is often used to refer to the dishonest style in editorial comment or presenting ordinary news in a sensational manner. "Yellow press" denotes the newspaper that deliberately includes sensational news items in order to attract readers. In most American homes, one can find a big thick book called "Yellow Page", but it is not a

“黄色书” in Chinese sense, but a “黄页”. This is a book with the telephone numbers of different shops, business, organizations, etc, arranged according to different categories. In English, “黄色书” is a “blue book”.

In China, according to the five-element theory, the color “黄” is the symbolic color of “earth”, standing for the center of the universe and is regarded as a color of nobility. What’s more, in Chinese, “黄” has the same pronunciation with “皇” (literally emperor), hence the yellow color has been the color of emperors and the color “黄” has been used to symbolize imperial power. In Chinese, there are quite a few expressions with “黄” related to the emperor. The imperial dress is called “黄袍”; the palace where emperors lived is called “皇宫”; the imperial edict is called “皇榜”, “黄袍加身” means “to be dressed with the imperial robe by one’s supporters and emperor. However, in English, “purple” is the color related to emperors.

Yellow in Chinese also means failure. For example, “我和他黄了” means he and I broke up.

E. Blue and “lan (蓝)”

Blue metaphor in English and Chinese has little in common. Blue is a natural color. Blue makes us calm. Blue is the color of sky. The equivalence of blue in Chinese is “蓝” or “青”. The color blue is extracted from a kind of indigo plant. Therefore in Chinese there is a famous proverb “青出于蓝而胜于蓝” (Blue comes from the indigo plant but is bluer than the plant itself), but is often translated into “the pupil surpasses the master”. “蓝天” is also called “青天”, it often refers to a sunny day without black clouds.

In English, blue is usually associated with the feeling of sadness and depression. If we say, “He is in a blue mood”, or “he has the blues” means he may feel gloomy and depressed. Similarly, “a blue Monday” implies the first day of work or school after a relaxing and carefree weekend, and most people have to endure the successive five days.

In English, blue is commonly regarded as the color for male. For example, boys in blue refer to police officer. Blue is also associated with the high social position, honor. For example, “He is a real blue blood” means he is from an aristocratic family. “Blue ribbon” refers to the highest honor or championship. In American English, “blue book” is not a book with a blue cover, but it is a book with names of well-known persons, especially government officials.

V. CONCLUSION

Color plays a remarkable role in people’s daily life and intercultural communication. The author’s thesis has made a comparative study on English and Chinese basic color terms to find out their similarities and dissimilarities by analyzing their different meanings and cultural background. However, there are some limitations in this thesis. Firstly, there are so many color terms in the world, and we cannot contrast all of them. The contrast in this thesis only focuses on five basic color terms. Secondly, there are so many expressions with color terms in both English and Chinese, I cannot list them all. But the examples given in this thesis are enough because the purpose of this thesis is not only to find out the similarities and dissimilarities, the most important point is to understand them between cultures and the implications they bring to us. There are still a lot in this field waiting to be made, and study on color terms deserves more attention.

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Decolonization in Charles Brockden Brown's *Edgar Huntly*

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Abstract—This study tries to show decolonization in Charles Brockden Brown's *Edgar Huntly; or, Memoirs of a Sleep-Walker*. Browns applies some narrative techniques which closely match those of the decolonization process. The narrative has a potentially representative content which opens one's horizons toward new sources of meaning and conceptual interpretation. The focal point, in this study, is to examine the decolonization level and its strategies as agency, abrogation, undermining and appropriation to see how tangibly these terms agree with the very context of the above-mentioned novel and to find out whether the purely abstract terms extracted from decolonization theory can be concretized in a practical form. Furthermore, this study aims at scrutinizing in detail the frequency and the possibility of the decolonization in the very fabric and texture of fictional narrative of colonized nations in general.

Index Terms—abrogation, agency, appropriation, decolonization

I. INTRODUCTION

The study starts with a brief introduction to decolonization, its strategies, and a short analysis of Charles Brockden Brown's position, philosophy, and his novel, *Edgar Huntly; or, Memoirs of a Sleep-Walker* which is followed by tracing decolonization in it.

II. DECOLONIZATION AND ITS STRATEGIES IN LITERATURE

As a process which is the very practical advantage of post-colonial discourse, decolonization is the only way of removing the heavy burden of empire colonization which has invaded colonized countries both culturally and naturally. But to perceive decolonization as the central point of the article, first it is deserved to answer the question of what decolonization is. Then, different kinds of decolonization (Early, Present, in Settlers and invaded colonies), strategies, and colonies will be presented. Consequently, decolonization in the settler colonies will be followed by analysis of Charles Brockden Brown's *Edgar Huntly; or, Memoirs of a Sleep-Walker* as an example.

A. Definition of Decolonization

Decolonization, in general, is a revolt, weather implicit or explicit, against imperial domination. In other words, it is a kind of awareness against oppression and inferiority like what was done in Marxist movement against master class by slaves (working class) or by Feminist against male-centered societies. Being different in early and present involvement and engagement, like them, decolonization can be divided into two phases: first or early phase, as will be referred to in the next parts, which was started by African decolonizers derived from the works of political theorists like Frantz Fanon (1959, 1961, 1967) and Albert Memmi (1965) who located its principal characteristic in the notion of the imperial-colonial (colonizer-colonized) dialectic itself. In this respect, The early involvement and engagement of decolonization as Ashcroft (2007) puts, is 'a profound complicity with the imperial powers from which they sought to emerge as free agents' (p.56), that is, freedom and emancipation as free subject. Fanon, writing in the 1950s during the Algerian struggle for independence from French colonial rule, through psychoanalysis of colonial subject produced the ways in which the colonial subject's identity is constructed by the colonist. In his famous and influential essay (Fanon, 1986, pp.109-40), Fanon shows the effects of racism on the construction of the subject and the production of identity. In this essay which is an interior monologue, Fanon (1986) uses the constructed identity of the oppressed narrator by the racist oppressors as: ' "Dirty nigger!", "Negro!"' and eventually he puts this construction as the construction of an object among the other objects not a subject:

'I came into the world imbued with the will to find a meaning in things, my spirit filled with the desire to attain to the source of the world, and then I found I was an object in the midst of other objects. Sealed into this crushing objecthood, I turned beseechingly to others.... I stumbled, and the movements, the attitudes, the glances of the other fixed me there, in the sense in which a chemical solution is fixed by a dye. I was indignant; I demanded an explanation. Nothing happened. I burst apart. Now the fragments have been put together again by another self (p. 109).

On the whole, early decolonization seeks to invert the structures of domination and substituting the tradition of the colonized nations in place of imperial-dominated canon. Therefore, the early decolonization is dialectic of

subject/object, self/other which is resulted in a national revolt and in Parry (1987) term 'nationalist liberationist narratives'...(p.37).

But in the present or advanced phase decolonization criticism is extended by Edward Said into the area of challenging and undermining absolute and axiomatic principles upon which the world classification into superiority of the occident and inferiority of the orient are established. Such classifications in Said's (1978) view are man-made, not absolute (p. 5); therefore, they are used for domination by Europe. Thus, decolonization has turned away from simple inversions towards a questioning of forms and modes, to unmasking the assumptions upon which such canonical constructions are founded in a way that it moves first to make their cryptic bases visible and then destabilizes them as Ashcroft (2007) puts it:

'decolonization is the process of revealing and dismantling colonialist power in all its forms. This includes dismantling the hidden aspects of those institutional and cultural forces that had maintained the colonialist power and that remain even after political independence is achieved. Initially, in many places in the colonized world, the process of resistance was conducted in terms or institutions appropriated from the colonizing culture itself... (P. 56-7).

B. Colonies: The Setter and Invaded colonies

Complexity of imperialist strategies and different geographical location of colonized countries is resulted in various kinds of colonization and colonies. In other words, regarding its benefits and revenues, Imperialism invades some countries, while at the same times, as Ashcroft (2004) puts, it occupies the others:

'...the settler colonies and the invaded colonies. In the case of the settler colonies like the United States, Canada, New Zealand, and Australia, land was occupied by European colonists who dispossessed and overwhelmed the Indigenous populations.... invaded societies like those in India or Nigeria, where indigenous peoples were colonized on their own territories'...(p.24).

In both cases, empire imposes its own superiority and domination through its language. This triumph is achieved through introducing English as intermediate and standard language and the writers are the subjects upon whom empire does it. Explaining this phenomenon, Maxwell (1965) demonstrates it as:

'there are two broad categories. In the first, the writer brings his own language – English – to an alien environment and a fresh set of experiences: Australia, Canada, New Zealand. In the other, the writer brings an alien language – English – to his own social and cultural inheritance: India, West Africa. Yet the categories have a fundamental kinship. . . . (pp. 82–3).

However, empire knows how to control and invade each nation.

C. Decolonization in the Invaded colonies:

Regarding the cases of invaded colonies, decolonization, as was discussed in previous parts, was at first a national movement against colonization by imperialism. Therefore, it was an anti-colonialism movement which was shared by all invaded colonies. Like other movements it was changing and taking many forms so that it could get the freedom of its agents. This procedure has been presented by Ashcroft (2007) as:

'...sometimes associated with an ideology of racial liberation, as in the case of nineteenth-century West African nationalists such as Edward Wilmot Blyden and James Africanus Horton (ideologies that might be seen as the precursors of twentieth-century movements such as **négritude**). Conversely, it may accompany a demand for a recognition of cultural differences on a broad and diverse front, as in the Indian National Congress which sought to unite a variety of ethnic groups with different religious and racial identities in a single, national independence movement. In the second half of the twentieth century, anti-colonialism was often articulated in terms of a radical, Marxist discourse of liberation, and in constructions that sought to reconcile the internationalist and anti-étatist demands of Marxism with the nationalist sentiments of the period (National Liberation Fronts), in the work and theory of early national liberationist thinkers such as C.L.R. James, Amílcar Cabral and Frantz Fanon, ... (p. 12).

All highlighted points of this quotation as ideology of racial liberation, recognition of cultural differences, radical, Marxist discourse of liberation are different faces of freedom and emancipation from domination of Imperialism. But the radical question here is that how such emancipation is possible? In other words, how can such nations get their radical liberation while domination of Imperialism is influential everywhere and in every field, that is, culture, tradition, routine life and social conduct? The answer is, at first, implicit in a return to pre-colonial languages. Mostly, as Ashcroft (2004) refers to, in invaded colonized as: 'African countries and in India, that is in post-colonial countries where viable alternatives to english continue to exist, an appeal for a return to writing exclusively, or mainly in the pre-colonial languages has been a recurring feature of calls for decolonization' (p.29). Another important basis of decolonization or liberation from domination of Imperialism is recognition of cultural differences which is a kind of cultural and mental decolonization. This is the consequent of the return to pre-colonial language what is in Ashcroft's (2007) view 'a return to indigenous languages can restructure attitudes to the local and the indigenous cultures.... Thus, decolonizing processes that have advocated a return to indigenous language use have involved both a social programme to democratize culture and a programme of cultural recuperation and re-evaluation (p.57).

D. Decolonization and its Strategies in the Setter Colonies:

As was discussed, in the settler colonies like the **United States, Canada, New Zealand, and Australia**, land was occupied by European colonists who dispossessed and overwhelmed the Indigenous populations. Therefore, in these colonies, decolonization which is possible through Agency, Nationalism, Appropriation and Abrogation is different from the invaded colonies. In such colonies, according to Ashcroft (2004),

‘the first task seems to be to establish that the texts can be shown to constitute a literature separate from that of the metropolitan centre. A vast and impressive body of literary histories, thematic studies, and studies of individual literary traditions has accrued over the last one hundred and fifty years or so in the white cultures of settler colonies. The task of compiling a national literary history has usually been an important element in the establishment of an independent cultural identity’ (p.131).

This decolonization which was the concern of early decolonizers can be seen in H.M. Green(1961); Carl F. Klinck (1965), a large body of text in the United State (Russell Reising, 1978), and many others. Thus, the early stage of decolonization is a kind of consciousness through which settler colonized people perceive themselves as individuals who can freely and autonomously initiate action and construct their own identity, that is, Agency, which in Ashcroft’s (2007) view.

‘refers to the ability to act or perform an action. In contemporary theory, it hinges on the question of whether individuals can freely and autonomously initiate action, or whether the things they do are in some sense determined by the ways in which their identity has been constructed. Agency is particularly important in post-colonial theory because it refers to the ability of post-colonial subjects to initiate action in engaging or resisting imperial power’ (p.6).

In the later stages some decolonizers try to develop their self- assertion through independent national literature in a controversial way as in L. Kramer (1981) and W.H. New (1989), and Charles Brockden Brown (1799) in America. But, the problem to which they meet is lack of a national and local language as their own language. In other words, the language through which they want to establish and express a separated independent national cultural identity is metropolitan language:

‘The colonial writer does not have words of his own.... Try to speak the words of your home and you will discover – if you are a colonial – that you do not know them... perhaps our job was not to fake a space of our own and write it up, but rather to find words for our space-lessness... Instead of pushing against the grain of an external, uncharged language, perhaps we should finally come to writing *with* that grain’ (Lee 1974, pp.162,163).

Therefore, the real concern is the control over the means of communication, that is, power of writing in the colonial situation as has been discussed in *The Conquest of America* by Tzvetan Todorov (1974). But how is it possible while the only dominant language as the medium of power is the language of the centre? In other words, post-colonial writing only can defines itself by seizing the language of the centre: ‘The crucial function of language as a medium of power demands that post-colonial writing defines itself by seizing the language of the centre and re-placing it in a discourse fully adapted to the colonized place’(Ashcroft, 2002, p.37). It is because language is the medium through which a hierarchical structure of power is perpetuated, and conceptions of truth, order, and reality become established. Post-colonial writing is going to reject such power and; therefore, post-colonial writing is the process by which the language, with its power, and the writing, with its signification of authority, has been seized from the dominant European culture. Post-colonial writing does this through two process of

“the abrogation or denial of the privilege of ‘English’ involves a rejection of the metropolitan power over the means of communication” and “the appropriation and reconstitution of the language of the centre, the process of capturing and remoulding the language to new usages, marks a separation from the site of colonial privilege. Abrogation is a refusal of the categories of the imperial culture, its aesthetic, its illusory standard of normative or ‘correct’ usage, and its assumption of a traditional and fixed meaning ‘inscribed’ in the words. It is a vital moment in the de-colonizing of the language and the writing of ‘english’, but without the process of appropriation the moment of abrogation may not extend beyond a reversal of the assumptions of privilege, the ‘normal’, and correct inscription, all of which can be simply taken over and maintained by the new usage (Ashcroft *et al.*, 2004, p. 37).

Therefore, post-colonial text is itself a site of struggle for linguistic control which is resulted in the appropriating discourse. This struggle extends to the disputes concerning theme, form, genre definition, implicit systems of manner, custom, and value.

Now, the question is that may we say that language constitutes reality? Paradoxically, it should be said that yes! But where is the center of reality, that is, its axiomatic center according which the other realities by other languages are constructed? The answer is that there is not any centre of reality just as there is not any pre-given unmediated reality and control over the means of communication determines the center of reality; therefore, the colonized nations through appropriation of language of metropolitan centre-- ‘to convey in a language that is not one’s own the spirit that is one’s own’ (Rao, 1938, p.vii), or makes it ‘bear the burden’ of one’s own cultural experience (Achebe, 1975, p. 62)-- and self-assertion abrogate its centrality and they define themselves as the centre and they may reconstruct reality according to their own pattern of conventions, expectations, and experiences, that is, establishment of the link between the received English and place or in Emerson’s phrase, , their ‘original relation with the universe’ (Emerson, 1836,p.21).

In a sense, eventually, abrogation through appropriation, which was operated by some decolonizers, is a kind of deconstruction. Because they use language in a way which disrupts its binary strurcturation. This pattern of binary structuration in European and many other languages, for such critics among whom Wilson Harris (1985) is well known,

lies at the root of the continual pattern of conquest and domination that has formed the structure of human history; therefore, tracing *aporia* in such a pattern is possible.

III. AMERICAN PROSE FICTION AND CHARLS BROCKDEN BROWN'S *EDGAR HUNTLY; OR, MEMORIES OF A SLEEP-WALKER*

The beginnings of an independent American prose fiction lie in the post-revolutionary era of the early American republic. In the process of claiming its political freedom from Great Britain, decolonization, and displacing the old patriarchal order, the nation had asserted the principle of individualism and independence. Among the nation's emerging novelists, Charles Brockden Brown stands out as the first American to choose novel writing as a professional career. Within the brief period of three years, the young Philadelphian published six novels. The remarkable complexity of these narratives stands in stark contrast to the works of other early American novelists, such as William Hill Brown's *The Power of Sympathy* or Susanna Rowson's *Charlotte Temple*. In literary histories, Charles Brockden Brown appears as a representative of the American Enlightenment, however, his fiction presents a dark, sceptical view of American life which reaches beyond the political optimism of the early republic and he calls for more metaphysical investigation in both human psyche and wilderness so that he could constitute a literature separate from that of the metropolitan centre. Created at the end of the 18th century, his texts are transitional works that contain elements of enlightened Rationalism as well as characteristics of Gothic Romanticism.

Charles Brockden Brown's fourth novel *Edgar Huntly*, written in 1799, reflects the battle field between the Old (European) and New (America) and the philosophical discourse about human nature in the post-revolutionary era. In its depiction of a young sleepwalker's search for self-knowledge on the American frontier, the novel presents America's crisis of cultural decolonization through establishment of the dialectics encounters between Europe and America, civilization and wilderness, consciousness and unconsciousness, uncertainty and knowledge.

Decolonization and its Strategies in *Edgar Huntly; or, Memoirs of a Sleep-Walker*

As a process of cultural independence and demarginalization, decolonization in American literature begins by its first great autonomous novelist Brown, although he borrows and imitates Godwin's sentimental Gothic style, he abrogates, as Fiedler (1960) discussed it as radical alteration of the imported European form and concept, the European style and establishes American literary canon through following techniques:

While getting inspiration from European models, Brown's *Edgar Huntly* is not only a **reverse of gothic style** of William Godwin (1756-1836) which was against realism, bringing reality into it, but also **totally reverse of the traditional canons of the genre**. Centralizing the main themes of the novel, terror as one of them, on realities not artifices is the initiation of this reversal. For Brown, it is real life itself which is like a nightmare, it is human nature which shows its tendency to evil, that is, archetypal tendency of evil which is in collective unconscious of human (C. G. Jung, 1968, p. 67). In other words, Brown (1973) tries to bring reality back into the novel to utilize it as an instrument for metaphysical investigation for what is new and best. This theme can be traced in the figure of Edgar as a prototype frontiersman whose investigation on evil doing is resulted in the perception that it is rested on not only fatalistic but an event-driven mechanism. This is reflected in his defense of Clithero at the end of the novel when Edgar converses with Sarsefield:

'... he has told a tale that had all the appearances of truth—"Out upon the villain! The truth! Truth would prove him to be unnatural, devilish, a thing for which no language has yet provided a name! He has called himself unhappy? No doubt, a victim to injustice! Overtaken by unmerited calamity. Say! Has he fooled thee with such tales?" 'No. His tale was a catalogue of crimes and miseries of which he was the author and sufferer. You know not his motives, his horrors—"His deeds were monstrous and infernal. His motives were sordid and flagitious. To display all their ugliness and infamy was not his province....' 'No. Among the number of his crimes, hypocrisy is not to be numbered.... He has told me all. Alas! the criminal intention has been amply expiated. ...' (p. 237).

Clithero as a part of man's soul, in Edgar's view, is unnatural, devilish thing for which no language has yet provided a name and he is, unlike European, going to express his new metaphysical discovery in human psyche in his own language who is a frontiersman not a European. Thus, Brown is challenging Europe and announcing Americanhood.

As a sign of polemic and programmatic refusal of all material coming from the European creative imagination and reverse of the traditional canons of the genre, Brown is trying to establish a national literature explicitly materials of which are American facts and events. In an introductory note to his novel (1799), he wrote:

'new springs of action should operate; that the field of investigation, opened to us by our own country, should differ essentially from those which exist in Europe... it is the purpose of this work... to exhibit a series of adventures, growing out of the condition of our country...and connected with one of the most common and most wonderful diseases or affections of the human frame. One merit the writer may at least claim: that of calling forth the passions and engaging the sympathy of the reader by means hitherto unemployed by preceding authors' (p.29).

Some fascinated American subject which were applied by Brown were the clash between civilization and nature (wilderness), drawing American Myth, initiation of Americanhood, outlining the prototype self-reliance American character any other experience related to the concept of frontier. In order to abrogate and undermine the Manichean opposition of civilization and wilderness in which the primary sign is axiomatically privileged in the discourse of the modernism by Europe, he centralizes the plot on dialectics of Edgar/Clithero/Frontier/Civilized/present/past/purity/corrupt.

The dialectic between Edgar, the protagonist, and Clithero, an Irishman who has killed Arthur Wiatte in Ireland and his past is a tangle of errors, in the novel is a metaphor for the dialectic between virgin nature and corrupt social reality as epitomized by Europe. In other words, these two characters represent the two souls of America and portray the contrast between American purity and European corruption. That is why Edwin Fussell, in arguing the concept of the West and frontier, concludes that Brown 'was perhaps the first American writer to suspect that the West might more profitably be defined as a condition of the soul than as a physiographical region' (Fussell, 1965, p. 9). His view overlaps Said's (1978) proposal of 'the Occident and Orient as man-made' (p.5) and relative notions not axiomatic and absolute; moreover, his 'dialectical encounters between Europe (us) and the Other (them)' (p.43). This dialectic can be traced in the scene in which Edgar decides to investigate who killed his friend Waldegrave. At first he comes to believe that the murderer is Clithero Edny whose dirty past as a murderer makes him a symbol of the ambiguity of evil.

From that moment on, it becomes the subject of Edgar's scrutiny and it is revealed that he is a somnambulist (sleepwalker) which is the result of his suffering from his sense of guilt for the murder of Arthur Wiatte, not Waldegrave, and for several other errors. In such a condition, abruptly Clithero disappears into the woods. Immediately and seriously, Edgar **continues** his pursuit of Clithero and finally turns somnambulist himself. It is the result of imitation of Europe and the difference is that Europe can not analyze itself and try to find the rational motivations underlying such irrational behaviors but Edgar investigates his own sleepwalking and this search, for him, is actually an investigation into the labyrinthine of the human psyche, into the nature and origin of evil, and into the sense of what is commonly defined as madness in human behavior. Everywhere Edgar finds the imprint of error, of superstition. He, thus, becomes aware of the relativity of each side of the reality of the contemporaries. His searches and investigations differentiate Edgar (New America) from Clithero (Europe or Past). By scrutinizing Clithero's nature, Edgar scrutinizes himself and in time discovers the chaotic part of his own soul, that is, irrational part. But Clithero is guilty and corrupt while at the same time Edgar has a vast future to discover. Edgar resumes roaming the wilderness, finally he discovers that Waldegrave had been killed by the Indians. These incidents betray shortcoming and weakness of European in discovering New World and demarginalization of frontiers, that is, undermining European authenticity and axiomatic superiority. In other words, Clithero's wandering in wilderness is triumph of Edgar (frontier) and initiation of his heroism through which he constructs American myth.

Drawing American Myth which is questing beyond the borders of European foundations as another strategy for undermining and abrogating axiomatic superiority of Europe through literature **differentiates its national culture** from Anglo-American culture. This is what was described by Donna Rosenberg (1986) as: 'The myths' serious purpose is ...to instruct members of the community in the attitudes and behavior necessary to function successfully in that particular culture (hero myth and epics)' (p.xvi). Motivation of this heroism and mythology is activation of Jungian (1968) Archetypal Tendency of Quest and Heroism consciously, that is, establishment of American Mythology which has been depicted in the novel in the form of crossing conventional boundaries as a metaphor of crossing limitations of European Knowledge and identification of the frontier landscape through Edgar actions: 'It was probable that human feet had never before gained this recess ... Since the birth of this continent, I was probably the first who had deviated thus remotely from the customary paths of men' (p. 110). Thus, Edgar begins the outline of the mythical American world the border of which consist Europe and World (past) besides his new discoveries (present). 'The customary paths of men', in Edgar term, is a metaphor for his perception of European possessing only an imperfect knowledge; therefore, he justifies his search like a Renaissance man of Shakespeare and Marlow who were inspired by the Enlightenment's thirst for knowledge. Metaphorically, Edgar investigates human consciousness to discover and explain what was thought to be unexplainable: 'Every new excursion... added somewhat to my knowledge... My rambles were productive of incessant novelty, though they always terminated in the prospect of limits that could not be overleaped' (p. 105). He thus deals with a task which was supposed as only God's task, Nietzsche's superhuman or touching the forbidden tree of knowledge. This is implicitly undermining and abrogating of European axiomatic superiority and challenging dialectic of Europe and Other.

Protagonist unlimited thirst for knowledge is resulted in **initiation of Americanhood or Myth of America as absolute Purity and Melting Pot**. It is echoed in the metaphoric significance of the Edgar (America)/Clithero (Europe) dialectic in which Edgar embodies two aspects of this myth. The first one is in his attitude while listening to Clithero's confession. He reveals a clear tendency to absolution and redemption even before finding out that Clithero had not killed his friend: 'It shall be my province to emulate a father's clemency, and restore this unhappy man to purity and peace,' he says to himself (p. 54). Next one is when he reviews and analyzes the Clithero's suffering and suggests eternal philosophical perceptions and questions: 'It must at least be said that his will was not concerned in this transaction. He acted in obedience to an impulse which he could not control nor resist. Shall we impute guilt where there is no design?' (p. 101). Moreover, he adds 'No doubt, a victim to injustice! Overtaken by unmerited calamity. Say! Has he fooled thee with such tales?' 'No. His tale was a catalogue of crimes and miseries of which he was the author and sufferer(p.237)'. It is the moment in which Edgar (America) as a melting pot instead of recognizing Clithero as a dirty criminal, regards him as the obedient to an impulse which he could not control or resist and as the victim to injustice! Overtaken by unmerited calamity; thus, he like to restore this unhappy man to purity and peace. This treatment is depiction of the greatness and misery of man like of Oedipus or Syzief. Eventually his alternative (penitence) make this capacity perfect: 'But what is that guilt which no penitence can expiate?' (p. 241).

Actually, this is anticipation and prefiguration of the outline of a mythical place in Brown's wilderness beyond the boundaries of historical time, that is, mysterious American universe which is a universe that embodies in *The Great Gatsby* 'the last and greatest of all human dreams,' before which man 'must have held his breath ... compelled into an aesthetic contemplation he neither understood nor desired, face to face for the last time in history with something commensurate to his capacity for wonder' (Fitzgerald, 1993, p.171).

The outline of prototype American character: With regard to the above mentioned elements, Brown's wilderness is a field in which prototype American character, different from European's, is raised and matured as a self-reliance. This genius task is the rite of initiation or in Fender's (1992) words 'reflection on the experience also sharpened the distinct outline of the American character' (185). Like Shakespeare's and Christopher Marlow's characters who are different from mediaeval's, Edgar is a crucial and certain person whose existence is determined and defined through his existential choices by the best possible use of his talent and power to defines his own identity. His encounter with the wilderness, the Indian, violence and Clithero is like encounter of innocence with experience and otherness, colonized, in the attempt to define one's own identity. Such a theme can be traced and revealed in Edgar narration of how he fought and killed a band of Indians which is concluded with an implicit allusion to a rite of initiation: 'Thus, by a series of events impossible to be computed or foreseen, was the destruction of a band, selected from their fellows for an arduous enterprise, distinguished by prowess and skill ... completed by the hand of a boy, uninured to hostility, unprovided with arms, precipitate a timorous!' (p.190). This invites us to consider Edgar Huntly as the archetype of many young heroes in American literature, from Huck Finn and his black friend Jim, to Nick Adams and in Ashcroft (2004) words 'the model for all later post-colonial writing' (, p.15)

IV. CONCLUSION

In this study, a number of decolonization techniques were applied to Charles Brockden Brown's *Edgar Huntly; or, Memoirs of a Sleep-Walker* respectively to see how decolonization can be accounted for in terms of literary development.

In *Edgar Huntly; or, Memoirs of a Sleep-Walker*, the decolonization as proposed by Said and recently by Ashcroft, was strategically and essentially used. The important point is that the novel is metaphorically replete with dialectic encounters between America and Europe as in the preface to the novel, Brown himself announces that the field of investigation, opened to us by our own country, should differ essentially from those which exist in Europe. Therefore, decolonization at least can be applied to this early American novel.

Dialectic encounter between Edgar and Clithero is purposely challenge of European axiomatically superiority in the novel by Brown in a way that thoughtful readers will notice its significance as soon as they start reading the novel. In this dialectic, shortcoming and weakness of European (Clithero) and temerity, boldness, and impetuosity of American and the Americanhood (Edgar) has been depicted.

To actualize abrogation of the absolutely centrality of Europe, we traced the very plot of American myth in the masterly spiritual and physical heroism and the high capacity of Edgar as the embodiment of melting pot in the novel.

The important point is that prototype American character, different from European's, is raised and matured as a self-reliance character. This genius task is the rite of initiation of self-reliant American character as the prototype and archetypal model for American character whom Brown differentiates from European Character, that is, abrogating and undermining European literature and characters as the universal superior literature and characters or declaration of independence of America through literature.

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On Chinese Loanwords in English

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Abstract—As a common phenomenon, languages borrow words from each other. The object of this paper is to study Chinese loanwords in English. It concentrates on the study of the history, source languages and transmission languages of Chinese loanwords in English and pays much attention to the approaches of borrowing. It also attempts to discuss the cultural influence of Chinese loanwords on English and to demonstrate that loaning is not only a linguistic but also a socio-linguistic phenomenon. In the hope that it can help English learners develop an interest and appreciation for English loanwords from Chinese and help them enlarge their vocabulary efficiently. It is also expected that foreigners can better understand Chinese culture by reading this paper.

Index Terms—loanword, source languages, transmission languages, means of borrowing, culture

Languages are rarely sufficient to themselves and “All languages borrow words from other languages” (Hatch, 2001, p170). English is quite open to borrow foreign words. Considering its short history of 1500 years, it is surprising that English has absorbed a great number of useful words and expressions of almost every language from all over the world. The English borrowings are not only from French, Latin, Greek and Scandinavian, but also from Indian, Chinese, Japanese and other languages. This paper attempts to analyze Chinese loanwords in English. It is mainly concerned with the history, source languages and transmission languages of Chinese loanwords in English as well as the means of borrowing. It also attempts to discuss the cultural influence of Chinese loanwords on English and to demonstrate that loaning is not only a linguistic but also a sociolinguistic phenomenon.

I. INTRODUCTION

Loaning, as a linguistic term, is defined as the transfer of language elements (forms, sounds, or even grammatical structures), usually in altered form and sometimes translated, in total or in part, from one language into another.

So a loanword or a borrowed word is a word taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, and paradigm of meaning according to the standards of the English language.

II. BRIEF HISTORY OF THE CHINESE LOAN WORDS IN ENGLISH

Words loaning as a historic-linguistic phenomenon has existed between Chinese and English for more than one thousand years. The earliest direct contact between China and Britain was dated back to 1637 when the British ship reached and dealt with tea. Previous to 1637, Chinese and British contact was mainly conducted through third countries, and Chinese language influence on English was limited. According to the Oxford English Dictionary, “silk” entered English in 888 via Latin and Greek, through the Silk Road. The entrance of china (porcelain) tells a similar story of indirect loaning. Comparing the loans silk and china with their models in Chinese (“si” and “ci”), we can find influential formal and phonological changes which make them more like English than Chinese.

Increasingly, Chinese loans found their way into English during the Ming Dynasty (1268- 1644). The loaning rate sped up during the Qing Dynasty (1644- 1911), and we can find many loans dated in this time in the Oxford English Dictionary, such as “ginseng” (1654), “bohea” (1711) and “Taoism” (1639). The Chinese loans such as “bohea” (1711) and “kaoline” (1727) indicate that trade was one carrier of Chinese loans. Cultural terms like “kowtow”, “Taoism”, “pailou” and governmental terms such as “yamen” and “taotai” were also introduced into English through direct contacts and translation. In the 20th century, as the world wars affected the lives of everyone, many words concerning politics, culture and business entered into English. The historical changes after 1949 in China influence on English with loans, such as “Great Leap Forward”, “Gang of Four”, “Four Modernizations”, “Maoism”, etc. Some of these loans are recorded in the dictionaries while some only appear in the mass media (Rongpei Wang, 2005, p71).

In general, all the Chinese words borrowed by the English language at different periods of time reflect the Chinese cultural and linguistic influences on the English language. They concern wide fields such as Chinese products, customs, economics, arts, politics and botany, etc.

III. SOURCE LANGUAGES OF CHINESE LOAN WORDS IN ENGLISH

Chinese dialects affect the Chinese - English loaning process. There are five major dialect groups within the language group of Chinese: Mandarin, Wu, Min, Yue, and Hakka.

Mandarin is the most widely spoken dialect of Chinese. It is based on the speech of Beijing and the northeast region of China. It is the official language for both mainland China (known as Putonghua) and Taiwan (known as Guoyu). It is also one of the four official languages of Singapore (known as Huayu).

Wu is spoken around the lower Yangzi River and its tributaries. Shanghainese is a well-known variety of Wu.

Min is commonly spoken with local variations by people in Taiwan, Fujian and Hainan. In English, these local variations are referred to as Fukkiandese, Kokkiannese, Amoy and Taiwanese. Amoy dialect is spoken in the city of Amoy (Xiamen). Historically, Xiamen has been an important center of international commerce. The city is located on an island in the mouth of the Jiulong River in Fujian Province near the Taiwan Straits.

Yue is primarily spoken in the province of Guangdong. Yue, including the well-known Cantonese (the language of Guangzhou, also known as Canton) is spoken in many parts of the Chinese diasporas, particularly Hong Kong and overseas Chinese settlements in the United States, Europe and South-east Asia. Cantonese, also called Guangdonghua or Guangdong dialect, is the primary language of the fertile Pearl River delta. Cantonese is spoken in China's Guangdong and Guangxi provinces, Hong Kong, Macao, and various overseas Chinese communities that contain large numbers of Cantonese-speaking immigrants and their descendants. For this reason, many of the English words borrowed from Chinese have their origins in Cantonese, such as kumquat from Cantonese (kumquat) and chop sue from Cantonese (tsap sui).

Hakka is the least well-known dialect group outside of China compared to the above four. Most of the Hakka dialect group is scattered throughout southeastern China in Guangxi province and throughout the Min and Yue regions.

Historically, the Hakka people were northerners who moved south during several waves of migration. Their name Hakka means "guest" indicating their immigrant status in the southern areas to which they moved.

The Chinese loans in English are mainly from three dialects (languages): Mandarin, Cantonese, and Amoy. They bring into English loans local colors and dialectal accents.

IV. TRANSMISSION LANGUAGES

A. *Japanese*

Among the transmitters of Chinese words into English, Japanese is the most active one and is responsible for directly transmitting many words. They include: daimio, ginkgo, judo, jujitsu, samisen, seppuku, Shinto, shogun, soy, tycoon, yen (currency), and Zen, etc.

Most of these items have been borrowed into English as if they were native Japanese words rather than Chinese loans because in the process of having been borrowed into Japanese, these words have been culturally and linguistically nativized as Japanese before they were borrowed into English. The perception that Japanese-transmitted borrowings are native Japanese words has led to at least one instance of double borrowing from a single Chinese etymon.

Japanese-transmitted borrowing yen and Chinese yuan are derived from a single Chinese etymon—Mandarin yuan. The two borrowings, however, maintain the distinction of referring alternately to Japanese currency and Chinese currency respectively.

B. *French*

The second most active transmission language for Chinese loanwords is French. The words bonze, galingale, kaolin, nankeen, Peke, Pekin, and Peking are transmitted by French.

Three of the loans, Peke, Pekin, and Peking, are derived from a single Chinese etymon, the name of the city Beijing. These three words and nankeen are considered Mandarin borrowings, but their spelling may have been influenced by another Chinese dialect. And French transmission of Chinese loanwords using the [j] phoneme typically changes the pronunciation to [k].

The transmission of Chinese loanwords through Indo-European languages can be very complex, and the transmission usually obscures the word's origin. The French loan bonze demonstrates some of these complexities. The French word was borrowed from Portuguese, which had borrowed the word from Japanese. Consequently, the original Mandarin source of the borrowing, fanseng, is virtually unrecognizable in English borrowing.

C. *Pidgin English*

As a variety of English, Pidgin English is a product of foreign trade of China. It has played an important role in the fields of foreign relations, foreign trade and cultural exchanges. A pidgin is not an actual language of native English speakers. A pidgin language occurs in a contact situation when one of the languages, typically that of the culturally or socioeconomically dominant group (the supersaturate language), undergoes radical simplification and is adopted as a language of wider communication by speakers of languages in a subordinate position (the substrate languages). For some reasons, full models of the supersaturate language are withheld from the substrate speakers, so that they are unable to learn the true language, and the pidgin language develops instead. (Foley, 2001, p392) Contact between the English and Chinese languages dates from the establishment of a British trading post in 1640 in Guangzhou, where Pidgin English developed in the 18th century. This was a trade jargon of the ports, now known technically as Chinese

Pidgin English and China Coast Pidgin, which helped the loaning process.

Pidgin spread when the Treaty Ports were established in China in 1843, but declined towards the end of the 19th century as Standard English began to be systematically taught in schools and universities. It is now extinct in China.

Some pidgin words entered English and have been in wide use in the English speaking countries. Two loanwords, chop- chop and chopstick are transmitted through Chinese Pidgin English. The Oxford English Dictionary suggests that chopstick is derived from the Pidgin form chop chop. This derivation might result from mistaking the Chinese word for chopstick, Mandarin kuaizi or kuai, with the homonym kuai (quickly). Because the Chinese word for chopstick is identical in pronunciation to Mandarin kuai (quick) and the two words are etymologically related (the word for chopstick — 筷, is formed by adding a “bamboo radical “on top of the word for “quick”—快), the Oxford English Dictionary suggests that speakers who had a limited understanding of written Chinese substituted the Pidgin word chop as a mistranslation of the Chinese word for “chopstick”, kuai.

V. MEANS OF BORROWING

The means by which Chinese loanwords find their way into English are: transliteration, loan translation and loanblend.

A. Transliteration

Transliteration is a word which is changed into corresponding character of another alphabet or language. Transliterated loan words for the most part are proper Chinese nouns such as pinyin, renminbi, and are used almost the same as in Chinese, except for the tones. There are many words of this kind, for example, fengshui, taichi, feng huang, cha, guanxi, etc. These words have been entirely adopted with almost no change. And in principle; they are spelt and pronounced according to Mandarin Chinese with the exception of some words borrowed from other dialects such as Cantonese. Those words from other dialects are pronounced according to the Wade system, for example, bok choy, typhoon, chikung, wok, etc.

B. Loan Translation

Loan translation is a special type of borrowing, in which “each morpheme or word is translated in the equivalent morpheme or word in another language” (Hu, 2001, p102).

This is also called calque, which may be a word, a phrase, or even a short sentence. For this kind of loan to English, there are: spring rolls, bean curd, dragon boat, Chinese herbal medicine, Red Guards, running dog, the Great Leap Forward, yellow jacket, moon cake, bean curd, gold fish, Long march, Paper Tiger, the cultural revolution, etc.

C. Loanblend

Loanblending is a process in which part of the form is native and part is borrowed, but the meaning is fully native. The first part of the word Chinatown is from Chinese, but the second part is of the English origin. Many transliterations and loan translations have penetrated into English for a long time and somewhat naturalized, and these words have the ability to build new words with other element, just like the example above. Another words belonging to this kind are: Maoism, Peking duck, Lantian man, Sino-Japanese, Sinologist, etc.

VI. CULTURE REFLECTED BY CHINESE LOANWORDS IN ENGLISH

Language does not exist apart from culture. Culture may be defined as what a society does and thinks while language is a particular how of thought. Each society has a culture of its own and each society has its particular practices, beliefs, and life style. Edward Sapir argues: The necessities of intercourse bring the speakers of one language into direct or indirect contact with those of neighboring or culturally dominant languages. The intercourse may be friendly or hostile. It may move on the humdrum plane of business and trade relations or it may consist of a borrowing or interchange of spiritual goods —art, science, religion.

It would be difficult to point to a completely isolated language dialect. (159) loaning is inevitable indeed for the inevitability of language contacts and lexical insufficiency of almost every language. It is true of English which has benefited from loaning by adopting 600, 000 foreign words. Economic development, aided by science and technology, makes the language open for more loaning. Therefore, it resorts to loaning frequently, not only from closely related Germanic languages, but also from language far in kin, like Chinese.

It is a pity that China practiced a closed- door policy for years, affecting Chinese- English loaning. But fortunately, China has never remained totally closed. Therefore, Chinese has not only borrowed from, but also loaned many language items to English.

The long history of Chinese loan words is not only the process of contacting between Chinese and English, but also the process of the comprehension of Chinese culture by the west. The loanwords reflect all aspects of Chinese culture: (1) Society and Politics: Brainwashing, Boxer Rebellion, Long march, Hundred Flowers, The Great Leap Forward, Paper Tiger, The cultural revolution, etc. (2) Philosophy, value and religion: Ren, Li, Doctrine of the Mean (called Zhong Yong), lose face, give face, Taoism, etc. (3) Food, drink and clothing: silk, finseng, chop suey, spring roll, Mao tai, kaolin, wonton, etc. (4) Animals: running dog, dragon robes, dragon throne, dragon's eyes, etc.

VII. CONCLUSION

Loaning is a very important linguistic and socio- linguistic phenomenon in the English language. Owing to the rapid development of modern mass media and internationally cultural exchange, a great number of loan words from Chinese have come into English to satisfy the needs of society. Words related to Chinese cultures have found their way into English and have also shown a new China worldwide. Based on the discussion above, the following conclusion can be drawn:

- (1) The Chinese loanwords have a long history.
- (2) The Chinese loans are mainly from Mandarin, Cantonese and Amoy.
- (3) The four transmission language of Chinese loans is Japanese, French, Dutch and Pidgin English.
- (4) The means by which Chinese loanwords find their way into English are transliteration, loan translation and loanblend.
- (5) Chinese loanwords in English reflect Chinese culture and make westerners come to comprehend Chinese culture.

With the development of international exchange, language contact has become not only inevitable, but also more frequent. As mentioned at the beginning, English has become an international language. The wider the range of its use, the more it absorbs foreign words. China, a country with thousands of years' history and culture is becoming more and more powerful with her reform and opening up policy. In the future, there will certainly be a flood of Chinese words into English.

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Discourse Analysis of Questions in Teacher Talk

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Abstract—This study is an investigation of certain aspects of classroom verbal interaction with a focus on description and analysis of questions in teacher talk. Transcriptions of recorded classroom sessions were analyzed to identify the type of the questions used by an Iranian EFL teacher, teaching in a language institute in Iran. After data analysis of 8 sessions of instruction, the researcher identified four categories of teacher questions and their related frequency across the discourse of teacher talk.

Index Terms—discourse, initiation-response-evaluation (IRE), teacher talk

I. INTRODUCTION

Classroom discourse has been analyzed by many researchers in order to improve the quality of teaching and training. Most commonly referred interaction analysis systems were developed by (Flanders, 1970; Freiberg, 1981, & Brown, 1975, as cited in Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan, 2006).

Cazden (2001, p. 55) argued that in recent discussions there has been an emphasis on the shift to more self selection by students, a move from pre-determination of turns by the teacher to more local management of turn taking during speaking. According to him “with this shift, classroom talk becomes more like informal conversation, not the same as conversation, because there is still the large group of potential speakers and the educational necessity to stick to an agenda”.

Cazden (2001) also claimed that the previous pattern of classroom discourse; Initiation, Response, and Evaluation (IRE) have been the “default pattern” or the “unmarked” one which seems to be natural at least to some teachers (p. 53). In this pattern the learners are often limited to a responding role with only one chance of speaking and there may be few opportunities for learners to practice communicative strategies (Jia, 2005). Cazden (2001) also raised the awareness of more marked, non-default patterns of teacher-student interaction which reflect differences in educational purposes for talk; number of participants; medium of interaction (electronic mail instead of oral); and cultural differences among students.

Much of the IRE discourse studied has been conducted in elementary classrooms where known-answer questions are common. Therefore IRE discourse has been widely criticized for its development of a model of knowledge that views learning as the collection of a series of facts which can be elicited (or recalled) when needed. Greenleaf & Freedman (1993) referring to these critics, suggested an approach to analyze classroom talk that aims to account for the intellectual work of the classroom. The focus was on a teacher-led, whole-class activity that IRE exchanges, but that does not function to test students' knowledge. Rather, the talk, although not conversational in its structure, seems to engage students in constructing knowledge and in collaborative problem-solving.

According to Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan (2006) the classroom interaction has gone through many fundamental shifts since the development of interaction analysis systems more than forty years ago. Present day classrooms are more students oriented, activity based and demanding in practice. Thus requiring teachers to be more ‘responsive, spontaneous and critical’ to create and maintain a classroom environment serving the learner’s needs. The changing needs were identified by Newton (2002, as cited in Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan, 2006) to describe the needs of the today’s classrooms by designing a beneficial framework for effective classroom talk in science classroom which promotes student thinking.

In a related study, Nathan, Kim, and Grant (2009) reported on comparing the structure of classroom discussions in a middle school mathematics classroom before and after teacher participation in professional development activities aimed at enhancing students’ classroom participation and the co-construction of mathematical ideas. They showed that changes in the classroom led to identifiable changes in discourse structure. In particular, decreasing the teacher’s mathematical authority led to a reduction in traditional teacher-led initiation-response-evaluation (IRE) patterns, and to increases in student-led initiation-demonstration-evaluation (IDE) patterns.

The quality of the classroom environment is made up of a host of varied components. “As long as we are aware of the vast repertoire of techniques that are at our disposal, it is up to us to choose the specific ones that we will apply, based on the specific needs that arise in our concrete circumstances” (Dornyei, 2007, p. 730).

To fulfill the purpose of this study, the following questions were raised:

What is the frequency of the occurrence of different types of questions (e.g. factual, empirical, productive, and evaluative) in the discourse of an Iranian EFL teacher talk?

II. TEACHER TALK

Walsh (2002) argued that maximizing learner involvement seem to be beneficial to second language acquisition. According to him teachers' ability to control their use of language is considered to be as important as their ability to select appropriate methodologies.

He examined the ways in which teachers construct or obstruct learner participation in classroom interaction, through their choice of language. By construction he meant "increasing learning potential" which he claimed can be done through activities like, direct error correction, content feedback, checking for confirmation, extended wait time, and scaffolding. Obstruction was defined by him as "reducing learning potential" which according to him, can be done through turn completion, teacher echo, teacher interruptions.

From the lesson extracts he identified a number of ways in which teachers can improve their teacher talk to facilitate and optimize learner contributions as follow.

1. To examine more closely the link between pedagogic purpose and language use.
2. To avoid 'filling in the gaps' in the discourse of the EFL classroom.
3. To raise their awareness of their language use in the classroom by making audio- and video-recordings of their lessons, and analyzing the transcripts.
4. Devoting more time by education programs to provide the most beneficial ways of language use in the classroom.
5. To understand more fully the qualitative aspects of language use in order to come up with a set of guidelines which constitute 'good practice' in language use in the classroom.

Xiao-hui (2010) in his study of analysis of teacher talk, argued that teachers should consciously improve their questioning behavior by providing an information gap between the teacher and the students. The gap is better to be related to a topic that is relevant to the learner's lives so that can stimulate their interests, and can require a level of thinking that stretches the students intellectually.

Lee (2007) provided an alternative approach towards third turn position in teacher talk through traditional initiation-response-evaluation (IRE). He emphasized that describing the third turn IRE in its traditional sense is just an oversimplification. He clarified that third turn cannot be explained just by using blanket terms such as 'evaluation,' 'feedback,' or 'follow-up.' Rather he provided an analytic focus on the third turn position which is clear in the following quotation from his article:

"The analytic focus on the third turn position was not intended to capture the inherent essential characteristics contained in them. Rather, the third turn is viewed as a place holder that opens up an analytic possibility for describing the communicative acts that teachers display. The third turn position is particularly important because its relevance and influence take shape across the contingencies generated by the students' second turn, which itself is contingent upon the prior turn by the teacher."

Sharpe (2008) in his study examined in detail the teaching practices of a teacher regarded by colleagues and students as a 'good' teacher. Through detailed analysis of transcripts, a number of teacher talk strategies have been identified which support students in their history course. These strategies include:

- repeating, recasting and appropriation to develop technical language;
- cued elicitation to encourage students to jointly construct ideas and also check they are still following the teachers' line of reasoning that is being developed;
- modifying questioning to extend or reformulate student's reasoning and create more complex connections and engage them in the investigation process;
- using low control moves to encourage students to develop their own ideas;
- using metacomments to create conceptual hooks that summarize key concepts that have been established;
- recycling ideas through busy clusters of words.

Other researchers also investigated the classroom discourse and teacher talk from different perspectives. To name a few among others the researcher can refer to Andrzejewski & Davis (2008); Cullen (2002); Ince  ay (2010); Nunn (1999); Qian, Tian, & Wang (2009), and Yoshida (2008).

III. QUESTIONS IN TEACHER TALK

Long and Sato (1983, as cited in Shim, 2007) identified two types of questions that may be asked by teachers in their classrooms; display questions, and referential questions. They compared the number of 'display questions' (questions that teachers know the answer to and which are designed to elicit or display particular structures) and 'referential questions' (questions that teachers do not know the answers to) in naturalistic and classroom discourse. They found that in naturalistic discourse, referential questions are more frequent than display questions, whereas display questions are much more frequent in whole-class teaching in ESL classrooms.

Wu (1993) claimed that both display and referential questions have important functions to perform in language teaching and learning, and therefore their use can have a place in the ESL classroom. However, the use of different types of teacher questions does not guarantee that the quantity or quality of classroom interaction will be improved. What is important is the questioning strategies used by the teacher in order to elicit oral responses from students and to develop their grammatical competence.

Wu (1993) suggested questioning can be one of the ways for eliciting output. His analysis demonstrated that referential questions do not necessarily lead to more output from learners, but appropriate questioning strategies, e.g. probing, do. He also added "Teachers also need to know that in some classrooms, it may not be too helpful to expect a voluntary answer to a general question. Students, especially the shy ones, may need to be nominated, at least occasionally".

Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan (2006) to determine the shift towards constructivist practice, examined the changes in teacher talk and students talk over a period of two years. Data collection included all lessons about a particular topic for years 2001 and 2003 from 78 science students of grade five in a public school. Lesson's video recordings were converted into protocol and analyzed. The analysis was conducted by categorizing the class discourse in teacher, student and monitoring talk. Monitoring talk was further analyzed to examine the level and type of questions used by teacher to monitor students' learning progress. Results showed an improvement towards constructivist practice in terms of increase in the share of student talk by 10% compared to 2001. Teacher talk in both cases was still more than 50% but it reduced from 67% in 2001 to 57% in 2003. Consequently, student talk increased from 33% in 2001 to 43% in 2003. He argued that this change may not seem satisfactory but is encouraging.

IV. METHOD

In this study the researcher tried to analyze the teacher talk of an Iranian EFL teacher during nine 45 minute sessions of instruction through observation, in order to identify the type of questions was used by her during the class sessions. Some sessions were audiotaped, and were later transcribed by the researcher for the purpose of data analysis.

A. *Participants*

The participant was an Iranian EFL teacher in a language institute in Iran who has 8 years of experience and has got her MA degree in TEFL two years ago. Ten students participated in the class. They were studying the last 4 units of the third book of "Interchange Series", the blue one. The book "504 Absolutely Essential Words" and some idioms were also used by the teacher as subsidiary material. It is worth mentioning that it was the second year that the teacher has been teaching to this particular group of learners.

B. *Instrument*

The data were collected during 8 sessions of observations, samples of them has been audiotaped by the researcher.

C. *Procedure*

In this study monitoring talk (a sub-category of teacher talk) was analyzed to examine the type of questions used by the teacher to monitor students' learning progress.

Following framework for data analysis, was developed for the present study by adapting the three categories of class talk (tuning talk, connecting talk, and monitoring talk) suggested by Newton (2002, as cited in Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan, 2006). Table 1 describes these categories for their content and scope.

Classroom discourse is mainly divided into two categories i.e. teacher talk and student talk. The sub-categories of teacher talk were adapted from Newton (2002, as cited in Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan, 2006) but adjustments were made by Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan (2006) to represent thoroughly the depth of classroom discourse. The adaptations are represented in Table 1 by italic characters.

D. *Framework for Analysis of Teacher Questions*

The data were analyzed by considering one utterance as basic unit of count. An utterance was defined by Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan (2006) as "a complete meaningful segment of conversation dealing with single continuous idea". One word or one small utterance can be considered as the unit of analysis. The rationale for using an utterance as unit of analysis as was mentioned by Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan (2006) was that the new constructivist focus is on the content of talk rather than the quantity of talk. They observed during their data analysis that sometimes a long sentence does not convey the meaning, which a single word can.

The analysis of teacher questions (sub-categorized as monitoring talk in class discourse) was made by using the categories suggested by Moore (2001, as cited in Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan, 2006). He suggested four types of questions based on Bloom's taxonomy namely; factual, empirical, productive and evaluative. The description of question types by level is described in Table 2.

TABLE 1.
SUBCATEGORIES OF TEACHER TALK

Classroom Discourse	Teacher Talk	Subcategories	Explanation
		Tuning	Usually at the beginning of the lesson <i>but can be anything during the lesson if the lesson comprises of more than one activities</i> of different focus. This includes encouraging students to recollect their mental resources (like experiences, previous learning, etc.), checking sufficiency and quality of those resources, scaffolding where necessary, drawing the aim of lesson and getting students ready to enter activity by accepting and valuing their ideas and experiences.
		Connecting	It may appear in any part of the lesson. Mostly about helping to establish the link between current learning, already learned and future learning by exploring patterns, relationships, reasons and causes. It involves accepting student's ideas and leading them to extend those ideas by putting immediately verifiable challenges. <i>It is also meant to keep the students focused on the lesson objectives and see the learning activity in that context.</i>
		Monitoring	Mostly occur at the beginning and end of the lesson. <i>At the beginning for judging the previous knowledge</i> and at the final part for the understanding of immediate task. It comprises of the teacher questions about content, process, and value judgment of the learned.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTION OF QUESTION TYPES

Category	Bloom's Taxonomy	Type of thinking	Examples
Factual	Knowledge or comprehension	Student simply recall information	Define...? Who was ...? What did the text say ...?
Empirical	Application or analysis	Student integrate and analyzes given or recalled information	Compare ...? Explain in your words ...?
Productive	Synthesis	Students thinks creatively and imaginatively and produces something unique	Calculate the ...? What will life be like ...? What's good name for ...?
Evaluative	Evaluation	Students make judgment or express value	How could we ...? Which method is most suitable...? Why do you favor ...? Who is the best ...?

V. DATA ANALYSIS

At the beginning of each session some routine questions were asked by the teacher, and then the teacher calls the roll. Following extract contains some typical examples of questions of this type. It is worth mentioning that these types of questions were not taken into account in this study:

T: What's up?

T: How's everything? Goes well?

Ss: Not bad.

T: How was your holiday?

S1: Very good.

T: OK. Let's start. Today we have the quiz? [Then teacher starts calling the roll]

T: Aida is absent?

S2: Yes, she goes to a wedding party.

T: Wedding party! Yes, I remember. She told me. OK, let's start. Page 108, word power.

Am I right? Yes?

Ss: Yes.

T: Oh Ok. But do you have any problems with the last lesson?

As mentioned, these kinds of questions were not the main concern of this study. What is more important to the researcher was to analyze the teacher questions with respect to the four types of questions in the classification provided by Moore (2001 as cited in Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan, 2006), based on Bloom's taxonomy, namely; factual, empirical, productive and evaluative.

A. Factual Questions

In these types of questions which refer to knowledge or comprehension questions, students are asked to simply recall information (Moore, 2001, as cited in Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan, 2006). He provided the following examples:

◇ Define....

◇ What did the text say?

◇ Who was ...?

Factual questions were seemed to be the mostly used type of questions by the teacher in this study. Examples of these questions were as follow:

◇ What is the meaning of article?

◇ What does it mean 'feeling run down'?

◇ What's going on in that listening?

- ◇ You know 'parking lot'?
- ◇ Remember the meaning of 'urban'?

B. Empirical Questions

In these types of questions which refer to application or analysis questions, students integrate or analyze given or recalled information (Moore, 2001, as cited in Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan, 2006). He provided the following examples:

- ◇ Compare ... with
- ◇ Explain in your words....

A few numbers of these questions were used by the teacher in this study. Examples of these questions were as follow:

- ◇ What is a financial problem?
- ◇ Can you use this word in a sentence?

C. Productive Questions

In these types of questions learners think creatively and imaginatively and produce something unique (Moore, 2001, as cited in Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan, 2006). He provided the following examples:

- ◇ What will life be ...?
- ◇ What's good name for ...?
- ◇ Why do you use proverbs?

Following are some examples of the productive questions used by the teacher in this study:

- ◇ Do you remember one of your white lies?
- ◇ What do proverbs tell us?
- ◇ What rules are there in a library?
- ◇ What about an art museum?
- ◇ What about an aeroplane?

D. Evaluative Questions

In these types of questions students make judgments or express value (Moore, 2001, as cited in Nasir & Abdul Majid Khan, 2006). He provided the following examples:

- ◇ Which method is most suitable?
- ◇ What do you favor ...?
- ◇ Who is the best ...?

In some cases the teacher provided the learners with a hypothetical situation and asked them about what they would do in that particular situation. Examples are as follow:

- ◇ You forget your best friend's birthday. What would you do?
- ◇ If someone gives some ugly present to you, what would you do?
- ◇ Any other suggestions?
- ◇ What else can you do?
- ◇ A person who was cheating got a higher mark than you. What would you do?
- ◇ You have found a diamond ring. What would you do?
- ◇ What would you do if you see a burglar Bahar?
- ◇ Did you ever lose anything? What did you do?

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The researcher analyzed the observations and tape recordings and tried to categorize the questions used by the teacher by type and then counted the questions in each category and calculated the relative frequency of each type. Table 3 shows the comparative distribution of the questions by type.

TABLE 3.
CATEGORIZATION OF QUESTION TYPES IN TEACHER TALK

	Factual	Empirical	Productive	Evaluative	Total
Number	68	8	18	35	129
Percent	52.71%	6.20%	13.95%	27.13%	100%

As is shown in the table, factual questions are the mostly used questions by the teacher in this study. 52.71% of the questions used by the teacher were shown to be factual questions which were mostly related to asking the meaning of a word. Factual questions were used by the teacher particularly when she was working on the vocabulary book, "504 Absolutely Essential Words".

The second highly used type of questions was shown to be Evaluative questions which were used with a proportion

of 27.13% in her talk. Using these types of questions, the teacher tried to participate the learners in classroom discourse by posing questions which seemed to be interesting for them. Learners were given opportunities to exchange their opinions and talking about their personal experiences by evaluating different situations provided by the teacher.

Productive types of questions constituted 13.95% of the total questions posed by the teacher. These types of questions made the students think and use their world knowledge to answer the questions. They require them to use their imagination and to produce an appropriate answer. These types of questions also seemed to be beneficial in encouraging the learners to participate in the classroom discourse by producing long turns.

Empirical questions were the type of questions which were used least by the teacher in this study. These questions are not as challenging as productive and evaluative questions. The teacher used them with a proportion of 6.20% in her talk.

VII. CONCLUSION

Although most of the questions posed by the teacher were shown to be factual questions, the teacher seemed to be of those types of teachers who try to promote negotiation of meaning in the classroom. As mentioned earlier most of the factual questions were posed during the teaching of vocabulary book, "504 Absolutely Essential Words" which were an obligatory part of the syllabus as determined by the institute.

The teacher seemed to be very interested in productive and evaluative types of questions which together constitute a considerable part of her discourse, about 41.08%. By using these types of questions, she tried to provide a friendly atmosphere in which students feel comfortable in expressing their ideas and personal experiences and evaluating each other's experiences. The teacher herself sometimes shares her experiences with the learners and encourages them to talk about their own ones.

The type of questions used by a teacher can have a very important role in constructing a facilitative environment for language learning. The teacher in this study by posing challenging and interesting questions tried to involve the learners in classroom discussions by making them participate in long turns.

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Analysis of the Feminism in *Pride and Prejudice*

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Abstract—This article is dedicated to the study of profound meaning underlying in the female social, psychological and sexual reality in the novel *Pride and Prejudice* in Victorian England. It explores into the heroine Elizabeth to study Austen's special perspective on feminism in the patriarchal society. In conclusion, this thesis examines the nature of Jane Austen's pioneering literary feminism, and both the positive and negative characterizations of Elizabeth in the text reveal the writer's feminist value in the Victorian England.

Index Terms—narrative perspective, feminism, narrative voice, female consciousness

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Jane Austen and Her Life Time

Among the distinguished English novelists of the 19th century are several women. Women novelists began to appear in English during the second half of the 18th century. But some gifted women of the 19th century made such contributions to the development of the English novel that they have justifiably won their places in the front ranks of the brilliant realists headed by Dickens and Thackeray. Jane Austen is one of these remarkable women novelists.

Jane Austen, her life was, on the surface, even and serene, but her work reveals a mind of enormous vitality and scope, and a powerful understanding of human behavior. Born on December 16, 1775, in the Hampshire village of Steventon where her father was a clergyman, she grew up in an affectionate family, whose members were all great novel-readers. She was educated at home and began to write at an early age. There was a small table in the sitting room, on which she wrote her now famous novels including six complete ones and left behind three fragments. When a visitor entered, she would throw a sheet of paper or a piece of sewing over her work, and she modestly refused to acknowledge that she was the author of her novels, which were published anonymously owing to the prejudice prevailing at the time concerning the writing of novels by a lady. She never married, and she ignored literary circles, ridiculing the popular gothic novel and rejecting the tenets of Romanticism.

Among her six articles, *pride and prejudice* is the most widely read. Since its immediate success in 1813, it has remained one of the most popular novels in the English language. Jane Austin called this brilliant work "her own darling child". Austin began to write it when she was 21. But the manuscript "went begging" for 16 years at the doors of publishers before it was published in 1813. It is a story of young girl who rejects an offer of marriage because the young nobleman is rude to her family.

In the development of the entire world, there is a conception in human's mind for a very long time that man is a hero, a magnificent object to be admired. Woman only depends on man. So man will never admit woman's intellectual superiority, or even their equality and their possession of a normal human equipment of thought. This conception also has an effect on literature. In the long history of literature, man has taken relatively priority in this area. The readers ignore the books which were written by females. So these prejudices led many women to publish their first novel anonymously. There was no exception to Austen. Austen's first published novel, *Sense and Sensibility* appeared with the title page reading "By a Lady". And her second published novel *Pride and Prejudice* was published with "By the Author of *Sense and Sensibility*". They do have much faith that women are too naive and fool to create articles. They have incurable prejudice to the females. So in a very long time the English literature is filled in articles with male splendid writing ways. As a result, during the 18th and 19th century, there was almost none great articles created in England in such 40 years. However, there were a handful of remarkable women bringing us some monumental works. They used their special narrative perspective to describe story and describe characters. They told the whole world that women had a fine and fluent intelligence. In truth, women are not only intelligent, they have almost a monopoly of certain of the subtler and more utile forms of intelligence. It might be reasonable described as a special feminine character. So their judgment in many matters of capital concerns is more subtle and searching than men. They can see the actual things within. Women decide the larger questions of life correctly and quickly, not because they are lucky guessers, not because they are divinely inspired, not because they practice a magic inherited from savagery, but simply and solely because they have sense. They see at a glance what most men could not see with searchlights and telescopes; They are at grips with the essentials of a problem before men have finished debating its mere externals. They are the supreme realists of the race. They are the possessors of a rare and subtle super-logic. To my mind, Jane Austen was the

outstanding writer among these remarkable female writers. She distinguished her writings from male ones. Her articles are in the foundation of her experiences. What she did was to bring her feminine sharpness of wit, and to bear upon her feminine clear-thinking. In a summary, western literary history is overwhelmingly male or, more accurately, patriarchal. People all assume that literature had to be male. So we can see woman writers doing this over and over again- they search for a female model not because they want dutifully their "femininity" but because they must legitimize their own rebellious endeavors. At the same time, like most women in patriarchal society, woman writers do experience the gender as a painful obstacle, or even a debilitating inadequacy. In other words, like most patriarchally conditioned women, they are victimized by the real condition. Thus the loneliness of the female artists, their feelings alienation from male predecessors coupled with their needs for sisterly precursors and successors, their urgent sense of her need for a female audience together with their fear of the antagonism of male readers, their culturally conditioned timidity about self-dramatization, their dread of the patriarchal authority of art, their anxiety about the impropriety of female invention-all these phenomena mark the woman writers' struggle for artistic self-definition and the differentiation of their efforts at self-creation from those of their male counterparts.

B. Literature Review

Jane Austen is now considered as one of the greatest writers in the world. But it is not a smooth process for her to get the well-deserved reputation and status. In the nearly two hundred years, Jane Austen and her novels still keep catching the attention of the critics. Charlotte Bronte once harshly criticized her novels, excluding her from the ranks of great authors because she thought that the passions were perfectly unknown to Jane Austen. Mrs. Browning stated that "Austen's characters had no souls and were lack of depth and width". In my viewpoint, such critics also made the value of Jane Austen known. As we all know, there are many people studying her novels in terms of dramatic effect, the use of irony and the characterization. Austen's contribution to the English novel has also been studied. Of all the above mentioned aspects, the theme of marriage is mostly frequently discussed. All these researches make great contributions to the study on Jane Austen. However, there is no systematic research on Jane Austen's feminist narrative techniques in terms of feminist narratology. But recently, Austen's novels are analyzed more and more as products of a specific culture. The most outstanding new approach is the feminist critical theory. The first book devoted to Austen as a feminist is Margaret Kirkham's *Jane Austen, Feminism and Fiction* (1983), which argues that Austen dramatizes the concerns of feministic enlightenment of her day like Mary Wollstonecraft. Later there are more books on this topic. It is Susan S. Lanser who is the first to study Jane Austen by combining feminism and narratology. In her *Fiction of Authority*, Lanser makes an analysis on the implied women narrative voice and how narrative authority is established through the study of FID (free indirect discourse) in Jane Austen's novels. These studies show that Austen's feminine narration establishes the female writing style in English literature. Austen's feminine perspective of life and vocalization of growing female self-awareness, her power of consciousness through her unique narrative techniques.

II. FEMINIST NARRATIVE IN AUSTEN'S NOVELS

A. The Theory of Feministic Narratology.

Narratology started in the 1960's in France. As an extension of structuralism, it was introduced by Tzvetan Todorov in 1969. Feminist narratology has enjoyed a history of development of about twenty years in the west. The creator of feminist narratology, Susan S. Lanser, in the year 1981, first combined narratology research with feminism.

Feminist narratology aims at fighting for the equality between women and men and changing the social and literary status of women writers. The main task is to explore narrative discourse, structural features of works and narrative strategies and then to do research on gender politics under historical, social and cultural context. In Lanser's words, feminist narratology examines the role of gender in the construction of narrative theory. By this means, male writing styles and female writing styles can be distinguished so that sexual difference and discrimination can be exposed. Women novelists use different narrative forms from men novelists to establish their own narrative authority and their own literary tradition. This difference results from the social historical and cultural background: women's social status. In this sense, narrative discourse has social significance and political implications.

Basically, there are two levels of feminist narratology--story and discourse. At the level of story, feminist narratology focuses on differences in characters, events and contexts between women novelists and men novelists as well as social and historical reasons for the differences. According to the study of the feminist narratology, we know that Feminist narratology mainly focuses on the level of discourse. In a word, feminist narratology is interested in how the women writers employ narrative strategies to claim their narrative authority.

B. Feministic Strategies in Jane Austen's Novels

As a female writer, Jane Austen began her own literary creation when consciousness of women was awakened gradually in the late 18th century. Austen cared about women's social position and claimed for women's right to work and attempted to seek for the value of women in society and her effort to subvert the male-dominated value system can be seen in her novels. Her feministic strategies are reflected in two ways, narrative content and characterization. In narrative content, Austen concentrates on women's routine life, love and marriage. She is at her best in writing about young girls, because she understands them astonishingly well. So she neglects the narrative modes used by male writers

of her time who concerns much about important historical events. In characterization, Austen always makes the female figures main characters of her novel, and makes them the centers of the stage. She describes women as what they really are and advocates a new idea of love and marriage. With her sensible female narrative strategies, Austen effectively gets rid of the control of masculine discourse and establishes feminist narrative authority.

III. THE FEMINISTIC POINT OF VIEW IN AUSTEN'S NOVELS

As we all know that the narrative perspective is a significant subject in the investigation of novels. Narrative perspective is not only the angle from which the narrator and the characters view the story, but also includes the perspective which the novelist takes in his creative process. It is argued that the narrative vision of *Pride and Prejudice* should be classified as non-focus. Because of this perspective can fix a bird's eye on all the novels, so it can unfold each kind of character's actions and considerations calmly. As a consequence, it manifests the main character's no sense of belonging and rootless condition to the greatest degree. This novels describes some big or small families as objects to narrate a common world. But if the narrator wants to make a smooth narration about this small world, or predict the destiny of the characters or stories, or make a psychological description in depth on many characters, then this perspective is the only one choice which the works must use to display all the things. Austen tells female experience from the heroines' point of view which turns female images into active observer so as to guarantee their female consciousness.

Different from her contemporary women writers, Austen does not passionately identify herself with any of her characters and none of her books are written in the first person. She gives her heroines an impersonal freedom. In her six completed novels, Austen focuses on intelligent young women, through whose eyes she presents women, men and the world. In *Pride and Prejudice*, Austen's earliest novel, the author narrates the story mostly from the eyes of Elizabeth. Everything we know is from the heroine's eyes, ears and mind. In this novel, the readers are almost led by the heroines from the beginning of the story. This kind of point of view is non-focus perspective, which presents the story from the internal perspective of a particular character. As the word itself suggests, a reflector reflects events of the outer world in his consciousness, perceives and feelings. All the heroines in Austen's novels are the focalizers of narration and they are also the reflectors, since the narrator lets them read and expose the maladies of the society. It is not until Austen that dramatic change has been made. Scholars term the third-person narration as one of Austen's innovation, which creates the illusion of entry into the consciousness of fictional characters. So the third-person point of view in Austen's novels guarantees the female consciousness and female identity since each heroine has the right to observe other characters. So as the scholar Jane Spencer points that, with the third-person point of view, "women writers were developing their own distinctive use of narrative voice".

In Austen's novels, usually a female character is focused on in two ways, i.e. the inside and the outside. The character is portrayed from the outside world, seen by an objective observer, and from the inside, through the character's own thoughts and memories. Such point of view enables the narrator to have a close relationship with the heroine so as to reveal the story's ideology effectively. It is not difficult for one to find Austen's subtle shift from omniscient to limited point of view in her novels. By using omniscient point of view, the narrator can tell the readers the thought of all the characters and can jump out of the characters' minds to describe them objectively. The narrator even intrude the story with personal opinion. This "all-knowing" narrator presents between the readers and the story and retains complete control over the narrative, but the omniscient narrator is not a character in the story and is not involved in the plot, which makes him unsuitable to describe the characters' inner feelings. The great advantage of the omniscient point of view is the flexibility it gives its "all-knowing" narrator, who can direct the reader's attention and control the sources of information. As the story goes, the narrator stands back from the events and limits her ability to penetrate the minds of characters by selecting a single character to act as the center of revelation, the story moves to the heroine's point of view. Thus, Austen successfully transits the role of female characters from being observed to observing others. It is a way of gradual disillusionment with the patriarchal ideology of gender and her steady movement toward a self-conscious female identity free from patriarchal society.

In Austen's later novels, the transition from omniscient to third-person point of view is more often used in a more subtle and mature way. Like in *Pride and Prejudice*, Austen begins to tell her story from an omniscient point of view, by which the narrator can tell the reader the thoughts of all the characters and can jump out of the characters' minds to describe them objectively. From chapter 10, much of the story is told from Elizabeth's perspective. The narrator stands back from the events and Elizabeth becomes the focus of the whole story. The reader observes and knows the events by what Elizabeth knows or sees. Her mind and eyes become the angle of view and the point of entrance for the reader to know about the story. Those gentlemen, wise or unwise, rich or poor, both act as the ornament of the story. By the change of narrative point of view, Elizabeth is no longer observed by others but an active observer. So women's marginal position is changed.

In this way, Austen has succeeded in her seamless movement from one point of view to another. As the point of view is shifted from the narrator to the heroine, the reader is quite intimate with the heroine. By narrating the stories from the omniscient point of view to feminist internal point of view which men novelists often fail to do, Austen let the female characters themselves read and expose the maladies of the society. This shift also gives the reader the opportunity to re-evaluate what he has already learned and to examine the heroine's ability to arrive at a critical assessment of the facts

with which she is confronted.

IV. CONCLUSION

This study aims at investigating the feminist narrative techniques used by Jane Austen. In order to show how Austen uses different narrative techniques to establish feminist authority and deconstruct the male consciousness. Different from the traditional male writing style, Austen regarded female as the center part of the novel. She let her female characters describe the story as their daily life, transmit the information to the readers. In her novels, the heroines are not traditional angles or monsters defined by male writers. All of them are independent. They are narrators rather than objects in traditional novels. In this way, Austen successfully deconstructs the male's voice and establishes feminist narrative authority. Austen's writing itself is a rebellious act against the patriarchal rumor of the female intellectual inferiority and duping regulation of women's proper behaviors.

Jane Austen is a remarkable woman in the literary area. Her contribution to the literature is partly to a special writing style and partly establishes a new statue to women. She uses her special perspective of female to show that women is independent rather than dependent.

As a conclusion, Austen lived in her limited world with her family, so it seemed that she was not influenced by the changing society at all. Unlike other realists in the 19th century, she has never dealt with social problems and revolutions directly. There are neither heroic passions nor astounding adventures in Austen's novels. Living in the countryside all her life, she was good at describing the people around her. So in her novels, she created a lot of vivid characters of snobbish and arrogant squires. She satirized the snobbery, pride and vanity of the middle class people with humorous words. Apparently she wrote about everyday life, but in fact, some social problems were disclosed in her novels. Like other feminists, she cared about women's social position and claimed for women's right to work, and her point of view was reflected in her novels.

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A Textbook Evaluation of Speech Acts and Language Functions in Top-Notch Series

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Abstract—This study aims at analyzing the conversation sections of Top Notch Fundamental textbooks from the pragmatic dimension of language functions and speech acts. For this purpose, 14 conversations from the entire 14 units of the books were selected randomly and the two pragmatic models of Halliday's (1978) language functions and Searle's (1976) speech acts were applied. The results indicated that the conversations in these newly-arrived textbooks are not pragmatically efficacious and functional. Finally, some implications for teachers, material developers, and textbook designers were proposed.

Index Terms—Top Notch Fundamentals, textbook evaluation, pragmatic

I. INTRODUCTION

A. The Position of Top Notch Series in Iran

People learn languages when they have opportunities to understand and work with the language in a context that they comprehend and find interesting. In Iran when new materials are available, people become so attracted towards them that they believe they are the best for learning or teaching. This is exactly in line with the results of Chadran's (2001) study showing that teachers preferred available commercially produced materials in the market over the prescribed textbooks developed by the Ministry, that they do not engage themselves in producing materials of their own, that they consider textbooks out-dated and dull. As a result, nowadays, Top Notch series have become almost the most-frequently-used series in almost all of the institutes and also most of the tutoring for English language teaching and learning without any preceding evaluation or assessment.

B. Objective of the Study

The current study concerns with the analysis of the two fundamental levels of Top Notch series conversations from a pragmatic perspective to see how pragmatically rich these textbooks are. As a result, this study performs this pragmatic analysis based on two pragmatic models including Halliday's (1978) Functional Model and Searle's (1976) Speech Act Taxonomy in order to find the different types of language functions and speech acts as well as their frequency, so that the overall pragmatic evaluation of Top Notch Fundamentals can be concluded. Therefore, the following research questions, in particular, will be answered through the present study:

1. What are the types of language functions in the conversation texts?
2. How frequently each language function is used?
3. What are the types of speech acts in the conversation texts?
4. How frequently each speech act is used?
5. Are the conversations of these two Top Notch Fundamentals pragmatically competent and efficient with regard to the existence and the distribution of speech acts and language functions?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Foreign Research on Textbook Evaluation

Chadran (2001) ran a study about English textbooks used in Malaysian schools. English teachers of over thirty schools in Malaysia participated in informal interviews with the researcher about their feelings, perceptions, values, attitudes and beliefs about the textbooks prescribed to them by the Malaysian Ministry of Education. Results showed that, in general, teachers preferred commercially produced materials available in the market over the prescribed textbooks developed by the Ministry, that they do not engage themselves in producing materials of their own, that they consider textbooks out-dated and dull, and that textbooks were not suitably graded in terms of difficulty.

Morgan (2003) evaluated IELTS preparation materials and showed that there is a need for more materials that are beyond test-taking practice and aim at developing the language competencies that the candidates need for their work or study destinations. In the books, strong motivation of IELTS candidates was seen as taken for granted and therefore,

there is not any attempt to make the books emotive as visually attractive books do; and this was found to be the problem with the books.

In the realm of pragmatics another study has been done by Otlowski (2003) on the portrayal of gender and the representation of the various ethnic groups in the Expressway A series. The textbook is analyzed for (1) gender bias – the depiction of women in stereotypical roles, and (2) ethnic group portrayal- the visibility and depiction of ethnic groups in the text. The conversations and illustrations in each chapter are examined with regard to the above criteria. The results showed that Expressway A, while better than many earlier EFL texts, still depicts women in roles that no longer accurately represent their role in society. The text also gives a very sanitized view of the ethnic make-up of the societies and, in one case, shows a large degree of cultural insensitivity.

Some comparison studies in the area of textbook evaluation have also been conducted one of the most recent one allocated to Vellenga (2004) who makes a comparison between EFL and ESL textbooks. She believes that textbooks rarely provide enough information for learners to successfully acquire pragmatic competence. The results show that the textbooks include a paucity of meta-linguistic and explicit meta-pragmatic information, and the comparison of EFL and ESL textbooks reveals that although the amount of pragmatic information is small across all texts, a larger percentage of pages of EFL texts are comprised of pragmatic information.

In Turkey, Hamiloglu and Karlova (2009) examined and evaluated five selected English language course books from the viewpoint of vocabulary selection and teaching techniques they employ. As an examination and evaluation method, content-analysis was preferred in this study. As a result of this evaluation, it was seen that all selected course books integrated lexis into their syllabuses, giving emphasis to word knowledge by means of separate headings and additional sub-headings, such as Vocabulary, Word Building, Word Formation, Easily Confused Words, Keyword Transformation, Near-synonyms and Synonyms.

Finally, the most recent study in textbook evaluation has been performed by Khalid Mahmood (2010) which aimed at the exploration of textbook evaluation process through analysis of the approved textbooks by the ministry of Education in Pakistan. Eight textbooks in the subjects of science and mathematics, developed in the public and private sector, were analyzed. The results showed that there is a need to make the criteria objective with respect to content coverage in relation to curriculum content scope, concept building, cognition level of assessments given in the end of chapter exercises, format and design, and binding for its durability.

Regarding the foreign studies on textbook evaluation, no study can be found on Top Notch series, particularly on Fundamentals, and especially with regard to the pragmatic dimension applying Halliday's (1978) and Searle's (1976) models.

B. Iranian Research on Textbook Evaluation

A valuable study has been conducted by Tavakoli (1995) and it concerns with the language functions in the dialogues inserted in the English textbooks of Iranian senior high schools. The data are analyzed based on Searle's (1976) model of speech acts as criteria for evaluating the dialogues to see whether the different kinds of speech acts are correctly used. She has revealed that out of five different kinds of language functions, only three of them i.e. representative with high frequency, directive, and expressive were used in the texts. While commissive and declaration have been ignored.

Ansary and Babaie (2002) scrutinized a corpus of 10 EFL/ESL textbook reviews plus 10 EFL/ESL textbook evaluation checklists conveniently sampled while presenting a summary of common-core characteristics of standard EFL/ESL textbooks in their investigation, too. They tried to look for some theory-neutral, universal, and broad consensus-reached characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks, and draw up some guidelines for the generation as well as systematic evaluation of EFL/ESL textbooks. They concluded that however perfect a textbook is, it is just a simple tool in the hands of teachers and what is more important than a textbook is what we, as teachers, can do with it.

In the realm of task- based and pragmatics Iraj (2007) conducts a research and makes a careful analysis on New Interchange series based on the principles of communicative and task-based approach to investigate to what extent the principles of CLT and TBLT approaches have been regarded. In this regard, she employs Ellis's model (2003). Iraj (2007) criticizes *New Interchange* because the series do not follow the principles of communicative and task-based approaches as the author claimed. It has no frequency of meta-pragmatic information.

In the area of pragmatics one study has been conducted by Darali (2007). She made a careful analysis on Spectrum series with the application of six models proposed by Searle (1976), Leech (1983), Matreyek (1990), Holms (1990), Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983), and Halliday (1978). She reported that the series have provided a variety of language functions, but some important language functions that are used in everyday conversation more frequently, e.g. promising, vowing, and threatening, not only were in the form of unintended function, but also they were not as frequent as others.

Razmjoo (2007) used the Hymes' (1972) scheme to investigate the extent to which the Iranian high school and private institute textbooks represent the CLT principles. To this end, the textbooks of the Iranian high schools and private institutes were analyzed descriptively and inferentially. The analysis of the data indicated that while high school textbooks are not conducive to CLT implementation, private institute textbooks represent the CLT principles to a great extent.

Riazi and Aryasholouh (2007) also studied the four high school and pre-university English textbooks focusing on the consciousness-raising aspect of vocabulary exercises. They found that of all exercises in the four books, only one

percent of them could be categorized as consciousness-raising. They also found that the exercises mainly concentrated on individual words (approximately 26%) with no emphasis on fixed expressions, lexical collocations (approximately 15%) and grammatical collocations (approximately 2%). They concluded that students are mainly dealing with meanings of individual words and not with how words are used with other words or in what combinations.

Zare Moayed (2007) carried out an evaluation on a series of ELT materials namely, Interchange third edition. For this purpose, Littlejohn's (1998) detailed framework was employed in this attempt. Results indicated that the Interchange series are not completely in line with the objectives intended for it. They do not use learners or even the teachers as a source for its content. Supra sentential level as well is ignored for both the expected output and input of the learners. More importantly, these are not the learners who initiate the tasks. Interchange series, on the other hand, focus mainly on pair works and meaning. They also encourage students to use the language and more importantly they more often require them to express themselves than to be a listener.

Gordani (2010) explored different types of learning objectives inherent in Iranian guidance school English textbooks from the viewpoint of Bloom's taxonomy. The primary data in this study were the English textbooks taught in Iranian guidance schools at the present time. The study used Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives (1956) in analyzing the material found in Iranian guidance school English textbooks. The results showed that all of the items were concentrated in the first three levels of Bloom's taxonomy which are referred to as the lower levels of cognitive skills. In addition, a significant difference was found between the textbooks in their inclusion of different levels of cognitive skills. Riazzi and Mosallanejad (2010) investigated the types of learning objectives represented in Iranian senior high school and pre-university English textbooks using Bloom's taxonomy of learning objectives. Three high-school textbooks and the sole pre-university textbook were included in the analysis. To codify the learning objectives, a coding scheme was developed based on Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of learning objectives. The results of the study indicate that in all grades lower-order cognitive skills were more prevalent than higher-order ones. Furthermore, the difference between the senior high school and the pre-university textbooks in terms of the levels of the taxonomy were significant insofar as the pre-university textbook used some degrees of higher-order learning objectives.

Bahrami (2011) attempted to conduct an in-depth evaluation of *intermediate* Top Notch based on Littlejohn's (1998) evaluative framework. The results showed some beneficial points for English teachers in many language institutes regarding the strengths and weaknesses of these intermediate textbooks which might give them some insights into the course book they use and how they can exploit it better.

As far as the review of literature in textbook evaluation in Iran is concerned, only a few studies have recently been conducted on the textbook evaluation. Besides, no study has been done on "Top-notch" series, which has recently come into the realm of L2 instruction.

III. METHOD

A. Materials

The sole source of materials in the present study is the two textbooks of Top Notch Fundamentals. Generally, Top Notch series consist of 12 textbooks on the whole, written by Joan Saslow and Allen Ascher, and published in the United States of America by Pearson Longman Incorporation in 2006. The focus of the present study is on the beginner levels of Top Notch series consisting of the two textbooks of Top Notch Fundamentals A and B, and containing 14 units on the whole, and each unit includes 3 conversations related to the particular topic of that unit.

B. Data Collection Procedure

According to Guerin (2004, p. 6), To have an appropriate sample size in Conversation Analysis, we need to analyze samples of 'natural' conversations based on the topics, or recall of such conversations if necessary, and find out how the topics are being used in those conversations: are they jokes; are they serious discussions of issues in which the speakers try to persuade each other; are they to entertain the group listening; are they gossiping devices? To do this, we must find ways to obtain far more social context (or topic) for any conversation or text than has been done before.

Based on this explanation about the sampling of conversation analysis, the criterion for sampling must be based on different topical contexts or themes. Therefore, since these two textbooks include 42 conversations in 14 topics, the present study has randomly selected 14 conversations from the two fundamental books, i.e. one conversation from each unit, which includes a specific topic or "social context." Each conversation in these books consists of a number of sentences ranging from 4 to 15 sentences, and each sentence contains 7 words on the average.

Another reason to choose this number of conversation sampling is that, in qualitative research, it is actually advised to use 10% of the whole population. Therefore, to be on the safe side, this study has covered 35% of the whole conversations in these fundamental textbooks. So, any issue related to sampling can be resolved (Committee Members of Shiraz University, 2010).

C. Data Analysis Procedure

As the study is mainly qualitative, no special statistical analyses have been needed. Therefore, the entire analysis of the present study has been carried out by careful inspection of the conversations included in the two books of Top Notch Fundamentals on the basis of Searle's (1976) speech acts and Halliday's (1978) language functions models. The

purpose of this observation was to find out the types of speech acts and language functions involved in the contents of the conversations. Basically, the only quantitative analysis performed in this study includes some simple statistical analyses like counting the frequencies of the occurrence of each sub-category of Searle's (1976) speech act taxonomy and Halliday's (1978) language function model as well as their percentages presented in different tables and shown on several figures. Moreover, the chi-square test was reported in order to better illustrate the distribution levels of these pragmatic variables.

IV. RESULTS

Tables 4.1 to 4.4 clearly depict this general view regarding the distribution of these pragmatic factors, i.e. the frequencies and percentages of language functions and speech act, respectively:

TABLE 4.1
OVERALL FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS

Code	Functions	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Instrumental	8	7.47
2	Regulatory	5	4.67
3	Interactional	17	15.88
4	Personal	12	11.21
5	Heuristic	18	16.82
6	Imaginative	0	0
7	Informative	34	31.77
8	Attention-getting	13	12.14
T	Total	107	100

Based on Table 4.1, the percentages of language functions show that 7.47% refers to instrumental, 4.67% regulatory, 15.88% interactional, 11.21% personal, 16.82% heuristic, 0% imaginative, 31.77% informative, and 12.14% attention-getting functions. Therefore, looking at this table, one can conclude that the overall minimum of all language functions deals with imaginative ones, i.e. 0%, while the overall maximum of all refers to informative functions, i.e. 31.77%. Moreover, Table 4.3 shows the results of the chi-square test regarding these language functions:

TABLE 4.3
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS

	Frequency
Chi-Square	35.028 ^a
df	6
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 15.3.

According to this table, the difference between the frequencies of these language functions is significant and meaningful. In other words, the language functions in the conversations of Top Notch Fundamentals are not distributed equally and not at the same or close levels of frequency, i.e. Sig. = .000 ($p < .05$).

Furthermore, Table 4.4, as previously mentioned, presents the overall frequencies and percentages of speech acts used in the sample conversations of both books A and B:

TABLE 4.4
OVERALL FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF SPEECH ACTS

Code	Speech Acts	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Representative	31	31
2	Commissive	7	7
3	Directive	27	27
4	Expressive	35	35
5	Declarative	0	0
T	Total	100	100

As Table 4.4 shows, both the frequency and percentage of representative speech acts are 31, those of commissive ones equals 7, directive ones 27, expressive ones 35, and those of declarative speech acts are 0. As a result, it can simply be concluded that the overall minimum frequency and percentage belong to declarative speech acts, i.e. 0, and the overall maximum ones refer to expressive speech acts, i.e. 35. Moreover, Table 4.6 shows the result of the chi-square test regarding these speech acts:

TABLE 4.6
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS

	Frequency
Chi-Square	18.560 ^a
df	3
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 25.0.

Based on this table, the difference between the frequencies of these speech acts is significant and meaningful. In other words, the speech acts in the conversations of Top Notch Fundamentals are not distributed equally and not at the same or close levels of frequency, i.e. Sig. = .000 ($p < .05$).

V. DISCUSSION

Research Question 1: *What are the types of language functions in the conversations texts?*

As it was revealed in the results section, out of the eight language functions in Halliday's (1978) model, one function, i.e. imaginative function, was absent among other functions in both Top Notch Fundamentals A and B. In other words, seven types of Halliday's (1978) language functions, including instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, informative, and attention-getting functions, were present in the sample conversations of both textbooks (Table 4.1). As a result, the lack of the imaginative function in all of the conversations of these two textbooks may be regarded as a pitfall for those who are trying to improve their speaking skill through these textbooks.

According to Halliday (1978), the imaginative function is one of the crucial and effective functions in the real-life communication which is applied to create a world of one's own or extend one's own environment for humorous esthetic purposes such as telling jokes. This lack of such a communicative function is strongly in opposition to the claim of Top Notch producers, who are for sure in favor of CLT approach and claim that the conversations in Top Notch are communicatively and functionally powerful. The significance of the imaginative function is revealed in the moments of thinking, assuming, remembering, telling jokes, problem-solving, doing puzzles, playing tongue twisters, inventing, painting, doing artistic things, and many other activities one does in everyday life. With regard to what Cutting (2002) states, a good conversation takes all the felicity conditions or the real contexts and roles of participants into account. Therefore, it can be concluded that one of these conditions or contexts in real-life situations deals with those contexts in which the imaginative function is used. Top Notch Fundamentals lack these contexts in their conversation sections.

Research Question 2: *How frequently each language function is used?*

In Pragmatics, to know the frequency of language functions is so crucial that it may change the viewpoints towards textbooks and put them under the limelight of total judgment and overall evaluation. As Corwin (1989) mentions, a unique feature of pragmatics is its thorough analysis of the loci and frequency of communication variables (Hamre, 1984). One of the main focuses of the present study is to know the frequency of these pragmatic variables, i.e. language functions, in the sample conversations of Top Notch Fundamentals. In fact, it is the frequency of these language functions that reveals the main part of the answer to the most important research question of the current study, i.e. Research Question 5, which will be discussed later.

As Table 4.1 illustrated in the result section, there is no imaginative function in the sample conversations of these two fundamental textbooks. Therefore, the frequency and the percentage for this function is zero, which is a significant shortcoming of these books. As it was stated in the previous research question, other types of Halliday's language functions were observed in these conversations with variable frequencies. Regarding the percentages of language functions, 7.47% refers to instrumental, 4.67% regulatory, 15.88% interactional, 11.21% personal, 16.82% heuristic, 31.77% informative, and 12.14% attention-getting functions. Looking at these frequencies and percentages of these language functions, one can recognize the fluctuations among these pragmatic variables in these conversations. According to Halliday (1978), and also based on what Cutting (2002) says, a good conversation consists of all of the language functions with an equal distribution throughout the textbook. In other words, real conversations in real-life situation contain all of the Halliday's (1978) language functions. Although in many cases of real communications and authentic conversations there exist restricted types of language functions and perhaps there would be no need to apply all their types, a good textbook must include conversations containing all types of these language functions distributed equally throughout the conversations of the book so as to make learners pragmatically competent in their speaking performance. For instance, if a learner starts learning English and is exposed to a textbook with a number of conversations in it, is it logical or reasonable for the textbook to have all types of language functions in its conversations or limited types of them? As a result, it is better for a textbook, in general, or for the conversations in Top Notch Fundamentals, in particular, to include all types of these language functions so that it better activates this functional network in the mind.

Furthermore, based on Halliday (1978), and as the result of the chi-square test shows in Table 4.7, the degree of distribution is another important point which has been ignored, to some extent, in these conversations, i.e. there is a significant difference in the distribution of the pragmatic variables in the conversations. Halliday (1978) states that although the frequencies of these language functions are variable and varied in real communication, the presence of all

their types cannot be denied. Therefore, this very presence of all types of language functions in real communication persuades the material designers to include all of them at the same level of frequency in different contexts of use. In this respect, the conversations in Top Notch Fundamentals have two important shortcomings regarding the pragmatic variables of language functions: first, regarding the presence of all types of language functions, the conversations lack the imaginative function. Second, regarding the equal distribution of these functions, the language functions have been distributed unequally and at variant levels of frequency.

These shortcomings regarding the language functions in the conversations of these two textbooks will surely lead the learners to encounter with a number of difficulties in terms of their speaking performance in real communication. Therefore, learners tend to focus on some specific or limited types of language functions while learning through these books, so that they will become strong in the use of some types of the language functions, while they are weak in that of the others. So, in this pragmatic vein, Top Notch Fundamentals are considered as weak textbooks, and they need some reconsideration in this regard.

Research Question 3: *What are the types of speech acts in the conversations texts?*

According to Table 4.8, all types of speech acts, except for declarative speech act, exist in the sample conversations of Top Notch Fundamentals. In other words, the representative, commissive, directive, and expressive speech acts were observed in this sample. However, the absence of the declarative speech act in these conversations can be regarded as an important weakness in these two textbooks. As Cutting (2002) explains, declarative speech acts are used frequently in everyday communication. They are words and expressions that change the world by their very utterance, such as “I bet,” “I declare,” “I resign,” “I announce,” “I pronounce,” and many other utterances which are used in different contexts. Therefore, the lack of the declarative speech act will surely mars the learners’ speaking competence in those pragmatic contexts in which this critical speech act is needed to be applied. In his book of “Language and Power,” Fairclough (1989) states:

Speech acts are a central part of pragmatics, which is in turn concerned with the meanings that participants in a discourse give to elements of a text... discourse type dictates the conventions for speech acts, and the conventions reflect the participants’ ideology and social relationships (Cited in Cutting, 2002).

With regard to the above extract it can be concluded that the different types of discourse shape the contexts in which a number of appropriate speech acts must be used so as to form some specific social relationships. In line with Fairclough’s (1989) idea, Searle (1976) also emphasizes that since the learners tend to become communicatively competent in almost all contexts so that they would be able to establish their ideologies and social relationships, the existence of all the felicity conditions in which all types of speech acts can be applied is necessary. As a result, the conversations in Top Notch Fundamentals lack this characteristic which Searle (1976) explains, i.e. to include all types of speech acts. Besides this shortcoming, the distribution level of the present speech acts, i.e. representative, commissive, directive, and expressive speech acts, in these sample conversations is the other side of the coin which will be assessed and discussed in the next research question.

Research Question 4: *How frequently each speech act is used?*

As Table 4.4 shows, both the frequency and the percentage of speech acts are the same. In other words, there are 31% representative, 7% commissive, 27% directive, 35% expressive, and 0% declarative speech acts in the sample conversations of Top Notch Fundamentals. This result indicates that the frequency and the percentage of occurrence of speech acts in these conversations are totally different and unequal. On the one hand, as mentioned in the previous section, there is no declarative speech act observed in the sample conversations, and on the other hand, the distribution of other present speech acts, i.e. representative, commissive, directive, and expressive speech acts, in these conversations are so variant and unequal. The maximum percentage of speech acts belongs to expressive ones, i.e. 31%, while the minimum percentage refers to declarative ones, i.e. 0%.

Searle (1976) believes that all types of speech acts are frequently used in every day communication, and states that different kinds of situations or contexts lead us to use different types of speech acts in order to maintain the basic relationships in our social lives. As a result, to become pragmatically competent and functional in almost all the contexts of communication, learners need to gain the knowledge of all types of speech acts so as to be able to apply pragmatically appropriate speech acts in different communicative contexts. In this respect, the conversations of Top Notch Fundamentals do not contain all types of Searle’s (1976) speech acts, on the one hand, and according to the results of the chi-square test in Table 4.10, the existing speech acts are not equally distributed throughout these conversations, on the other hand.

Research Question 5: *Are the conversations of these two Top Notch Fundamentals pragmatically competent with regard to the existence and the distribution of speech acts and language functions?*

According to the points discussed in the previous research questions with regard to the types and the frequency of language functions and speech acts in the conversations, it is revealed that the conversations in Top Notch Fundamentals have a number of significant shortcomings, such as the lack of imaginative language function, lack of declarative speech act, and above all, the inequality and variation in the distribution of both language functions and speech acts. To be regarded as pragmatically competent, the conversations in these two textbooks must include all types of language functions and speech acts which are all used in the real-life communications. Besides, these language functions and speech acts must be used and distributed among the conversations in such a systematic way that when

being read, studied, and practiced, all types of them can be recognized in learners' speaking performance. In other words, not only must all types of these Halliday's (1978) language functions and Searle's (1976) speech acts be present in the conversations of the books, but also they must be distributed equally and at the same frequency or percentage among all of the conversations.

Furthermore, with regard to what Guerin (2004) states in terms of the type of sampling and the criterion for this sample to be analyzed, this equality in the distribution of language functions and speech acts must be on the basis of topical or thematic contexts. These contexts in these textbooks are, actually, in the same line with different units or chapters of the books, each of which deals with a particular and real-life topic or theme. Therefore, these pragmatic variables, i.e. language functions and speech acts, must be distributed equally not only all over the entire conversations of these two books, but also in each one of the units, which focuses on a particular and natural theme in everyday life.

Therefore, according to what has been said up to this point, the beginner-level textbooks of Top Notch series, i.e. Top Notch Fundamentals, have significant problems with regard to the pragmatic dimension. In other words, the results of the present study revealed that the conversations in Top Notch Fundamentals are not pragmatically competent and learners are strongly recommended to be more careful of these two beginner-level textbooks if they choose them to start improving their speaking performance through their conversations. In fact, taking a quick look at the Figures 4.1 and 4.2 in the results section, one can easily recognize the above-mentioned pitfalls.

VI. CONCLUSION

According to the research problem stated in the first chapter, assessing textbooks that appear efficacious on the surface and are used frequently here and there just on the basis of a vague perception of the people about them becomes necessary for those who are making these choices. Top Notch series, particularly Top Notch Fundamentals which are the focus of the present study, are also in the same vein. In other words, since Top Notch series are new or newly-arrived textbooks, they have become so popular in the context of Iran and those who choose to start learning English through Top Notch Fundamentals mention just one main reason for their choice, and that is its novelty. Therefore, this study was so curious to know about the pragmatic nature of these series and started its work from analyzing the conversations of their beginner-level textbooks, i.e. Top Notch Fundamentals, so as to illustrate how the conversation sections of these two textbooks provide the learners with adequate communicatively and pragmatically competent information.

VII. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Based on the results and the conclusions of the study, the following pedagogical implications can be stated with the hope that the present study would be a useful source to solve many problems in the area of language learning and teaching, material production, textbook design, discourse analysis, conversation analysis, and even test construction:

1. First of all, this study can mainly be beneficial for teachers since they will have an idea about the degree of the pragmatic strength in the conversation sections of Top Notch Fundamentals, so that they can better compensate for the shortcomings.
2. This study can also provide material developers and textbook writers with the necessary information regarding the pragmatic dimension of the conversation sections of these beginner-level textbooks.
3. Textbook developers can take the pragmatic pitfalls of the conversations of Top Notch Fundamentals into consideration as a useful source to modify and revise other developing textbooks.
4. This study recommends the developers and the editors of Top Notch Fundamentals to take the reported pragmatic shortcomings under the rigorous scrutiny so as to consider and use all types of language functions and speech acts, and to balance them to the same range or level.
5. In line with Tavakoli's (1995) research, the present study also suggests the explicit teaching of language functions and speech acts as a sort of remedy to these pragmatic pitfalls in textbooks since the semantic-syntactic structure of utterances does not usually reveal their real functions especially in the case of indirect ones.

VIII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Regarding the present research, a number of areas in which interested researchers can conduct further related studies are presented in this part:

1. Further research in the similar vein is needed to be done on the other textbooks of Top Notch series and Summits.
2. Top Notch series can be examined from different aspects other than the pragmatic one.
3. The same investigation can be conducted in terms of the other sections of these book rather than the conversation sections.
4. This study can be replicated and conducted on different textbooks other than Top Notch series.
5. Further research is also needed regarding classroom observation and detailed teacher interviews so as to determine how Top Notch Fundamentals or other Top Notch textbooks are incorporated into the students' learning process.

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Contextual Restriction in Business English Translation

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Abstract—This paper mainly studies the contextual restriction in business English translation from the perspectives of linguistic context, situational context and cultural context respectively. To avoid mistranslation resulting from translators' neglecting the contextual restriction, this paper also comes up with relevant suggestions for business English translation. The research aims at reminding translators of the contextual restriction in translating so as to produce correct, exact and proper translation.

Index Terms—linguistic context, situational context, cultural context, business English translation, restriction

Today countries get involved inevitably in closer interaction with each other and big companies are looking eagerly for foreign trade partners, in which process they find effective communications are fundamentally important. Business English translation facilitates greatly cross-cultural communications among companies in foreign trades. Proper translation conveys clearly the speaker's/writer's meaning and intention, while improper translation leads both parties to a difficult and dangerous situation. Contexts exert great influence on business English translation, the ignorance of which will surely result in mistranslations and great loss for both parties.

I. CONTEXT

The concept of context was first put forward by the anthropologist B. Malinowski (1923) and was expanded by Firth (1950) who incorporated the subjective and objective environment into the concept.

Generally speaking, context refers to the internal and external environment of the communication. The internal environment is linguistic context including the temporary or stable relationship between word and phrase, sentence and sentence. External environment refers to verbal context which involves the field of discourse; the scope of the theme of the speech; mode of discourse, the way that word activities happen or the pattern of communication; and the tenor of discourse, which refers to the relations of both sides in the communicative activities. Nowadays, it is generally believed that context includes not only the content that exists before or after a certain piece of work, but also the subjective and objective environment.

This study divides context into three categories according to their restrictive impact in business English translation: linguistic context, situational context and cultural context. Linguistic context refers to the relevant content that helps to understand a piece of information in communication, and includes the semantic relation, grammatical relation and syntactic relation. In *Language and Linguistics Dictionary* by R. R. K. Hartmann (1972), linguistic context is defined as the phonetics, words and phrases before or after a certain language unit. Situational context refers to the knowledge that is relevant to a certain piece of information. This kind of knowledge exists beyond text books, but is significant for understanding texts. British linguist Lyons concludes situational context as the participants, place of communication and some other factors. Cultural context refers to the related culture background. It can be divided into two aspects---custom, the mode of people's life inherited from generation to generation, and social norm, the rules and restriction obeyed by members of the society.

II. CONTEXTUAL RESTRICTION IN BUSINESS ENGLISH TRANSLATION

Translation involves two kinds of language--the source language and the target language. As there are no absolute synonyms between the two languages from a strict linguistic point of view, there may be meaning loss during translation. No matter how outstanding a translator is, he could not convey the exact meaning of the source language, but the approximate meaning. Translators should pay sufficient attention to the influence of context so as to avoid mistranslating.

A. Linguistic Contextual Restriction in Business English Translation

Li Yunxing once pointed out that the meaning of a word is not determined by the dictionary but by the context. The context here mainly refers to linguistic context. It is common that one word has more than one meaning in business English and which meaning to adopt is decided by what context the word lies in. Translators should not only pay attention to a particular word, but also to the other words that lie around it. For example, the word "shipment" has both meaning of "the goods that is loaded" and "the act of loading to ship". Translators should decode its exact meaning

according to its linguistic context, as shown in the following examples.

(1) As to partial shipment, it would be to our mutual benefit if we could ship immediately whatever is ready instead of waiting for the whole shipment to be completed.

There are two "shipment"s in this sentence. The first one, along with the word "partial", constitutes a trade term to be translated as 分批装运. The second "shipment" actually refers to the goods that are loaded and is to be translated as 货物. If translators neglect the context, they may mix up the two meanings and subject the company to profit loss. With linguistic context in consideration, the entire sentence should be translated as 至于分批装运问题, 如果我们能立即装运目前已备好的货物, 而不必等到整批货物备妥后再装运, 这将对我双方都是有利的。

(2) The order NO. 105 is so urgently required that we have to ask you to speed up shipment.

The context of this sentence is built with the subject "the order NO. 105" and the verb phrase "speed up", which determines that the "shipment" here means 装运. So, the entire sentence should be translated as 第 105 号订单所订货物我们要急用, 请你们加快装船速度。

In business English, "floating" means 预约的 as well as 浮动的, the translation of which is also determined by the linguistic context. For example,

(1) We wish to renew our floating policy NO. 543 on the same terms as before, to cover consignments of textiles to West African ports. 我们想按原定条件将预约保险单更改为投保运至西非港口的纺织品。

Floating policy is a kind of insurance certificate similar to open policy. It is a long-term goods transport insurance contract that is signed by the insurer and the insured on the matters of the insurance branch and claim settlement. Therefore, the "floating policy" here should be translated as 预约保单 instead of 浮动政策。

(2) The floating rate is often based on LIBOR, the rate at which banks borrow from one another. 银行的中长期贷款一般都采用浮动利率。

Regarding the linguistic context, this sentence is excerpted from an article about the bank industry. "Rate" generally means 比率, but obviously "floating rate" cannot be translated as 浮动比率. Actually in business English dictionary, "floating rate" is a professional term in the bank industry with a fixed translation version as 浮动利率。

B. Situational Contextual Restriction in Business English Translation

Business correspondences serve as the typical examples to manifest the influence of situational context. When translating Chinese business correspondences into English ones, translators should notice that English business correspondence writing has special characteristics as shown below.

(1) *Dear Mr. Hamper,*

I am afraid your failure to settle your account, which is overdue for more than six months, will leave us with no alternative but resort to legal proceedings.

This is to notify you that unless we receive your check for \$ 7,550.00 by June 30, we will place your account in the hands of our attorneys for collection.

Apparently, this business correspondence's field is to collect the payment for goods. To meet the context, six professional words are used in two sentences---*account, overdue, notify, check, attorney, collection*. This is one of the most outstanding features of English business correspondence.

(2) *Thank you for your letter of the 16th of this month. We shall be glad to enter into business relations with your company. In compliance with your request, we are sending you, under separate cover, our latest catalogue and price list covering our export range. Payment should be made by irrevocable and confirmed letter of credit. Should you wish to place an order, please telex or fax us.*

Your prompt reply would be highly appreciated.

This letter aims at establishing business relations with another company. Although it is short, polite words are frequently used in this letter to leave the recipient a good impression.

(3) *You are invited to note two reasons for the price rise as follows.*

In business English, "You Attitude" is frequently adopted to show the respect towards the copartner, even when the writer is expressing requirements. This feature is also decided by the business situational context.

(4) *We should appreciate it if you could advance shipment.*

Modal words "should" and "could" are frequently used in business letters. Besides, "should" here needn't be translated; otherwise, it would lead to mistranslation.

Moreover, a lot of *common* words are endowed with special meaning by business situational context.

(1) *Average is of two kinds: General Average and Particular Average.*

In this sentence, the word "average" means 海损 instead of 平均。

(2) *We think it fair to point out that recent changes in import quotas may cause us difficulty in executing contract orders and that some delay is inevitable.*

"Some" here should be translated as 稍微 instead of 一些 according to the situational context.

As business English correspondence is a kind of half-official document writing, it inevitably adopts big words to show its authority. For example, "commence" is applied instead of "begin". Some complex prepositional phrases are employed instead of single common prepositions, such as "with reference to" instead of "about", "prior to" instead of

"before".

C. *Cultural Context Restriction in Business English Translation*

The manifestation of cultural context restriction in business English translation is mainly embodied in advertisement translation. Good advertisement translations between English and Chinese lay adequate emphasis on cultural context.

As an officially appointed ice cream supplier during the Wimbledon Tennis Championships, Haagen-Dazs carried out a brand promotion named the "The Perfect Match". Translators were facing a big challenge when thinking of its Chinese version. If this promotion were translated as 完美赛事, people would see nothing of the relation between the match and the Haagen-Dazs. Then it would be meaningless to carry out the brand promotion for Haagen-Dazs company. If the activity were translated as 绝佳搭档: 温网比赛, 哈根达斯, although it emphasized cooperative relations between the match and Haagen-Dazs, it would still make the advertisement too commercial. So, the translator had to figure out the related culture background with this commercial activity. Wimbledon Tennis Match is held in the last week in June till the beginning of July each year as the oldest and the most authorized match in tennis field. A history for as long as more than one hundred years gives birth to the unique Wimbledon Tennis Match Culture. Ice cream is one of the traditional inevitable snacks. The tennis fans will be eating ice creams while cheering for the athletes. The combination of the match, the leisure and the entertainment is exactly what the brand promotion wants to express. Taking the above into consideration, translators finally translated the "The Perfect Match" as 观温网赛事, 品哈根达斯 which not only achieved the goal of the brand promotion, but also gave Haagen-Dazs a cultural image.

Rejoice is a famous international shampoo brand. The brand name indicates that the goods will bring people joy. However, if the brand is translated as 使人高兴, people cannot figure out what relation it has with shampoo, as this translation neglects the cultural context and fails to convey exactly the embodied meaning. In Chinese, 柔顺 is used to modify nice hair, so the brand was finally translated into 飘柔. On one hand, it helps Chinese people easily know what the product is about. On the other hand, this translation doesn't deviate from the central meaning of bringing joy to people.

Chinese people always dislike the mention of death and avoid saying the words that have similar pronunciation with death. Translators should not neglect this cultural context. A famous tie brand is Goldlion. The literal translation would be 金狮 in Chinese. However, 狮 is similar to 死 in pronunciation in Chinese. Accordingly, people would feel this brand ominous and the sales volume may be influenced. So, the translation was changed into 金利来 later, which was regarded as an excellent example in advertisement translation. 金 and 利 both mean profits. 来 means come and it is the transliteration of lion. The three characters ensure the distributors a lot of economic profits.

There is a Chinese advertisement 一天一块“金星”巧克力, 令你精力充沛、生活愉悦. One English proverb "an apple a day keeps the doctor away" is well known to almost all Westerners. Therefore the translation of this Chinese advertisement smartly imitated the structure of the proverb to arouse the Westerner's interest and is translated as "A Mars a day keeps you work, rest and play."

III. SUGGESTIONS FOR BUSINESS ENGLISH TRANSLATION

Translators should learn more about the international trade. Simply the knowledge about English cannot ensure a good business English translator, while common sense in international trade is also indispensable. Only with the general knowledge of international trade can translators be sensitive to the words and make correct judgment among several meanings of words in business English translation.

Translators should obey the principles of faithfulness, exactness and consistency, pay sufficient attention to the context, and try to make translation equivalent to the source text. What's more, the translated version should be natural and professional.

A good translator should learn much about Western culture. Greek fables and the Bible are two main origins of Western culture, proverbs and literary quotations in English. They can be regarded as the key to the treasure house of Western culture. With good knowledge of Western culture, translators will translate exactly and properly cultural flavors of the source language into the target language.

Translators should not add extra context as they like. Once a Taiwan television retransmitted a program in which three astronauts were giving a speech before the rocket was launched. They said "we are in good shape." (我们情况良好). The announcer of the television translated this sentence as 我们身材都很好. He also explained that the astronauts were so humorous that they even told a joke before they were sent to the international space station. The translator here made a mistake as he neglected the real context and added an extra context to that sentence according to his understanding. The same mistake may happen in business English translation.

Translators should keep strict to the context of the source language. They could add or reduce words according to the context when translating. As discussed above, a lot of polite words and modal verbs are applied in business English correspondence, and some of them needn't be translated into Chinese as they just show politeness.

Translators should pay attention to the switch between "You Attitude" and "I Attitude". Business English contains a lot "You Attitude" sentences, such as "You are invited to note two reasons for the price rise as follows". This sentence actually expresses the writer's demand although it smartly begins with the subject "You". Translators should be alert to

this point especially when translating Chinese business correspondences into English.

A lot of deals are accomplished through business correspondences and are concluded with business contracts, so business English translation becomes particularly important. Mistranslating some words or sentences may bring both parties great economic losses. Good business English translators should have not only profound knowledge of English, but also professional knowledge about international trade. Besides, business English translators should be alert enough to the influence of context.

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The Effect(s) of Culturally Motivational Films on the Attitude of Iranian Students

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Abstract—This study is an attempt to investigate the effect of adding culturally motivating films to the classroom program to see its effect on the students' attitudes toward the foreign culture/language in language learning. To achieve this end, a quasi-experimental method was chosen to deal with this issue. Two intact classes (each class comprising of ten students) were selected to form experimental and control groups. A questionnaire was given to the subjects of both groups in order to assess their attitudes toward the foreign culture before administrating the treatment. After the administration of the treatment, an alternate form of the same questionnaire was given to the students of both classes to evaluate the possible changes occurring in their attitudes toward the foreign culture as a result of the treatment. At the end, the result showed that a significant change occurred in the students' attitudes toward the foreign culture, logically as a result of the treatment.

Index Terms—motivation, attitude, quasi-experimental method

I. INTRODUCTION

For many years, language was thought of a separate phenomenon from culture. In our country, Iran, avoiding the effect of cultural invasion on our culture, classroom activities were bereft of any instruction of foreign cultures and this decontextualized method of teaching plagued the field for many years (hence, they deculturalized all the English textbooks). For so many years language policy makers in Iran did not allow the material developers to include any points related to foreign cultures in our school English textbooks (this view still exists in our educational system- high school English text books). In other parts of the world, after the affirmation of the incapability of this view, many scholars developed a contextualized view toward language teaching. From that time on, culture, as an integral part of context, took an important role in language teaching.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Motivation, in general, is "the driving force in any situation that leads to action." In the field of language learning, motivation refers to "a combination of learners' attitudes, desires, and willingness to expend effort in order to learn the second language." Integrative motivation, the center of discussion in this article, includes the "positive attitudes toward both the target language community and the language classroom and the commitment to learn the language" (Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics, 3rd edition).

Gardner (1985) proposed that "the motivated individual is one who wants to achieve a particular goal and experiences satisfaction in the activities in achieving this goal." He (1993) believes that motivation influences language achievement and asserts that "integrative motivation reflects a positive interest towards the other language or group in general." Since learning a language involves associating with another cultural group, he concludes that the motivation to learn the language could involve attitudes toward that community.

Factors that contribute to motivation and engagement are believed to play an important role in students' academic achievement; therefore, it is important to identify such factors and evaluate their significance and level of contribution. Previously conducted researches have shown that a variety of factors influence students' motivation and engagement including the nature of pedagogy they receive (Teven & McCroskey, 1997), relationships they have with their teachers (Kelly & Hansen, 1987), parents' attitudes and expectations for their children (Dandy & Ne Helbeck, 2000), peers (Wigfield & Tonks, 2002), class climate (Qin, Johnson & Johnson, 1995), school culture & structure (Anderman & Machr, 1994), sociodemographic status (Becker & Luthar, 2002), gender (Martin, 2003), and age (Martin, 2001).

The multidimensional nature of motivation and engagement provides the opportunity for researchers to approach it in

different ways, for example Hitochi Horiuchi (2008), a Japanese researcher, conducted a research on international cultural relations and discussed why and how they are relevant to teaching/learning culture in current US college Japanese language programs. Following National Standards Collaborative 1999, he defined culture as "generally understood to include the philosophical perspectives, the behavioral practices, and the products – both tangible and intangible– of a society." He claimed that "International Cultural Relations motivates such a culture teaching/learning and gives a preferred framework to it."

Kramsch (1991) defines culture as "both something you perform and something you learn about" (p. 228). He goes on by suggesting that "Cultural competence can be best developed in a structured learning environment, where conscious parallels can be drawn, where language can be explicitly linked to its meaning in a particular sociocultural and historical context, where disparate linguistic or cultural phenomena can be brought together and attached to more abstract principles of both base (C1) and target (C2) language and culture" (p.229).

Eisenchlas et al. (2003) discuss that "Intercultural Communication(IC) is not learned via exposure or osmosis; it needs to be taught explicitly" (p. 398). They believe that "teaching IC involves more than mere transfer of information. It requires students to conceptualize culture and their own place as agents or carriers of culture." They state their goal, in teaching culture, as giving "students the tools for critical understanding of the social conventions that operate in both the target and the base cultures" (p. 398).

Somewhere else in Saudi Arabia Ajam Abwaku-Chibok (2000) related the issue of motivation to cultural and religious factors. In his research, he investigated "four factors namely motivation, social and economic advancement, struggle between English and religion, and language anxiety." In the end, he claims that "teaching and learning of English has been driven by examination success at the expense of the long- term goal of achieving complete means of communication in reading, writing, listening and grammar." He goes on and adds that "Since motivation is low among many students partly because of language anxiety and the struggle between English and Arabic, many students seem to want to pass so as to climb to the next level/social ladder, which a pass in English language provides." He retains that these circumstances "make proper English language teaching and learning impracticable." He holds that there is a direct relationship between the students' attitudes toward English culture and their motivation in learning the language. Finally, he rightly concludes that a change is needed to help the students take advantage of the foreign culture (English culture) instead of guarding against it.

In response to recent calls for a more integrative approach to the study of motivation and engagement (see Bong, 1996; Morphy & Alexander, 2000; Piatrich, 2003), the present study employs the medium of the media (culturally motivational films) as the treatment and then assesses the influence of such films on the students attitudes toward the foreign culture, and, accordingly, on their integrative motivation.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study is mainly concerned with the relationship among cultural instruction, students' motivation, and their attitudes toward the foreign culture. In this paper, the main concern was with the effects of culturally motivating films on students' attitudes toward the foreign culture/language and their motivation in learning the language.

IV. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

The recent trends in language teaching and learning assert that culture and language are so closely interwoven into each other that one cannot be conceived without the other. Studying English as a foreign language, Iranian students are deprived of a direct contact with this foreign culture. One of the available sources for teachers to provide the students with sufficient cultural information seems to be the media, namely standardized cultural educational films. Incorporating such films into the classroom can be a good choice to make the students familiar with the distant foreign culture.

V. METHOD

A quasi-experimental method was chosen to deal with this issue. Having considered the situation, non-randomized pre-test/ post-test control group design was chosen. For this purpose, two intact classes (each class comprising of ten students) were considered to form experimental and control groups. One class was randomly assigned to the treatment and the other class to a placebo. The treatment was exposing the first class to a standardized cultural-educational episodic film for a term (sixteen sessions/ten minutes per session). To keep both groups unaware of the experimental condition they were in, decision was made to expose the control group to a culturally neutral episodic film (for the same period of time). It is noteworthy to add that, topnotch films were chosen as culturally motivating films, and for culturally neutral film, various animations were chosen.

A. Procedure

For the purpose of beginning on the same footing, a questionnaire (see Appendix1) was given to the subjects of both groups in order to assess their attitudes toward the foreign culture before administrating the treatment. Using the mean of both groups, the t-test was calculated; no significant difference was observed at the significance level of 0.05. After

the administration of the treatment, an alternate form of the same questionnaire was given to the students of both classes to evaluate the possible changes occurring in their attitudes toward the foreign culture as a result of the treatment. After comparing the calculated means of both questionnaires, again through t-test at the significance level of 0.05, a significant change occurred in the students' attitudes toward the foreign culture, logically as a result of the treatment. It is noteworthy to add that a combination of two piloted and validated questionnaires was used.

B. Instrument

For the purpose of this research, different attitude questionnaires were reviewed, and after some investigation, finally, the researchers agreed upon using a combination of two previously used, and of course validated, questionnaires with some levels of omissions and modifications (see Appendix 1). The detailed SPSS default calculated data is given in the (appendix 2).

TABLE 1:
PRE-TEST

Group 1	Mean=27.20	SD= 1.751	$\alpha= 0.05$	$t = - 0.866$
Group 2	Mean=27.80	SD=1.317		

TABLE 2:
POST-TEST

Group 1	Mean= 27.30	SD=1.947	$\alpha= 0.05$	$t = -3.236$
Group 2	Mean=29.80	SD=1.476		

VI. DISCUSSION

Using a non-randomized pre-test/ post-test control group design, the present study found that the effects of the treatment (culturally motivational films) on the attitudes' of the subjects toward the foreign culture were significant. The findings have shown that familiarizing the students of a foreign language (in this research, Iranian students) with the foreign culture can be helpful in motivating them.

Despite all the emphasis put upon cultural awareness techniques in language teaching in recent approaches toward language teaching, the target culture has not found its right place in Iranian foreign language classes yet. This research can be an evidence to make the people in charge reconsider the lesson plans and incorporate some cultural techniques, in one way or another, into their classrooms in order that they can take better advantage of the resources that they have at hand as teachers.

VII. CONCLUSION

Recent trends in language teaching are based on the belief that culture can be a source of motivation for second and foreign language students and can help them obtain better attitudes toward the language they are learning. The present study sought to examine the effect(s) of introducing culturally-motivated films into the classroom the students of which are learning English as a foreign language (Iranian students). The results have shown that such films can be helpful in familiarizing Iranian foreign language learners with the foreign culture and helping them hold better attitudes toward the foreign culture.

VIII. IMPLICATIONS

The results obtained from this study can be helpful for material developers to consider adding culturally motivating films to English classroom activities and ask the teachers to practice such exercises in the classroom. It has further implications for the teachers to think of employing authentic and culturally motivating films in the class and motivate the students to employ the same strategy at home. It can be considered a strategy to encourage the demotivated language learners to change their attitudes to language learning.

APPENDIX 1

(Guerini, Federica, 2008) and (<http://www.sil.org/lingualinks/languagelearning>)

- I think I'm a pretty good language learner.
. Strongly agree . Agree . Disagree . Strongly disagree
- I think that I could learn pretty much any language I really put my mind to, given the right circumstances.
. Strongly agree . Agree . Disagree . Strongly disagree
- I like getting to know people from other countries, in general.
. Strongly agree . Agree . Disagree . Strongly disagree
- Speaking the language of the community where I'll be living will let me help people more than I could otherwise.
. Strongly agree . Agree . Disagree . Strongly disagree

5. I won't really be able to get to know people well if I don't speak their language.
 . Strongly agree . Agree . Disagree . Strongly disagree
6. There are right and wrong ways to do things in different context (cultures), and I think it's necessary to figure out which is which.
 . Strongly agree . Agree . Disagree . Strongly disagree
7. You have to understand people's culture and value system before you can be sure whether some things are right or wrong.
 . Strongly agree . Agree . Disagree . Strongly disagree
8. I find it easy to "put myself in other people's shoes" and imagine how they feel.
 . Strongly agree . Agree . Disagree . Strongly disagree
9. I think that students would learn more effectively if lessons were in English rather than in Farsi:
 . Strongly agree . Agree . Disagree . Strongly disagree
10. My ability to speak English will assure my success in the future:
 . Strongly agree . Agree . Disagree . Strongly disagree

APPENDIX 2

Pre:

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
marks	Equal variances assumed	.212	.651	-.866	18	.398	-.600	.693	-2.056	.856
	Equal variances not assumed			-.866	16.711	.399	-.600	.693	-2.064	.864

Group Statistics					
groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
marks	1	10	27.20	1.751	.554
	2	10	27.80	1.317	.416

Post:

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
marks	Equal variances assumed	2.163	.159	-3.236	18	.005	-2.500	.772	-4.123	-.877
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.236	16.777	.005	-2.500	.772	-4.131	-.869

Group Statistics					
groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
marks	1	10	27.30	1.947	.616
	2	10	29.80	1.476	.467

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A Brief Analysis on the Stylistic Features of English for Business Contracts

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Abstract—English for business contract is a sub-variety of legal English. This paper aims to investigate the stylistic features of English for business contracts. First, it introduces the definition, development and basic contents of style, stylistics and contract's style. Then it analyzes the specific stylistic features of English for business contracts from perspectives of lexicon. The paper also analyzes the stylistic features in terms of syntax.

Index Terms—English for business contracts, stylistic features, lexical features, syntactic features

Nowadays the research on the styles of the varieties of English becomes very popular. English for business contract, a sub-variety of legal English, has its distinctive stylistic features. This paper will analyze the features in detail.

I. THE INTRODUCTION OF STYLE, STYLISTICS AND CONTRACT'S STYLE

To carry out a stylistic analysis of English for business contracts, it is necessary to know what style and stylistics are.

Wang Zuoliang and Ding Wangdao (1987) explain that: "In a narrow sense, style refers to literary style, including author's writing style; in a broad sense, style refers to style of all kinds in language" (p.25). Generally speaking, the style of the contract in the study of this paper belongs to one in a broad sense. According to *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* (2002), style is the manner of expression in writing or speaking which changes at all times according to the actual situational elements, e.g. the participants, time, place, topic, etc. of the communicative event, from very formal to very informal. According to modern stylistics, style can be defined as the language use habits of a person or a group of people in a given situation. As different situations tend to yield different varieties of a language that in return display different linguistic features, style may be seen as the various characteristics of language use in various contexts.

Stylistics, which is the systematic and scientific study of style, is helpful to acquire the ability of using language appropriately. Widdowson (1979) defines that "by stylistics, I mean the study of literary discourse from a linguistic orientation and I shall take the view that what distinguishes stylistics from literary criticism on the one hand and linguistics on the other is that it is essentially a means of linking the two"(p.67). According to Qian Yuan (1990), stylistics is the study of style. It is a branch of linguistics in which the theories and methodologies of modern linguistics are applied to the study of the styles of the varieties of language appeared in language use. Compared with other definitions, this definition is complete and precise.

From the angle of the function of the language in use, Chen Xin (1999) divides style into applied style, news style, advertisement style, science and technology style and literature style. In this way, contract English falls within the scope of applied style. Judging from various degrees of formality, he classifies the extent of formality into five levels in his work *The Five Clocks*, that is: frozen, formal, consultative, casual, and intimate. Generally speaking, frozen style is used publicly for some serious purposes in professional documents, such as legal statements and regulations, official reports, scientific papers, etc. Archaic words, Latin words, compound adverbs, noun phrases, complete sentences, long sentences, complicated sentence structures, clear logical relationships between sentences, serious tone, passive voice and strictness with grammatical rules are often held as the marks of frozen English. English for business contracts perfectly suits those traits and sequentially pertains to the frozen style.

The contract, being an applied style, falls within the ambit of legal documents. Apart from the contract, legal documents usually include statutes, decrees, legal provisions, insurance policies, etc. Yet, all the legal documents have the same function: imposing obligations and conferring of rights. Legal English, in this way, concerns with the guarantee of people's rights, and the enforcement of their obligations. To ensure that a legal document says exactly what it is meant to say, and leaves no chance for misinterpretation, the draftsman of the legal document has to pay special attention to the precision of wording, and avoidance of misunderstanding and ambiguity. Accordingly, legal English appears extremely conservative and presents some striking oddities in form and wording, and so does English for

business contracts. English for business contracts, as a variety of legal English, just bears the general traits of legal English, and is most often presented in the written form. To tell the fact and express the meeting of minds of the parties in an extremely precise way, the draftsman of the contract is reliant on established forms and tends to employ tested modes of expressions.

II. STYLISTIC FEATURES OF ENGLISH FOR BUSINESS CONTRACTS

In the following part, I will analyze the stylistic features of English for business contracts in two aspects: lexical features and syntactic features.

A. *The Lexical Features of English for Business Contracts*

1. Formal words

Formal language indicates that it is a special occasion, quite different from ordinary discourse. Formal language is one of the traits of the contract lexicon. Compared with general English, English for business contracts is very formal. A lot of formal words, which are rarely used in general English, are used in English for business contracts. Here we list just a small sampling:

Formal Words	Common Words
approximately	around
commence/initiate	begin/start
construe	explain
convene	call
employ	use
notify	tell
present	give
execute	sign
terminate	end

Formal words are also frequently employed in English for business contracts. Generally speaking, most of them originate from Latin, French or other languages. The function of these words is to increase precision and avoid ambiguity in business contracts and increase the seriousness of the content. English for business contract makes direct and clear specifications for exact meaning and the wording must be formal and does not bring individual emotional hint.

2. Archaic words

A distinctive feature of English for business contracts is the use of archaic words, which are employed frequently in legal documents but not commonly used in other varieties. These words often appear in the form of compound adverbs. They are formed by adverbs "here, there, where" combining with some particles as "after, at, by, from, in, of, to, under, upon, with, as, etc". e.g., hereto, herein, hereby, hereof, whereby, thereafter, etc. "Here", "there" and "where" in these compounds mean "this", "that" and "what or which" respectively. For example,

Hereto... to this...

Thereby...by that...

Whereof...of which...

The use of archaic words helps maintain the formality of English for business contracts as well as the exactness of the content and avoid misinterpretation or ambiguity. Archaic words make the texts rather concise and accurate. At the same time, they make the contracts difficult to comprehend because they are rarely used in our daily life. The frequent use of archaic words renders the texts rather formal and forms a distinctive feature of English for business contracts.

3. Loan words

In English for business contracts, loanwords, especially those that are of Latin or French origin are frequently employed. Latin words were gradually pervaded into English along with the introduction of Christianity; while French was borrowed to enrich English for the historical reason of the Norman Conquest in the year of 1066. Those loanwords are conserved in legal English for their preciseness and mono-meaning. Hence they are also readily found in English for business contracts.

The "force majeure clause" belongs to general provision that is widely used in business. Let's have a look of the following sentence:

In case of force majeure, such as war, serious fire, flood, typhoon and earthquake or other events of force majeure, the seller shall not be held responsible for delay in delivery or non-delivery of the contracted goods.

In this sentence, the term "force majeure" is a legalese from French which means insuperable force or an event or effect that cannot be reasonably anticipated or controlled. In English for business contracts, a large number of legal terms are preserved which are of Latin or French origin. Loanwords are of stabilized meanings, which are conducive to accurate expression of the legal concepts.

4. Technical Terms

A contract is a legal document which is signed and obeyed by both parties. Therefore the language of contracts should embody definitiveness and exactness. One characteristic of English for business contracts is shown by using technical terms. For example:

Within the validity period of contract, license shall not disclose or divulge know-how to any third party without prior written consent of licensor.

In the above sentence, "know-how" has such an exact meaning as to demonstrate the technical information, design, production procedures and other information of product with license.

In order to describe exactly both parties' rights and obligations in business exchange, many legal terms are used in business contracts. For example:

In processing transactions, the manufacturers never have title either to the materials or to the finished products.

According to *American Heritage Student's Dictionary* (2000), "title" in the above sentence means the legal right or claim to ownership or possession. So "title" shall be regarded as a legal terms rather than an ordinary word.

5. Coordination of Synonyms

In legal English, two synonyms can be used together. this usage occurs frequently. It is especially an outstanding characteristic of contracts, for by using it, ambiguity can be avoided or reduced. Look at the following sentences:

They declared the contract null and void.

The packing and wrapping expenses shall be borne by the buyer.

The purpose of this usage is not only to respect the tradition, but also to seek accuracy and completeness of meaning. Legal English adheres much to tradition, which is mentioned by many linguists. There are many such synonymous pairs: terms and conditions, settle claims and debts, import duty and tax, customs and usages, missing and disappeared person, willful and malicious injury, elderly and aged, etc. The synonyms and near-synonyms in each phrase are usually connected and the second part is often used to reaffirm and complement the first part.

Sometimes, draftsmen may use some combinations of synonyms to make the meaning more rigorous, accurate and complete. For example, alteration, modification or substitution; defaced or altered; loss, injury, or damage; use, misuse, or abuse; in contract or in tort; expressed or implied; altered or amended; repair or replacement. Among them, loss, injury, or damage; in contract or in tort; expressed or implied are frequently used formulas. Some words, which are not synonyms or near-synonyms, are also used together for accuracy, for instance: breaking and entering, shall be or remain liable, etc. It is blameless to use commonly used reduplications of synonyms or near-synonyms to obey the habit of legal English, while it is necessary to avoid using superfluous words.

B. Syntactic Features of English for Business Contracts

English business contracts should be objective and show no personal emotions. Thus it has some distinctive syntactic features.

1. Long sentences

Compared with general English, the sentence structure of English for business contracts is more complicated and perplex. In a contract, usually "a huge amount of information has been compressed into a single sentence, which accounts for its length and grammatical complexity". Long sentences are frequently utilized in business contracts to include the rights and obligations of the contracting parties in a limited space of the clauses comprehensively and sufficiently. Unlike other style of language, especially informal conversation, which prefers to convey connected information in a series of short or broken sentences, contract English tends to put all such sequences into the form of very complex sentences capable of standing alone, by means of an array of subordinating devices. Some clauses of a contract are composed of just one very long sentence. Even in the clause that is composed of several sentences, the sentences tend to be extremely long. The utilization of long sentence in the contract is inevitable and necessary for enabling the preciseness of sentence structure and the accuracy and comprehensiveness of meanings. But for the long sentences and the many modifiers therein, it would not be so difficult for laymen to understand the meanings of the contractual clause. For example:

The undersigned representative hereby declares and agrees that, if and when the tender is awarded and after the formal contract is signed and, therefore, the performance bond is established, the buyer is kindly requested to advance five percent (5%) of the contract value as commencement support for the supply of water and electricity and erection of temporary facilities, and the advance thereof shall be deducted from the subsequent monthly progress payments.

The average length of English sentence is 17 words, but the above-illustrated sentence consists of 71 words, where the verbs "declares and agrees" are followed up with an object clause made up of three adverbial clauses to indicate time, condition and mode of payment respectively.

Another example:

In case that one or both parties are impossible to perform the duties provided herein on account of force majeure, the party (or parties) in contingency shall inform the other party (or each other) of the case immediately and may, provided the case is duly verified by the competent authorities, delay in performance of or not perform the relevant duties hereunder and may be partially or entirely exempted from the liability for breach of this agreement.

The 76-word sentence in the above example consists of an adverbial clause, a completed predicate in the main clause and a prepositional phrase acting as causal adverbial. Besides, the second predicate of the main clause consists of a conditional adverbial clause.

All in all, the predominance of long sentences is one distinctive feature of English for business contracts.

2. Proper application of passive voice

Passive voice is frequently used in contracts mainly to emphasize the action but not the doer, and give predominance to the fact but not individual feeling and personal will. In consideration of the stylistic factors and function, passive voice, which makes the statement more formal and objective, is used much more extensively and frequently in English for business contracts than in many other varieties of English. Passive voice sentences are always predominant in the provisions of packing, shipping, insurance, disputes resolution, payment and arbitration, etc. Take the following as examples:

The contract is written in Chinese and English, with both versions having the same legal force.

When amendment is made to this contract and its appendixes, it shall not be valid unless a written agreement is signed by both parties and submitted to and approved by the original inspection authorities.

After the contract expires and the lessee returns the leased premises, the deposit (without interest) shall be refunded only when it has been determined that the lessee has complied with all of the articles and obligations stipulated in this contract.

In these sentences, the passive voice is used to construct a wordier sentence and disrupt the ordinary sequence of events in the reader's mind as a given hint that the focus here is different, i.e. it emphasizes the action but not the doer. Just as Garner (1991) observes that the English-speaking reader generally expects a normal sequence of sentence, that is, subject, verb, and object, as opposed to an inverted sequence, unless the inversion somehow improves the statement. Overall, passive voice is frequently adopted in English for business contracts because of the necessity in the contract to emphasize the objectivity and the nature of preciseness.

III. CONCLUSION

English for business contracts is playing a leading role in all the business activities. English for business contracts, a sub-variety of legal English, takes up a large proportion of the languages used in business contracts. Many English contracts work as a legal document and weapon for enhancing the development and being on guard for payment risk. Thus it is worth studying for its specific features.

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A Journey through Disillusionment and Self-realization

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Abstract—Journey of discoveries cannot be limited on travelling to different places in far and near distances. Referring to the famous question “who am I?”, this journey takes place for those individuals interested in deeper meanings, values and intentions in their life beside considering it just as a new experience. The first and the most significant place for discoveries is the interior part of human mind. It is an internal journey for speaking to the spirit, touching the soul, and certainly knowing oneself. Mostly, human beings dip in their dreams and illusions in order to forget the real life and it is important to know the reason for this weakness of man when he is unable to confront with the harsh facts of life. This article by imparting a new amplitude of human being, expresses this fundamental assumption that illusion is an unseparated part of any man; some are aware of that some unaware, some run away of that some try to hold that. Moreover, the study wants to show what is important is to know there is –at least - an illusion in any individual and it is necessary to recognize it and find a way for confronting it to reach to self- realization.

Index Terms—individual, society, illusion, disillusionment, self-realization, knowledge, reality

I. INTRODUCTION

Human being's life is replete with various conflicts and moods and sweet fictions bitter facts which to a large extent originate from his personal experiences and memories, successes and failures, joys and pains, and wishes and disappointments. Referring to the famous question “who am I?” and the famous answer: “We are what we are,” my aim is to demonstrate that it is down to the individual to decide to _ in a Whitmanian vein_ celebrate himself/herself by assessing his/her conduct according to his/her abilities, intentions, and wishes, or otherwise develop a sense of despair and self-hatred. There is the effort to discover the inner lightness or darkness, or in fact, the internal self. Personal experience is a significant factor in the self-recognition because man's individuality remains in the unity of his experience. Wright quotes from Hobhous(1913) that “one must be aware of a certain identity running through the mass of past experiences, and inferentially prolonged into the future (p.176).

II. MANUSCRIPT

One of the important notions of everyone's life is disillusionment that is the result of misunderstanding and misinterpretation of realities of life when one endeavors to show this reality. Disillusionment is a phenomenon which occurs for any individual who is not able to accept the realities of life as they are. It is a painful and long process of introspection and self-realization and is never utterly eradicated (perhaps it must not be eradicated any way) because as soon as one got disillusioned, one rushes into building up another illusion. A good number of individuals fail to establish a reasonable balance between their dreams and the harsh realities of life. Stripped of the sense of importance and integrity they once attributed to themselves, they either resort to addiction and alcohol or develop severe mental disorder or commit suicide. However, self- realization and disillusionment do not always and necessarily conduce to depression and death as they can also be an integral and fruitful stage in the personal journey into initiation and wisdom.

This reality that pipe-dreams create the sense of false happiness in men's lives and the fact that disillusionment causes the suffering of men by leading them toward isolation and destruction can be considered as destructive elements in human life. It depends on individual to decide to accept his abilities, and wish to obtain a new insight, or in a different way expands the sense of dejection and steps in the world of despair and illusion.

What is important is that any individual as a character in of his/her life scene is represented as he/she behaves and acts. Not knowing the self means lack of internal awareness and not knowing other people and the society means lack of external awareness which is the origin of all disasters of human beings.

Therefore, when a man is rejected and humiliated by all aspects of the society, when a man shatters psychologically, questions himself, his fate, and the society when he confronts with the realities of life. There are times when an individual cannot break discriminations or ideological impediments, nor create new ones; it is the time when he seems as an outsider, a person among human species who yearns for a sense of belonging. Man's cry for acceptance is universal but sometimes he fails to find his desired place in the world.

Disappointed people make an iron cage around them which is the symbol of lifeless, spiritless, and unsympathetic world. But what has an important role in human's life is man's struggle when he come into compatibility with the world

and begins a journey to discover to where, to what, and to whom he belongs. It is a quest from ignorance to knowledge. Sometimes this knowledge is achieved through confrontation with special events or persons and subsequently the attempt for proving one's existence in the world takes him to self-realization which accompanies the breaking of one's pride and hopelessness, and this destruction may happen when man thinks to his power as the illusion of his preference over everything. The unseen dimension of the mind is the cause of man's action. It is our inner and natural instinct which attaches the internal sense with the external forces and travel through a mysterious way. It is a journey from ignorance to knowledge mind that leads human thought toward a goal which is the realization of the real self but some people fail when they reach to this phase and their destiny is dipping in loneliness and isolation, and it is a kind of process.

Journey of discoveries, whose aim is the improvement of human identity, presents man's individuality and creativity by separating him from his illusions and fantasies and reaches him to his majesty. So, the whole life is a fight between two groups: first, human who endeavors to get his dignity and ideal pure identity; the second, illusion as an authority tries to deprive men of his majesty; it means that it is power that determines which one is the winner or loser.

Any individual must go from one cage to another cage to find his place as a human by walking through his process, although it results in disappointing but he changes to an able-minded one. There is a significant point about illusion which can symbolizes the speechless and brutal animal that has been deprived of living in his natural habit where there is the possibility of compatibility and enjoyment from the environment.

Human thinks he lives in the center of his own little world. He has no attention to his environment and never imagines that someone can destroy his dream, so his confrontation with any reality can be a shock. Human mind is like a wide street with shiny and clean atmosphere if hesitation in believing oneself which is the base of formation of illusion does not find a way of entering to it.

What is significant is that for obtaining self-realization developing different aims and desires within the individual is inevitable because each of these aims or interests achieve might and spirit, but some people after passing some processes miss the aim and desires which produce in a man the sense of honor and existence. Thought and insight that permit the individual to deal with the experience have not grown in some individuals so they are unable to perceive the real self and the society that lives in and in a diverse position the society is unable to understand them too, while man is joined as a natural being to the other members of the society. The problem of the relation to the society and also the absence of correct recognition of himself prevent him to attain self-realization, and lead one toward disillusionment which results in disappointment. The acceptable reason for the suffering of human beings is a search for meaning in life. Man is not only the portrayal of a common man but it is the representation of a universal man, who has lost his hope and is trying to find somewhere to belong. Any man's pain and suffering lead him to think about himself as a person who exists and lives in an inhumane world. The need for a sense of belonging is felt in any cells of body and it is horrible to be in the middle.

Human beings should release their illusions which have become beautiful imagination in their mind, but it is a difficult task. The belief is that a man's duty is to warn his friends and to open their eyes against the realities of life, teaching them to find meaning for their life. Meaningless, aimlessness, and despair are the special specifications of the modern society. As Berlin (2002) writes "We witness the life of illusion and death of illusion" (pp. 87&127) but what is important is that men and women obtain a new knowledge. They look at their life with a new insight. The thing that has a great value is that one can persuade and oblige others to come out from their closed, dark and empty world. It is a great work that could step into a world that was different from their usual one. In fact, they could break up the impediment which had settled in their way and the obstacles that were their illusions to abandon the loneliness and attached to each other as a union for sometime. They accepted they are able to open a new door and go to the society of unfriendly people. Although it is possible not to obtain what they wish and hope, but they succeed to accept their weakness. Now, they know their illusions are just some false hopes and ideas but the same illusions and pipe dreams are the reason of their continuity of their life. Suffice it to say that they do not see what there is but they see what they think.

Psychological and socio-cultural conditions which are extended result in the dualistic theory of hereditary and environmental factors as definitive and absolute sources to produce individual characters are almost the same as those of nature, and Nazerzadeh Kermani (1998) supposes nature that is in parallel with the idea of race and class as identified binary factors. His dualistic idea, however, holds his own character similarly as a force controlling their fate. The convincing combination of those hereditary and environmental elements is the essence of human's tragic view. Those who do not have a strong mental and reasoning power and their behavior and fate resulted from their deficiencies cannot overcome their weakness and unburden themselves of the outcomes.

As it mentioned any character in the society belonged to a special class; they have social ranks and even good positions, but none of them could protect it. All characters have reasons for taking refuge in their own hole which is in fact their pretext because the main reason for their actions is internal. The reason that is common among them is they run away from reality and are unable to live in accordance with the social norms, in fact, they are afraid of harsh realities of life. So, they keep themselves in an imagined world that is full of illusions and live with these wrong beliefs and ideas. They know they have only two choices: whether they should reform or they select loneliness and illusions.

Neitzsche believes that man tries to be a superman after his defeat, and struggle is one of the most outstanding specifications of Neitzsche's ideal man (Tornqvist. 2002. P. 19). Suffering and pain are the source of the knowledge

about life that has caused some changes in the attitude toward life. It is possible to open his eyes to the realities of life and save oneself from his illusion and pipe dream. They fear to show the real face and self. This kind of people hides themselves behind the masks. Although they are aware of their real self they deceive themselves by living in their pipe dreams. They were afraid of the society. They isolated themselves and separated their internal world with the external world. They cannot live without illusions and their life is based on lies. According to whatever Arnold Goldman believes illusions help men to continue their life. They are dangling between love and hatred, reality and unreality, and lie and truth. Living without illusion is equal to death or suicide. Goldman wants to emphasize the inner conflict of human beings because any individual symbolizes universality. The mysterious of human being have been concealed in his thoughts. There will not remain any secret when he starts speaking. Thoughts and feelings of a person form the existence of that person. If these emotions and thoughts are revealed, the whole entity of the self is divulged.

The effects of cultural and psychological elements on individuals are considered as important factors. Cultural or environmental elements shape the outward face of man: race, sexuality, language, and social class can be categorized in this section. Personal values and prejudices are created by this principle, but the inward self is known by psychological elements. How a person thinks and understands how a person feels and touches hold in this category. Man's struggle with himself or his conflict with his environment is an effort to find his identity.

It is important to understand the depth of complexities of man as a superior creature in the world. Man can solve problems but sometimes he himself gets into difficulties. He is in captivity of the unknown world of himself. Nietzsche is interested in a "superman" who is able to defeat his pains and sufferings, a person who is able to keep the world in his hands (Tornqvist. 2002). So, penetrating in to the realm of human souls helps to find the hidden reality of life. It is important to know the reason for the weakness of man when he is unable to confront with the harsh reality of life. Wearing masks question the identification of the characters. Mask keeps characters in a place and permits them nothing to do except bearing of pains that are aware of them. The great mental and physical pain of the characters is loneliness.

To make an effort to make each other happy can be the key of freedom and prevent everybody to plunge in the illusory world. According to Yung, mask represents different aspects of oneself which contains the evil or shadow part and the good part also. He believed these masks can be divided into some categories. According to him "this division refers to different periods of life and influenced by race, gender, class, nationality and religious sect" (Robinson. 2000.p.73). Such people have settled in a circle that starts their movement from one point and comes to an end in another point, but they confused because they do not know which one is the starting point. And this rhythm repeats over and over again. The only familiar subject for them is waiting, waiting for tomorrow, and waiting for an event to put an end to these repetitive days, days which have become routine. There is no new and interesting thing in their lives. They are searching for something outside their souls, searching for a way to forget the present, but it is not possible only by repeating illusions of the past and future which is like a musical group whose singers are unskilled. They have suppressed their emotions and what they reveal is the pressure and tensions that have been hidden behind the masks. It portrays the unhappy realities of everybody life on its psychological level.

According to psychological assumptions and also Joel Pfister (1995) one of the best ways for relieving from pipe dreams is revealing them through confession. Sometimes confession helps because individual needs to save themselves from illusions they have. The most important thing is that men could psychologically rescue themselves from their inner conflicts. Therefore, confession is a good way for solving psychological and personal problems and as Foucault claimed it brings out the truth of self. Through confession men discover their significance and offer their perception of their individuality, and also reveal their subjectivity toward different phenomena (p. 67).

III. CONCLUSION

Living on illusions and tricking themselves that everything will become all right tomorrow is just like a big lie. The word tomorrow is symbolic and has special meaning for such kind of people. Their wishes will happen tomorrow; they imagine their future success and prosperity taking place tomorrow. Anybody voices his dreams with warmth and enthusiasm. These illusions are part and parcel of the real life to the extent that if anyone who is outside the group listens to them, they supposed that they are serious in their decisions. The personal illusions are not only for unmasking but also are substitutes for the dissatisfying world in which one live. It means that the psychological life of these characters has been separated from the society and they are emotionally isolated.

Strong effort is necessary to overwhelm the frustration of life and the absurdity and the mystery behind his conditions. By killing the illusions one reaches to a power position that may obtain by losing important belongings. Such a man who has experienced disillusionment acquires a new insight to overcome the hopelessness of life. It shall be suggested that perhaps this self-understanding does not lead toward optimism but it is not certainly an absolute pessimism. Disillusionment is a significant factor for initiating self-realization. The curiosity for getting spiritual strength had hidden in the nature of man. The existence of the opposite interests and contesting leanings within individuals assert the presence of self- realization in the nature of human being. Because of conflicting elements which acts as obstacles in the way of men and need to be adjusted, obtaining self- realization is difficult and painful, but such a knowledge guides men to a new attitude of the human experience that is between optimism and pessimism.

The compelling might of pipe dreams on the human mind is not undeniable but how they can animate the weakest capacities and bring hope for individuals are important. There are some forces in our life that lead us toward forward.

Life becomes more comfortable and intelligible when human being is able to discover psychological motives in him. It depends on human being to think how self-realization and insight overcome illusions and how disillusionment is used in the man's employ to get knowledge about him however it may be painful. What is admirable about human is when he/she does the best to change the conditions and situations imposed on him/her to find his/her human "identity" and "belongingness sense".

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An Analysis of the Changing of Bigger Thomas' Behavior and Thought in *Native Son*

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Abstract—The thesis analyzes the leading character Bigger Thomas' changing of behavior and mind in the novel *Native Son*. He changes from an innocent man who has killed several people out of fear from his inner heart to a new black man with self-consciousness and human nature. Although he has been sentenced eventually, he has finished his changing in behavior and mind. Human nature and self-consciousness begin to survive in his mind. Bigger Thomas strongly blows the white men's society at the cost of his tragedy and life.

Index Terms—oppress, revolt, human nature, self-consciousness

I. INTRODUCTION

When we talk about the famous writer Richard Wright in black American literature history, we can naturally connect him with his famous novel *Native son*. Indeed, with his special feature, the novel vividly reflects the social situation at that period for the readers and uses unique and brave methods to offer a kind of idea for American to change their traditional mind. Therefore, the novel plays a very important role in the history of American literature and world literature. In the first place, it boldly shows us a black man whose characteristic is very different from the former works about black men, and it vividly pictures the miserable life of American black men living in a slum and the leading character Bigger Thomas and the changing of his mind. After the novel is published, American society is drastically shocked. It is because the novel strongly blows the white American and forces them to realize their oppression to the black men. Meanwhile, it also awakens American black men by forcing them to realize the heavy cost for obeying and bearing the ruling of the white men for so long.

In my eyes, the importance of the novel is: the new generation of black men does not be content with living in the society with the established standards. They hate the law, moral criteria and taboo, which the white men force them to obey. They are acutely aware of white men's hypocritical and superficial appearance, which are used to conceal their oppressive nature. They prefer to die for their basic right and dignity rather than live in the humility like their fathers. At the same time, the white men also suddenly find that all the bad results are caused by themselves and they are never domineers who give the black men fairness and equality. In contrast, the black men nowadays spare no effort to seek freedom and equality, even at the cost of life. The leading character Bigger Thomas in the novel is alien to the features that bear and obey the ruling of the white men and are slaved like Uncle Tom.

From the following several spots, we can easily find how Bigger changes from a man pursuing his own dream and impulse of desire to a man reconsidering the intension of his behavior and mental movement and eventually gets rebirth of mind. His inner heart gets free because of awakening self-consciousness.

II. THE PROCESS OF CHANGING

A. *Bigger Kills the Mouse Cruelly.*

At the beginning of the novel, the readers can be easily attracted by the scene of Bigger's living condition. His living condition is so miserable that the four families live in a very small room. When Bigger's mother and sister take off their clothes, Bigger and his younger brother have to turn away. In such condition, living space and privacy have been totally deprived of. So the human nature has been distorted drastically. Therefore, when the mouse has been found in their room and the frightened mom orders him to kill the mouse, we can feel how cruelly Bigger become.

However, the more terrible is that the position of the mouse has been taken use of by the author to allude to that of Bigger's. And the fate of the mouse insinuates the fate of Bigger.

And we must mention four facts which mutilate him when we analyze the forming of Bigger's behavior. They are race, starvation, broken family and little formal education background. His father dies in a racial riot, and then Bigger, his brother and his sister have been brought up by their mom. They live a very poor life. Because they are black men and their life are also so poor, they have little chance to get education. The four aspects inevitably become the grievous memory in his heart and deeply influenced his thought and behavior. Since Bigger was born, he has been deprived by the society ruled by the whites of the right to choose and he has been ordered to live in the established situation. So when Bigger kills the mouse, "fear" the strong force occupies all his sense, and dominates all his behavior. While the revolt of the mouse stimulates his natural vim pulse, he adopts the very cruel method just as the way to cover his fear in

his inner heart. “he kicked the splintered box out of the way and the flat black body of the rat lay exposed. Bigger took a shoe and pounded the rat head, crushing it, cursing hysterically: ‘You sonofabitch.’ In fact, at that time, Bigger has lost human nature, his performance has no difference from the mouse that is confined in the room and has no place to escape. If we recall the scene of Bigger killing the mouse, and compare Bigger with the mouse, we can clearly find that when Bigger is forced to adopt the ruthless method for protecting his families, his face stretches tight. Similarly, for its own safety, the mouse crazily revolts Bigger’s assault by the means of counterattacking. Before the mouse dies, it oddly cries. Similarly, when Bigger assaults the mouse and causes the mouse death by his last attack, he also hysterically cries. It hints that the mouse has somewhat potential connection with Bigger. In this phase, Bigger’s behavior is senseless, but there is a kind of strange force governing him to have some perverse movement. In fact, the gush of undercurrent of the revolt has emerged in Bigger’s heart. And in the near future, the undercurrent will be overwhelming.

B. *Bigger Nearly Kills Gears.*

When Bigger attacks Gears at the pool, his oppressed feeling breaks out again. He and Gears plans to rob a shop running by a white man. However, when he realizes his companion feels frightened and holds back like him, his fear gives the way to violence.

When we notice that Bigger threatens Gears with his blade, we immediately recall that Bigger himself is the victim of racism. He thinks that he could rescue himself from the fear by frightening others. He wants to control the situation. However, in fact, his behavior just reflects that he is desperate to his situation and the trend of degeneration. But when we analyze Bigger through this spot, we also cannot omit his humanism. Just like most of the black young men, he also has his own dream and is imaginative. When he waddles on the street with Gears, he can get relax from his pressure. Indeed, Bigger shares his desire with his friend Gears. The desire is “driving plane”. When Gears reminds him that the whites would destroy his dream, Bigger doesn’t jeer. In contrast, he begins to satire himself and the situation he is living. He turns his anger and grief to satire which could be understood by both. Living in the limited spare ordered by the whites, Bigger thinks over that where he could live, how to live, what does him own and how he treats himself. The spot clearly reflects Bigger’s thought, and hints his violent behavior later. At this time, Bigger hates the whites more, and he deeply feels that a somewhat kind of vice is closer to him.

C. *Bigger Kills Mary Unintentionally.*

The phase is very dramatic in the book. In this phase, Bigger stifles Marry. His behavior shocks American society, because he kills a white woman. American legislation rules that if a black man still stays in a white woman’s room after 9 p.m, then he violates one of the most important laws and he should be sentenced. Therefore, when he helps drunken Mary go back to her room, he knows his situation is so dangerous. But just at that time, Mary’s mother comes into the room, Bigger is caught by a inevitable fear, and his mind is out of control, so he forgets that she is just a blind and weak woman and he can silently escape from the room, at that time, in his eyes, Mary’s mother is not a human but a “white ghost”. He wants to keep Mary silent, so he naturally covers Mary’s head with pillow. And as the result Marry dies.

The result reflects that Bigger hates but fears white men, meanwhile, Bigger becomes “the most vicious black guy” in the whites’ eyes. Although the author doesn’t narrate the white racists who cruelly oppress the black men, he points out that there are many whites in American society who sympathizes blacks superficially, but in fact they are the domineers to oppress blacks. And the blind mother sympathizes that the white men turn a blind eyes to the problem of racial discrimination. Then it shows deep conflict in American society.

The society Bigger living in too much constrains his thought and emotion too much, and segregates him to a world where he has little chance to keep touch with white men. In this kind of phenomenon, the concept about white men in his mind is blurred because of fear and lacking of belief. In Bigger’s eyes, the white men are not just human beings, but a kind of very strong natural power. So it is not difficult to explain why when Bigger sits between Mary and Jane, he feels that he sits between two white walls. And when Mary’s mom comes into the room, what he saw is not a weak and blind woman, but a “white ghost”. What’s more, the society Bigger living in also segregates Black men from each other and the society ruins their determination by economical and social stress and therefore the relations in family weakens. In such society, people confine themselves in their own space and become blind. They become dull and mechanical machine from a flexible and imaginative human beings. All the features, from well-educated Max to silly Bessie are the victims of the society. Therefore, tragedy happens. Mary is killed by Bigger. But she treats Bigger as friends and wants to enlighten and help him. The tragedy makes us have to rethink the unreasonable society.

D. *Bigger Murders Bessie.*

Literally speaking, the murdering is the continuous action of killing mouse and Mary earlier. He hits other’s head again. He attacks her by brick and makes her faint. Then he ruthlessly throws her into a well until she is frozen to death. However, the murdering at this time is very different from the last two times in nature. When Bigger tells Bessie what he did and tries to lure Bessie to conspire with him to slander others. She is frightened and afraid of being involved. Her hysteria leads Bigger to realize that she would never escape with him. Could he leave her behind to betray him? Never. Then he begins to premeditate his totally plan to murder. In this spot, his action cannot be explained by enforcing from outside world. It is clear that the whole process is finished deliberately and intentionally.

At the same time, we can also see that the society he living in and the culture influencing him make him largely

deviate from the normal emotion, as the result, he cannot communicate with others by love, but by hatred, to satisfy his exasperation. Bessie is his mistress, but Bigger doesn't love her but disgust her. Because she is like Bigger, is black. Once Bigger sees her, he connects all other black women in his mind, including his mother and sister. They are weak, silly, poor and humiliated. What they can do is scolding him and urging him to adopt white men's favor to feed them. Therefore, when Bessie becomes his threat, Bigger ruthlessly kills her.

The murdering this time marks that he is reviving in self-consciousness, though the way is very cruelly lopsided. Because the murdering is out of his wish to get balance in mind. At this time, Bigger is never a slave but a free man to pursue his right. It is clearly distinctive with killing Mary unintentionally last time. After murdering Bessie, Bigger begins to quest himself about his action, motive and mental movement. He starts finding his place in the society. Then, self-consciousness emerges in his mind.

E. Bigger Escapes from Home.

After killing Mary and Bessie, Bigger escapes to Chicago in heavy snow. He is so tired mentally and physically. He feels that he is closely surrounded by whites, and imagines that all the whites are talking about him and hating him because he brings disaster to them. Finally he stops at the roof of a room. "Here marks the transition between Bigger's 'flight' and 'fate'." In this spot, Bigger sees a black family living in one room. Three children crowd on a small bed. Bigger thinks "there are five men living in one room, but on the spacious roof there is only myself." At this time, Bigger examines black men living in a poor and suffering life by his special angle. Although he is also one part of them, he is reconsidering his past life as the outsider. At this time, he gradually realizes how ill-treated they black men get in American society. Although he cannot shake off or transform the present situation, he at the first time in his life really understands the surrounding situation.

Then he is no longer the escaped criminal with fear but the fresh man who can freely thinks and acts. Though policemen encircle him physically, he emancipates mentally from fear that oppresses him for many years.

At that time, because Bigger's thought has shackled off from white men's shackles, he is not the beast surrounded by white men, but new black men when he is arrested.

F. Bigger is in the Prison.

After being arrested, Bigger lives in the mixed mood of hatred, vice, repentance and fear. At this point, Jane, Mr. and Mrs. Dalton, mother, Bigger's brothers and sister, all of whom crowd into Bigger's jail cell. Mother is sobbing and Bigger feels guilty and is unable to look at her. Buddy, Bigger's brother is as rash and youthful as Bigger and he assures Bigger that he would defend his innocence and get a gun and kill their enemies himself. Buddy's comment is not accepted well and after Bigger learns that his sister Vera, who is ashamed to go to school because her classmates mock her, he feels a mixture of hate and shame. He is ashamed of what he has done to his family. In the prison, he reconsiders his life in the past and reviews all the miserable life he has experienced. He talks to himself in his inner heart. He revives in his mind. He realizes how racism casts his mind and makes him from a ignorant beast to a conscious thinker.

Mental maturation originates from the trial in which Max defends for him and asks him questions. When Max defends for him, Bigger is shocked in his heart. This is not because of the content of the defense, for Bigger doesn't understand what he said, or care if Max can really rescue his life. He is shocked just because of the defense itself—a white man is defending for a black man. In Bigger's eyes, Max used to be a man from outside space, for there is natural separateness between them. However, being guided by Max, Bigger begins to like talking with him. He tries to explain his "idea" to Max; he needs to "make him know" what he has been trying to express for his whole life. He recounts an earlier conversation when Max asked Bigger the political questions regarding his hate and fear of whites, his economic situation, etc. Bigger focuses on the question of "What would you have liked to do, if you were allowed to?" And he explains to Max that nobody has ever asked him what he has wanted to do, and so he has never spent serious time contemplating a future. Bigger begins to feel like a human and Max's questions helps Bigger realize how badly he has wanted to live. From the talk, Bigger realizes that his fear comes from his inner heart and the emancipation of black men can only depend on black men themselves. At this time, Bigger has no fear and calmly welcomes his rest life.

At the last few days of his life, Bigger revives his human nature, which is very meaningful in his life. He realizes that he has something to do with others. When Jane visits him in prison, Jane says that she has a little blind in the past because she never realizes the great distance between their hearts. At that time, Bigger understands that Jane used to express her belief on him but he himself kills her good friend Mary. Bigger very regrets for what he had done. He deeply feels humiliation for his crime.

Meanwhile, Bigger realizes he has responsibility for his families. But it is too late. Before being sentenced, he pleads Max to tell mother that she needn't to be worry about him because he is well. He realizes all his mother, Jane, Bessie and Mary are the victims of the society and what he had done is not the brave behavior but is out of fear and craze.

After experiencing the miserable life and deliberate thought, Bigger is beyond himself and adopts his situation by his determination. Meanwhile, he enriches his self-consciousness and spiritual world. He can face in a brave and peaceful mood with the fear that tortures him for so long time. Although the change on him cannot revive himself physically for he is to be sentenced, he finds human nature that is deeply hided in his inner heart.

III. CONCLUSION

The leading feature of the novel *Bigger Thomas* is the offspring of the racial discrimination in the society. He has his own dream, like others. He also read newspaper, magazine, watches movies and so on. In fact, Bigger understands his own dream very well. That is, being merged into the society being one part of the world and getting an equal chance though he is a black man. However, he also understands that the dream can never be fulfilled. Indeed, in the novel, the author proves that Bigger's behavior and his attitude to people and society have been decided by his situation in American society. In the established tradition, Bigger should not have his dream and seek it. But ironically, the racial discrimination and inequality enforces him the desire and the seeking to human nature. The changing of Bigger's behavior and mind reflects the reality in the first half of 20 century when black men find their own way to revolt and seek freedom. It is always a warning to the whites society.

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Idioms in Translation of Children's Literature: *The Big Clay Jar* by Moradi Kermani

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Abstract—Translating for children requires special considerations particularly in terms of style. This study addresses use of idioms as a stylistic device and the way they are translated in a children's fiction. Choosing Hooshang Moradi-Kermani's *Khomre* and its English translation by Teimoor Ruhi, the following research questions were formulated: 1. What procedures are used to translate idioms in children's literature? 2. What is the most frequent procedure used in translating idioms in *Khomre* as a children's book? 3. What is the translator's preferred strategy in translating *Khomre* as a piece of children's literature? In order to answer the first and second questions and find out the procedures opted for in translating children's literature, Baker's (1992) proposed procedures were taken as the framework of the study. And to answer the third question Venuti's (2004) model of domestication and foreignization strategies was adopted as the framework. To collect and analyze the data, first, the Persian idioms occurring in the book *Khomreh* as a piece of children's literature and their English translations given by Teimoor Ruhi were identified and paired. Next, the procedures used by the translator were identified and their frequency and percentage were calculated, the results were presented in a table and a chart for subsequent analysis and discussion. Then the general translation strategy related to each example and procedure was identified. The analysis revealed that in the English rendering all the procedures proposed by Baker (1992) as well as a combination of some of the procedures were used. The most frequent procedure was paraphrasing and the general translation strategy applied was that of domestication.

Index Terms—children's literature, Moradi-Kermani, *Khomre*, idioms, translation procedure, domestication, foreignization

I. INTRODUCTION

Literature is composed of those works which seek to attract, impress and influence readers. What makes literature have such qualities may be the language it uses; a kind of masterful use of language that most of the times draws on a different discourse from the ordinary language. Since for a group of people, it is not possible to read some literary texts in their original language, Translation becomes inevitable. One of the most difficult concepts about literary translation is that *how* one says some thing can be as important, sometimes more important, than *what* one says (Landers, 2001, p.7). As in literary texts form may be inseparable from meaning and sometimes this is the form that expresses meaning, form and content should not be treated separately. Therefore, problems faced by literary translators are more visible. Style is one of the defining features of every literary text and should be taken seriously. Unfortunately, it seems that for some translators, the content is more important than style and style has been treated as a secondary matter. For example, Nida and Taber (1969) define translation as an activity which "consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style" (p.12). However, some scholars such as Landers (2001) and Bassnet (2002) have underlined the importance of preserving the style as far as possible while translating. Preserving the style may be of paramount importance in literary translation as in literary texts, form is closely related to the meaning and sometimes the form itself expresses the meaning. Thus, it is the translator's responsibility to preserve the style as faithfully as possible. Hence, a reliable rendering of a literary text is possible only when the translator tries to preserve nuances of the narrative style, features contributing its unique style which discriminate it from ordinary language.

Idioms encompass an integral part of language and according to Baker (1992, p.65) for a translator "the difficulties involved in rendering various aspects of meaning that an idiom or fixed expression conveys into the target language... are much more pronounced in the case of idioms than they are in the case of other fixed expressions". Idioms have a supplementary and particular aspect that simple words do not have: because they are motivated signs and contribute significantly to giving a text local color. And "they give information about conceptions of the world considered by linguistic communities" (Carine: 2005, p. 495). And conveying such local color to a target language is one of the main

concerns of translators. As Lennon (1998) maintains idioms are used to give life and richness to language by taking the existing words, combining them in a new sense and creating new meanings, just like a work of art.

An Idiom has been defined as a set phrase semantically opaque, whose meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of its constituents. Although it shows an expressive and particular value, and sometimes (a lexical or syntactic) archaic structure, it behaves as a single semantic unit." (Carine, 2005).

According to Karin (2005), children's literature consists of a category of books whose existence depends on the relationship with a particular reading audience: children. And in Hunt's words is comprised only of texts that were "written expressly for children who are recognizably children, with a childhood recognizable today"(Qtd. in Karin 2005) The work of children's literature is supposed to be socialization of young readers and making them familiar with the thought patterns, norms and habits of a specific culture (Metcalf, 2003). And literature is a very effective way to help children understand the world. Even before they can read, their parents and teachers read them stories about people in the other places of the world. Children's literature not only entertains readers, but also broadens their minds and their view of the world helping them to know other cultures, ideas and values. Besides, since cultural elements and idioms (as one of the cultural-bound items) locate the story of a piece of literature in a specific culture and period of time and imply certain values, also considering children as the audience in our case, the most appropriate translation procedure should be sought to convey the source language culture, especially if the work contains considerable use of idioms which contribute to local color of the story and effectiveness of its language. As Larsen (1984, p. 142) points out, "idioms carry certain emotive connotations not expressed in the other lexical items".

II. DISCUSSION

According to Salajeghe (1380; 2002), there are different aspects which contribute to the style of a piece of literature one of which is defamiliarization achieved in MoradiKermami's works through different techniques. One of such techniques is the use of proverbs and local idioms which are abundant in *Khomre*, the work under study.

Shavit (1981) argues that because of the peripheral position of children's literature translators may have greater freedom regarding the text. He believes that, the translator is allowed to manipulate the text in various ways by changing, enlarging, or abridging it or by deleting or adding to it". (p.112). All these procedures are authorized if (1) the text is adjusted to make it appropriate and useful to the child, in accordance with what society considers as educationally "good for the child"; and (2) plot, characterization, and language are adjusted to prevailing society's perceptions of the child ability to read and comprehend (Shavit,1981, p112). Therefore, in order to be considered as an acceptable translated story for children, the final translated text must follow these two principles, or at least not violate them. And these complementary principles determine the progression of the translation process.

Translating children's literature can either bridge cultural differences or obscure them. If culture-bound elements are foreignized, the story can serve as a tool for learning about foreign cultures, and provoke readers to find out more about them. In other words, foreignizing children's stories is a way of attracting attention to cultural matters: to learn what is different and what is shared between the reader's culture and that in which the story is set.

Translators, particularly those of children's literature, can hardly avoid coming across the local color conveyed by the idioms, ignoring of which may distort the style of the narrative. And now the question is how to make this local color accessible to the target text receivers.

This study follows a descriptive framework, building on the theory of descriptive translation studies (DTS) proposed by James S Holmes (1987) which involves describing translating and translation as they are manifested in real world (Holms,1987). From among the three areas of DTS namely product, function and process of translation, this study focuses on the product of translation.

Within the DTS framework, the present study specifically employs Baker's model of translating idioms for identifying the translation procedures used in translating idioms as a stylistic feature of the work under study. And for answering the third research question, that is, to identify the translator's preferred strategy in translating *Khomreh* as a piece of children's literature the researcher has referred to Venuti's (1995) model of translation strategies.

In other words, the study aims at finding the procedures which were mainly adopted by the translator to convey the form and content of the idioms of a fictional text for children, and also surveying the dominant translation strategy adopted. After determining translation procedures used by the translator according to Baker's model (1992) and taking into account procedures and the meaning and form of idioms in both the ST and TT the corresponding strategies were recognized according to the procedures introduced by Venuti (1995). Looking at translation from a cultural point of view, he proposes the concepts of "domestication" and "foreignization" as means of providing general classification for translation strategies; on the one hand, there is foreignization, the translator's visibility and resistance that tends towards the author and the source text, and on the other hand, there is domestication, the translator's invisibility, fluency and transparency that relies on the target culture and readers.

Domestication refers to the target-culture-oriented translation in which unusual expressions to the target culture are turned into some familiar ones so as to make the translated text intelligible and easy for the target readers. If the translation is to provide a smoother text without many difficulties for common readers, domesticating method should be taken, it will overcome the cultural barriers as well as the language ones for providing an easy reading. In domesticating

translation, the translator tries to make the target text familiar and natural for the readers, so s/he effaces any cultural differences in his/her translation.

Foreignization is a source culture-oriented translation which tries to keep the foreign flavor and coloring as much as possible in order to transfer the source language and culture into the target one. If a translation is to widen the target addressee's vision and to introduce the source culture into the target culture, the translator may choose foreignization. In this way, the source culture can be transferred into the target culture and further enrich the target culture as well as language. In other words, foreignization means preserving cultural or linguistic differences, protecting the source text from the "violent colonizing effect of the TT and the TL". (p.147)

III. MATERIAL

For the purpose of this study, *Khomre* has been selected, which is a Persian literary text written for children by Houshang Moradikermani in 2003 and translated into English by Dr. Teimoor Roohi. Moradi-Kermani is a famous Iranian writer who has written many award-winning books for children. One of the defining characteristics of his style is the use of idioms in his stories, particularly in the story *Khomre*, to add local color and render the language more familiar and effective.

IV. RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

The sample comprises altogether 292 idioms appearing in the book *Khomre* identified according to the working definitions of an idiom and intuition of the researcher. Also in order to examine the correct meaning and see whether they can be classified as idioms the researcher has enjoyed consulting the supervisor as well as some monolingual dictionaries both in Persian and English. The following table shows the result of such data analysis in which P1 is used to show idiomatic translation, P2 represents using an idiom in the target language with the same meaning of the original idiom but different form, P3 represents paraphrase, P4 shows literal translation and finally P5 is used to refer to omission.

TABLE.1.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF TRANSLATION PROCEDURES

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5
Frequency	7	62	180	17	27
Percentage	2.38%	20.81%	61.43%	5.80%	9.21

And the following chart shows the percentage frequency of each procedure for idiom translation in the book *Khomre* as a piece of children's literature:

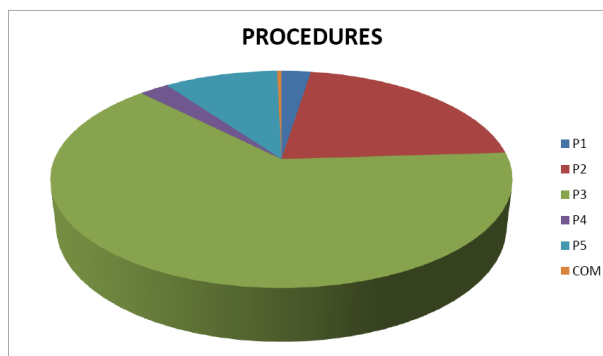


Chart 1. Translation Procedures

V. SOME EXAMPLES

♦ The expression *زبان بسته* which is used figuratively in the source text, once is omitted in the target text using the fifth procedure and in other cases is translated as *poor innocent animal* and *poor animal* using the third procedure and making the target text domesticated as well.

♦ The Persian sentence *آب دهان بچه ها راه افتاد* is a Persian idiom meaning "to make others jealous and regretful". The English equivalent given by the translator; *make the other's mouth to water* for this Persian idiom is also an idiom conveying the same image as the original idiom. So the procedure here is that of idiomatic one and the strategy tends toward domestication.

♦ The equivalent given for the Persian idiom *به گردن کسی انداختن* in *شرش می افتد گردن ما* in one case is "to be the cause of shamefulness to somebody" and in another case is "to put the blame on somebody" which are chosen according to context and in the latter case an idiom from the target language is used that has the same meaning as the original one but

with a different image and form, so the adopted translation procedure is P2, and in the first case an explanation of the source text idiom is given and the procedure is P2. In both cases the strategy tends toward domestication.

♦ An example of paraphrase procedure in which the translator explains the meaning of a source text idiom is the translation of *عبداللهی چه بادی کرده بود* as *how he showed off and boasted at school*. As it can be seen *باد کردن* is used figuratively because the meaning of the whole phrase, *to be proud and show off* can not be deduced from the literal meaning of its individual parts, which is to swallow up, but in the English phrase there is not any figurative meaning nor idiomaticity. And the strategy used here is again domestication, since no sign of source culture or ST style is transferred to the target text.

♦ Translating the Persian idiom *عین مرغ سرشان را کرده بودند زیر بالشان* as *they had put their heads down like the hens putting their heads under their wings* which is not an idiom; it is a clear example of the forth procedure, literal translation. As it can be seen in this case and other cases of literal translation, this procedure foreignizes the text.

As far as the first question is concerned it was shown that the procedures were the same as the procedures used to translate idioms in adult's literature, namely; idiomatic translation, using an idiom in the target language with the same meaning but different form, paraphrase, literal translation and omission. However, in one case the translator has utilized a combination of two of the above procedures, which seems an effective approach, since by adhering to this procedure the translator can both transfer the culture and the meaning of the original as far as the combined procedures are literal translation and paraphrase. Using literal translation one can transfer the local color and culture of the original and paraphrasing will make the meaning of the original text accessible to the target readers.

The research verifies Baker's hypothesis that paraphrase or giving the meaning of the idiom in the target language is the most commonly used procedure in dealing with idioms, and the frequency of the used procedures in the work under study showed that her Hypothesis is true in the case of children's literature too. This procedure is adopted in translation when the translator cannot find a similar idiom in the target language or she/he believes using an idiom is not suitable for stylistic matters. Adhering to this procedure surely will make the target lose its original impact and cultural significance; however, it seems to be the safest procedure when the two languages and cultures are very different.

The translator's preferred strategy was that of domestication, which shows that he has favored fluency and transparency over local coloring. Opting for domestication, the translator of the work under study opposes the current belief that domesticating a text for children is no more useful and acceptable, because foreignizing children's literature will make children learn more about other cultures and communities. And it is not clear why the foreignness of a text for children should be neglected in translation today. But an important point to remember is that every foreign word or concept which is unfamiliar to a child should be defined and described in footnotes.

Finally, one must take into account the fact that, when choosing the procedures for translating local idioms the aim of the translation must be kept in mind. Should it have the same effect as the original, or should it have the same function in target culture as the other translations of the same type have? Domesticating a text for children is not acceptable, if the purpose is to familiarize them with other cultures.

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A Contrastive Study of the Connotative Meaning of Linguistic Signs in English and Chinese

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Abstract—According to G. Leech's classification of meaning, the denotative meaning of a word is different from its connotative one. The denotation of a linguistic sign may be the same in different languages, but their connotations may be quite different. The paper makes a contrastive analysis of the connotative meaning of linguistic signs in English and Chinese, such as Color terms, Kinship terms, Animal-related Words and Euphemisms. It also discusses the reason for the differences between the two languages.

Index Terms—connotative meaning, color terms, kinship terms, animal-related words, euphemisms, English and Chinese

I. INTRODUCTION

Some linguists believe any linguistic sign may be simultaneously of a denotative, connotative, or iconic kind of meanings. Any sign has a meaning that can be found in a dictionary, which is the basic meaning or central meaning of it. This is the denotative meaning. For example, *bird* is a creature with feathers and wings, usually able to fly, lay eggs and build nests. In most cases, *bird* means more than a creature. To be as free as a bird is to feel completely free. We can easily associate a *bird* with freedom. It is the connotative meaning, which refers to emotional associations that a word suggests in one's mind. A linguistic sign can also stir up imagination in one's mind. The word *bird* invokes image to people, that is, something in one's imagination, such as dove, eagle etc. This is the iconic meaning.

The British linguist G. Leech (1974) recognizes 7 types of meaning in his *Semantics*, as follows: denotative meaning, connotative meaning, social meaning, affective meaning, reflected meaning, collocative meaning and thematic meaning. Leech (1974) says that the first type of meaning makes up the central part. It is "denotative" in that it is concerned with the relationship between a word and the thing it denotes, or refers to. "Connotative" refers to some additional, especially emotive meaning. The difference between *politician* and *statesman*, for example, is connotative in that the former is derogatory while the latter is commendatory.

It is easy to understand that the same word in different languages may be entailed with different connotations. Connotations means "*the implication of a word, apart from its primary meaning*", according to the Longman Modern English Dictionary, or "*the suggesting of meaning by a word apart from the thing it explicitly names or describes*", according to the Webster (Dai & He, 2010, p.134). Therefore the denotation of a word, its dictionary meaning, is different from its connotation. Sometimes, the denotative meaning of a linguistic sign may be the same in two languages, but their connotations may be quite different. The paper analyzes the connotative meaning of the following linguistic signs in English and Chinese: Color terms, Kinship terms, Animal-related Words and Euphemisms. They are the typical examples of the cultural-specific connotations in language use.

II. THE CONNOTATIVE MEANING OF COLOR TERMS

Color word systems in different languages are culturally determined, and hence different from one another. Basic color terms vary from 2 to 11 in number. English has 11 basic color terms — *white, black, red, green, yellow, blue, brown, purple, pink, orange and gray*. Chinese has 12. There may be 2, 3 or 6 color terms in some cultures. For example, Danti has 2 basic color words: *modla* and *mili*. The contrast between *modla* and *mili* in fact is a contrast between "whitewarmness" versus "blackcoldness" (Hu, 2006). Different languages entail different color related associations. That is, color terms have traditional connotative meaning apart from their denotative meaning.

If you are not familiar with the connotative meaning of *green* in English, you can hardly understand the following utterance *Do you see any green in her eye?* In English, *green* symbolizes youth. It is related to something imperfect or immature, and somebody inexperienced or naive, as shown in *a green thought* (一个不成熟的想法). We can translate it into Chinese like this 你以为她幼稚可欺吗? In English, *green* is also associated with jealousy or envy, such as *green-eyed* (眼红). From Tang Poetry in Chinese, we can infer that we Chinese always connect *green* with the spring. In our minds, *green* symbolizes life and force. Considering the following poems, "最爱湖天行不足, 绿阳阴里白沙堤。" (白居易《钱塘湖春行》); "春草年年绿, 王孙归不归。" (王维《送别》); "燕草如碧丝, 秦桑低绿枝。" (李白《春思》); "千里莺啼绿映红, 水村山郭酒旗风。" (杜牧《江南春》) ...

Other example, red is related to celebration and happy events in both western and Chinese cultures. However, in English sometimes *red* is the symbol of danger and urgency. The British often associate *red* with blood and the dead. But in a traditional sense, Chinese tend to associate *red* with good luck or beautiful scenery as follows: “去年今日此门中，人面桃花相映红。”（崔护《题都城南庄》）；“一道残阳铺水中，半江瑟瑟半江红。”（白居易《暮江吟》）；“草树知春不久归，百般红紫斗芳菲。”（韩愈《晚春》）。In Chinese, *white* is related to something unfortunate. In western culture, *white* symbolizes purity. *Blue* suggests sentimental or unhappy feelings in *He is in a blue mood*. Meanwhile *blue* is also associated with high social position or being aristocratic as in *He is a real blue blood*. Another example is that people call a book with well-known names *blue book* in America. In Chinese, 蓝色 doesn't have the corresponding connotative meaning.

III. THE CONNOTATIVE MEANING OF KINSHIP TERMS

Kinship terms in different languages have different cultural connotations. Kinship terms are more highly codable in Chinese than they are in English. In Chinese there are 2 sets of terms distinguishing relatives on the father's side (伯伯, 叔叔, 姑父, 伯母, 婶婶, 姑姑) and those on the mother's side (舅舅, 姨夫, 舅妈, 姨妈). For native speakers of Chinese, these terms allow a clear distinction of the relation. In contrast, there are no exactly equivalent terms in English. Kinship terms in different languages reflect different ways to categorize blood and marriage relations. For instance, the denotative meaning of *aunt* in English is as follows—the sister of someone's father or mother, or the wife of someone's uncle. The term *aunt* can be used to address many relatives in English. But their connotative meanings are the same, that is, to address female relatives of similar position in family. Native English speakers do not see the distinction between one's father's sister and one's mother's sister as significant. Chinese attach more importance to blood relations and the surname. Most Chinese are close to relatives on father's side. The connotative meanings of 姑姑 (one's father's sister), 姨妈 (one's mother's sister), 伯母/婶婶/舅妈 (the wife of one's uncle) in Chinese are quite different. 姑姑 is the closest to us, because we share the same surname. 姨妈 is closer to us than 伯母/婶婶/舅妈 because of blood relations.

The extension of kinship terms is another feature of Chinese culture. Terms such as *uncle*, *aunt*, *grandpa* and *granny* are used as honorific titles for senior people or strangers, as in *Granny Li* and *Uncle Zhang*. Native English speakers would be puzzled if they are addressed in this way by people outside the immediate family.

IV. THE CONNOTATIVE MEANING OF ANIMAL-RELATED WORDS

If we make a comparison between English and Chinese, we may easily get some words related to animals in both languages. Animals have distinctive images. Many Animal-related words are beyond their original meaning. They are endowed with different mental implications in the two languages. Animal-related words seem to correspond in denotative meaning, but may considerably vary in connotative meaning or emotional meaning.

In western culture, the *lion* is regarded as the king of the beasts. Apart from the denotative meaning—beasts, the *lion* has the following connotative meanings. Someone who is *lion-hearted* is very brave. A lion also refers to someone who is important or successful. For example, *He is one of the young jazz lions on the New York music scene* (他是纽约音乐圈年轻的爵士乐明星之一). The sight of a lion fills people with awe, as shown in the idioms *regal as a lion* (狮子一般威严), *majestic as a lion* (像狮子一样雄伟). A lion's den is a dangerous or threatening place. While Chinese only focus on the denotative meaning of the *lion*—beasts. Instead of the *lion*, 虎 (the *tiger*) is endowed with the similar emotional meaning by Chinese. So we have idioms such as 虎胆英雄, 狐假虎威, 虎视眈眈, 虎踞龙蟠, 虎口余生... The Chinese version of *A lion in the way* is 拦路虎. In English, Owls are often considered to be wise. This connotative meaning of an owl is different from that of Chinese. Because owls usually go out at night crying sadly, Chinese easily associate owls with the dead or something unfortunate.

What are the reasons for the different understanding of animal images? We will consider a lot. Because of different customs, habits, beliefs, attitudes and taboos, westerners and Chinese have different ways of thinking. The same phenomenon may be described by different animals in different languages. This is the change of animal images, as shown in *as strong as a horse* (气壮如牛), *talk horse* (吹牛), *work like a horse* (像老黄牛一样干活), *a horse of another color* (风马牛不相及的事). Due to different historical and cultural background, the Chinese version is not correspondent to the English form. Of all ages, a *cattle* has been used to plough the field by Chinese. Out of habit, British farmers used the *horse* instead in ancient times. Similarly, *like a rat in the hole* (瓮中捉鳖), *two dogs strive for a bone and a bird runs away with it* (鹬蚌相争, 渔翁得利) etc. The understanding of animal images varies from culture to culture.

V. THE CONNOTATIVE MEANING OF EUPHEMISMS

Euphemisms tell us a good deal about the values of a culture, for words in sensitive areas tend to pick up negative connotations and to be replaced by euphemisms. Euphemisms can be classified into 2 types—positive and negative, in

terms of Semantics. Positive euphemisms can make things substituted more honorable by hyperbole. *Floor-sweeper* is titled *custodian engineer* in English. 环卫工人 is replaced by 城市的美容师 in Chinese. From the above terms, we can infer social attitudes towards humble jobs. In both cultures, the public tend to show respect for those of a low social status.

The connotation of negative euphemisms is to decrease the depressing influence exerted by taboos. It is the substitution of an inoffensive expression for an offensive one. What is a taboo in English may not be so in Chinese. As a result, Euphemisms have cultural-specific connotations. The term *drunk* is a taboo in English, replaced by *intoxicated*. Similarly *drunkenness* is replaced by *alcohol problem*, for instance, *He has an alcohol problem* (某人醉着行路). In Chinese, the character 醉 is not a taboo. From Tang Poetry, we can infer 醉 is related to something romantic or satisfied, for example, “钟鼓馔玉何足贵, 但愿长醉不愿醒。”(李白《将进酒》); “巴陵无限酒, 醉杀洞庭秋。”(李白《陪侍郎叔游洞庭醉后》); “醉卧沙场君笑, 古来征战几人回。”(王翰《凉州词》)。

In English, people in poverty are not titled *the poor*, because the word *poor* is a taboo. *Poor* can be replaced by many euphemisms. As some unfortunate person put it: “*At first I was poor; then I became needy, later I was underprivileged. Now I’m disadvantaged. I still don’t have a cent to my name, but I sure have a great vocabulary.*” From this example, we can see some inoffensive expressions replace *poor*, such as *needy*(生活艰苦的), *underprivileged* (下层社会的), *disadvantaged*(被剥夺了基本权利的). The above euphemisms have cultural-specific connotations. In recent years, people from western culture strive for equal opportunity. They are against various social discriminations. Some euphemisms related to equality occur. People in Hunan, China say 富菜 instead of 芹菜. Because of regional dialect, the pronunciation of 芹 and 穷 are the same there. It is human psychology to fear poverty. *Poor* refers to a struggle to survive. Chinese say 条件不成熟 instead of 穷, 手头紧 instead of 没钱. Euphemisms are closely related to social culture, which have specific connotative meanings.

VI. CONCLUSION

The connotative meaning of linguistic signs refers to the emotional association which a sign suggests in addition to its explicit denotative meaning. Color terms have traditional connotative meaning apart from their denotative meaning. English and Chinese entail different color related associations. In Chinese there are 2 sets of Kinship terms distinguishing relatives on the father’s side and those on the mother’s side. In contrast, there are no exactly equivalent terms in English. Kinship terms in different languages reflect different ways to categorize blood and marriage relations. Animals have distinctive images. Many Animal-related words are beyond their original meaning. They are endowed with different mental implications or connotative meaning in the two languages because of historical and cultural background. The connotation of negative euphemisms is to decrease the depressing influence exerted by taboos. What is a taboo in English may not be so in Chinese. Because of anti-discrimination or human psychology, Euphemisms have cultural-specific connotations.

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