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English for Specific Purposes in Spanish Higher Education Settings: A Diagnostic Focus on Students' Preliminary Language Awareness, Attitudes and Expectations

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Abstract—**The present study tries to illustrate and analyse the initial or preliminary level of 'ESP awareness' that Spanish students from different scientific degrees have when first joining an ESP course. It also seeks to examine their motivations, expectations and attitudes towards the subject. By means of an anonymous questionnaire filled in during the first session of the course, Spanish students from Pharmacy, Biology and Environmental Sciences degrees reflected on the ESP teaching-learning process. The results obtained have revealed the (too) many aspects of specialised languages that students are not familiar with and the preliminary lack, in general, of basic English language knowledge from their disciplines. Presumably, as this and further studies on the topic will try to corroborate, this may be due to a nearly total lack of exposure to English language both in their everyday life and in their degrees, something illogical given the lingua franca status of this language nowadays and thus its importance in the transmission and spreading of scientific knowledge and results. On the basis of students' answers and views on the different aspects posed, a series of conclusions have been drawn and a broad course of action grounded on awareness-raising practices and students' attitudes and expectations has been suggested with the aim of overcoming the problems and inconsistencies brought to light by the questionnaires. Hence, this study is intended to be the first in a series analysing final performance and thus the evolution experienced.**

Index Terms—**English for Specific Purposes (ESP), preliminary language awareness, students' attitudes, expectations, teaching-learning process**

I. English for Specific/Special Purposes in Higher Education

Since the early 1960s, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has progressively developed to become one of the most prominent areas of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching nowadays. This importance is reflected in the increasing number of universities offering ESP subjects, modules, courses and MAs. It could be stated that ESP has increased over the decades as a result of market forces and a greater awareness amongst the academic and business communities that learners' needs and wants should be met wherever possible (Brunton, 2009), especially when related with professional necessities. In accordance with its practical, professionally-aimed scope, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) highlighted ESP as displaying a series of absolute and variable traits, such as the aforementioned fact of "being defined to meet specific needs on the part of the learners, of making use of underlying methodology and activities from the discipline it serves, and of being focused on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre" (p. 4). Moreover, as they point out, ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students and most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems. However, as this study tries to show, this desirable point of departure may not always be a reality among students and thus in the classroom setting.

Regarding some other more specific aspects of ESP that may be crucial in shaping students' perceptions of specific English, Mohan (1986) contends that ESP courses focus on preparing learners "for chosen communicative environments" (p. 15), whereas Lorenzo (2005) points out that ESP "concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures" (p. 1). Moreover, it has also often been contended that ESP is usually delivered to adult students with the perspective of a work-related setting. In this sense, Carter (1983) stated that an ESP course is concerned with turning learners into users of the language, something which, unfortunately, due to time or curriculum pressures, does not always happen.

From the aspects mentioned so far, what seems an undeniable fact is that any ESP course should be needs-driven, and should show an "emphasis on practical outcomes" (Dudley-Evan and St. John 1998, p. 1). Therefore, as Gatehouse (2001) and Graves (2000) contend, needs analysis is and always will be an important and fundamental part of ESP and its consideration will also include 'deficiency analysis', or assessment of the 'learning gap' (West, 1997) between target language use and current learner proficiencies. In fact, as Richards (2001) contends, the emergence of ESP (with its

emphasis on needs analysis as a starting point in language programme design) had an impact on the development of current approaches to language curriculum development. Nowadays there is an increasing focus on looking at learners' subjective needs, "their self-knowledge, awareness of target situations, life goals, and instructional expectations" (Belcher, 2006, p. 136), which are the aspects this study has focused on in order to offer a reliable diagnostic portrait of the situation that may help to improve the ESP teaching-learning process as a whole and its perception on the part of students. Jiajing (2007) sums up these issues of ESP and ESP course design by stating that during the design of an ESP course, the top priority issue is to analyse the learners' specific needs followed by the analysis of other issues such as the determination of realistic goals and objectives, the integration of grammatical functions and the abilities required for future workplace communication, and assessment and evaluation. In this line, as Kaur (2007) concedes, when ESP learners are allowed to take some responsibility for their own learning and are invited to negotiate certain aspects of the course design, they feel more motivated to become more involved in their learning.

Deep reflection on and consideration of all the aspects mentioned above could help us to shed some light on what an ESP course is and thus on what is to be learnt and how, as well as on what kind of perception and expectations students may have in this respect. Therefore, the understanding of learners' purposes (Graham and Beardsley, 1986) and learning centredness (Carter, 1983; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) must be considered integral parts of any ESP teaching-learning process. However, none of these considerations are effective if students themselves are not aware of what they need and expect, how they are going to get it and where they depart from, which makes it necessary for them to reflect deeply on the matter. This is necessary since research into language teaching has shown that there are considerable discrepancies between what teachers think students want and what the students actually want to do in the classroom (Brindley, 1984; Nunan, 1988; Peacock, 1998; Ramsden, 2003). Effectively bridging that gap is essential for learning.

All these aspects constitute the rationale of this study, which aims to be the first in a series intended at analysing what we have called 'ESP awareness', expectations and attitudes towards ESP on the part of Spanish university students[1] at three different points in time: at the beginning of the subject (preliminary study, this particular one), half-way (progressive study, a prospective one) and end-of-subject (final study, a prospective one).

II. Attitudinal Issues and Language Awareness towards ESP Subjects

In this very same line, and leaving to one side the particularities concerning his own research, González Ardeo (2003) describes university students' language attitudes as those feelings they express towards English or even towards the native speakers of this language. Despite the easily noticeable abstract and rather subjective nature of the concept, there is generalised agreement when it comes to acknowledging that the affective variable of attitude (together with others such as motivation or personality traits) has an influence on the level of proficiency achieved by learners (Gardner, 1980 and 1985; Oxford and Shearing, 1996).

On the other hand, language awareness (LA), as an area of research, became especially relevant from the 1990s onwards, when, as Svalberg states (2007), *Language awareness in the classroom* (James and Garrett, 1991) was published, the Association of Language Awareness (ALA) was founded in the UK, and the first issue of the journal Language Awareness was published (both events in 1992), or when Schmidt's (1990) paper on consciousness in language learning appeared. On its website, the ALA defines LA as 'explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use'. Attitude seems thus to be also inherent in the very same notion of awareness and their interrelationship underlies, shapes and determines the competence and performance of most speakers of English as a foreign language. As the Association's webpage goes on to state, LA covers a wide spectrum of fields ranging from exploring the benefits that can be derived from developing a good knowledge about language, a conscious understanding of how languages work or of how people learn them and use them. In this line, LA is defined by Fairclough (1992) as 'conscious attention to properties of language and language use as an element of language education' and Donmall (1985) adds to this by describing it as involving 'a person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life' operating on three distinctive levels that students are very often not aware of, namely, the cognitive level (awareness of language patterns), the affective level (regarding the formation of attitudes) and the social level (involving the improvement of learners' effectiveness as communicators).

The focus on these aspects in this study originates in the author's belief that current ESP students in higher education settings in Spain tend to show a very poor initial or preliminary awareness of ESP, together with a weak understanding of what they are going to study and what for. This may be translated into having to depart in class from a poor preliminary knowledge of both general and specific language, from contradictory feelings and views about ESP, from scarcely reflective attitudes and from inaccurate perceptions of languages as a system and its object. It is our belief that a good linguistic knowledge, either general or specific, depends on a conscious understanding of the way languages work, that is, on being aware of the multifaceted nature of language, and on the attitude adopted towards it. It is crucial, we believe, for students to be aware of and have a good attitude towards any subject they may want to learn. In the specific case of awareness, Arndt, Harvey and Nuttall (2000) regard a focus on language awareness as bringing numerous benefits, among which we would highlight the fact of being more appreciative of the complexity and

[1] Enrolling in an ESP subject for the first time.

sophistication of communicating through language, the fact of showing a better understanding of how English works and the fact that LA offers a productive and rewarding route for exploring the richness and complexity of language. Additionally, speakers are encouraged to draw inferential relationships between languages, which is one of the first steps in developing the intercultural communication skill, a fundamental aspect for developing the Critical Language Approach (CLA), which, despite surpassing the object and scope of this study, is also worth mentioning here.

Ideally, when first enrolling in an ESP subject, students should be preliminarily aware of their objectives, of the importance of ESP in their careers, of their attitude to language in general, and of their actual knowledge. This will favour the development of their specific awareness towards aspects such as the importance of genre, cohesion and coherence features, formal and informal style, rhetorical functions, context and vocabulary in ESP. Language awareness, as a way of language consciousness-raising, facilitates language acquisition, understanding and competence. A good, not merely intuitive, knowledge of students' language awareness may help improve students' performance in class and their attitude to the ESP subject, and should thus be critical in any course design. Accordingly, this study departs from the hypothesis that, in general, students in Spanish higher education contexts have a low preliminary awareness of ESP which is reflected – always in general – in their mostly non-participative attitude in class, in their scarce motivation, in the lack of reflective thinking about what they are studying and what for, and in the insecurity many of them show when the English language is involved in communicative situations. Therefore, it is important to know the preliminary level of specialised or specific language awareness students have when first joining an ESP class in order to be able to build the subject to meet students' expectations and needs. On the basis of this research and of the above-mentioned forthcoming studies on these very same aspects, we will attempt to compare preliminary, progressive and final results on awareness, attitude and expectations in order to try to demonstrate the importance of LA and the fact that, in every case, learners showing a higher level of awareness will tend to perform better, have higher expectations and gain more from the teaching-learning process. Consequently, we believe, this will turn into better and easier learning, more enjoyment in the teaching-learning process and better overall results in ESP subjects. Therefore, diagnostically determining, defining or measuring the attitudes, awareness and expectations of students may help us improve the way we teach, the way they (and also we, as lecturers[2]) learn and the way students will face professional situations involving the use of ESP.

III. Objectives and Method

According to what has already been introduced in previous sections, our starting hypothesis (which has its origins in the author's previous teaching experience and impressions in the field of ESP in higher education settings) is that, in general, Spanish ESP students have a low language awareness when they first enrol in an ESP course. This is, in turn, translated into rather indeterminate expectations, a rather lethargic or apathetic initial attitude towards ESP (which may not disappear as the course proceeds) and a very basic knowledge and poor conscious perception of language as such. This presumed low preliminary language awareness may have negative effects on students' eagerness, interest in the subject and thus their final performance and results.

Hence, with the aim of obtaining and analysing data on students' preliminary ESP awareness, attitudes and expectations towards specialised language learning, a 19-item[3] questionnaire made up of attitudinal, purely knowledge, self-reflection and interests-related questions purposefully designed for this study was created. By means of this anonymous questionnaire, filled in during the first session of the course, students from different scientific degrees – namely, Pharmacy, Biology and Environmental Sciences – at *Universitat de València*[4] (Spain) were expected to describe their preliminary thoughts on ESP in general, its main aspects, the teaching-learning process of speciality languages, their self-perception of their language level, their actual knowledge, their expectations and their needs as regards specialised languages. The students' answers and views on the different aspects posed were used to draw a series of conclusions as well as to suggest a number of proposals targeted at overcoming some of the problems and inconsistencies revealed by the questionnaires and at improving 'ESP awareness', teaching procedures and learning outcomes...'Hence, this study intends to be the first of a series in which the evolution experienced and final performance will also be analysed by means of the data gathered through similar questionnaires in the middle and at the end of the ESP course. These data have already been collected and are currently being processed and analysed for the aforementioned (forthcoming) comparative studies. Hence, the aim of the study was to analyse the LA and therefore the views, attitudes, knowledge (both real and alleged) and feelings that university students have about ESP subjects in Spanish higher education settings.

The ESP subjects analysed were either optional or free choice subjects, so that they could be assumed to hold a certain amount of interest for the students attending them. The age of the students participating in the research ranged from 18 to 28 years old (see Figure 1), with a clear predominance of the 21 and 22 year old students groups.

[2] As Ferro and Carvalho (2009) point out, the lecturer him/herself must show a good level of language awareness, since it is the knowledge that teachers have of the systems underlying language that enables them to teach effectively (Thornbury, 1997).
[3] 14 main items and 5 sub-items.
[4] The author worked at *Universitat de València* (Valencia, Spain) during the academic years 2009-2010 and 2010-2011, which is when the data for this study were gathered. Currently, she works at *Universitat Jaume I* (Castellón, Spain), where she also teaches ESP.

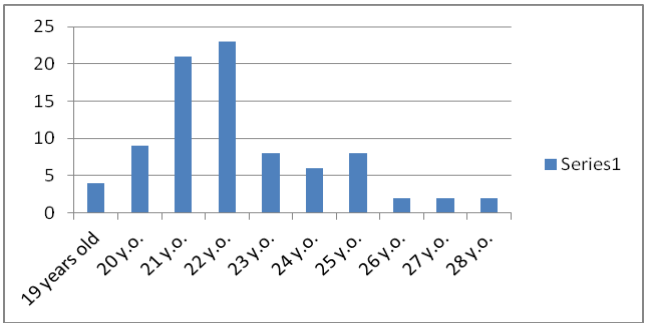

Figure 1: Age of the students participating in the research

Most of the students participating were in the second, third and fourth years of their degree courses. From all the students participating[5] in the study, 85 in total, 63 were women and 22 were men. The total number of students enrolled in the two ESP subjects analysed was 153. The ESP subjects that the students taking part in the study were enrolled in were: Inglés para Ciencias de la Salud (*English for Health Sciences*) – whose students, a total of 69, belonged to the degree in Pharmacy – and Inglés Científico (*Scientific English*), whose students, a total of 16, came from the degrees in Biology (78%) and Environmental Sciences (22%).

The questionnaires were anonymous but students had to fill in their age, sex, degree and the year of their degree courses they were currently studying. The questions or items in the questionnaires were deliberately posed in Spanish and students could answer most of the questions – unless specifically asked not to do so – also in Spanish. The reason for this is that, since the questions were mostly intended at making students reflect on their views and feelings towards ESP, it was important to favour a global understanding on the part of students so that they knew exactly what they were being asked to do. The questionnaires were slightly different depending on the subject the students were enrolled in and, despite being asked to be concise in their answers, the majority of questions were open in order to allow students to express their feelings and impressions more freely, that is, no options were provided in most of the questions from the questionnaire in order not to condition their answers. The results then had to be – and in fact were – processed manually by the author of this paper.

The next section presents and succinctly comments on the results obtained in each of the questionnaire items. Section number 5 provides the concluding remarks that can be drawn from the results and opens the door to further research, courses of action and possible improvement measures so as to raise language awareness and foster more positive and eager attitudes towards ESP on the part of Spanish university students.

IV. Results

The results obtained from students' answers to the items in the questionnaire have been grouped here under the heading of their corresponding questionnaire item (translated into English for this paper).

QUESTION 1. In the field of English teaching, what do the abbreviations ESP or IFE (in Spanish) stand for?

None of the students knew the actual meaning of these acronyms; 82 students said they did not know their meaning or provided no answer at all, and there were just 3 attempts to figure it out:

1) ESP: ? ; IFE: *Inglés específico para profesionales*
2) ESP: *español;* IFE: *International Foreign English*
3) ESP: *español;* IFE: *International _____ English*

We are aware that this item related to the specific labelling of the area of knowledge under analysis and thus the results obtained have just an incidental value but can, however, be interpreted as a first indicator of the little preliminary awareness that students have as regards ESP issues.

QUESTION 2. How would you define your level of general English?

Two students considered that they had no level of general English at all or that it was very low; 29 students identified their level of general English as low-elementary; 10 of them considered it to be pre-intermediate; 32 thought it was an intermediate level; 11 of them considered it to be good/high/advanced and just one student considered him/herself to have a proficient command of English. Accordingly, just 12 out of 85 students (14%) thought they had what could be considered a satisfactory level of general English.

QUESTION 3. How would you define your level of specific/specialised English (applied to your speciality domain)?

Ten students considered that they had no level at all or that they knew almost nothing about specialised English, whereas 55 of them considered it to be low or elementary. Four students thought they had a pre-intermediate level, 11 of them believed they had an intermediate level and just one student thought he/she had a good/high or advanced level. The remaining four did not indicate an established or conventionalised level of English but included statements such as:

[5] That is to say, attending the first class session of the subject.

n*ever worked on it; don't know; I normally understand the literature / bibliography I'm given in class; it's not that difficult because many words are nearly the same.*

On comparing the results obtained in items 2 and 3 one may deduce that students tend to assume an extra difficulty in ESP subjects, probably due to a lack of familiarity with them, which may not benefit their attitude towards the subject and thus their performance in it. Results show that 36.5% of the students believed they had no level or a low level of general English, but 76.5% of them considered they knew no or very little ESP. The rest of the items in the questionnaire tried to elucidate whether this perception is grounded on a conscious self-awareness of ESP knowledge or simply on negative, unfounded perceptions arising from simple ignorance in relation to the subject.

QUESTION 4. Do you consider yourself capable of having a simple conversation in English about biology/environmental sciences OR pharmacy (choose depending on your degree) with a colleague for a couple of minutes?

Forty-four students considered themselves capable of maintaining a simple conversation in English about their speciality fields for couple of minutes, whereas 35 of them thought they would not be able to. Three students answered that it would depend on the level of specialisation, but they thought they would be able to manage; two of them stated that, in general, they could manage but that they were unsure about whether they would have enough vocabulary. Another one believed him/herself to be more or less capable of doing so but with a lot of difficulty. Figure 2 summarises these results by comparing them with the results obtained in the other skills.

QUESTION 4.1. What aspect of this conversation would you find the most difficult?

When students were asked about the specific difficulties they thought they would find in a specialised conversation, the answers were varied and, according to the responses obtained, have been classified into four main aspects: 1) speaking/producing; 2) listening/understanding; 3) specific vocabulary/terminology; and 4) others (see Table 1). The specific difficulties enumerated and the number of students mentioning them have been grouped (and translated) under their corresponding general aspect, as Table 1 shows:

TABLE 1.
ASPECTS CONSIDERED THE MOST PROBLEMATIC IN A SPECIALISED CONVERSATION

Speaking / producing	**Listening / underst.**	**Specific vocab. / terminology**	**OTHERS (miscellaneous category)**
- Speaking / producing in general (7) - Answering (4) - Fluency (5) - Pronunciation (4)	11	40	- Grammar (3) - All of them (2) - Don't know (1) - Set expressions (1) - Verbs (1) - Not translating directly / literally from Spanish (1) - Talking in a scientific way (1) - Fluency (1) - Connecting sentences correctly (1) - None (1) - Improvising (1)

It is significant to observe how students assign a central role to learning specific vocabulary/terminology: 40 out of 85 considered it a key aspect that would turn out to be the biggest problem for them in a specialised conversation. Broadly speaking, then, 23% of the students considered speaking/producing in general to be the most difficult part, 13% considered listening/understanding to be the most problematic aspect, 47% of them regarded specific vocabulary/terminology as the biggest hurdle, and the remaining 17% mentioned other kinds of difficulties.

QUESTION 5. Do you consider yourself capable of understanding a brief presentation in English (for instance, at a conference) about some basic aspect related to biology/environmental sciences OR pharmacy (choose depending on your degree)?

Forty-three students thought they would be capable of understanding a brief presentation in English about some basic aspect related to their speciality domains, whereas 24 thought they would not be able to. Another student thought that without the aid of a PowerPoint presentation he/she would not be able to; four students believed that it would depend on the pace and the accent, and 10 of them considered that they would be able to grasp just the main idea. Another two reported that it would depend on the level of technicality and specialisation. Finally, another one signalled that if the person was not a native speaker, he/she could probably understand him/her better. Figure 2 summarises these results by comparing them with the results obtained in the other skills.

QUESTION 5.1. What aspect of this presentation would you find the most difficult?

When they were asked about the most difficult part of this presentation, 43 of the students mentioned that specific vocabulary was the aspect that they would find most problematic, whereas 29 of them mentioned listening/understanding as being the most challenging issue for them. Of these 29, listening/understanding in general was mentioned by five of them, whereas 14 mentioned specific aspects of it, such as the speed/pace of the speaker. Another 10 considered pronunciation/accent to be the most difficult aspect. Table 2 summarises the results obtained in this respect:

TABLE 2.
ASPECTS CONSIDERED THE MOST PROBLEMATIC FOR UNDERSTANDING A SPECIALISED PRESENTATION.

Specific vocab.	Listening / understanding	OTHERS (miscellaneous category)
43	- Listening / understanding in general (5) - Speed / pace of the speaker (15) - Pronunciation / accent (10)	- To follow 100% of the presentation (1) - Everything (7) - None (2) - Words that are not similar to Spanish (1) - It would depend on the topic (whether I know something about it or not) (1)

QUESTION 6. Do you consider yourself capable of writing a brief article in English entitled 'The environment'/ 'Pills and syrups' (choose depending on your degree)?

Fifty of the students considered themselves capable of writing a brief article on the topics suggested, whereas 30 of them answered that they would not be able to do so. Another two pointed out that they would do it only with a dictionary at hand, whereas three of them responded that they would know what to talk about, but they could not write an article about it. Figure 2 summarises these results by comparing them with the results obtained in the other skills.

QUESTION 6.1. What would you talk about?

In this question, the 30 students (35% of the participants) who answered NO in question number 6 did not give an answer. This item was intended to show whether the students, most of whom were in the last years of their degrees, were familiar with some of the most basic words from their respective speciality fields. It would have been logical to think that they were familiar with these terms, but the results – with 30 students not answering the question – seem to show the opposite.

In this question, some students answered by simply translating the article titles, whereas others enumerated issues related to the words or different aspects of the topic.

Hence, those who answered that they would be able to write about the aspects proposed, provided the answers summarised and translated into English in Table 3:

TABLE 3.
TOPIC WORDS OR ISSUES AS IDENTIFIED BY STUDENTS (AND TRANSLATED FOR THIS STUDY).

'the environment' (what those answering YES, I COULD WRITE ABOUT IT said)		'pills and syrups' (what those answering YES, I COULD WRITE ABOUT IT said)	
Medio ambiente	The environment	*Aspirinas y jarabes*	Aspirins and syrups
Contaminación	Pollution	*Pastillas y píldoras*	Tablets and pills
Cambio climático	Climate change	*Formas farmacéuticas*	Pharmaceutical forms
Impacto sobre el entorno	Impact on the environment	*Beneficios y contraindicaciones*	Benefits, contraindications
Naturaleza	Nature	*Qué son, para qué sirven, clasificación*	What are they, what for, classification
Ecosistemas	Ecosystems		
Biodiversidad	Biodiversity		
Calentamiento global	Global warming	*Automedicación*	Self-medication
Impacto ambiental	Environmental impact	*Administración y dosificación*	Administration and dosage

QUESTION 6.2. What aspect would you find the most difficult when writing this article?

This question was also left blank by many students (probably the same ones who answered NO in question number 6). Once again, most of them (46 students) considered specific vocabulary to be the most difficult aspect – specifically the lack of specific vocabulary or the difficulty inherent in the terms to be used. Table 4 summarises the results obtained in this item:

TABLE 4.
ASPECTS CONSIDERED THE MOST PROBLEMATIC WHEN WRITING A SPECIALISED ARTICLE.

Specific vocabulary (lack of SV or difficult SV)	Grammar (mainly tenses)	OTHERS (miscellaneous category)
46	4	- Linking the main ideas in a coherent way (connectors) (1) - Providing a coherent structure for the information (1) - Providing the text as a whole with cohesion and continuity (1) - All (4) - Interrelating the different parts of the text (1) - None (2) - Writing a formal text (1) - The approach of the text (1)

QUESTION 7. Do you consider yourself capable of understanding (as a whole) a specialised article of average difficulty in English published in some biology/environmental sciences OR pharmacy (choose depending on your degree) journal?

Fifty-one students considered themselves capable of doing so, whereas 12 answered that they would not be able to do it. Seventeen students stated that they would be able to understand it in general, that is, they would be capable of extracting the main idea; another two conditioned the success of the task to the fact of having enough time and a dictionary, and another two believed the topic would be a key aspect for determining whether they would be capable or not. Finally, another one reported that the greatest difficulty was likely to be that there would be too many words that he/she would not understand. Figure 2 summarises these results by comparing them with the results obtained in the other skills.

QUESTION 7.1. What aspect would you find the most difficult one to understand the article?

Once again, most of the students (70) named specific vocabulary (lack of/difficulty in) as the main hurdle preventing them from understanding the article. Table 5 summarises the results obtained in this respect:

TABLE 5.
ASPECTS CONSIDERED THE MOST PROBLEMATIC FOR UNDERSTANDING A WRITTEN SPECIALISED ARTICLE.

Specific vocabulary (SV) (lack of SV or difficult SV)	**OTHERS (miscellaneous category)**
70 However, many of them indicate that with a dictionary this would not be a problem.	Verbs and adverbs (3) Technical and specific aspects (1) Structures (understanding whole sentences) (9) Everything (2) None (1)

Finally, Figure 2 summarises and compares the results obtained in items 4, 5, 6 and 7 graphically.

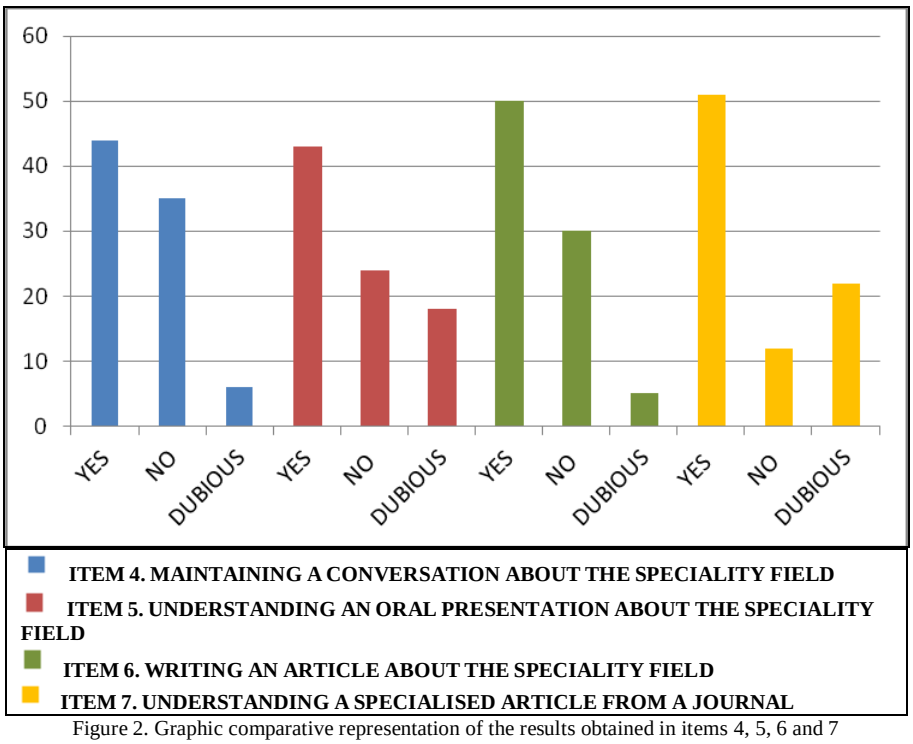

Figure 2. Graphic comparative representation of the results obtained in items 4, 5, 6 and 7

According to the results obtained in these items, on the one hand, the aspects seeming to cause more uncertainty or dubitation among students (category 'dubious': students not sure about whether they would be able to manage in the situations mentioned (referring to a specific skill)) are those related to the listening one (understanding conference-type presentations) and to the reading skill (understanding journal research articles). This is probably due to the fact that the familiarity and exposure of students to these genres is scarce, despite the importance they have in the academic world and despite the fact that at least last-year students should ideally already be familiar with them.

On the other hand, the understanding of journal research articles is also the aspect in which most students feel capable of managing ('yes' category), followed closely by that of being able to write an article about the speciality field. In general, it seems that students feel more confident in those aspects which allow for careful thinking and consultation of external resources (normally dictionaries, internet sites or experts), that is, in aspects that do not call for such rapid action and which, therefore, do not imply immediate interaction, response or understanding.

Finally, the 'no' category (I would not be capable of doing so) reaches its highest rates in Figure 2, with the production skills: speaking (maintaining a conversation about the speciality field) and writing skills (writing an article about the speciality field) are the ones students feel less confident in. When it comes to producing, students tend to get

easily discouraged since, as they themselves point out, they lack the vocabulary and structures needed to express themselves accurately and they do not feel fluent enough, among many other aspects.

QUESTION 8. Let's set out from the fact that it is neither possible nor desirable but imagine that you could develop only one of the following skills for managing in your future job – which one would it be? Why?

- **The ability to talk about my speciality field (speaking skill)**
- **The ability to understand anybody talking about my speciality field (listening skill)**
- **The ability to understand anybody writing about my speciality field (reading skill)**
- **The ability to write about my speciality field (writing skill)**

In this item, 45% of the students did not answer the 'why' question. Regarding students' 'preferred' skill (or the one they regarded as the most important), 26 students chose the ability to talk about their speciality fields (speaking skill) as the one they would like to develop if they had to choose. Among the reasons put forward for doing so, students mentioned that if they can speak it means that they understand, that oral communication is crucial in their speciality areas, that it is the most useful skill, that it includes the other three, that it is important for feeling comfortable when going abroad or dealing with foreigners, that they would need it to share information with other colleagues and that it is necessary to study abroad.

The ability to understand anybody talking about their speciality fields (listening skill) was the preferred one for another 26 students, who commented that with this skill new concepts can be learnt easily, you can work in any part of the world, you can successfully manage and be competitive in your profession and you can have and/or understand other resources and sources of information and research.

Somewhat surprisingly, another 26 students regarded the ability to understand anybody writing about their speciality fields (reading skill) as the most important skill. The reasons put forward are that with this skill they would be able to do their university assignments more easily, they could read research papers in English and they would be able to access updated academic information.

Finally, apart from the triple tie in terms of number of students in the three preceding skills (26 in each), the ability to write about their speciality fields (writing skill) was considered to be the most important by a minority of students (seven). Those having chosen this skill conceded that if they can write correctly then they would most probably be able to communicate orally as well. It is, however, worth noting that the skill most students feel more comfortable with or proficient in is also the one they tend to consider the 'least' important for their careers, this apparently showing that students tend to grant more value to those aspects they find more difficulty in.

QUESTION 9. Do you consider that English is important in your training as a biologist/environmental scientist OR pharmacist (choose depending on your degree)? Why?

Only three students considered English non-relevant for their training and professional career, arguing that their professional objectives are not related with English and that it would all depend on the kind of work to be developed afterwards.

However, those who regarded English as important (82 students) mentioned the following reasons for doing so (even though not everybody answered the 'why' question either):

- It is fundamental for working abroad and/or in multinationals
- Scientific research is mainly conducted abroad and the *lingua franca* for communicating abroad is English
- English is very useful for any kind of job as it 'opens doors'
- Scientific knowledge transmission is mainly achieved through English; almost 'everything' is written in English
- English is the basic language of science; it is useful for attending conferences and for working with specialised literature; English is necessary to understand articles and research papers
- English is important in every single discipline and in life in general
- English is crucial to be able to deal with foreign patients/clients and colleagues in general
- English is the most important and widely spoken language

Most of the students provided more than one reason, so the answers/results in this item were considered mainly from a qualitative perspective and have been grouped into the broad categories above. However, as is subsequently analysed, the results obtained in this question actually seem to contradict those obtained and shown in item 14, which reflects a lack of coherent, holistic thinking on the part of students.

QUESTION 10. What do you expect / would you like to learn in this subject?

Most of the students (47) expected to learn specific vocabulary or terminology, 10 students expected to learn to communicate and understand texts in English and seven of them expected to 'refresh' their knowledge of English. Among the other things students expected to learn in the subject we find:

- learning to speak fluently, acquire fluency
- improving their oral and writing level and their understanding of English
- learning expressions
- widening their knowledge
- learning phonetics
- passing the subject without the need to make a great effort

- understanding and making themselves understood
- learning the capacity to manage in English-speaking environments

In this question, some students also provided more than one response, so the answers in this case have been considered mainly from a qualitative perspective. The most outstanding result here is probably the fact that, in many cases, students seem to expect to learn the same things they would allegedly expect to learn in a general English course except for the specific vocabulary. Once again, they tend to associate ESP with learning just vocabulary/terminology.

QUESTION 11. Could you translate the following words into English?

Scientific English students only:

Biólogo/a[6] _____; Biología _____; Biológico/a _____

English for Health Sciences students only:

Farmacéutico/a (sust)_____; Farmacia_____; Farmacológico/a_____

The aim of this question was similar to the one in question 6.1, that is, to assess students' basic, preliminary knowledge of ESP in their respective fields of knowledge. Some of the attempts found in the questionnaires were incorrect forms or even invented instances, thus showing what could be called a negative or bold creativity on the part of students as shown, for instance, in invented lexical units such as *boticarious*, boticary*, pharceuty** or *pharmacien**.

It is surprising that some invented and obviously incorrect units were believed to be right by more than one student, thus presenting more than one instance among the results. Table 6 shows the answers obtained. In this respect, the dotted line and its corresponding number at the bottom of each column show the number of students who left the question blank, while the asterisks indicate that the answer provided is not correct.

TABLE 6.
TRANSLATION OF THE UNITS PROVIDED BY STUDENTS.

FARMACEUTICO (SUST)	FARMACIA	FARMACOLOGICO
Pharmacist (20)	Pharmacy (36)	Pharmacological (5)
Chemist (9)	Chemestry* (2)	Pharmacologic* (22)
Boticarious* (2)	Apotheke* (1)	Pharmacology* (3)
Boticary* (1)	Chemist* (1)	Chemyst*(1)
Pharmaciest* (2)	Apoteke* (2)	Pharmacologist* (5)
Pharceuty* (1)	Drugstore (1)	Farmacology* (2)
Chemistry* (6)	Chemistry* (4)	Pharmacologyc* (5)
Quemist* (1)	Farmacy* (1)	Farmacological* (1)
Farmacist* (1)	Chemist* (7)	Pharmaceutical* (1)
Pharmaceutyc*(1)	Chemistry* (1)	Chemistry* (2)
Pharmaceutic* (2)	Quemistry* (1)	Pharmacology* (4)
Chemis* (1)	Pharmacie* (2)	Pharmacologyst* (1)
Chemist officer* (1)	Pharmy* (1)	Pharmacologuc* (1)
Quemister* (4)	------ (9)	--------- (16)
Chemistical* (1)		
Pharmacyst* (3)		
Pharmacien* (1)		
-------- (12)		

BIOLOGO	BIOLOGIA	BIOLOGICO
Biologist (9)	Biology (16)	Biological (6)
Biolec * (1)		Biologic* (5)
Biologyst* (1)		Biologycal* (2)
------- (5)		--------- (3)

QUESTION 12. From the following excerpts, which one is more likely to belong to a research article published in a prestigious journal?

A. With the exception of electrons, the particles which have been accelerate to high energies for machines such as cyclotrons or Van de Graaff generators have not be directly used therapeutical.

B. Except for electrons, the particles which have been accelerated to high energies by machines such as cyclotrons or Van de Graaff generators have not been directly used therapeutically.

C. I won't talk about electrons but my successful research has shown that the particles which have been accelerated to high energies by machines such as cyclotrons or Van de Graaff generators have not been directly used therapeutically

D. Forget about electrons; the rest of the particles which have been speeded up to high energies by machines such as cyclotrons or Van de Graaff generators haven't been directly used therapeutically.

Option B was the only correct (original) option in this question. However, 30 students believed option A was the correct one, 12 believed it was C and six believed it was D. The remaining 47 students chose the correct option (B). The students who chose option A were not aware of basic English grammar rules, namely the formation of the present perfect tense, among other things. The students who chose option C showed no awareness of the basic rhetorical and stylistic features characterising academic research articles such as avoiding the use of contracted forms, the necessary use of hedging or the necessary level of formality required in the genre, among others. Option D also lacks adequate management of formality and scientific discourse conventions. Therefore, more than 50% of the students participating in the survey showed no familiarity or awareness with the basics of scientific discourse and with the prototypical academic genre, the research article. Students acknowledge the importance of terminology in ESP but show no

[6] Biólogo: biologist; Biología: biology; Biológico: biological Farmacéutico: pharmacist/chemist; Farmacia: pharmacy; Farmacológico: pharmacological

awareness of academic discourse and academic genres, and this is probably due to long-term acquired teaching-learning practices which should be improved and go beyond (or focus on aspects other than) the mere acquisition of grammar and vocabulary.

QUESTION 13. You would feel especially disappointed if, in this subject, you were not taught… (choose the answer you consider to be the most important for you)

A. The main linguistic and terminological patterns characterising speciality English.

B. The attitude I should have towards speciality English and its importance for my professional future.

C. How to communicate in an effective way in a specialised context.

The results in this item, based on Donmall's (1985) distinctive levels of LA (option A corresponds to the cognitive level, option B with the affective level and option C with the social level), show a clear predominance of cognitive and social levels/aspects among students' preferences. Forty-one students chose option A, 44 students chose option C and none of them signalled option B as the most important aspect. This can be interpreted as a general disregard of reflective or attitudinal purposes on the part of students, probably stemming from the kind of quantitative assessment students are used to and hence implicitly assume in their learning. Students' answers seem to indicate that they wish to focus their efforts on being taught those aspects which are more traditionally associated with the learning of languages (that is, mostly, learning language rules and vocabulary) and that are therefore more easily transmittable, demonstrable and assessable and which, consequently, they also perceive as more useful and practical.

QUESTION 14. I consider my general attitude towards this subject as:

A. Indifferent: it is a mere requirement to obtain more credits and thus to get my degree.

B. I don't like English very much/I'm not good at English so I don't think I'm going to enjoy the subject.

C. Highly positive: I'm looking forward to starting and learning a lot.

Finally, Figure 3 shows the alleged attitude of the students taking part in the study towards the subject: 43 students manifested their indifference towards the subject (option A), 37 foresaw their lack of enjoyment in the subject by choosing option B and just 15 students claimed to have a highly positive attitude towards the subject. By comparing the results in items 9 and 14, it may be observed that students seem to be aware of the importance of English in their speciality fields, but their attitude towards learning it does not reflect this supposed importance.

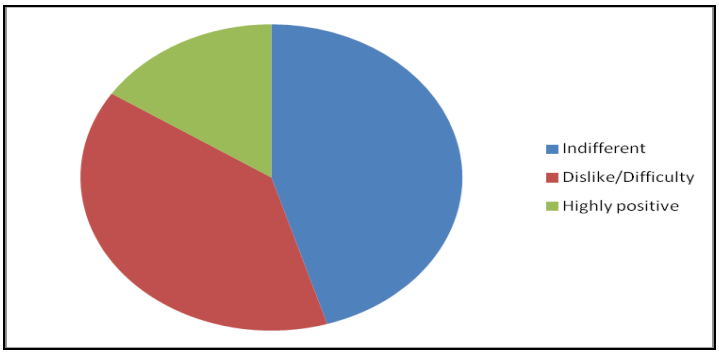

Figure 3. Graphic representation of students' alleged attitude towards ESP subjects

Section 5 comments on these results and draws conclusions from them. The author also discusses the most remarkable aspects to be considered and tries to suggest some possible course of action that can be employed both to prevent disappointing attitudes and results in the ESP classroom and to improve them.

V. Discussion and Conclusions

On the basis of students' answers and views on the different items posed, it may first be stated that the results revealed by purely 'knowledge-testing' questions were rather discouraging. Despite the fact that most of the students were in the second, third and fourth years of their degrees, only 40% of the basic vocabulary answers provided by students in question 11 were correct, which reveals a surprising ignorance of basic terminological units despite considering this to be a central aspect in ESP learning. Something similar was found in question 6.1, in which 35% of the students answering the questionnaire were unable to say what topics they would write on if asked about 'the environment' and 'pills and syrups'. In the same way, students' scarce familiarity with typical academic genres and discourse – what should be, in our opinion, a critical part of any ESP course – was also displayed by the fact that more than half of the participants in the survey were not able to recognise a proper academic style. This shortcoming could probably be extrapolated to the greater context of students' respective degrees and should be put to rights by trying to make students familiar from the very beginning with research genres and discourse regardless of the specific subject being dealt with. University students in general need to read, especially in the last years of their degrees, and students would undoubtedly benefit from reading and getting used to research articles in English as the *lingua franca* of knowledge transmission.

Additionally, the scarce knowledge of metalinguistic knowledge on the part of students that was detected in the study also complicates the teaching of ESP. Many students are not familiar with basic linguistic labels such as noun, verb and adjective and are unable to distinguish between such categories, which complicates the teaching of any foreign language and therefore the learning process itself.

The perception many students have with respect to their level of English is not promising either. The perceived-level results obtained seem to show the low preliminary ESP awareness students have and believe they have. Some of them do not seem to realise the necessary relationship between general and specific English for specialised discourse production. At the same time, however, students also tend to extrapolate their expectations as regards general English learning to their expectations for ESP learning. The aforementioned necessary relationship between the two but also the particularities of ESP should thus be emphasized and made clear from the very beginning so that the students get a coherent, integrated view of the subject.

Nonetheless, the fact that more than 96% of the students taking part in the survey considered English to be crucial for their professional future (question 9) is positive for the subject, even when just 14% of them believed they have a good level of both general and specialised English. The general feeling seems to be that students believe they have the elementary productive and receptive skills which would allow them to grasp the essence of English specialised discourse (both oral and written), but their level of confidence in their ESP knowledge seems very limited and does not favour the feeling of confidence that is so necessary when interacting in a foreign language. Moreover, students are aware of the importance of English in their careers but the majority of them do not undertake the task of learning ESP with eagerness or expectancy (results for item 14). Students' positive attitude towards ESP for their professional career does not coincide with their negative or apathetic attitude towards making the effort of learning ESP and thus towards the subject itself (as results for item 14 show).

Regarding expectations, it is also highly revealing to note the importance granted to terminological knowledge by students: nearly 50% of them considered it the key/central aspect to learn but also one of the most difficult aspects in ESP. In general, the students taking part in this research seem to be interested in learning ESP because they expect to be able to understand and make themselves understood in international scientific-technical or professional contexts. They also know it will be important in their careers, especially if they intend to work abroad. In general, they expect to obtain a preparation that enables them to cope professionally in a foreign language. These results contrast again, however, with the kind of results obtained in question 14, in which over 82% of the students expressed their indifference or dislike for the subject. Once more, this contradictory position highlights a situation in which further work and research are needed: students are aware of the importance of ESP for their professional careers but are more reluctant to make the effort that ESP learning necessarily implies. Lecturers should try to make ESP learning enjoyable and fruitful so that both contradictory views converge in an overall positive attitude.

When asked about more specific aspects of their specialised linguistic knowledge and skills, 51% of the students considered themselves capable of holding a short conversation about their areas of specialisation despite the low level of English most of them believe they have and the low participation they show in oral in-class activities. Fifty per cent considered themselves capable of understanding a brief presentation on their specialisation areas, while 58% considered themselves capable of writing a brief article about their specialisation fields in English and 60% of the students considered themselves capable of understanding an 'easy' research paper in English. A simple interpretation of these results could be that students generally regard speaking and listening as the most difficult and demanding skills, whereas reading and writing are considered slightly more accessible or easier. As regards the importance granted by the students to the different skills, it is interesting to observe the triple tie obtained in the speaking, listening and reading skills (26% of the students considered each of these skills as the most important ones for their careers), whereas the writing skill seems to be considered the least important by students (7%). In general, among the aspects that students tend to consider as being more difficult for producing (speaking and writing) specialised English language we find, above all, the level of specialisation required, and the quality and quantity of the vocabulary that must be possessed in order to express oneself correctly and accurately. On the other hand, among the aspects considered to be more difficult in receptive skills (reading and listening) we find: the pace, accent and speed of the discourse, and also the level of technicality and specialisation needed in the structures and the vocabulary.

Finally, it is interesting to notice the rather simplistic view that some students have of ESP: some of them believe it to be an aspect of the general English language that can be effectively managed simply with the help of a dictionary. They do not seem very aware of the conventions, specificities and idiosyncrasies that ESP implies beyond terminology acquisition, that is, at a discourse level or from a rhetorical perspective. In the questionnaires nobody mentioned the importance of structural aspects or the importance of formality, stylistic and discourse features such as precision, objectivity, concision, hedging or the lack of ambiguity, among many others. Hardly anyone noted the importance of cohesion and coherence either. Moreover, typical academic discourse was identified by a scarce 55% of the students, the remaining 45% being unable to recognise an excerpt from an academic article. Accordingly, many students seem to show no familiarity with or interest in those aspects of ESP that go beyond the acquisition of terminology or communicative strategies (normally associated with oral communication). In the same way, as the results obtained in item 13 seem to corroborate, students are very much aware of the importance of the cognitive and the social levels of language awareness but the affective level was disregarded by all the students. Obviously, this does not mean that they

grant no importance at all to this aspect, since they were forced to choose just one of the options, but the fact that nobody chose it as the first option is indicative of one of the aspects traditionally (and generally) neglected in the Spanish ESP classroom, which should thus be enhanced and dealt with, namely, attitude training, and not just content training.

From the results, it seems obvious that students need and expect to see a practical applicability in everything they learn, and that professional English is no exception. Most students of ESP subjects acknowledge the importance of English in their professional careers, although results show that something is going wrong in the way lecturers and students in Spain start with and approach the teaching and learning process of both general English and ESP. Language awareness and language development are highly determined by the attitude consciously or unconsciously adopted by the students during secondary education and even at primary school. Fostering a positive attitude and making the students consciously and successfully acquire the essentials of the English language will be crucial for attaining success in subsequent stages. Furthermore, lecturers have to make students overcome the rather simplistic view of the kind of knowledge to be acquired in ESP classes and make them understand the rich complexity underlying any language. ESP goes beyond the acquisition of new vocabulary and makes it necessary to become familiar with many aspects of academic writing, genre conventions and discourse conventions – something students need to be aware of. Therefore, apart from the facts and factors just mentioned, awareness is not simply a matter of students. As Miller states (2007), lecturers have to be more aware of their audience and perhaps make more allowances in the presentation of information to ensure that it is accessible to the L2 students. Interest and attitude are fundamental for learning and improving and lecturers themselves are a central element to foster this. Accordingly, task-based exercises in which students envisage the aforementioned practical applicability should be devised and implemented for the ESP student. Otherwise, disappointment quickly appears in the ESP classroom even in such early stages of the subject as the one analysed in this study. If students have had a bad or disappointing experience in their learning of English, they will probably tend to associate any other English subject with that disappointing experience. Diagnostic surveys or questionnaires that help us know our students' expectations and attitudes towards language better are always an interesting and easy method to improve subject design, syllabuses and lectures from scratch.

It is also worth mentioning that the kind of exposure students have to the English language seems too/very limited, in general, in Spanish higher education settings. In fact, there is an almost total lack of exposure to English language and to academic genres on the part of students both in their everyday life and in their degrees. As the results obtained in this study seem to show, ESP should not be studied as an artificial, watertight subject having nothing to do with other degree subjects or with real world careers. It would be vital for lecturers from any subject to acknowledge and highlight the importance of English as the language of knowledge transmission and as the *Lingua Franca* of the current world. It is also essential for students to become familiar with specialised literature (and academic style and genres) written in English from the very first years of their degrees, in a progressive but continuous way. This would imply, however, that many lecturers would also have to make the effort of updating their knowledge of specialised English, yet the rewards would surely outweigh the additional and considerable effort of doing so.

What seems clear is that attention and awareness facilitate learning. Students seem to be aware of the fact that if they are to become complete, successful professionals, they will need English. However, they are also rather pessimistic when it comes to expressing their views on their command of English. Unfortunately, as this study shows, it is, in general, true that many students in Spanish higher education settings present serious deficiencies in their command of English in general, a very low preliminary awareness of ESP and rather negative attitudes towards ESP subjects, which contrast with many of their expectations. A conscious, well-grounded detection and analysis of this kind of factors negatively affecting ESP teaching and learning will determine the possibility of working on them and overcoming them, which could in turn result in increased language awareness and a positive attitude towards ESP, which are the cornerstones for effective ESP learning.

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An Empirical Research into EFL Learners' Motivation

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***Abstract*—Motivation plays a very important role in enhancing the students' English learning performance. Therefore, the research aim is to investigate learning motivation at University for Natural Resources and Environment to find out whether motivation has any impact on students' English learning in order that English teaching together with learning at the school can improve. 290 students and seven English teachers were invited to take part in the questionnaire survey. The findings demonstrated that students have positive towards English learning and motivational activities. They were both extrinsically and intrinsically motivated in the English subject. However, they had many difficulties in succeeding in the English subject and their English learning was influenced by various elements, among which two main factors influencing their English learning most were their personal ways of studying and the heavy learning curriculum with difficult textbooks. Teachers' attitudes as well as their perceptions toward learning motivation are positive since they all find the necessity of motivation in improving students' English performance.**

***Index Terms*—intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, EFL learner, L2**

I. Introduction

Numerous researchers investigated the influence of motivation on students' learning. Dornyei (1997) put a stress on the influence of motivation that motivation is considered as a key to learning a second language (L2) and it seems to be the biggest single factor affecting language learners' success. Dornyei (1997) stated,

"L2 motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate the learning behavior and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; that is, all the other factors involved in L2 acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent and, indeed, motivation is usually mentioned in explaining any L2 learning success or failure" (Dornyei, 1997, p. 261).

In addition, in Wood's (1998) perception, one of the factors influencing how successful a person in learning a L2 is the nature of the person's motivation. Lack of motivation is observed to have led to low attendance, participation, and performance of the students at University for Natural Resouces and Environment, Ho Chi Minh City. The study seeks to examine what are key motivational factors influencing students' English learning performance and some effective ways of fostering these factors. This study, thus, is guided by the ensuing questions:

1. What motivational factors influence the students' English learning performance?
2. How can learning motivational factors be enhanced?

II. Literature Review

A learner's L2 acquisition was influenced by motivation (Wood, 1998). To emphasize its effects on students' learning, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) indicated that motivation is crucial in schools due to its powerful influence on students' learning since motivation is a key for students' learning achievements. Thus, students with strong learning motivation often study better than those with less or no learning motivation. Gardner and Lambert (1972) mentioned that motivation can be said to be an essential element in deciding students' learning achievement in which motivation overrides the aptitude which accounts for a considerable proportion of individual variability in language variability in language learning achievement.

Harmer (1991) also agreed that students who are in some way motivated do significantly better than their peers despite their teachers' unsatisfactory methods or unfavourable conditions while students without sufficient motivation can not accomplish long-termed goals in spite of having the most remarkable learning abilities. For these demotivated students, no curricula and teaching methods are appropriate or good enough to ensure their learning achievements. Therefore, demotivation can result in students' low achievements or negative attitudes toward the target language. Moreover, Dornyei (1997) put it that in language teaching, both teachers and reseachers considered motivation as one of the key factors influencing the rate and success of L2 learning. As language teachers, we can therefore recognize the essential role of motivation in our students' learning and we must consider the concept motivation in order to enhance our students' language outcomes.

A. What is Motivation?

Motivation has been differently defined from various perpectives of psychology, sociology and linguistics. Some psychologists defined motivation in terms of certain needs. Ausubel (1968) identified some main needs which help construct learner motivation (1) the need for stimulation, the need to be stimulated by the environment, by other people or by ideas, thoughts and feelings; (2) the need for knowledge, which is defined as the need for achievement (Good and Brophy, 1990), the need to process and internalize the results of exploration, manipulation, activity, and stimulation, to resolve contradiction, to search for solutions to problems and for self-consistent systems of knowlege; (3) finally, the need for ego enhancement, for the self to be known and to be accepted and approved by others.

In L2 acquisition, the types of motivation came from cognitive and social psychology. In cognitive psychology, two types of motivation are instrumental and integrative motivation (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). In social psychology, two main types of motivation are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Harmer, 1991).

The concept of motivation came from social psychology (Harmer, 1991) and connected closely to students' effort, desire as well as their positive attitudes towards learning. As stated by Gardner (1985, p. 10), "motivation L2 acquisition refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language and favorable attitudes towards learning the language".

B. Learner Motivation

Motivation is closely connected to students' studying, therefore, the problems relating to learner motivation have often intrigued educators and motivation researchers for years. As defined by Lumsden (1994), learner motivation can be considered as students' desire to participate in the language process. Hence, learner motivation can be inferred from a student's behaviour or considered learning motivation which can not be seen, heard or felt and accordingly it is difficult to be deeply understood due to the nature of the concept itself.

In L2 acquisition, not only do students know about the importance of motivation in language learning, but teachers and parents are concerned about its effects on their students' learning as well. Additionally, keeping students interested in school and motivating them to succeed are always challenges for parents, students themselves, and even for almost all the teachers year after year because too many students are not sufficiently motivated to succeed in school (Lumsden, 1994). Discussing the effect of motivation on the L2 acquisition, Finegan (1994) indicated that among the things that clearly affect the mastery of a L2 is the type of motivation that a learner has. Types of motivation will be revisited in the next section.

C. Types of Motivation

Theorists and researchers have stressed that it is important to recognize the construction of motivation. Although students may be equally motivated, the source of their motivation may be different and of course, their success in learning will also be different. Arnold (1999) put it that with different expressions and employments of this matter, the researchers have had different points of view in recognizing types of motivation. For many social researchers, two major recognizable concepts of motivation are intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Noels et al. (2001) claimed that a learner might quit learning the target language soon when the learner is not extrinsically or intrinsically motivated to learn a language.

1. Extrinsic motivation

What is extrinsic motivation?

Extrinsic motivation happens when external factors make the person do something and comes from an external source encouraging or fostering an individual to succeed. As viewed by Harmer (1991), extrinsic motivation is the result of any number of outside factors. In this type of motivation, learners may make efforts to learn a L2 for some functional reasons - to pass an examination, to get a better job, or to get a place at university. For example, people learn English to get better jobs with high salaries in foreign companies. Some students or teachers learn English to get scholarships for their higher study abroad. Therefore, in L2 achievement, extrinsic motivation plays a vital part since the individual desires to learn a L2 because of some pressure or reward from the social environment. Vallerand (1997) put it that extrinsic motivation involves performing a behaviour as a means to an end, that is, to receive some rewards such as good grades or avoid punishment.

Factors influencing extrinsic motivation

Extrinsic motivation comes from such factors outside the classroom as parents, teachers, friends, or their previous learning, but most often involves subjects in a reward and punishment system. In Brophy's (1987) opinion, motivation to learn is a competence acquired through general experience but stimulated most directly through modeling, communication of expectations, and direct instruction or socialization by others, especially parents and teachers.

In Harmer's (1991) view, parents' expectations are significant to students' school performance, their motivation and their academic achievements since they are generally associated with higher levels of educational attainment. Furthermore, Paige (2001) emphasized that parents are the most powerful advocators in their students' language learning. Harmer (1991) also added that parents have a great impact on students' attitude to the learning language. Whether students have positive or negative attitude toward the language depends mostly on their parents. If the

parents are very much against the culture of the language learning, this will probably lead to their children's negative motivation whereas many students are willing to study the language in order to meet their parents' expectations.

Like parent factor, students' peers also affect students' attitudes toward the language learning outcomes since students may like learning the language when their peers like it. Furthermore, students' previous learning experiences influence their present learning outcomes. If they were successful, they may be predisposed to learning success now. On the other hand, if unsucessful, they will expect failure now. In addition, the knowledge from their past learning experiences is considered as the knowledgeable background from which they are able to continue to study at present and in the future. Students with good past learning knowledge can study well at present. Information about extrinsic motivation has provided. Another main kind, intrinsic motivation, is mentioned below.

2. Intrinsic motivation

What is intrinsic motivation?

In Harmer's (2002) perception, for most researchers and methodologists, intrinsic motivation derived from within the individual is especially important for encouraging students' success in L2 learning. In this type of motivation, the activity itself, not the reward, interests students to learn the language or making themselves better attracts them in the language learning. In addition, as viewed by Vallerand (1997), students are intrinsically motivated in a particular activity when wishing to experience the pleasure and satisfaction of their curiosity from the activity.

Factors influencing intrinsic motivation

According to Harmer (1991), factors influencing students' intrinsic motivation are physical conditions, teachers as well as their teaching methods.

Physical conditions such as the lighting, the temperature, the acoustic, the lines of vision, the layout of desks, the facilities for displaying pictures or charts, materials and so on, have a great effect on learning. Haynes (1998) mentioned that positive school climate perceptions are protective factors that may supply students with supportive learning environment. For instance, if the students find their classroom is a caring, comfortable and supportive place where everyone is valued and respected, they will tend to participate more fully in the process of learning. Lumsden (1994) added that classroom climate is an important factor influencing intrinsic motivation. Besides, as for Harmer (1991), classrooms that are badly lit and overcrowded can be excessively demotivating because in uncomfortable situations, students may not study as well as in more comfortable ones.

In addition to physical conditions, other factors influencing students' intrinsic motivation are teachers as well as their teaching methods. In Lumsden's (1994) study, school students' level of interest and desire to engage in learning are heavily influenced by such factors as teachers, administrators, the school environment and their classmates. However, among these factors, teachers seem to be the biggest one because their roles are very important in students' learning. Pearse (2000) also pointed out that teachers' feedback mostly affects students' learning motivation especially when they are aware of their students' own progress. For teachers, the key to foster motivation and engagement in learning can lead to good teaching method as well as good teachers, both of which attract students a lot in their learning. If students find their teachers' methodology boring, they will probably become demotivated whereas if they are interested in the method, they will find it motivating so that they can study better.

In Crookes and Schmidt's (1991) view, teachers should motivate students into the lesson, that is, at the opening stages of lessons, remarks teachers make about forthcoming activities can lead to higher levels of interest on the part of the students. Besides, teachers should vary the activities, tasks, and materials because students are reassured by the existence of classroom routines that they can depend on. However, lessons, which always consist of the same routines, patterns, and formats, have been shown to lead to a decrease in attention and an increase in boredom. Thus, varying the activities, tasks, and materials can help to avoid demotivation and increase students' interest levels.

Furthermore, teachers had better use cooperative rather than competitive goals in classrooms. Cooperative learning activities are those in which students must work together to complete a task or solve a problem. These techniques have been found to increase the self-confidence of students, including weaker ones because every participant in a cooperative task has an important role to play. Knowing that their teammates are counting on them can also increase students' motivation.

III. Methodology

A. Participants

The research data were collated from students and English teachers. The way to select the participants is important for the research success as stated by Hatch and Farhady (1982, p. 8), "subject selection may influence the results of research studies".

Students

Seliger and Shohamy (1995) put it that there can be no absolute rule regarding the size of the subject population. However, the greater the size is, the smaller the effect of individual variability or any other population-related variable on the research finding. Thus, in the current study, 312 students were chosen from the population of 1569 students in

stratified randomly selection, which can improve the likelihood of representativeness (Fraenken and Wallen, 2006). For the selection of the research sample, three lists of first-year, second-year, and third-year students in the universityat were first established. After that, from each list, the subjects were randomly selected by closing the eyes and putting the pen into each list at a certain number. Finally, 295 students were selected from the three lists in the interval of five.

Teachers

Seven English teachers were invited to take part in the questionnaire survey. Teachers make great contributions to the research findings since in students' learning process, one of the teachers' important roles is to take the responsibility for motivating students in classrooms.

B. Instruments

Quantitative method which describes phenomena in numbers and measures instead of words (Wiersma, 1995) was utilized to collect the research data. The quantitative method was used for analyzing some questions in the questionnaires for students and teachers. Questionnaires were defined by Brown (2001) as

"any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or by selecting from among existing answers" (Brown, 2001, p. 6)

Questionnaires are necessary for investigating learning motivation as Seliger and Shohamy (1989) contend that questionnaires are mainly used to collect data on phenomena which are not easily observed, such as attitudes, motivation, and concepts.

Below were details of two kinds of questionnaires, one for students and the other for teachers.

Questionnaire for students

Only the students themselves can identify what they need motivating. Poplin and Weeres (1993) put it that listening to the voices of students is increasingly being advocated by researchers concerned with enhancing student motivation. Accordingly, the questionnaire for students is conducted in the research so that their learning motivation can be clearly understood and enhanced. 312 questionnaires were delivered to students; however, merely 290 were returned in the complete responses for the response rate of 92.95%.

Questionnaire for teachers

Students' learning outcomes are mainly influenced by teachers whose perceptions toward learning motivation play an essential role in bringing effectiveness to teaching and learning at school. Thus, the questionnaire for teachers was made to find out their perceptions toward learning motivation and ways of enhancing learning motivation.

IV. Findings and Discussions

A. Findings from Student Questionnaire

Factors influencing English learning

Five questions were asked to investigate which factors influenced students' English learning most.

TABLE 1.
FACTORS INFLUENCING STUDENTS' ENGLISH LEARNING

What factor has the most influence on your English learning?	Number of students	%
Ways of learning	121	41.7
Teacher factor	40	13.8
Environment factor	60	20.7
Curriculum factor	69	23.7
Total	290	100

Among the five reasons from the first question as displayed in Table 1, the respondents chose ways of learning (121 students, 41.7%) as the most influential factor in their learning English as Littlewood (1998) alleges that one of the factors influencing how successful a person in learning a L2 is the student's ability to learn which includes cognitive factors, personality, age and active learning strategies. This high endorsement of the learning strategies (accounting for 41.7%) reflected that students knew the importance of learning strategies in their English learning. Thus, with this finding, to enhance students' English learning, teachers should help students find out effective ways of learning English. However, surprisingly, for students, teacher factor was not as important as learning way factor since only 40 students (13.8%) thought that teachers influenced their learning English most.

Furthermore, curriculum factor (69 students, 23.7%) and environment factor (60 students, 20.7%) were the second and the third influential factors influencing students' English learning. These results indicated that curriculum was so heavy that students' learning was much influenced by too much knowledge from the studyloads. Accordingly, teachers should make every opportunity to make students aware of the interrelations between their English studying and the other subjects in the curriculum (Underwood, 1987) to reduce the pressure of the heavy curriculum.

School environment was also important for students' English learning and thus it needed to become a cooperative atmosphere in which they could study more comfortably and effectively. In Littlewood's (1998) view, the quality of the learning opportunities, which the environment offers has an important influence on the proficiency of students when learning a L2. It can be said from the results in Table 1 that students' English learning were more influenced by individual's personal factors than external factors. Therefore, teachers should instruct students learning strategies so that

students can know how to study English better. Rubin (1975) stated that good language learners often use better and more leaning strategies than others.

The next question investigates which human factors influencing students' English learning including the three factors: parents, teachers, and peers. Students' responses to this question were described in the Table 2.

TABLE 2.
HUMAN FACTORS INFLUENCING STUDENTS' ENGLISH LEARNING

Who has the most influence on your English learning ?	Number of students	%
Parents	45	15.5
Teachers	164	56.6
Peers	81	27.9
Total	290	100

This question only focuses on human factors influencing students' English learning. The findings in Table 2 showed that teachers (165 students, 56.6%) played the most crucial role in students' English learning process. Harmer (2002) put it that teachers play important roles in language learning classroom such as a controller, a prompter, participant or a tutor. Moreover, as for Sparks (2000), one of the most important factors in improving student learning is having a well-qualified teacher in every classroom.

The second influential factor was peers with the proportion of 27.9% (81 students). Stroud and Wee (2006) indicated that peers could influence students' choices of activities and they can affect how learners conduct themselves in the English language classroom. Furthermore, their peers may make them feel motivated when going to school or doing the homework together.

In addition to teachers and peers, parents ranked third with the proportion of 15.5% (45 students). From this result, it can be said that students still depend on their parents in their studying.

Surprisingly, there was a contrast in the students' choices of the same option "teachers". In Table 1, teachers did not influence their students' learning as much as learning ways, curriculum and environment factors. However, for the students, teachers were more important than such human factors as parents and peers. Thus, it can be implied that teachers are still an important factor influencing students' English learning at University for Natural Resources and Environment, Ho Chi Minh City.

The aim of the next question is to determine what other factors influence students' English learning most.

TABLE 3.
OTHER FACTORS INFLUENCING STUDENTS' ENGLISH LEARNING

What is the most influence on your English learning	Number of students	%
School facilities	18	6.2
Textbooks	11	3.8
Teaching methods	131	45.2
Previous learning experiences	130	44.8
Total	290	100

Similar to the findings from Table 2, the data from Table 3 demonstrated the great influence of teachers on the students' English learning through the highest proportion of students (25.2%) pointed to teachers' teaching methods. Dornyei (2001) put it that one of the factors for demotivating students was teachers' ineffective teaching methods.

The proportion of the previous learning experiences ranked second (130 students, 44.8%). Yule (1989) indicated that in general students' previous language learning experience would influence their views of learning process.

Merely 18 students (6.2%) agreed that one of the influential factors in their English is school facility. For the students, the least important factor was textbooks (11 students, 3.8%) as it is likely that the textbooks students are learning were published three years ago. Thus, their contents can still interest the students in their studying.

Littlewood (1998) put it that teachers' skills and enthusiasm will be the most important factor in keeping students motivated. Hence, due to teachers' important role in motivating students in the learning process, the researcher asked students to express their views on what is the characteristic a good teacher should have. Following were the results together with the analysis of the responses to this question.

TABLE 4.
CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD TEACHER

The characteristic a good teacher should have is	Number of students	%
Good teaching method	191	65.9
Good personalities	24	8.3
Good relationship with students	47	16.2
Competence to manage the class	28	9.7
Total	290	100

The data from Table 4 showed that the teachers' most crucial characteristic was good teaching methods (191 students, 65.9%). Moreover, to become more successful in teaching, teachers should vary their teaching methods in different lessons since there is no methodology, which is intrinsically better than others in all situations (Littlewood, 1998).

In addition, having a good relationship with students ranked second with 16.2% (47 students) and 28 students (9.7%) thought that a good teacher needs to have competence to manage the class. Besides, having good personalities is one of the characteristics of a good teacher (24 students, 8.3%). Students should not ignore the role of teachers' personality in their study as Littlewood (1998) indicated that in the classroom, a sympathetic teachers and cooperative environment might have a similarly supportive effect on students' learning.

Almost all classroom activities are based on the contents of the tasks in textbooks. Thus, the next question looks at students' opinions on the tasks in English textbooks.

TABLE 5.
STUDENTS' OPINIONS ON THE TASKS IN THE TEXTBOOKS

What do you think about the tasks in the textbooks?	Number of students	%
Very difficult	14	4.8
Difficult	175	60.3
easy	99	34.1
Very easy	2	0.7
Total	290	100

As the data in Table 5 demonstrates, 189 students (65%) found the tasks in the textbooks difficult and even very difficult. Hence, to motivate students to learn these tasks more effectively, teachers have to supplement as well as change the textbook tasks so that they are more relevant to the students' English proficiency levels. In Littlejohn's (2008) study, learner motivation is considered as the responsibility of the teachers. Therefore, teachers have to design classroom activities for stimulating students to learn by explaining how useful to do a particular activity and how that activity relates to their goal of learning the language for them to see purpose or value in what they are asked to do in classrooms. As a result, the students will be highly motivated in completing the activities.

However, for high-performing learners, they thought that the tasks are easy (99 students, 34%) and even very easy (2 students, 0.7 %). To motivate these good students in English lessons, teachers should prepare some more challenging exercises beside the tasks in textbooks.

Students' views on motivational activities

Five questions aimed at getting students' views on motivational activities in English lessons.

TABLE 6.
STUDENTS' VIEWS ON MOTIVATIONAL ACTIVITIES

Questions		Number of students	%
6.1	Not necessary	10	3.4
	Not very necessary	8	2.8
	Necessary	117	40.3
	Very necessary	155	53.4
6.2	Role play	17	5.9
	Reading and translation	92	31.7
	Playing games	104	35.9
	Group/ pair work	77	26.6
6.3	Using cassettes for listening	87	30
	Just using textbooks	33	11.4
	Lessons in PowerPoint	80	27.6
	Using televisions for watching films	89	31
6.4	Giving bonus marks	88	30.3
	Showing ways of English self-study	136	46.9
	Offering praise	39	13.4
	Designing challenging exercises	27	9.3
6.5	Applying new teaching method	57	19.7
	Paying more attention to low-performing students	76	26.2
	Design exercises more suitable for students' level	66	22.8
	Helping students' with their difficulties with English	101	34.8

As the findings from the responses to Question 6.1 in Table 6 displays, it is a good sign that most of the respondents (272 students, 94%) agreed that motivational activities are necessary for motivating students in English classes. They all wanted to attend interesting and active classes in which their teachers applied motivational activities to make them study better.

Question 6.2 asks students which activities they find motivating in English lessons. The data from Table 6 showed that the highest proportion of the participants (104 students, 35.9%) liked playing games in English classes. As viewed by Harmer (2007), students only enjoy activities, which involved game-like communication and interactive tasks. However, different students have different learning styles and preferences. Therefore, 92 students (31.7%) liked reading and translation; 77 students (26.6%) chose group or pair work; and 17 students (5.9%) thought that role-play was motivating in English classes.

Question 6.3 is designed to ask which activities the students would like to undergo in English lessons best. Among the four activities, 89 students (31%) liked teachers to use televisions for watching films in English and to utilize cassettes for teaching listening (87 students, 30%). They also felt more interested in PowerPoint lessons (80

students, 27.6%). Only 33 students (11.4%) wanted their teachers to teach English by just using textbooks. As viewed by Underwood (1987), students like to have interesting contents in their language lessons, thus, teachers should not be limited to the somewhat artificial world created by language course books.

As regards Question 6.4, students were asked which motivational ways they liked their teachers to apply to encourage them in English studying. This question received a variety of answers from the respondents. Firstly, at the highest proportion, 136 students (46.9%) did not know how to study English by themselves. Therefore, they wanted their teachers to instruct them ways of English self-study such as using dictionaries or watching films and so on. Knowles (1976) emphasized the necessity of self-study in studying that one of the missions of the teacher is to help individuals to acquire the skills of self-direct learning. Secondly, 88 students (30.3%) liked getting bonus marks from their teachers in English lessons. Thirdly, they felt motivated when receiving praise (39 students, 13.4%) from their teachers when they gave correct answers. Finally, 27 students (9.3%) would like their teachers to motivate them by giving more challenging exercises.

As for Question 6.5, students suggested what the teachers should do to enhance their present low performance. 101 students (34.8%) suggested that teachers should help students with their difficulties with English, especially paying more attention to low-performing students (76 students, 26.2%). Furthermore, since most of the students found the tasks in textbooks difficult, teachers should design exercises which are more relevant for their low English proficiency level (66 students, 22.8%). Besides, 57 students (19.7%) chose the application of teachers' new instructional methods.

The data from Table 6 pointed out that the students' views towards motivational activities are positive. It is good news because students still are very concerned about motivational activities in English subject. The students still can be motivated in English learning when their teachers know how to apply more effectively motivational activities in English lessons. However, to keep students engaged with the learning process, teachers need to try to match the various activities in different lessons so that students do not feel bored (Harmer, 2007) since researchers have shown that learners are different and learn in different ways (Willing, 1988).

B. Findings from Teacher Questionnaire

Teachers' attitudes toward learning motivation

Six questions were aimed at determining teachers' attitudes toward learning motivation.

TABLE 7.
TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD LEARNING MOTIVATION

Questions	Number of teachers	Total score	Mean
1. Learning motivation enhances students' interest in learning English.	7	31	4.4
2. Learning motivational activities are necessary for students' English learning.	7	33	4.7
3. Learning motivation has a big influence on students' English outcomes.	7	31	4.4
4. Enhancing learning motivation can lead to the improvement of students' English learning.	7	31	4.4
5. Clear understanding of learning motivation improves teachers' success in English teaching.	7	31	4.4
6. Students need to be motivated to study English better.	7	33	4.7

As Table 7 displays, the means of the six questions ranging from 4.4 to 4.7 revealed that the teachers have highly positive attitudes toward English learning motivation. The high means (4.7) of responses to Question 2 and Question 6 showed that teachers strongly agreed that students needed to be motivated by their teachers because motivational activities are necessary for students' English learning. In Littlewood's (1998) perspective, in L2 learning as in every other fields of human being, motivation is the crucial force which determines whether a learner embarks on a task at all, how much energy he devotes to it and how long preserves.

With the same means of 4.4 in the responses to the other four questions, it can be implied that teachers all agreed that learning motivation has a great influence on students' English outcomes since enhancing learning motivation can improve students' English learning and their interest in learning English.

Teachers' perceptions towards learning motivation

Five questions focuses on getting information about teachers' perceptions toward learning motivation as individual teachers have their own notions of language, which have a great impact on their ways of teaching (Genesee and Upsur, 1999).

TABLE 8.
TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARD LEARNING MOTIVATION

Questions		Number of teachers	%
7.1	Students are not motivated properly		
	Students do not set effective study goals	6	86
	Students do not have appropriate learning strategies	1	14
7.2	English exercises are too difficult for them		
	Learner factor	4	57
	Teacher factor	1	14
	Environment factor		
	Curriculum factor	2	29
7.3	Bonus marks	4	57
	Praise	1	14
	Challenging exercises	1	14
	Showing ways of English self- study	1	14
7.4	New teaching method	2	29
	Applying modern technology	1	14
	New teaching textbooks		
	Organizing extra-curricular activities	4	57
7.5	Yes	5	71
	Studying the issue at University	1	
	Attending workshops	3	
	Reading books, magazines, professional materials	1	
	Other sources		
	No	2	29

As regards Question 7.1, teachers were asked to choose which factors caused students' low English performance. From the data in Table 8, for the teachers, the most crucial reason behind students' low English performance was their lack of setting study goals (6 teachers, 86%). Tudor (1996) added that learners may have different types of goals such as needing to academic materials, gaining access to popular songs and films and so on. Nevertheless, these goals can be good or bad for students. From this research finding, in order to make students study better, teachers' duty is not merely to discover their students' functional goals but also to evaluate their perception and awareness of these goals (Tudor, 1996). In addition, only one teacher (14%) attributed the students' low performance to their lack of having appropriate learning strategies in English studying. It is consistent with Nunan's (1992) view that students with learning strategies become more effective language learners.

Question 7.2 asked teachers about which factors influenced students' English performance. The results in Table 8 showed that three influential factors were learner factor (57%), curriculum factor (29%) and teacher factor (14%). From the findings from the student questionnaire survey as well as teacher questionnaire survey, students and teachers both thought that student factor led to their low English performance. They both claimed that since students neither set learning goals nor had effective learning strategies in their English learning process, they could not have high English learning performance. This idea is true because only students can decide on their own learning success as viewed by Yule (1989), learners become experts on their own language learning needs and through this involvement, to improve their motivation for language learning.

Question 7.3 asked teachers about how the teachers used motivational ways in English classes. Surprisingly, all the respondents stated that they have used various motivational ways in classrooms to encourage students to learn English better. Among the four motivational ways, bonus marks were used most (57%), followed by the other three ways encompassing praise, giving challenging exercises and showing students ways of English self-study such as how to use dictionaries and so on (14% for each way).

Question 7.4 required teachers to give their suggestions on which motivational ways they should apply to motivate students better in the future. 57% of the respondents thought that teachers should organize extra-curricular activities such as English speaking clubs or English competitions. However, two teachers (29%) found that applying new teaching methods in English lessons would motivate students in their English learning. Besides, 14 % of the respondents suggested using modern technology in English classrooms to make students more motivated in English learning. Ahmad (1985) implied that the computer can be a powerful motivation force for productive study. Thus, teachers should apply more computer technology on English lessons such as preparing PowerPoint lessons to enhance learning motivation at University for Natural Resources and Environment, Ho Chi Minh City.

As regards Question 7.5, teachers responded to what level of their motivational knowledge and how they got this kind of knowledge. Encouragingly, up to 71 % of the teachers had opportunities to be trained or to conduct research on "learning motivation" by studying at university (14%), attending workshops (29%) and reading reference books (14%). However, two teachers (29%) had no chances to learn about learning motivation. From this research finding, the school administrators had better create more opportunities for all the English teachers to get more information about this important issue by buying books on learning motivation for the teachers' reference.

V. CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

Attitudes of the students at University for Natural Resources and Environment toward English learning are positive since they know the role of English in life. Nonetheless, they are not motivated enough due to lack of setting study goals and appropriate learning strategies, which mainly influenced their English learning. Furthermore, for the students, their teachers play the most influential role in encouraging them in their learning process; therefore, they wanted their teachers to motivate them by applying various motivational activities, especially organizing extra activities in English classes. Teachers' attitudes as well as their perceptions toward learning motivation are positive since they all find the necessity of motivation in improving students' English performance. Therefore, they have applied many various motivational ways by organizing different activities in English lessons.

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Promoting Harmony during Disagreements: A Portrait of Adult Discussions in the Indonesian Context

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***Abstract*—This paper presents different strategies applied by adult students when expressing disagreements during discussions. The use of a variety of strategies by the students show that conveying disagreements is not an easy task for the academia living in a collectivist society. Responses to the disagreements are also varied, ranging from communication deadlock to partial acceptance, support, offer of an account, support from another participant, neutralizer from another participant, and acceptance. The analysis of the data shows that, in the presence of disagreements, learning is mostly facilitated by disagreements expressed through peer acknowledgment and vulnerability assertion.**

***Index Terms*—disagreement, discussions, strategies, responses, Indonesian context**

I. Introduction

A discussion has been characterized as a forum to negotiate meanings, messages and positions (Basturkmen, 2002; de Klerk & Hunt, 2000; Medina, 2010; Tracy and Carjuzaa, 1993; Tracy and Baratz, 1993; Viechnicki, 1997; Webber & Kyriacou, 2008). To achieve their goals, discussion participants apply strategies to get their messages across and to attain their intended positions (Rohmah, 2003; Waring, 2000, 2001, 2002 a & b; Nathan, Eilam & Kim, 2007). During discussions, students apply conversational management strategies, topic management strategies and social strategies (Waring, 2000).

Expressing disagreement is one way of showing one's intellectual stance which is different from the others' position. In an academic writing, a writer takes a position in opposition to others' work. This necessitates the evidence that others are wrong, weak in argumentation, thus, an improvement is sought. In academic settings, students are trained to evaluate other people's arguments, disprove them and then offer their own stance. Without doing this, others hardly see their contribution and their intellectual ability.

Disagreements also occur outside of academic contexts. A study by Tuval-Mashiach & Shulman (2006), for instance, reported developmental differences in disagreement negotiation and resolution skills among adolescent and young adult romantic partners. The first group tended to have short negotiations, the latter is richer and more developed. Adolescents' resolution of disagreements was accomplished by having superficial agreements or pressure on one partner. Young adults' decision was based on the results of discussion and agreement made by the two partners.

People apply strategies in expressing disagreements (Jacobs, 2002) since tension might occur "between preference for agreement, common to conversation, and the expectation that there will be conflicting opinions in a discussion which is a system of public accountability" (Webber & Kyriacou, 2008, p. 99). In the previous studies, speakers express disagreements with two features—delaying the disagreements and stating them weakly and partially (Pomerantz, 1984; Mori, 1999; Waring, 2000 & 2001). In Pomerantz's (1984) study, disagreements are shown through rhetorical questions, questioning repeats and statements. Furthermore, Waring's (2000 & 2001) findings show that participants express their disagreements by employing two strategies, i.e. peer referencing and asserting vulnerability, to maintain a good cooperation and save the others' face.

The conclusion of the previous studies that a disagreement is a dispreferred response is challenged by two other studies by Blum-Kulka *et al*. (2002) and Kakava (2002). The two studies try to prove the reverse—a disagreement is normal. This is supported by Medina (2010, p. 4) that, "what is at the core of our normative behavior is the capacity to dissent, and that the possibility of contestation and normative negotiation is a prerequisite for rule-following." However, these do not present adequate evidence for the arguments that disagreement is not dispreferred. As Blum-Kulka *et al*. (2002) and Kakava (2002) demonstrate, in addition to the direct expressions of disagreements and strong disagreements, a mitigation action can still be found. This indicates that the speakers do not intend to be in a direct opposition to the addressees. The speakers still express their disagreements weakly and partially.

Thus, the studies by Blum-Kulka *et al*. (2002) and Kakava (2002) just strengthen the conclusion of the previous studies that a disagreement is a dispreferred response. From the existing studies, especially that of Blum-Kulka *et al*. (2002, p. 1576), it is apparent that ungrounded disagreements expressed blatantly block discussion on Talmudic texts

from further collaboration among the participants. This is so because disagreeing, in Brown and Levinson's (1987) term, is considered one of the face threatening acts (FTAs). Disagreeing, intrinsically, may threaten positive face-want—if it is spoken blatantly, it shows that the speaker does not care about the addressee's feelings and wants.

The present study was designed to understand how adult students articulated their disagreements during discussions and explore the responses to disagreements conveyed in different strategies. While the studies abovementioned were mostly administered in western context, a study conducted by Webber & Kyriacou (2008) in San Diego among non-native speakers of English (NNE) showed particular difficulties for them to join the discussions. The present study analyzes discussions among adult NNE in the Indonesian context which tends to be characterized as a collectivist society.

II. Method

Conversational Analysis (CA) was applied to understand the data. With CA, the researcher tried to uncover disagreements and responses apparent in the discussants' utterances through detailed examination of the turn-taking and sequential structure of the discussions (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984; Heritage & Atkinson, 1984; Hutchby, 1998; Levinson, 1983; Sack, 1984; Schegloff, 1984; Wei, 2002).

The data were in the forms of transcriptions of students' utterances during doctorate classroom discussions in 'Topics in Foreign Language Teaching' course. This study included the whole two-hour discussion in the analysis to allow better understanding of the context of the utterances. In the discussions, the students were required to give an oral presentation on the assigned reading materials from journals or books followed by a question answer session.

The discussion participants were seven doctorate students from different parts of Indonesia. One student was from Sumatra, four students from East Java, one from East Nusa Tenggara, and another student was an Ambonesse who was teaching at a university in Menado, North Sulawesi. By observing discussions among students from different ethnic backgrounds, the researcher expected to find a variety of disagreeing strategies and diverse responses to them.

III. Result

The results show that there are different responses to disagreements expressed in different ways. These ranges from a communication breakdown as a result of an aggravated disagreement to acceptance or partial acceptance and further discussions as responses to disagreements expressed by acknowledging peers, asserting vulnerability and indirectly.

A. Aggravated Disagreement

Aggravating a disagreement is one way of expressing disagreements directly. In this strategy, the head act containing a disagreement can be seen in turn 36, "*Yeah, then there is no discrimination, actually*." This disagreement is strengthened by a series of questions prefacing and following the disagreement. Excerpt 1 shows the disagreement expressed intensively by Edo.

Excerpt 1 (14/26-42)

Ovi:	((presenting and explaining that the use of language in society shows discrimination between men and women))	25
Edo:	*Bu Ovi, <do you agree with me that discrimination does exist in our society?>*	26
Ovi:	Yea, ya!!	27
Edo:	*Who discriminate who?* ((This signals a start of a heated argument))	28
Ovi:	Who discriminate who? ((Low, weak voice to question herself; Ovi seems to be helpless, does not know what to say. This is very interesting; the audience noisily follow the exchange between the two persons))	29
Edo:	I would like to know your comment. *Men discriminate women?* (.) A: If men discriminate women, Pak Sad, Pak Sad, >is it true< for Pak S ((the professor)), Edo, and all of us here to live with the inferior. Maybe it's you who are inferior, not all women= ((pointing at Ovi))	30
Ovi:	=It's not me=	31
Edo:	*Do we go together with those who are inferior?*	32
Ovi:	Ya, the woman who is your wife is as servant. Not as your leaders. ((laughter)) She wash your clothes, she cook your food… ((The audience are overexcited))	33
Edo:	Bu, Ovi. I read from a: psikologi wanita, that's, that a discrimination exists because women treat men as different. ((The discussion participants comment on the discussion noisily)) To me (.) you, you, women need me to pay attention to. But, because we don't pay attention to you, you consider us, consider us discriminate women.	34
Ovi:	I don't think so because men always chase women. Not women chase men. The ( ) is women not=	35
Edo:	*=Yeah, then there is no discrimination, actually.* ((Adi laughs followed by others))	36
☞		
Ovi:	(You just interpret this) Women are usually do the domestic, domestic work, ya. So that they have no voice in the public at all, ya. So, for example, they can make decision. Decision is always made by men, ya. This is a discrimination, ya.	37
Edo:	… because, this is is very stupid. Edo is very stupid, Bu Ovi. If he:: >what is it< try or work hard to catch for a woman, maybe, he can himself be considered intolerant. Subordinate, so stupid Edo is.	38
Ovi:	But, that's what happens. You want a friend, but your friend should not, should not a:: comment them, should not order them. A friend=	39
Edo:	=Do you, do you=	40

Ovi:	who do something, take care of your business=	41
Edo:	Frankly speaking, Bu Ovi, do you consider your husband, a: do, does your husband consider you as a servant?	42
Ovi:	I think it is privat, ya. You can get the answer from Pak Sad ((All participants are boisterous when commenting the argument. Finally, Ovi leaves the presentation and sits on a chair among other students to listen to the professor's comment)).	43

In this long excerpt, Edo, who is an Ambonesse working as an English lecturer at a university in Menado, expresses his disagreement with Ovi who previously states that language use in society shows a discrimination between men and women in the society and hints that the discrimination is done by men. Edo cannot accept her statement. To him, a discrimination does not really exist in the society; if it does exist, it is because someone sees others as different, and the 'one' here is a woman, including the presenter.

Edo articulates his different stance from Ovi, a Javanese female student married to a Padangese gentleman, by asking a question slowly with an emphatic stress, "*Bu Ovi, do you agree with me that discrimination does exist in our society*?" When this is agreed by Ovi, he asks a further question, "*Who discriminate who*?" This low pitched question uttered in his heavy voice makes those who hear it become frightened mixed with excited feelings for not knowing what to happen next. He puts forth another question, "*Men discriminate women?*" by framing it that he desires her comment on the matter. He concludes turn 30 by accusing Ovi as feeling inferior than men that makes her perceive the discrimination from men. "*Maybe it's you who are inferior, not all women*." He does this by pointing his fingers to Ovi. Here, Edo changes his footing from talking about something academically to talking about private, individual business. This degrades the quality of the academic discussion involving rational and intellectual capacity and shifts it into a non-academic debate exploiting emotions and feelings.

This is not all, Edo repeats his questions with another interrogation, "*Do we go together with those who are inferior?*" When this is responded by Ovi by raising Edo's personal matters, that is, that his wife has been his servant, "*She wash your clothes, she cook your food*" he stops questioning Ovi. He calms his voice and puts some accounts on his disagreement. However, this explanation is not accepted by Ovi; instead, she puts forward a reason which is not really connected to the matter being discussed. Edo then tries to offer a resolution which supports his stance, "*Ya, then there is no discrimination, actually.*" Again, it is rejected by Ovi; although she cannot provide a good rationale for her rejection.

In his last turn in this excerpt, Edo again launches a question, "*Frankly speaking, Bu Ovi, do you consider your husband, a: do, does your husband consider you as a servant?*" This is the climax of the aggravating questions which make Ovi leave her 'presenter chair' without answering the question and return back to her seat among the other students.

The disagreement expressed in a series of provoking questions finally results in Ovi's desperation to respond to the accusation and questions as apparent in turn 43. After defending her position against Edo's provoking questions for several times, she finally cannot stand the pressure. She gives up, shuts herself from further discussions and chooses to leave her position as a presenter. She lets the professor take over the forum. Edo's way of expressing disagreement cannot be equalized to any politeness strategy mentioned by Brown and Levinson (1987). This is sharper than Brown and Levinson's (1987) bald on record strategy.

B. Bald Disagreement

Excerpts 2 and 3 show bald strategies applied by the students in expressing disagreements. This kind of strategy is applied to send a message with maximum efficiency. The strategy is realized following Grice's maxims—maxim of quality, maxim of quantity, maxim of relevance and maxim of manner (Grice, 2001, p. 167-168). The bald disagreements are responded by another participant's disagreement (excerpt 2) and ignorance (excerpt 3).

Excerpt 2 (6/77)

Tia:	So that, I can also (manage) that the, the, it doesn't mean that if we teach a language, automatically we teach its culture also and I think that it's a common belief that we had, but actually it is not.	75
Koko:	Based on the finding	76
Tia:	The findings i:s, do *not* say so.	77
Ovi:	What about the small part of the culture? We teach language, we teach that small part of the culture. We teach our children breakfast.	
☞	"What do you have for breakfast?" And then, this is cultural thing.	78
Tia:	Ya, ya. [That's a small part of the culture.	79
Ovi:	[That's a small part of the culture (.)	80

In excerpt 2, Tia is exchanging ideas with Koko. Tia was raised and educated in Central Java. Unlike Tia, Koko is a Sumatranese male who grew up in Lahat and Palembang. Tia expresses her disagreement with Koko by openly negating Koko that what she has just said is based on the research finding. She cancels it out by saying that the findings do not contain the information about the inevitability of teaching culture in their language teaching. She negates Koko's conclusion mainly by putting the word 'not' in her sentence. She conveys her disagreements without prefacing her expressions with any redress action or giving explanation to ground her disagreement. Thus, by her disagreement, she just expresses that what she has said is her own conclusion of the paper.

Tia's disagreement in turn 77 is responded by Ovi by giving a rhetorical question, "*What about the small part of the culture?"* This is to preface her illustration that when they teach the word 'breakfast', they teach one part of a culture. Because what the western people have for breakfast is different from what the Indonesians generally have. When teaching about 'breakfast', the teacher should include the items for breakfast, and this is related to culture. Hence, Ovi responds to Tia's disagreement with Koko by putting forward her indirect disagreement through a rhetorical question.

Another disagreement expressed forthrightly without any redress action is apparent in Excerpt 3.

Excerpt 3 (12/34)

Koko:	Can, can we say that actually, Gun, Gu Gunarwan is fust, fust, frustrated=	31
Joni:	=frustrated	32
Koko:	Giving final, giving such a suggestion reflected that he is being frustrated, in this case=	33
Ais:	=No=	34
Joni:	=Maybe, maybe he is also right for one sense. He is a he is looking at people who teach. It's possible.	35
Koko:	Ya	36

In the data above, Ais—a Malangese female student—disagrees with Koko's attribution to the author of the article being discussed. In turn 33, Koko states that the writer gives a certain suggestion mentioned in the article, with which Koko does not agree, because he is frustrated. Ais's 'no' disagreement expression contradicts straightforwardly with Koko's attribution to the writer. The disagreement is expressed in a low voice when Koko asks Joni's opinion about the writer. Thus, the 'no' expressed by Ais occurs in the background of the conversation between Koko and Joni. As the presenter, Joni tries to explain that the author might be correct in one way without offending Koko by saying that he might also be right in another way. In the middle of such a conversation, Ais expresses her disagreement with a short 'no' and does not explain it any further because she realizes that if she continues, it will disturb the conversation between Koko and Joni.

In the previous studies of disagreements, this type of disagreement is called as "ungrounded disagreement" (Blum-Kulka et al., 2002, p. 1576) and "un-prefaced disagreement" (Kakava, 2002, p. 1555). However, there is a slight different emphasis on the naming of the disagreement as "ungrounded disagreement" and "un-prefaced disagreement". In Blum-Kulka et al.'s "ungrounded disagreement", the speaker does not provide his/her rejection to the prior utterances with an account on why he/she disagrees with the earlier speaker. Unlike Blum-Kulka et al.'s, Kakava's "un-prefaced disagreement" is used to show disagreements expressed without any prefatory talk which may alert the addressee with the upcoming disagreement(s) threatening his/her face. In the present study, the disagreements are expressed in bald strategies using 'not' and 'no' lexical items without any preface and/or explanation; hence, it is un-prefaced and ungrounded disagreements.

The two excerpts of bald, direct disagreements mentioned earlier, both expressed by the Javanese female students, are the only cases among many other cases of disagreements expressed using politeness strategies. The bald disagreements result in two responses. The first is a response from another student who questions the disagreement, and the second is ignoring from the two persons who are exchanging ideas. This but shows that Mori (1999), Pomerantz (1984), Sacks (1973), and Waring (2000 & 2001) are correct when arguing that a disagreement is a dispreferred response; therefore, to express it people need to redress it with politeness strategies.

C. Disagreeing by Acknowledging Peers

Acknowledging peers means showing that the speaker (S)'s desires are similar to the addressee's wants in one way or another. The strategies are applied by attending to hearer (H)'s points, intensifying opinions to H, seeking agreement, stressing common ground, joking, indicating understanding of H's wants, offering another opinion, including both S and H in the activity, giving or asking for reasons, and showing appreciation while expressing disagreement. This is similar to Nathan et al.'s (2007) study that students appear to need a shared understanding to express substantive disagreement through divergent views. In the current study, disagreements expressed using these strategies are responded by acceptance, partial acceptance, support, no response/topic shift, laughter/acceptance, undetermined response, neutralizer from another participant, and defense.

Excerpt 4 shows partial acceptance to the disagreement expressed by acknowledging peers.

Excerpt 4 (13/14)

Ovi:	Ya, first they ask the students to write essay on good teacher. So, a:: free response, free response and then after that they develop, maybe they develop this free response into questionnaire. Then, they give the questionnaire to the students, and then, this, this, I think this's the real sample who has to choose from the questionnaire, maybe. Maybe, it's like that. The essay:: These essays were then analyzed to find out how frequently different factors were mentioned for each of these three aspects of culture of learning ((reading from page 86)).	13

Koko: ☞	Oka::y, ya, okay, but the sample in this case, the results of those questionnaire, in general, I think, using the 5-point of the likert scale, here, on page <86> ya::, <starting from disagree, ya, for example a five point scale, ya> ((Ovi is speaking to Ais, Ais agrees with her, and Koko writes the 5-points of the scale on board)) maybe very agree or <strongly disagree> ya, strongly disagree <strongly disagree>. That's the likert scale. And also it's-a:::, it was effected part ( ) teachers, ya using chi-square, chi-square.	14

Excerpt 4 exemplifies partial acceptance of different stance expressed by acknowledging peers. The partial acceptance is signaled by the use of 'okay' in the first part of Koko's utterances followed by 'but…' phrase. This 'okay, but' pattern shows that the speaker accepts only some parts of the previous opinion.

D. Disagreeing by Asserting Vulnerability

The term 'asserting vulnerability' is borrowed from Waring (2001). She refers 'asserting vulnerability' to the kinds of utterances in which the speakers frame themselves as being vulnerably confused, uncertain, lost, not knowing, or admit that their arguments have been less than accurate, consistent, coherent, or plausible (p.39). In the current data, asserting vulnerability is realized by appealing and mitigating strategies. Appealing is applied to make minimal assumption about the addressee, while mitigating strategy is used to soften the disagreements so as to give the addressee an option whether to accept or refuse the disagreements, to minimize the threat, and to dissociate the addressee from a particular intrusion.

Disagreements expressed by asserting vulnerability are responded through acceptance, support, offering an account, support from another participant, neutralizer from another participant, undetermined response, support search, and refusal. An example of support from another participant as a response to this disagreeing strategy is shown in excerpt 5.

Excerpt 5 (14/12)

Koko: ☞	It's interesting actually, ya. When we talk about the uses of the findings, if we use the findings for teaching, maybe, ya, maybe, we can say useless, far useless. But, when we talk about language *in terms of* sociolinguistics perspective, you know that gender is one of the variables when we talk about sociolinguistics. It's very important, I think, it shows how gender influence the development in the civil society. When we talk about this, I think, people tend to make language, make language into >what's that< into sssex, or gender, gender inclusive, in this case. You know, another people not use chairman anymore, but chairperson. This this is the effect of this, this movement, I think. That's when we look this *in terms of* linguistics, sociolinguistics, in this case. But, *in terms of* teaching, yes, I do agree with Pak Adi we:::: if we want to relate this, maybe it is useless here. …	10
Ovi:	Ya, Pak Joni.	11
Joni: ☞	First of all, I want to say that this article is hard to understand, ya. To me, but, I heard from your explanation, then-a I come to ( ) in terms of the conclusion of this article. Ya, a: perhaps, I agree, but not totally. And then-a:: because I see, I see, and we have to see this also that such phenomenon a:: first of all linguistic, in terms of morphology. I happen to read, but not finish yet, about derivation ( ) cigarette. …	12

In the excerpt, Koko disagrees with Adi who disagrees with the presenter, that is, Ovi. So, Koko's disagreement with Adi functions to support the presenter and the article being presented. Koko's disagreement with Adi is not responded to by Adi, instead, it causes Joni to support Koko and, automatically, the presenter. In showing his support, Joni first admits that the article is difficult to understand. This is to hint to his interlocutor that his opinion might be incorrect. After that, he continues his utterances by saying, "*Ya, a: perhaps, I agree, but not totally*." With this, he prepares his interlocutor to hear his forthcoming utterances that contain his own opinion which is different from that of the interlocutor. In so doing, he shows his support to the ideas opposed by Adi without damaging Adi's face.

Excerpt 6 contains a contribution from another participant to neutralize the disagreement between the speaker and the addressee.

Excerpt 6 (12/13)

Joni: ☞	But, I don't think it is (the main reason), ya. A: maybe it is ( ) a: a, a I, *I believe what, believe Pak Gunarwan,* in some examples of a:: in terms of ( ) of using Indonesians instead of bahasa Inggris, English. I think, thi's not a::, <u>these</u> are not English. Then, the a: this brings a clear effect to who's writing that this contains. In terms of speaking, in terms of micro-politics, language itself, but, I don't think economic reasons may ( ) the purpose of Indonesian as the ( ) of economic=	13
Ais: ☞	=So. To me I agree that economy or politics have much influence on the count, countries, global countries who speak English, ya. We know that a: because these superpower countries, so, whether their politics, whether their economics, they are super. Now, so, I agree with ( ) Pak Pak Adi that <u>it is</u> because of that English becomes global. But, now, what can we do now for Indonesian people, ya? It is im<u>po</u>ssible to us t become superpower. Even until, >I don't know<, how many more years. So, you can add this, what, what, what the least thing that we can do and learn? This is the language, ya. So that we may become global and other countries will know us as a country, that there's a country named Indonesia. So, I think, I agree with Pak Gunarwan, <u>at least</u>, the least thing that we can do is learn English, use English. I think that's the point Pak.	14

In the excerpt, Ais stands as an arbiter between Joni and Adi who disagree with one another. Ais's utterances neutralize the un-ratified disagreement between the two people. She mediates the different positions by mentioning the

correct aspect of Adi's stance, "*I agree that economy or politics have much influence on the count, countries, global countries who speak English, ya…"* Besides mentioning the strength of Adi's position, she also reveals its flaws, *"But, now, what can we do now for Indonesian people, ya? It is impossible to us t become superpower...*" She uses this citation to direct her interlocutor to a good point that makes her agree with the author, Gunarwan, who is represented by the presenter, that is, Joni, "*So, I think, I agree with Pak Gunarwan, at least, the least thing that we can do is learn English, use English*." Thus, the un-ratified disagreement between Adi and Joni is responded to by Ais with a mediating talk.

E. Disagreeing Indirectly

In expressing disgreement indirectly, a speaker says something which is more general or actually different from what he/she means. He/she leaves it to the addressee to decide how to interpret it. By applying this strategy, the speaker wants to express his/her disagreement, which is an FTA, but does not want to take the responsibility for doing the FTA. The students convey their disagreements without any disagreeing head act or with a disagreeing head act which is directed to someone who is absent during the discussion session. Among the responses to indirect disagreements are disagreement emphasis, defense with an account, and topic shift.

Excerpt 7 shows an indirect disagreement responded with stronger disagreement expressed by the addressee.

Excerpt 7 (9/23)

Adi:	So, the focus here is this. A:: for example, for pronunciation of dog, this is an example. The: Japanese student are exposed to another varieties. The word dog is not completely the same in pronunciation…((giving examples of Indonesian' and Dutch's pronunciation of dog)). So, in this case, according to that kind of model, it is very important to introduce the students with the varieties. In, in Indonesia, for example, I don't know how many varieties of English. We can, we can teach not by hiring the teachers from Philippine, or from Malaysia, but we introduce it to the students with the varieties of local=	21
Ais: ☞	=*even local*	22
Adi: ☞	Local, for example, how Maduranese people speak English=	23
Ais:	=Their English is different from our English, yes.	
Adi:	For example, I ( ) when I studied in S1. My friend was from Situbondo, in which there was a Maduranese school there. …	

In excerpt 7, Adi who is indirectly disagreed by Ais does not perceive that Ais's statement is an expression of disagreement. Therefore, he repeats Ais's word 'local' with the same word and adds an emphasis on it and further example of it which stresses the difference between his and Ais's stance, "*Local, for example, how Maduranese people speak English*." Adi does not realize that his utterance in turn 23 enlarges the gap between his and Ais's opinion because Ais expresses her disagreement in turn 22 indirectly through presupposition. In fact, Adi applies a different presupposition from that of Ais's. This is the consequence of the application of an indirect strategy. The speaker, in this case Ais, leaves it to the addressee, Adi, on how to interpret her disagreement. Therefore, when Adi keeps on standing on his own position, even, he stresses the different stance, Ais finally adjusts her stance to his position by saying, "*Their English is different from our English, yes*."

IV. Discussion

The data show that the worst response is apparent when the disagreement is expressed in an aggravating manner. There are three reasons why the aggravated disagreement results in a communication deadlock. The first is that maintaining the addressee's face does not always become the first concern of the speaker. Spencer-Oatey (2000) explains that there are four face orientations of conversation participants: *rapport enhancement orientation* (the want to support and increase harmonious relationship), *rapport maintenance orientation* (the want to safeguard and preserve relationship), *rapport neglect orientation* (a lack of interest in the quality of the relationship between the interlocutors), and *rapport challenge orientation* (the concern to challenge or break the harmonious relationship).

When we see the data in Excerpt 1, we recognize that when expressing his disagreement with Ovi, Edo goes back and forth applying different face orientations. In 26, Edo applies rapport maintenance orientation; he says 'Do you agree…' to maintain good relationship between them. In 28-36, Edo uses rapport neglect orientation and rapport challenge orientation. Edo challenges Ovi with his question, "*Do we go together with those who are inferior?"* and his statements, for instance, "*Maybe it's you who are inferior, not all women*," stressed by using the pointing of his finger to Ovi. In 34, Edo neglects Ovi's feeling of being pressed with his challenges by saying, "*Bu, Ovi. I read from a: psikologi wanita, that's, that a discrimination exists because women treat men as different*…" When the argument reaches its climax in which Ovi still persists her position inspite of Edo's challenges, Edo changes the face orientation of his utterances. He tries to improve and fix the relationship by humbling himself as stupid, "…*this is is very stupid. Edo is very stupid, Bu Ovi*." He applies rapport enhancement orientation. Hence, the data do not support Brown and Levinson's (1987, p. 61) politeness theory suggesting that it is generally "in every participant's best interest to maintain each others' face". It is obvious from the data that Edo chooses to challenge Ovi in purpose and holds the four face orientations back and forth.

In Kakava's (2002, p. 1550-2) paper, disagreements expressed through provoked questions goes with or without endearment term. In the case of the use of endearment term, the figurative kinship term *paidaki mou* 'my little child' is uttered. In the data, the aggravated disagreement is expressed with respecting term of address 'Bu Ovi' and humbling oneself using '*this is is very stupid. Edo is very stupid'*. The term of address 'Bu' in this excerpt is applied not in the strategic sense as that of Brown and Levinson's (1987, p. 183) negative politeness. 'Bu' is applied in any situation, including the situation in which they are involved in a heated argument as apparent in the excerpt.

Edo's way of asking questions prior to expressing his disagreement is the same as that of an attorney in a courtroom as documented in Drew's (1998). The attorney uses a series of questions to imply an inconsistency in a witness's story. The attorney asks questions to which he knows the answer. This is similar to Edo's questions that he asks to contest her. In fact, she does not have a good account to reject what is stated by Edo in the following turn, "*Ya, then there is no discrimination, actually.*"

The second reason of the communication deadlock is that there is no mediator during the disputes. In this case, the presence of a mediator is in need. Had one of the participant served as a mediator, the communication breakdown would not have come into existence. A mediator is supposed to regulate the decision making procedure so as to empower the disputants to resolve their differences on their own (Jacobs, 2002). The mediator is neither judge nor advocate, but serves only to facilitate the discussion between the disputants, in this case, Edo and Ovi. In classroom discussions, this role is usually performed by a moderator. Since there is no moderator in the doctorate discussions, the role is vacant. Therefore, when the presenter has a dispute with the audience, no mediator can calm the situation and serve as the facilitator between the disputants.

Thus, to guarantee that the discussion process goes well, there should be a mediation process in the case of a dispute. The mediation process is widely described in terms of values such as self determination, private ordering, indigenously derived values, equality, open communication, cooperative dialogue, voluntary participation, or decision by consensus. Within this framework, the neutrality of the mediator is central to the mediation process (Jacobs, 2002). Neutrality covers the terms such as impartial, nonpartisan, equidistant, unbiased, fair, balanced, even-handed, unprejudiced, and equitable. In mediation, disputants usually argue, contradict, object, challenge, and, sometimes, openly disagree with one another on certain topics. On the contrary, mediator may not do the same things. The mediator should resist the impulse to agree or to disagree with one or the other party, to challenge or contradict, to refute or support certain position. If mediator was present in the disputes between Edo and Ovi, and he/she could persist on his/her neutrality, such a breakdown in communication as shown in 5.1 would not exist.

The third reason of the communication breakdown during the aggravated disagreement is that Ovi responds too seriously to Edo's challenge which is intended to tease her. She cannot manipulate and manage her feelings of being attacked. She bothers too much of Edo's judgment about her that makes her unable to realize that it is actually intended to make fun of her. This is possible because every person has certain desire to project certain image about him/herself which is sometimes not the quality that he/she has. When this desired image is destroyed by others, the person gets hurt. Hence, he/she tends to react defensively to the criticism that is congruent more with the private perception of him/herself but does not agree with the image that he/she wants to give of him/herself (Pan, 1992).

In short, the aggravated disagreement results in a frustration on the part of the addressee because of three reasons. The first is that the speaker does not always maintain the addressee's face. The second is that there is no mediator during the dispute, and the third is the fact that the addressee cannot manipulate and manage her own feelings of being attacked. The response to the aggravated disagreement in the form of communication deadlock cannot facilitate further learning from peers. Thus, it should be avoided and fixed for the sake of searching for a better understanding.

Unlike the aggravated disagreement, disagreements conveyed by acknowledging peers and asserting vulnerability may facilitate further learning. *Acceptance, partial acceptance* and *support* are positive responses shown by the addressee to disagreements expressed through peer acknowledgment. Disagreements through vulnerability assertion are also responded with some positive responses, that is, *acceptance, support, offer of an account, support from another participant,* and *neutralizer from another participant*. *Acceptance* and *partial acceptance* as responses show that the addressee is willing to learn from the speaker, thus, he/she revises his/her own position and is ready to listen from another party. Likewise, *support* to the disagreer is also a good attitude shown by the addressee that he/she is ready to evaluate him/herself and learn from others. *Offering an account* is also considered positive for learning since it means that the addressee is inviting the speaker to have a further dialogue which might open new possibilities for new perspectives. *Support from another participant* is a good attitude shown by another discussion participant that may lead to a further exchange of ideas. *Neutralizer from another participant* as a response to a disagreement can save the one who disagrees and another who is disagreed with from an unhealthy dispute. Thus, these kinds of responses may also facilitate learning.

These positive responses are not found as responses to disagreements expressed aggravatedly and baldly. Thus, learning is mostly facilitated by disagreements expressed through peer acknowledgment and vulnerability assertion. Therefore, the discussants are suggested to express their disagreement via peer acknowledgment and vulnerability assertion strategies.

Hence, the findings of the present research support the previous studies suggesting that a disagreement is a dispreferred response (Pomerantz, 1984; Mori, 1999; Waring, 2000 & 2001). This shows that harmony is stressed by

the students during the classroom discussions; therefore, when they should disagree with another party they do not only soften the disagreements, but also acknowledge another's point and indirectly state their different positions. They just cannot express their disagreements directly; they preface and conclude the difference in opinion by applying strategies that promote collaboration in search for better comprehension and harmony in interaction among the discussion participants. Therefore, when a disagreement is aggravated, a breakdown in communication occurs (such as that in excerpt 1).

The discussions occur in a doctorate classroom within a university in East Java, Indonesia. Four of the participants are Javanese, three other participants are Sumatranese, Ambonesse, and Kupangese. Among the Javanese students and non-Javanese students, there is no strategy typical for certain ethnic background. Aggravating, direct strategy is used by Edo who is an Ambonesse now working in Menado. The rests of the strategies, peer acknowledgment-direct strategy, vulnerability assertion-direct strategy, indirect strategy and mixed strategies are applied by both Javanese and non-Javanese students. Among the Javanese students, there is no uniform pattern of strategies applied in expressing disagreements. Ais, who is a native Malangese, and Tia, who grew up in Central Java, have a chance of applying bald-on, direct strategies. Meanwhile, Ovi who is also a native Malangese cannot stand to be disagreed intensively by Edo. Hence, ethnicity does not seem to play significant roles in strategy choice by the students during disagreements; individuals' ways of speaking are more apparent. Errington's (1985, p. 2) and Kartomiharjdo's (1981) statements that Indonesian people have experienced a 'Javanization' is not supported.

In the light of this view, the strategies applied by the students reflect the use of the strategies by Indonesian students regardless their ethnicity. In general, living in harmony is stressed in Indonesian society. As a collectivist society, the individuals in it are motivated to give priority to the goals of the collectives over their own personal goals (Triandis, 1995). Hence, the findings of the present study support the existing theory and research report that people's ways of speaking is influenced by values, norms and principles held by people in certain society (Chaika, 1982; Kartomihardjo, 1981 & 1988; Zaid, 1999).

The findings also highlight the previous study on schema of group seminar presentation introduction of Indonesian students speaking in English conducted by Thaib (1999). In Thaib's study, it is apparent that when opening their presentation, the students do not immediately introduce the topic of presentation to the audience. Instead, they thank the moderator/lecturer, send prayer to God/prophet, give background information before introducing the topic. This is different from that of the Australian student presentations where the presenters directly introduce the topic at the very first part of their presentation. This shows that when speaking in English, the Indonesian students still use Indonesian rhetorical structure of presentation; they do not adopt the English rhetorical structure of presentation.

A similar finding was apparent in Agar's (1991) data. He found out that his Austrian-descendant subject, who spent his life in the United States, spoke fluently his ancestor's language in terms of grammar and lexical variety. However, his American culture was clearly reflected in his communication. Thus, a foreign language has its own meanings and grammatical constructions which can fit to the culture of its users (Malcolm, 1996).

The findings of the present study and those of Thaib (1999), Agar (1991) and Malcolm (1996) prove that acculturation is not an easy one to undergo, especially in the context in which the language used is a foreign language, and not a second language. People sometimes get stuck at a level of "functional competence" when they have to master a great deal of language items, yet, they have not reached or surpassed the "acculturation threshold", that is, a certain threshold of communicative competence (Acton & de Felix, 1992, p. 21).

These strengthen what has been stated by Beardsmore (1982) that bilingualism and biculturalism do not have symmetrical relationship. He puts it in the following words:

It is perfectly feasible to learn a foreign language without acquiring any of the cultural attributes implicit in that language though the learner's resultant behaviour may appear somewhat strange to a native speaker of that language. Much of the friction across different linguistic communities can arise out of situations where speakers of two languages have acquired two sets of linguistic patterns but then proceed to use the second set with the cultural values of the first (Beardsmore, 1982, p. 20).

This means that the level of language acquisition does not always reflect the level of cultural acquisition. A bilingual person is not necessarily a bicultural individual.

V. Concluding Remarks

In summary, the politeness strategies applied by the doctorate English Program students in expressing their disagreements are influenced by collectivists' principles which emphasize harmony. Although the students speak English, their politeness strategies are not adopted from the English politeness principles. The politeness strategies applied are influenced by the cultural values existing in the collectivist society. Hence, becoming a bilingual is not necessarily becoming a bicultural, especially, in the context of a foreign language.

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A Closer Look at Reading Strategy Use in Reading Section of TOEFL iBT

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***Abstract*—This paper investigates any difference in employing Reading strategies, relates them to various item types of reading comprehension in TOEFL iBT (copyrighted by ETS, 2005). Sixty-six respondents (26 males and 40 females) participated in the present study. A list of reading strategies (adopted from Cohen & Upton, 2006), followed by a test of reading comprehension that took forty-five minutes to complete were used. Before the test begun, the participants were instructed how to specify the strategies that they employed during taking the test. To address the research question, the analyses of the results revealed that the difference is significant in the use of Reading strategies for various item types. On the basis of the findings language teachers are recommended to teach different Reading strategies in order to help TOEFL applicants to use them related to different item types more efficiently and effectively.**

***Index Terms*—test-taking strategies, reading strategies, TOEFL iBT, item types of reading section**

I. Introduction

One common way of documenting the language ability of post grade students is presenting a score in an internationally known test such as Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), International English Language Testing System (IELTS), Grade Recode Exam (GRE), etc. Since the 1990s, along with the increasing use of computer technology in language education and the rise in the accessibility of personal computers, making use of computer technology in development of language tests, the delivery and administration have been the focus of researchers. The evolutions in multimedia and web technologies suggest a good number of possibilities for designing and developing computer-based tests that are supposed to be more authentic and interactional than their paper and pencil counterparts (Bachman, 2000). As a tangible result of this evolutional process in late 2005, *Internet-Based Test (iBT)* was introduced to the language education contents in general, and testing centers in particular. It seems that the iBT being progressively replaced both Computer-based (CBT) and Paper-based (PBT) tests, although paper-based testing is still used in many areas around the world. Test takers often participate in test preparation courses they are going to do. One of the most common instructions in such courses is making the test takers familiar with strategies that proved to be effective in doing various types of tests such as vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension. A good number of studies explored the role of test takers' familiarity with test taking strategies in doing TOEFL (Nevo, 1989; Phakiti, 2003a). Very few studies have examined using Reading strategies in doing iBT. It seems that using Reading strategies in performance on iBT test in general, and in doing iBT reading comprehension test in particular, needs more investigation.

II. Literature Review

A. Previous Research on Strategy Use

The recent focus on different strategies in language education appears to change approaches to the teaching and learning process. The test-taking strategies have been referred to as “techniques, tactics, potentially conscious plans, consciously employed operations, learning skills, basic skills, functional skills, cognitive ability, language processing strategies, and problem-solving procedure” (Wenden, 1987, p. 7). Nitko (1983, p. 326) defines test-taking strategy as “a student’s ability to use the characteristics of both the test and the test situation to attain a higher score”.

Some strategies such as problem solving, grouping, matching, and etc. are common in everyday life. McDonough (1999) argues that strategies that have been used by learners sometimes are not directly related to language learning but are characteristic features of the human brain.

Early references to strategic competence as a part of communicative language use (Canale & Swain, 1980) emphasize on "compensatory" strategies—which are defined as strategies used to compensate or remediate lacks in some areas. Language use strategies have been defined as the mental actions or processes, which learners consciously select when completing language tasks. These strategies also include test-taking strategies when they are applied to

tasks in language tests. Test-taking strategies according to Cohen (1994, p. 92) are "test-taking processes that the respondents have selected and of which they are conscious, at least to some degree". In other words, the notion of strategy implies an element of selection. Otherwise, the processes would not be considered strategies.

Having believed that strategies vary according to context, Cohen (1994, p. 92) believes that:

One strategy is to *opt out* of the language task at hand (e.g., through a surface matching of identical information in the passage and in one of the response choices). Another is to use shortcuts to arrive at answers (e.g., not reading the text as instructed but simply looking immediately for the answers to the given reading comprehension questions). In such cases, the respondents may be using test-wiseness to circumvent the need to tap their actual language knowledge or lack of it.

In a study on multiple-choice reading tests, McDonough (1995) examined a number of strategies which let the reader come to the right answer without actually knowing it from internal linguistic evidence. He found that the students would be allowed to get the right answer for the wrong reasons. As a matter of fact, "the surface matching of test item stem and reading passage, or clues even in the stem itself which matched with one of the options" (McDonough, 1995, p. 109).

B. Previous Research on Strategy Use and Reading Comprehension

Reading, from cognitive perspective, has been defined as a conversation between author and reader with the construction of meaning from written or printed text. Zhi-hong (2007) states that “there are many factors influencing reading comprehension such as reader’s characteristics, nature of reading materials, and reading tasks, etc”. Tyner (2004) indicates that “Early reading success…is the cornerstone upon which knowledge, self-esteem, and future educational opportunities are built” (Tyner, 2004, p. 1). “Reading is fundamental to success in life. [It] opens the door to virtually all other learning” (Zimmermann, 2004, p. 4). Reading is defined as “a complex process that brings together a reader and a text. It allows the reader to bring together many strategies to aid in competency” (Fountas & Pinnell, 1999, p. 4). Reading is an unobservable mental behavior and generally regarded as inaccessible sources of data to researchers. Namely, reading research is classified into two categories *process-oriented* and *product-oriented*. Recent research in reading comprehension has focused on the process of reading which is defined as examining the psycholinguistic process.

Alderson (2000) believes that reading is, first and foremost, a purposeful activity. The purpose for reading influences the reader's type of involvement with the text. However, several elements can be considered for succeeding the reading process at any purpose of reading. Some other researchers such as Rumelhart (1980), Stanovich (1980), Anderson and Pearson (1984), Carrell (1984), Aebersold and Field (1997) have discussed that the integrated comprehension of a text relied on the "fluid, accurate, and efficient application of bottom-up processes (Rupp, Ferne, & Choi, 2006, p. 444).

Nunan (1999) makes distinction between receptive (reading and listening) and productive (writing and speaking) skills. Receptive skills, as essential skills, are considered the only way to receive the knowledge of one language and shape the required competence. A pertinent point to note that speaking and writing depend upon reading and listening. In this regard having written and spoken forms of language associate with only and only have any competence of reading or listening.

During the last 70 years, there have been growing bodies of research on standardized reading tests to measure comprehension (Segel, 1986). Cohen (1980) states that different methods and techniques such as open-ended questions, cloze, true/false, sentence completion, summary and multiple- choice can be used to assess reading comprehension. Very common of these methods is multiple-choice format in standardized reading tests. This format has also been mostly criticized, because the respondents reach the correct answers more than one way and can be recognizable "without actually understanding the text and without any judgmental activity in selecting the correct response" (Klein-Braley, as cited in Nevo, 1989, p. 201).

Having reviewed the research on the use of problem-solving strategies in the test, Messick (1989, p. 54) states that" different individuals performed the same task in different ways and … the same individual might perform in a different manner across items or on different occasions". It is important to recognize that strategies and a group of skills can be used to facilitate test of reading comprehension. A distinction was made between reading strategies and reading skills, because there was a great deal of overlap in what was called reading skill and reading strategies (e.g. Wenden & Rubin, 1987; Alderson, 2000; Grabe, 2000).

Rupp *et al.* (2006, p. 447) defined skills as "typically considered to be automatic internalized reading abilities possessed by learners, which consciously facilitated their reading comprehension in both non-testing situations", by contrast strategies referred to "conscious techniques and tactics deliberately employed by a reader for successful reading such as the use of a dictionary, the underlining of key words, or the skimming and scanning of certain sections" (e.g. Clarke, 1979; Barnett, 1989; Anderson, et al., 1991; Aebersold & Field, 1997; Alderson, 2000; Birch, 2002; Kitao & Kitao, 2002).

Some other studies in the area of reading comprehension have found that the readers adjusted their strategies and engaged themselves in a comprehension process that seemed more to suit their reading purpose. Undoubtedly, reaching a correct answer in replying to multiple-choice items in a reading text makes the test-takers select strategies to increase their chance for success and to answer the items correctly (Van Dijk, 1985; Goldman, 1997; Alderson, 2000). Some studies have focused on strategies used to answer more traditional “single selection” multiple-choice formats (i.e., basic

comprehension and inferencing questions) versus the new selected-response (multiple selection, drag-and-drop) *reading to learn* items. The latter were designed to simulate the academic task of forming a comprehensive and coherent representation of a whole text, rather than focusing on discrete points in the text.

A TOEFL Monograph outlines three main perspectives for understanding the nature of reading comprehension as: the task perspective, the processing perspective, and the reader purpose perspective (Enright, Grabe, Koda, Mosenthal, Mulcahy-Ernt, & Schedl, 2000).

Enright and Schedl (2000, p. 4) review the three perspectives, in their ETS report, namely "Reading for a Reason: Using Reader Purpose to Guide Test Design, considered the reader purpose perspective, which describes reading in terms of the coordinated application of knowledge and processes to a text or texts in the service of a goal or purpose", as representing the best model for assessment design. The reader purpose perspective identifies that the reading process is more an individual, cognitive process, what Bernhardt (as cited in Cohen & Upton, 2007, p. 210) has called "an intrapersonal problem-solving task".

The degree of success in reading, from this perspective, functions in task characteristics as well as reader's knowledge and personal abilities. Other studies have shown that performance varied in reading comprehension. Cohen and Upton (2007) stated that the performance variation in reading comprehension occurred due to individual differences in linguistic knowledge and general and domain-specific background knowledge.

C. Reading Strategies

The explosion of research in second language reading has begun to focus on reading strategies. Singhal (2001, p. 1) believes that "reading strategies are of interest for the way readers manage their interaction with written text and how these strategies are related to the text comprehension". In this regard, in order to enhance comprehension, while reading, the readers attempt to make different adjustment and repair through the comprehension process. Carrell and Grabe (2002, p. 234) stated that "a reader engages in processing at the phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and discourse levels, as well as engages in goal setting, text-summary building, interpretive elaborating from knowledge resources, monitoring and assessment of goal achievement".

Williams and Moran (1989) stated that much of the reading process is "automatic" in nature, which is defined as reading skill upon the conscious authority. William and Moran (1989, p. 223) indicate that "the readers did exert a significant level of active control over their reading process through the use of strategies, which are conscious procedures that are deliberate and purposeful" (Williams & Moran, 1989; Urquhart & Weir, 1998). Other studies in this area have shown that the reading process was general, subconscious or unconscious, and more automatic, however strategies were subject to control, more intentional, and used to act upon the processes (Also see Cohen & Upton, 2006; Cohen, 2005).

Analyzing reading strategies as a problem-solving process gives an insight as to "how readers interact with text and how their choice of strategies influences their comprehension of the text" (Cohen & Upton, 2006, p. 2). Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) have classified reading strategies into three broad categories: (1) planning and identifying strategies which help in constructing the meaning of the text; (2) monitoring strategies which serve to regulate comprehension and learning; and (3) evaluating strategies by which readers reflect or respond in some way to the text. Various other studies in the area of second language reading have shown that second language readers drew on this same array of reading strategies (Upton & Lee-Thompson, 2001; Carrell & Grabe, 2002). In short, reading strategies are processes used by test-takers to enhance reading comprehension and overcome comprehension failures.

III. Research Question

The present study aims to answer the following research question:

1. Is there any significant difference in the use of Reading strategies for different item types in a test of reading comprehension?

IV. Method

A. Participants

Sixty-six respondents (26 males and 40 females) participated in the present study. They were in third year of their study in English Language and Literature at the University of Tehran. As for age range, field of study and nationality, none were the main concern of the present study.

B. Instrumentation

To achieve the purpose of the study two kinds of instruments were used in the present study. 1) A sample test of a reading comprehension of TOEFL iBT, 2) A checklist of using strategies. An account of each instrument appears in the following sections.

a. Reading Comprehension Test

The Next Generation TOEFL, a new, internet-based version of the Test of English as a Foreign Language developed by the Educational Testing Service (ETS), included both traditional (Basic comprehension) and new (Reading to Learn

and Inferencing) item types. One section of the new test of TOEFL iBT specifically focuses on academic reading skills. Generally, reading section in the TOEFL iBT includes three passages, with thirty-nine questions. The passages are relatively lengthy (each passage is between 600 to 700 words) on academic topics.

The new TOEFL reading section uses three general item types to evaluate the reader's level of proficiency to accomplish academic reading tasks: Basic Comprehension items, Inferencing items, and Reading to Learn items (Cohen & Upton, 2006). ETS extended for a total of ten different item types and defined five different types of Basic Comprehension items, three different types of Inferencing items, and two different types of Reading to Learn items.

Since the actual test of iBT was not available, it was decided to use the sample test of TOEFL iBT reading comprehension section (ETS, 2005). In the present study two out of three passages (22 items) of the Reading section of new TOEFL *Next Generation*, which contain all three general item types and specifically covered all ten different item types of TOEFL iBT were used.

b. A Check-list of Strategies

Among various questionnaires and checklists, for example, Nevo (1989), Purpura (1999), Phakiti (2003a, b), Cohen and Upton (2006), it was decided to adopt the checklist of the strategy which was used by Cohen and Upton (2006). The checklist consists of three types of strategies: Reading strategies, Test-management strategies, and Test-wiseness strategies. In this study the first part –Reading strategies (R) — was used. It is worth mentioning that the original checklist in 2006 was in paper-and-pencil format and used in the verbal report approach, while the adopted checklist in the present study was administered and programmed as computer software which was attached and performed just after the reading test.

C. Data Analysis

Some efforts were made in analyzing the data to bring statements in order to find out any significant difference in the use of strategies and item types. The main variable in this study, i.e., strategy and item types, were considered as nominal scales. In this case, the complexity of final results made the researcher to use statistical measures that typically run on nominal variables. The use of an appropriate statistical procedure, via probability, gives confidence to the researcher's claims that the results support the hypothesis. In this regard, this confidence would be established when an appropriate choice of statistical procedure is utilized. Non-parametric procedure is one which does not make strong assumptions about the shape of the distribution of the data (see Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991).

The test of normal distribution upon the data revealed a skewed rather than a normal, bell-shaped distribution.

Another assumption is what non-parametric tests apply to the data that are nominal and rank-ordered (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). In the present study the data was ranked ordered and the variables were nominal. As a result, this assumption also has been met with the data. In the present research aims at reaching the answer of research question, non-parametric test of Friedman was assumed as the appropriate statistical procedures. Moreover, a significance level of 0.05 ($p<0.05$) was set.

V. Results and Discussions

A. Reading Strategies and Item types

In order to find a difference in using different strategies in doing reading section of TOEFL iBT, the analysis of Reading strategies with different item types will be discussed in detail in the following section. Before going through the details of analyzing each strategy via item types, a total Friedman test was conducted on Reading strategies and the item types. Results of the analysis indicated that the difference in the use of Reading strategies and item types was significant. Results show that the difference is significant (χ^2 (9) = 667.575, p= 0.00). In order to confirm the results which were taken in total investigation tests, a series of Friedman tests were run for each Reading strategy. As a matter of fact, these Friedman tests were conducted with the aim of interpreting each reading strategy via item types. The results of the Friedman test are presented in Tables 1. and 2.

TABLE 1
FRIEDMAN TEST FOR READING STRATEGIES ACROSS ITEM TYPES

Reading Strategies (R)		Friedman Chi-square(χ^2)	Asymp.sig.
	R1	11.99	0.21
	R2	52.57	0.00
	R3	62.03	0.00
	R4	20.63	0.01
	R5	16.49	0.05
	R6	40.00	0.00
	R7	63.64	0.00
	R8	28.63	0.00
	R9	22.74	0.00
	R10	57.40	0.00
	R11	18.70	0.02
	R12	20.11	0.01
	R13	11.53	0.24
	R14	26.41	0.00
	R15	14.74	0.09
	R16	20.36	0.01
	R17	13.94	0.12
	R18	38.21	0.00
	R19	10.94	0.28
	R20	42.07	0.00
	R21	16.87	0.05
	R22	21.67	0.01
	R23	15.98	0.06
	R24	27.66	0.00
	R25	26.78	0.00
	R26	36.95	0.00
	R27	38.42	0.00
	R28	53.81	0.00

* df = 9

TABLE 2
PERCENTAGE OF FREQUENCY FOR READING STRATEGIES ACROSS ITEM TYPES

Reading Strategies (R)	Item Types									
	BC-v	BC-f	BC-n/e	BC-pr	BC-ss	I	I-it	I-rp	R2L-ps	R2L-st
R1	8.43	7.9	11.59	11.06	10.54	10.18	6.32	10.8	15.8	7.37
R2	10.11	10.96	10.96	9.27	13.06	14.89	5.06	13.06	9.27	3.37
R3	23.82	10.53	8.86	6.65	11.63	7.76	2.77	8.03	12.19	7.76
R4	7.74	10.69	12.53	8.11	9.21	9.34	7.37	9.21	18.43	7.37
R5	9.49	9.28	7.59	9.7	8.44	10.97	8.02	9.49	16.88	10.13
R6	9.45	10.76	12.22	12.51	10.47	11.44	10.47	11.05	8.73	2.91
R7	11.46	12.53	12.22	10.08	14.36	11.41	8.86	11.15	6.11	1.83
R8	15.21	12.04	11.4	8.24	11.4	10.98	10.14	9.19	6.34	5.07
R9	10.84	10.06	9.29	11.61	7.74	12.9	10.06	12	12.39	3.1
R10	21.07	9.27	3.37	10.11	15.17	8.99	5.9	9.27	13.48	3.37
R11	11.25	13.06	7.26	8.71	14.51	11.12	8.71	10.88	8.71	5.8
R12	8.17	9.57	11.16	11.56	8.77	11.69	7.97	12.76	11.96	6.38
R13	7.53	10.04	7.03	10.04	10.54	11.38	10.04	10.29	15.06	8.03
R14	6.99	8.99	15.97	9.48	7.49	12.65	4.99	11.48	15.97	5.99
R15	7.19	11.5	13.42	8.63	11.5	10.86	11.5	10.06	8.63	6.71
R16	6.91	15.08	10.05	10.05	8.17	12.98	9.42	10.99	8.8	7.54
R17	6.88	12.82	15.19	6.65	7.12	8.86	9.49	12.1	11.39	9.49
R18	14.86	6.91	11.06	11.75	11.75	12.9	6.91	10.02	12.44	1.38
R19	9.8	10.78	12.75	10.29	10.78	9.8	4.9	10.29	9.8	10.78
R20	7.63	12.85	11.24	13.25	9.64	12.85	6.83	11.24	11.24	3.21
R21	7.59	11.64	16.19	9.61	10.62	10.46	5.06	9.61	13.15	6.07
R22	7.08	7.08	10.89	13.07	10.89	10.16	11.98	12.52	8.71	7.62
R23	9.35	13.36	10.69	11.22	13.36	9.97	8.01	9.08	8.55	6.41
R24	9.87	10.76	14.35	11.21	6.73	12.56	8.07	11.21	8.97	6.28
R25	8.19	9.19	14.38	8.39	8.39	13.32	10.39	10.99	11.19	5.59
R26	10.5	6.77	10.84	10.84	17.61	8.58	10.16	12.53	6.77	5.42
R27	15.5	10.33	8.86	11.81	14.76	8.86	8.86	9.23	8.86	2.95
R28	21.81	8.85	8.85	10.12	10.12	10.54	6.32	9.48	7.59	6.32

* The digits represent the percentage of weighted scores.
** (BC-v): Basic Comprehension-vocabulary,
(BC-f): Basic Comprehension - fact,
(BC-n/e): Basic Comprehension -not/except,
(BC-pr): Basic Comprehension -pronoun reference,
(BC-ss): Basic Comprehension -sentence simplification–
(I): Inferencing-basic inference,
(I-it): Inferencing-insert text,
(I-rp): Inferencing-rhetorical purpose–
(R2L-ps): Reading to Learn- prose summary,
(R2L-st): Reading to Learn- schematic table

In the following paragraph relevant descriptive accounts of Reading strategies across different item types will be presented. The results of non-parametric test for Reading strategies revealed that there is significant difference in the use of twenty out of twenty-eight reading strategies. In other word the usage of different Reading strategies in various item types wouldn't be the same.

In detail, the result of Friedman test for strategies (R2), *makes a mental note of what is learned from the pre-reading* with (χ^2 (9) = 52.572, p= 0.00), and R3:*considering prior knowledge of the topic* with χ^2 (9) = 62.033, p=0.00 indicated that the difference is significant. For instance, R4: *reads the whole passage carefully* which is associated with items requiring comprehending longer texts, and connecting the detailed provided information to the whole. Reading to Learn item type, those items which need more thoughts like R2L-ps, would be the right alternative for R4. The table of percentages (see Table 2) shows that the use of R4 was mostly related to BC-f, B-.n/e, BC-ss, I, I-rp, and R2L-ps (69%). Interestingly, as it was predicted the R2L-ps with 18.43 percent belongs the highest percentage score. In addition, the strategy rejects the null hypothesis with the significant difference (χ^2 (9) = 20.639, p= 0.014).

The Friedman test brought up this outcome for strategies R6 (*reads a portion of the passage carefully*) and R7 (*reads a portion of the passage rapidly looking for specific information*), which may recall those item types with targeted pronouns, facts, inferencing or rhetorical purposes, that there is a significant difference in using R6 and R7 in various item types with (χ^2 (9) = 40.009, p= 0.00) and (χ^2 (9) = 63.642, p= 0.00). Also, strategy number eight (R8) *looks for markers of meaning in the passage (e.g., definitions, examples, indicators of key ideas, guides to paragraph development)* seems to go with Inferencing and Basic Comprehension item types. As it was mentioned by Cohen and Upton (2006), Inferencing and Basic Comprehension items required attention to textual clues, markers of cohesion, and finding factual information. Conclusively, the idea about R8 was supported by the percentage of frequency. It is proven that the usage of R8 mainly associated with BC-v, BC-f, BC-n/e, BC-ss, I, and I-it with 71.17% among all item types. The statistical result also showed that there is a significant difference in the use of R8 (χ^2 (9) = 28.636, p= 0.001).

Moreover, the results of non-parametric test for strategies R9 (χ^2 (9) = 22.741, p= 0.007), R10 (χ^2 (9) = 57.409, p= 0.000), R11 (χ^2 (9) = 18.704, p= 0.028), and R12 (χ^2 (9) = 20.118, p= 0.017) showed a significant difference in employing the intended strategies in various item types. In addition, strategy fourteen (*during reading, monitor understanding of the passage/portion's discourse structure (e.g., compare/contrast, description, definition)* discusses comprehension of an implied idea which is not expressed explicitly in the texts. Indeed, the participants are required to use their power of inferencing particularly in understanding the rhetorical purposes or in inserting the lexical, grammatical or logical links to the passage. Confirming the claim, the main use of R14 has been seen in R2L-ps and BC-n/e each with 15.97%, I with 12.65% and I-rp with 11.48%. Also, the Friedman test showed that there is a significant difference in using R14 for different item types (χ^2 (9) = 26.419, p= 0.002).

The Friedman test for the sixteenth (χ^2 (9) = 20.365, p= 0.016) and the eighteenth strategy (χ^2 (9) = 38.210, p= 0.000) showed a significant difference in them. Also, strategy twenty (*looks for sentences that convey the main ideas)* asserts that respondents should be searching for the main idea at sentence level. All item types have a sort of participation in discourse structure of questions. To confirm the claim, the highest percentage belongs to Bc.pr with 13.25%, BC-f and I each with 12.85% and I-rp, R2L-ps, and BC-n/e each with 11.24% (see Table 2.) Furthermore, it is interpretable that there is a significant difference for different item types (χ^2 (9) = 42.076, p= 0.000). The next strategy which had significant difference (χ^2 (9) = 21.67, p= 0.01) is R22. Regarding the definition of R22, it seems to be more compatible with item type BC-pr and R2L-ps. It can be justifiable that R2L-ps measures the ability of respondents to identify the main idea and relative information. The relative ideas should be taken out from each paragraph and associated in table, in order to reveal how the lines are intertwined in the paragraphs (see Table 2.). Also table 1. shows that the difference in strategies number R24, R25, R26, R27, and R28 is significant.

In order to elaborate on rejected reading strategies, ones with significant difference, and to compare them through the TOEFL item types, some Friedman tests were conducted. In order to make a comparison between different item types in any of the rejected Reading strategies, a specific statistical procedure was computed.

The following tables attempt to go through the rejected Reading strategies and aim to show the more similar item types in the intended strategies. Overall, research findings showed that sometimes some item types act more similarly or differently. Similar item types for the rejected reading strategies will be grouped in the following tables.

B. Grouping Item Types for Reading Strategies

TABLE 3
GROUPING ITEM TYPES FOR R2, R8, R9, R12, R14, R20, R25, AND R27

R2, R8, R9, R12, R14, R20, R25, & R27									
BC-v	BC-f	BC-n/e	BC-pr	BC-ss	I	I-it	I-rp	R2L-ps	R2L-st

The result shows that all ten item types acted differently in the rejected strategies number R2, R8, R9, R12, R14, R20, R25, and R27. It is interpretable that the performance of each item type is not much the same.

TABLE 4
GROUPING ITEM TYPES FOR R3

R3								
BC-v	BC-f	BC-n/e	BC-pr	BC-ss	I-it	I-rp	R2L-st	I R2L-ps

It can be concluded that two item types (I & R2L-ps) act similarly. As a matter of fact, the tendency of using R3 in the two item types is more considerable in comparison with the other item types. It is important to recognize that the ten groups of item types changed into nine. It is recognizable that if any item type has been made a group, I and R2L-ps will make one.

TABLE 5
GROUPING ITEM TYPES FOR R4

R4								
BC-v	BC-f I	BC-n/e	BC-pr	BC-ss	I-it	I-rp	R2L-ps	R2L-st

Table 5 shows there is little to choose between BC-f and I. It can be claimed that these two item types act more similarly toward R4.

TABLE 6
GROUPING ITEM TYPES FOR R6

R6							
BC-v	BC-f BC-n/e BC-pr	BC-ss	I	I-it	I-rp	R2L-ps	R2L-st

Item types BC-f with BC-n/e, BC-f with BC.pr, and BC-n/e with BC.pr have a similar interaction toward R6. In other words, BC-f, BC-n/e, and BC.pr have a rather similar performance in R6 and it is possible to set them in one group. The ten groups of item types turn into eight.

TABLE 7
GROUPING ITEM TYPES FOR R7

R7								
BC-v	BC-f I-rp	BC-n/e	BC-pr	BC-ss	I	I-it	R2L-ps	R2L-st

In R7 the BC-f and I-rp have a similar performance in strategy number seven.

TABLE8
GROUPING ITEM TYPES FOR R10

R10								
BC-v	BC-f	BC-n/e R2L-st	BC-pr	BC-ss	I	I-it	I-rp	R2L-ps

Among all item types, it is revealed that in R10 two item types, BC-n/e and R2L-st are apt to act similarly. It can be stated that BC-n/e and R2L-st are laid in one group; however, they are belonging to two different and dissimilar categories, Basic Comprehension and Reading to Learn.

TABLE 9
GROUPING ITEM TYPES FOR R11

R11							
BC-v I BC-f	BC-n/e	BC-pr	BC-ss	I-it	I-rp	R2L-ps	R2L-st

As Table 9 shows, on one hand, item type I takes much the same action as BC-v does, and on the other hand, it has the similar interaction with Basic Comprehension-fact toward R11. It is concluded that the performance of item type I is similar to BC-v and BC-f, but not BC-v and BC-f.

TABLE 10
GROUPING ITEM TYPES FOR R16

R16							
BC-v BC-pr	BC-f	BC-n/e	I I-rp	BC-ss	I-it	R2L-ps	R2L-st

TABLE 11
GROUPING ITEM TYPES FOR R18

R18							
BC-v BC-pr	BC-f	BC-n/e	I I-rp	BC-ss	I-it	R2L-ps	R2L-st

Tables 10. and 11 can be interpreted the same. With regard to the obtained results item types BC-v and BC-pr on one hand, and I and I-rp on the other hand act more similarly in the use of R16 and R18.

TABLE 12
GROUPING ITEM TYPES FOR R22

R22							
BC-v BC-n/e	BC-f	BC-pr	BC-ss I-rp	I	I-it	R2L-ps	R2L-st

The Friedman test revealed that there is significant difference in the use of R22 for item types. But which item type exactly? Results in Table 12 show that four item types, BC-v, BC-n/e, BC-ss, and I-rp perform similarly in R22. Considering the results, BC-v and BC-n/e act similarly while, BC-ss and I-rp do the same. In this case, four item types are put in two different groups and ten groups are turned into eight.

TABLE 13
GROUPING ITEM TYPES FOR R24

R24								
BC-v BC-ss	BC-f	BC-n/e	BC-pr	I	I-it	I-rp	R2L-ps	R2L-st

The same interpretation would be extended about reading strategy number twenty four. The two item types BC-v and BC-ss, in R24 act as being two of a kind and get involved in the same group. Whereas, other remaining item types acted differently in R24.

TABLE 14
GROUPING ITEM TYPES FOR R26

R26								
BC-v	BC-f	BC-n/e	BC-pr I-rp	BC-ss	I	I-it	R2L-ps R2L-st	

On one hand, BC-pr and I-rp, and on the other R2L-ps and R2L-st have a similar performance in R26. A pertinent point to note; in essence, strategy number 26 (*verifies the referent of a pronoun*) as it was discussed before, goes with BC-pr. While the remarkable result revealed that BC-pr and I-rp act similarly in R26.

TABLE 15
GROUPING ITEM TYPES FOR R28

R28							
BC-v	BC-f BC-pr	BC-n/e	BC-ss	I	I-it R2L-ps	I-rp	R2L-st

As Table 15 informs, BC-f and BC-pr in one way and I-it and R2L-ps in other way act similarly and form groups of two.

From the above findings of research in Reading strategies, it becomes clear that all the item types were employed in the rejected reading strategies but some of them acted more similarly in the specific strategy.

VI. Conclusions and Suggestions for Further Research

The present study investigated differences in test-taking strategies use in the reading test context. It has provided empirical evidence that employing Reading strategies play a significant role in the test of reading comprehension of TOEFL iBT.

A. Limitations and Delimitations

a. The test administered to the participants of this study was a low-stakes test task as their score did not have any sort of impact on their educational profile. In that case, for the test-takers the conditions were different from those in place when they actually take the TOEFL test.

b. No distinction was made between strategies used for test items that were answered accurately contrary to those answered inaccurately. Considering this variable might provide us with a clearer picture concerning the test takers' effectiveness of their strategy use.

c. The participants were Iranian junior students at the B.A level. All the participants in the present study have had the same first linguistic background. Using the same approaches in the present study is quite promising area to the students with different first linguistic background.

d. The checklist in the present study was adopted from Cohen and Upton (2006) which was more suitable for think aloud procedures in the reading comprehension test of TOEFL iBT. But it was ignored because of time related constraints.

B. Suggestions for Further Research

Due to the cyclical nature of any research more questions tend to be raised than are answered. In the established tradition of scientific inquiry this section offers several suggestions for future researchers to utilize in investigating the different areas.

a. This study analyzed test-taking strategies in the reading section of TOEFL iBT. The same procedure can be replicated in analyzing other skills of language writing (Cumming et al., 2000), speaking (Butler et al., 2000), and listening (Douglas et al., 2000).

b. To make the research manageable, this study investigated reading strategies through the checklist of strategies. The same procedure can be practiced through protocol analysis and verbal reports, specifically, think-aloud (Cohen & Upton, 2006).

c. The sample size of this research was 66 EFL, a low-stakes research. A high-stakes community in a larger size might be deployed to analyze and test the research questions of study.

d. Another way of extending the present research would be an idea of construct validity and item analysis (Anderson, et al., 1991; Alavi, 2005). This area is quite a promising area to be probed by Iranian researchers.

e. Furthermore, variables of age and field of study are quite promising areas and could be investigated. But, in the present study the age and field of study were ignored because of the time related constrains and study constrictions.

f. All the participants in the present study have had the same first language background knowledge. Another way to conduct the present research may be considered in the light of sociolinguistics. The same approaches in the present study probably applicable to other students with a different first language, such as Turkish, Armenian, and Hebrew in Iran may be carried out. This would be an attempt to explain how test-takers use their sources of language especially using L1 in their verbal report (Nevo, 1989).

C. Conclusions

The underlying goal of this study was to gain a better understanding of how Reading strategies are used by test-takers in the reading section of TOEFL iBT (Cohen & Upton, 2006; Phakiti, 2003a, b; Purpura, 1997, 1999). The focus was on the strategies that the participants (26 male and 40 females) used in producing answers of the reading comprehension of iBT. The basic assumption being made in this study is that the number of Reading strategies which participants used in taking test is different in ten item types of reading section. To summarize the findings of this study in terms of research question, the results did not confirm hypothesis, which predicted that using Reading strategies would not be different in various item types of reading section of TOEFL iBT. In terms of item types, it is found that strategies number R2, R8, R9, R12, R14, R20, R25, and R27 to be treated differently in the Reading strategies. Whereas, the use of strategies number R3, R4, R6, R7, R10, R11, R16, R18, R22, R24, R26, and R28 was similar in doing item types. In this vein, this study, suggests a need for more research into different learning potentials and test-taking skills stimulated by various using strategies.

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A Pragmatic Analysis of Victory and Inaugural Speeches of President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua

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***Abstract*—The study was conducted to identify the speech acts features of President Umaru Yar'Adua's Victory and Inaugural Speeches. Hence, the study focused on the pragmatic functions of locution, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts of the speeches. This was done with a view to determine the global pattern of pragmatic moves of the selected political speeches. The data were drawn from the Victory speech and Inaugural Speech and analyzed following the Speech Act theory of Austin (1962) and Searle (1969). The tabular presentations of the analysis were drawn showing the relative frequencies of the speech acts and percentages. Twenty (20) sentences were obtained from the speeches, from which forty(40) speech acts (direct and indirect illocutionary acts) were obtained. The findings showed that the Overall Relative Frequency Percentages (ORFPs) for the selected speeches of Umaru Musa Yar'Adua were: assertive-60%, directive-35%, expressive-15%, verdictive-40%, commisive-30%, and declarative-20%. These ORFPs results showed that Umaru Musa Yar'Adua relied more on sentences that performed assertive acts than other speech acts. He used the sentences that were vindictive and directive to assert his authority and exercise his power as the President. Sentences that were expressive had the least ORFP; hence, it was observed that the President exploited less of sentences which were meant for indicating the sincerity of his intentions. The Speech Act analysis of the political discourses of Umaru Musa Yar'Adua provided the understanding that political leaders in Nigeria perform various acts through their speeches. These speech acts assist in the understanding and interpretation of the messages in their speeches.**

***Index Terms*—President Umaru Yar'Adua, victory and inaugural speech, pragmatics, speech acts, language of politics**

I. Introduction

The primary function of language is for the purpose of communication. Man is distinct from animals since he communicates through language. Language serves as the most vital tool in the hands of man. Thus, language is essential in the implementation of successful democratic rule in any country. Taiwo (2009) observes that language is the conveyer belt of power, It moves people to vote, debate or revolt, And it is therefore a central explanation of political stability or polarization.

Language is essential to politicians. Most activities performed by the politicians are done through the avenue created by language. This includes campaign, manifesto, rally, election, inauguration, governance e.t.c. Political speech is becoming a popular concept especially in the area of linguistic research. The concept of political speech could be said to have originated from the rhetorical works of Greek philosophers like Sophist, Socrates, Plato and Aristotle. Aristotle therefore describes it as 'a faculty of observing in any given case the available means of persuasion in reference to whatever subject' (see Agbogun 2011). Rhetoric as the spring for Political speech is defined by *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* as 'a speech or writing that is intended to influence people (…); the skill of using language in speech or writing in a special way that influences or incites people'. Hence, the primary purposes of political speeches are to influence, educate, inform, persuade, incite, or entertain people.

The office of the president is the highest in any country, yet the position needs constant touch or link with the people, one of the ways of achieving this is through speech making. The election of President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua made history in Nigeria as he was the first time that a democratically elected president handed over to another democratically elected president. Any democratic government places premium on the people as democracy is popular for being the government of the people, by the people and for the people. Therefore, speech can be seen as a means of establishing and maintaining social relationships, expressing feelings, and selling ideas, policies and programmes in any society.

Several speeches are made to address the people before election; these speeches could also be referred to pre-election special addresses especially at rally and campaign. After the election, speeches are made from time to time as the situation dictates. It is expected that a candidates that wins an election should address the people that have voted him to power, such known as Victory Speech. The Inaugural Speech is usually made on the occasion of official inauguration of

an elected candidate. It is the point of delivering the Victory and Inaugural Speeches that politician reaffirm their commitment to serve by reiterating the programmes of their party and electioneering campaign promises. No wonder, Denton and Hahn (1986) in Agbogun (2011) posit that the presidency or *governorship office* has been recognized as a rhetorical institution whose speeches are enlivened by power to persuade and convince the nation or society on the one hand; and provided avenues for familiarizing the audience with the organization and recognisability of the presidency or *governorship office* on the other hand, as they encapsulate the nation's or *state's*. The Victory and Inaugural Speeches were the first two speeches presented of Umaru Musa Yar'Adua as the President and Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces of Nigeria in 2007.

A. Language of Politics

In Nigeria, the English language serves as an alternative to indigenous languages. Opeibi (2009) posits that English serves as the language of wider communication in the socio-political context of the Nigerian nation. It is obvious that the English language is employed in political activities such as campaign, election, speeches, meeting, etc. Language has been a powerful tool in the hands of political leaders; they manipulate the tool to suit their purposes. Since politics is basically about struggling to control power, it is only through language that such could be accomplished, thereby making language a very strong political weapon.

No doubt, the concepts of 'language' and 'politics' are interwoven. Beard (2000) claims that language of politics … helps us to understand how language is used by those who wish to gain power, those who wish to exercise power and those who wish to keep power (Taiwo 2009). This appears to be in consonance with the claim of Opeibi (2009) that language is a vital process of setting the personality and the programme of the candidates to the public, with the primary aim of gaining their support and mobilizing them to participate in the process of securing and controlling power. It is quite conceivable that politics has become a linguistic issue while language has become a political issue.

The support that citizens have for the politicians will be determined by what they say and how they say it for success to be achieved whether in candidacy, programmes or policies. No wonder, Opeibi (2009) refers to the relationship that exists between language and politics as symbiotic. Language of politics has been widely researched by various scholars. Taiwo (2009) gives a rather insightful perspective of the subject by claiming that:

The study of language of politics has been carried out within the framework of political rhetoric, linguistic stylistics, pragmatics, discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis.

Aspects of political communication include but are not limited to statements made by politicians, writings of politicians, political speeches, election campaign, parliamentary debates and political interviews.

Also, Beard (2000) observes that political campaigns, speeches, written texts, broadcast are meant to inform and instruct voters about issues that are considered to be of great importance. From these submissions, it is crystal clear that speech making is one of the political activities of politicians which are made possible through the channel opened up by language. Opeibi (2009) emphasizes the fact that:

No matter how good a candidate's manifesto is; no matter how superior political thoughts and ideologies of a political party may be, these can only be expressed and further translated into social actions for social change and social continuity through the facilities provided by language.

A political speech serves as a text, as an output and as a process which may be spoken or written (Opeibi 2009). Some scholars have worked on political speeches from different perspectives. Awonuga (1988) worked on the political rhetorics of Obafemi Awolowo and Awonuga (2005) on the stylistic study of 'sustenance of democracy' of Olusegun Obasanjo. Also, Adetunji (2006) explores deixis in Olusegun Obasanjo speeches.

Ayoola (2005) focuses on the critical discourse analysis of a speech by Nigeria's President Olusegun Obasanjo. In this, he is able to demonstrate the relevance of critical discourse analysis for eliciting political meaning in the use of English. Ayeomoni (2005a) investigates the grapho-syntactic analysis of selected political speeches of some Nigerian military heads of State, the likes of General Murtala Muhammed, General Ibrahim Babangida, Major-General Aguiyi Ironsi and General Olusegun Obasanjo.

Ayeomoni (2005b) also investigates the political speeches of past Nigerian military rulers through linguistic-stylistic analysis. Adeyanju (2009) identifies some works that have also been done on political speeches such as; The stylistic study of war speeches of Yakubu Gowon and Emeka Ojukwu (Oha, 1994), discourse tacts in military coup speeches in Nigeria (Adegbija, 1995) and pragmatic and stylistic perspectives: the form and functions of hedges in a presidential media chat programmes hosted by the Nigerian Television Authority (Ayodabo, 2003). In our contribution to the study of language of politics, particularly political speeches, the speech act analysis which basically follows pragmatic approach is employed to do justice to selected speeches of Umaru Musa Yar'Adua.

Adegbija (1999) submits that:

Pragmatics may be seen as the study of language use in particular communicative contexts or situations of necessity, this would take cognizance of the message being communicated or the speech act being performed; the participants involved; their intention, knowledge of the world and the impact of these on their interactions; what they have taken for granted as part of the context (or the presupposition); the deductions they make on the basis of the context; what is implied by what is said or left unsaid; the impact of the non-verbal aspects of interaction on meaning, etc.(cited in Adeyanju, 2009).

It is against this backdrop that Opeibi (2009) observes that most politicians are unaware of the fact that there is a link between what is said, what is meant, and the action conveyed by what is said. In the study of political speeches, one major theory that has been effective and adequate for analysis is the Speech Act theory.

B. Theoretical Framework

Pragmatics will serve as the linguistic approach for the research work, since Pragmatics is one of the major fields in linguistic that could unravel meaning in language use. Pragmatics is meant to provide an inroad into the study of President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua's Victory and Inaugural Speeches. The origin of Pragmatics can be traced to the philosophy of language and the American Philosophical School of Pragmatics. The discipline is an offshoot of Discourse Analysis and a sub-discipline in Linguistics. Discourse Analysis studies the organization of language larger than sentence. Thomas (1995) claims that the most common definitions of Pragmatics are 'meaning in use' and 'meaning in context'. This definition emphasizes the fact that Pragmatics as a field of study deals with the use of language in relation to the users and interpreters.

The linguistic framework of any linguistic research serves as the tool for the analysis of data. Hence, the theory of Speech Acts would serve as the spread sheet for the analysis and evaluation of the selected speeches. The choice of Speech Acts theory as the linguistic framework for the President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua's Victory and Inaugural Speeches is premised on the fact that people perform various actions through the use of words and when utterances are made, a particular act is performed; this is called Speech act. The Speech Acts theory is also described as "How to Do Things with Words Theory" since it has its roots in the work of Austin (1962) and Searle (1969). They are able to provide a shift from constative notion to performative notion in the empirical verifiability of signs; that is, the truthfulness of signs to what an expression does when it is uttered.

Speech acts according to Austin (1962) fall into three classes, which are: locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. A locutionary act is an act of saying something; that is, the act of producing an utterance. Dada (2004) submits that illocutionary acts are the core of any theory of speech acts. The perculotionary act is the effect or influence on the feelings, thoughts or actions of the listener/hearer unlike locutionary acts. Perlocutionary acts could be inspiring, persuading, consoling, etc. It brings about an effect upon the beliefs, attitudes or behaviours of the addressee. It is in consonance with this that Levinson (1980) describes perlocutionary act as the intended or unintended consequences of the speaker's utterance (Adeyanju, 2009). Searle (1969) improves on Austin's (1962) Speech Act theory by distinguishing between two types of speech acts: Direct and Indirect Speech Acts. Searle (1969) categorizes the illocutionary act into five classes:

1. Assertives: These are statements that describe a state of affairs in the world which could be true or false. They commit a speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition.

2. Directives: These are statements that compel or make another person's action fit the propositional element. It is usually used to give order thereby causing the hearer to take a particular action, request, command or advice.

3. Commisives: These statements commit the speaker to certain future action. It could be in the form of a promise.

4. Expressives: The purpose of expressive statements is to express sincerity of the speech act like excuses and sympathy.

Declaratives: These statements are used to say something and make it so, such as pronouncing someone guilty and declaring a war.

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) was the grammatical model used to carry out the study. This is because SFL enabled the researcher to capture the form and function adequately. Halliday (1970) views language as a means of organizing people and directing their behaviour. In addition, Bloor and Bloor (2004) state that SFL is a 'System of Meanings', which makes it a relevant grammatical model for this research since the 'grammar' of the language and the speaker or writer selects within this system; not in a vacuum but in the context of speech situations (Halliday 1970). The application of the Speech Act theory in the analysis will allow in-depth research into the linguistic features that have been explored by the speaker to inculcate meaning into the formal linguistic properties of the selected speeches.

II. Objective of the Study

The research attempts in general terms the analysis of Umaru Musa Yar'Adua's selected political speeches within the theory of Speech Acts. The research is thus meant to identify the speech act features of the selected speeches, to analyse the features in relation to the contexts in which the speeches were presented, and to determine how the identified features project the messages in the speeches.

III. Research Methodology

In this work, we chose two speeches of Nigerian President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua. They are Victory Speech and Inaugural Speech. They were the first two speeches delivered by the president in 2007. We have limited this study to the two speeches in order to be thorough in the analysis of the speeches. The selected speeches were downloaded from the Internet and analysed to show the speech acts performed in the course of delivering the speeches. The linguistic

approach adopted for the study is pragmatics based on the linguistic framework of Speech Acts theory of Austin (1962) and Searle (1969).

The selected speeches vary in length and number of sentences. We, therefore, extracted specific portions from the speeches. Thus, in each of the speeches, ten sentences comprising the first five and the last five were selected. Twenty sentences in all were selected based on the above criteria .Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) as the choice of grammatical model is significant among other grammatical models because of the high premium placed on meanings in the analysis of language and its perception of language as a social activity.

In the course of the analysis, the two speeches selected are labelled A and B. The Victory Speech is A, and Inaugural Speech is labelled B. The numbers of sentences in the extracted portion are ten; therefore, we have A1-10 and B1-10. This was done in order to make the analysis clear and easy to understand. Efforts were made to calculate the percentages of the speech acts types so as to make interpretation of the tables clear and empirical. The calculation of the percentages of the speech acts in a speech is based on the number of sentences and not on the total number of speech acts in each speech. Thus we have;

$$\frac{\text{Total number of speech acts}}{\text{Total number of sentences in a speech}} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

This served as the basis for our discussion in the research work.

A. The Speech Acts Analysis of Victory Speech (A)

Data A1

Locution:

I am honoured and humbled by the mandate I have received, for the first time in the history of Nigeria we will have an elected President followed by another elected President.

Illocutionary Act:

(a) Direct: assertive (stating)

(b) Indirect: verdictive (assessing)

Expected Perlocutionary Effect: excitement.

Data A2

Locution:

So, many brave Nigerians, including my own brother lived and died to give us this democracy.

Illocutionary Act:

(a) Direct: assertive (stating)

(b) Indirect: declarative (confirming)

Expected Perlocutionary Effect: sympathy.

Data A3

Locution:

I will do all I can to honour their sacrifice.

Illocutionary Act:

(a) Direct: commisive (promising)

(b) Indirect: declarative (confirming)

Expected Perlocutionary Effect: hopefulness.

Data A4

Locution:

The time for politics is over.

Illocutionary Act:

(a) Direct: Assertive (stating)

(b) Indirect: verdictive (assessing)

Expected perlocutionary Effect: excitement

Data A5

Locution:

The time for reconciliation has begun.

Illocutionary Act:

(a) Direct: assertive (stating)

(b) Indirect: directive (assessing)

Expected Perlocutionary Effect: happiness

Data A6

Locution:

There will be no division between Christians and Muslims.

Illocutionary Act:

(a) Direct: directive (appealing)

(b) Indirect: commissive (promising)

Expected Perlocutionary Effect: encouragement.
Data A7
Locution:
There will be no division between PDP and ANPP and AC and all the rest.
Illocutionary Act:
(a) Direct: directive (appealing)
(b) Indirect: commisive (promising)
Expected Perlocutionary Effect: happiness.
Data A8
Locution:
There will only be Nigeria, one Nation, one People, one Future, one Destiny.
Illocutionary Act:
(a) Direct: assertive (stating)
(b) Indirect: commisive (assurring)
Expected Perlocutionary Effect: hopefulness.
Data A9
Locution:
The ties that bind us together have indeed been frayed but they are strong and so we are.
Illocutionary Act:
(a) Direct: assertive (saying)
(b) Indirect: expressive (savouring the new experience)
Expected Perlocutionary Effect: hopefulness.
Data A10
Locution:
By the grace of God, we will restore those ties, heal the branch and emerge stronger and more united than ever before.
Illocutionary Act:
(a) Direct: assertive (saying)
(b) Indirect: commisive (promising)
Expected Perlocutionary Effect: hopefulness.

B. A Speech Act Analysis of Inaugural Speech (B)

Data B1
Locution:
This is a historic day for our nation.
Illocutionary Act:
(a) Direct: assertive (stating)
(b) Indirect: verdictive (assessing)
Expected Perlocutionary Effect: cheerfulness.
Data B2
Locution:
We have at last managed an orderly transition from one elected government to another.
Illocutionary Act:
(a) Direct: assertive (stating)
(b) Indirect: expressive (savouring the country's new experience)
Expected Perlocutionary Effect: excitement.
Data B3
Locution:
We acknowledge that our elections had shortcomings.
Illocutionary Act:
(a) Direct: assertive (stating)
(b) Indirect: verdictive (assessing)
Expected Perlocutionary Effect: appeasement.
Data B4
Locution:
We have well-established legal avenues for redress and I urge anyone aggrieved to pursue them.
Illocutionary Act:
(a) Direct: declarative (confirming)
(b) Indirect: directive (appealing)
Expected Perlocutionary Effect: pacification.
Data B5
Locution:

I also believe that our experiences represent an opportunity to learn from our mistakes.

Illocutionary Act:

(a) Direct: assertive (stating)

(b) Indirect: expressive (savouring the situation)

Expected Perlocutionary Effect: reconciliatory.

Data B6

Locution:

Let us stop justifying every shortcoming with that unacceptable phrase 'the Nigerian factor' as if to be a Nigerian is to settle for less.

Illocutionary Act:

(a) Direct: directive (appealing)

(b) Indirect: verdictive (assessing)

Expected Perlocutionary Effect: sobriety and reflective.

Data B7

Locution:

Let us recapture the mood of optimism that defined us at the dawn of independence, that legendary spirit that marked our Nigerianness.

Illocutionary Act:

(a) Direct: directive (appealing)

(b) Indirect: verdictive (assessing)

Expected Perlocutionary Effect: inspiring.

Data B8

Locution:

Let us join together, now, to build a society worthy of our children.

Illocutionary Act:

(a) Direct: directive (appealing)

(b) Indirect: verdictive (instructing)

Expected perlocutionary Effect: hopefulness.

Data B9

Locution:

We have the talent, we have the intelligence, and we have the ability.

Illocutionary Act:

(a) Direct: assertive (stating)

(b) Indirect:commisive (assuring)

Expected Perlocutionary Effect: encouraging and inspiring.

Data B10

Locution:

The challenge is great, the goal is clear, the time is now.

Illocutionary Act:

(a) Direct: declarative (confirming)

(b) Indirect: verdictive (assessing)

Expected Perlocutionary Effect: determining and encouraging.

TABLE 1
DATA A (VICTORY SPEECH)

SPEECH ACTS(DIRECT AND INDIRECT)	FREQUENCIES	PERCENTAGES
Assertive	7	70%
Directive	3	30%
Expressive	1	10%
Verdictive	2	20%
Commisive	5	50%
Declarative	2	20%
TOTAL NO OF ACTS	20	

TABLE 2
DATA B (INAUGURAL SPEECH)

SPEECH ACTS(DIRECT AND INDIRECT)	FREQUENCIES	PERCENTAGES
Assertive	5	50%
Directive	4	40%
Expressive	2	20%
Verdictive	6	60%
Commisive	1	10%
Declarative	2	20%
TOTAL NO OF ACTS	20	

TABLE 3
SUMMARY OF THE TABLES A – B (ORFPS)

SPEECH ACTS (DIRECT AND INDIRECT)	FREQUENCIES	PERCENTAGES
Assertive	12	60%
Directive	7	35%
Expressive	3	15%
Verdictive	8	40%
Commisive	6	30%
Declarative	4	20%
TOTAL NO OF ACTS	40	

IV. Interpretation of the Analysis on Tables

Language is a powerful weapon in getting to the political thoughts and ideologies of politicians; hence the language use of Yar'Adua is studied through the two selected speeches in order to get to his thoughts. The Speech Act theory was applied to the study of the speeches and we discovered that the five categories of Searle's (1969) speech acts manifested with verdictives category from Austin (1962). It is pertinent to state that the speech acts could be intended or unintended, as the speaker is often unaware of some speech acts tactics especially the indirect illocutionary acts.

It was discovered from the Victory speech that the President had used mainly sentences that were assertive as they have a total percentage of 70%, while 50% of the sentences in Victory speech were commisive and 30% were directive, while expressive was 10%, verdictive (20%) and declarative (20%). The President had used mainly assertives, commisives and verdictives. In effect, upon the announcement of Umaru Musa Yar'Adua at the polls, it was apt for him to commence the use of verdictives and directives, which is typical of people in power or someone occupying a position of authority just to give instructions and orders that will guide his administration.

The assertives in the Inaugural speech were 50%, which is to say that Yar'Adua used language to state, maintain, inform, and promise his subjects. The speech acts in the Inaugural speech were mainly verdictives, that is, 60% of the sentences are verdictives, and 40% of the sentences are directives, while 50% were assertives. With this, the President demonstrated his power as the Commander-In-Chief of the Armed Forces of Nigeria through his heavy reliance on the use of speech acts that are assertives and verdictives by asserting his authority.

From the Tables, we realized that each of the sentences analysed performed both direct illocutionary and indirect acts. This showed that the President did more than saying or stating, in the process of making statements, various other speech acts were performed. The fact that all the sentences have both direct and indirect speech acts brought the total number of the illocutionary acts in the sixty sentences to one hundred and twenty. The indirect acts were mainly in the categories of directives, verdictives, commisives, expressives and declaratives.

In a global macro-speech act sense, the totality of the speeches selected and analysed in our data displayed efforts made by President Yar'Adua to make the public accept his government and co-operate with him. He was not forceful in his speeches; the Inaugural Speech manifested high frequency of verdictives with 60% of the sentences. This was because at the initial stage, he was trying to lay claim to his power and authority as the newly elected President and he demonstrated this in the two speeches, hence the wide use of these acts in the speeches.

It was discovered from the overall relative frequency percentages (ORFPs) tables that the President had used mainly sentences that were assertive with 60% of the total sentences. This is far higher than the ORFPs for directive acts which had a subtotal of 35%. This was followed by commisive acts with 30%, and the verdictives with 40% on the ORFPs table while declaratives had 20% and expressives had 15%. It was then apparent from the ORFPs that the President used these acts in this manner to show a perculiar style of civilian politician by being assertive in most of the sentences in his speeches.

Adeyanju (2009,186) rightly opines that the major preoccupation of Nigerian political leaders is the quest for acceptance and cooperation which is borne out of the idea that a political leader cannot succeed if he does not enjoy the acceptance and cooperation of the people. Noteworthy is the fact that President Umaru Yar'Adua speeches are distinct from Military leaders' speeches. Military leaders make use of sentences that are highly verdictive and directive. We observed that the sentences that were verdictives in President Yar'Adua speeches were basically meant for assessing, and directives were mainly for appealing, and not commanding which is usually the case with the Military Political leaders' speeches.

V. Conclusion

In this study, we discovered that the identification of speech acts types in speeches go a long way in ascribing meanings to such speeches. In other words, the speech acts bring to the fore meaning in speeches. As observed, in the process or act of saying something; other speech acts are performed. Therefore, there is no sentence that does not contain one speech act or the other. The speech acts in a work portray the personality of the speaker. President Umaru Yar'Adua was a political leader. President Umaru Yar'Adua speeches are direct and clear with speech acts that are easily identified.

We discovered from the analysis of the President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua Victory and Inaugural speeches that democratic government places premium on the interest of the people. There was no record of verdictive speech acts that were used by the president in the commanding sense. The Speech Act theory as a framework in the analysis of President Yar'Adua speeches enables us to explore the language use of political leaders. This fact is confirmed by the speech acts that are manifested through our analysis. Through the application of Speech Act theory to study President Umaru Yar'Adua's speeches, the readers are better equipped in understanding the application of Speech Act theory to political speeches.

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Elementary School EFL Learners' Adoption of English Names and Implications for Classroom Practice

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Abstract—**The adoption of English names is common among elementary school English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners in Taiwan. In this study 86% of participants in this study have their own English name and 67.5% of those who do not have one would like to. However, none of the students who have an English name know its meaning or have been told why their particular name was chosen for them. English names were mostly given to learners by English teachers at their school or a private language school. The younger the learners are, the more they feel that the adoption of an English name makes them feel like an English native speaker. Younger EFL learners also feel that having an English name makes a positive impact on their English learning and attitude. Suggestions are provided on giving EFL learners' English names and using English names as a means of cultural learning.**

Index Terms—**adoption of English names, identity, English learning attitude**

I. Introduction

In Taiwan, elementary school students who have previously attended private English language institutions have their own English names, while those who haven't learned English before usually do not. On the first day of the school year, English teachers call the roll and students who do not have English names often ask the teacher to choose one for them. The majority of students who have English names do not know the meaning of their English name or the reason why they are called such a name. Some students will pick very strange names, such as Pig, Mimi, or Elephant. One girl in this study insisted on calling herself "David," no matter how many times she was told that David is a boy's name.

This study discusses English as a foreign language (EFL) young learners' adoption of English names and the relationship between English names and English learning attitude and identity. First, what is the current situation regarding elementary school EFL learners' adoption of English names? Second, what is the relationship between adopting an English name and English learning attitude? Finally, suggestions are provided on giving EFL learners' English names and using English names as a means of cultural learning.

II. Literature Review

A name defines a person and tells people who he or she is. A person's name is both literally and symbolically a part of them (Blau, 1996; Liu, 2001). A name enfolds the identity of an individual, signaling social and ideological affiliations (Chatterjee, 2003; Liu, 2001).

Scholars have studied how language learners adopt English names, why they chose the names they do, and what their attitudes toward their English names are (Chatterjee, 2003; Edwards, 2006; Wang 2009). In Edwards' (2006) study, she found that the practice of Chinese learners' adopting English names was widespread. However, none of the Chinese students interviewed in Chatterjee's study felt any anxiety about taking on English names. One teacher interviewed claimed that from the 1960s to the 1990s there was some resistance to English names, but that the current generation are eager to have an English name. For them, it is a way of 'feeling close to the local people' or to make it easier for 'native English speakers' to pronounce their names.

The majority of language learners were given an English name by their teachers (Edwards, 2006; McPherron, 2009), so Chatterjee (2003) suggests that teachers should spend some time getting the names right. Blau (1996) asked his students to write down their names, and to brainstorm lists of words, images, or feelings conjured up by their names. Blau also asked students to write stories about their names.

There are eight factors that affect how EFL learners choose their English names.

First, some of them choose to name themselves after their favorite basketball player or a famous person (Chatterjee, 2003; McPherron, 2009).

Second, students may choose their name from a dictionary (Chatterjee, 2003); this can give rise to weird and unique names (e.g. Talent, Elephant) (Wang, 2009), or to the playful creation of words (e.g. Dodo) (McPherron, 2009).

Third, students may choose names that are phonetically similar to their Chinese name, such as Lulu or Lily

(Chatterjee, 2003; Edwards, 2006).

Fourth, students like their English names to be easy to pronounce and to remember (McPherron, 2009; Wang, 2009).

Fifth, students are concerned with the meanings, especially the literal or original meanings, of their English name (Wang, 2009).

Sixth, students choose their English names because parts of these may reflect parts of their Chinese personal name. In this study, Zelda and QQ chose their names because their Chinese names begin with Z and Q respectively. One student called himself *Joe* because it sounded Chinese, whilst another called himself *Joe* because his family name was *Zhou* (a very similar sound) (Edwards, 2006; McPherron, 2009).

Seventh, some students choose their names to represent how they would like to be viewed by others (Edwards, 2006; McPherron, 2009; Wang, 2009). Bonnie chose her name because it means 'beauty and intelligence'. Iris chose hers because it means rainbow goodness. Derrick chose his because it means strength.

Eighth, students may translate the concepts in their Chinese names directly into English: for example, *Sky*, *Ocean*, *Summer*, *Apple*, *Tiger*, *Long*, *Sun*, *Moon*, etc (Edwards, 2006).

Language learners hold varying attitudes toward the adoption of English names. For some Chinese students, taking on an English name was only temporary. Others cannot relate to their English names and often cannot recognize it as theirs (Chatterjee, 2003). One of the students interviewed by Chatterjee (2003) said he would continue to use his adopted 'English' name because he has had it for a long time and is known by it. Most of the students replied "No, it's just a name. It does not mean anything" to the question "Does adopting an English name make you feel any different?' However, one student, Lily, indicated that choosing an 'English' name gave her a sense of autonomy. She felt that renaming herself gave her a sense of being able to decide on an important aspect of her personality (Chatterjee, 2003). Furthermore, the 19 undergraduate students in China and Canada in Wang's (2009) survey regarded their English names as a kind of social investment in imagined communities of English learning or employment by a Hong Kong, Taiwanese, or foreign company in China; or even by living or working in English-speaking countries or regions. They associated their English name with their reality, such as their life goals and their ideal personal qualities.

The above studies focus on how EFL adult learners choose their English names and their attitudes toward those English names. This study aims to discuss whether EFL young learners' having English names and knowing the meanings of the names makes a difference to their English learning attitude and identity.

III. Methods

A. Subjects

The subjects of this study are 132 EFL middle to upper grade learners in a rural elementary school in Taiwan, consisting of 36 fourth graders, 50 fifth graders, and 46 sixth graders. Of the 132 participants, 70 are boys and 62 are girls, all of whom have received formal English education since the first grade. They have experienced three forty-minute English classes a week in the first and second grades and four forty-minute English classes in the middle and upper grades.

B. Instruments

The learners answered a questionnaire in Chinese (see Appendix I) which included 15 statements about English names. For the first ten statements, students had to choose yes/no or fill in the blank. The last five statements were measured by a 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree; 5= strongly agree). The statements were written based on the current literature on language learners' adoption of English names and on language learning identity.

IV. Results

The analysis is divided into two parts covering the adoption of English names and attitudes toward them.

A. Current Situations of Adopting English Names

Of the 132 participants, 86% (114) have English names. Nineteen students could not spell their English names at all, while others spelt their names incorrectly such as "jimmy," "Danil," "andrew," "Llo," "Wilsno," "Tin,"or "gary." Of these nineteen, seven were fourth graders.

Some students picked strange or unusual names, such as Apple, Not, Bell, Mango, Nett, or Pig. One girl gave herself a boy's name: Tommy. According to Table 1, the most common boys' name is Jason, followed by Martin and Kevin. The most common girls' names are Amy and Cindy.

TABLE 1:
POPULAR ENGLISH NAMES

	Top 1	Top 2	Top 3
Boys' Names	Jason (4)	Kevin (3), Martin (3)	Allen (2), Bruce (2) Howard (2), Jack (2) John (2), Sam (2)
Girl's Names	Amy (3), Cindy (3)	Alice (2), Emily (2) Gina (2), Linda (2) Lucy (2), Sandy (2) Tina (2)	

Note: (Number): indicates the number of students who have this name.

The learners' English names were mostly given to them by school teachers (31%), English teachers in private language institutes (21%) or other family members or friends (18%). About 15% of students adopted the English names given to them by their parents or chose them themselves. When the learners adopted their English names, none of them were told why they were given such names or the meanings of the names.

None of the students know the meanings of their English names, although more than 67.5% of the students would like to know. The younger the learners are, the more eager they are to know the meaning of their English name. Compared to only 56% of sixth graders, almost 80% of fourth graders would like to know the meaning of their English name.

Almost 83.3% of the eighteen students who did not have English names would like to have an English name. About 78% of the students who have English names would continue to use their current English names, but two students were not sure about whether they would use such names later.

B. Attitudes toward the Adoption of English Names

With regard to item 11 "Knowing the meaning of my English name motivates me to learn English well," 48% of the students totally agree or agree, whilst 37% of students remained neutral. The younger the learners are, the more they agree with such statements (see Table 2 in Appendix II for details). About 69% of the fourth graders agree or totally agree with the statement, but only 35.7% and 30% respectively of the fifth and sixth graders agreed. Students' responses to item 11 were similar to item 12 "Having an English name motivates me to learn English well." About 44% of students agree or totally agree that having an English name motivates them to learn English well. Again, the younger the learners are, the more they agree with such statements, with 69% of the fourth graders agreeing or totally agreeing with the statement but only 40% and 30% respectively of the fifth and sixth graders.

Overall, in responding to "Having an English name makes me feel like a native speaker of English, 36.8% disagree, but another 35% of students agree as in Table 1. Fourth, fifth, and sixth graders responded differently to this statement. Almost 80% of the fourth graders felt that having English names makes them feel like native speakers of English. On the other hand, 50% of the fifth graders disagree with the statement. 56% of the sixth graders remained neutral to the statement.

Overall, 41% of students like their English teacher to call them by their English name in class, particularly the fourth graders. Almost 79% of the fourth graders prefer to be called by their English names in class. In contrast, more than half of the fifth graders dislike being called by their English names in class. Half of the students like their classmates to call them by their English names in English classes, but the other half dislike the idea. Almost 72% of the fourth graders prefer to be called by their English names in class, whereas more than 60% the fifth graders dislike being called by their English names in class.

V. DISCUSSION

Based on the data analysis, the following issues will be discussed in terms of EFL learners' adoption of English names, the appropriateness of the names, the learners' knowledge of the names, the relationship between English names and learners' identities, and the relationship between names and learners' attitudes.

A. Wide Adoption of English Names

The adoption of English names is common among elementary school EFL learners in Taiwan. About 86% of participants in this study have their own English names and 67.5% of those who do not have an English name would like to. The wide adoption of English among elementary EFL learners in this study is in accord with Chatterjee's (2003) finding that large numbers of Chinese ESL students have been going through a system of adopting English names.

The learners' English names were mostly given to them by English teachers in schools or private language institutes. English teachers are taking on responsibility of facilitating the teaching and learning process by encouraging the adoption of English names, and by doing so they create bridges between the learners and the target language (Chatterjee, 2003).

B. Appropriateness of English Names

A name is a noun phrase to reveal the individual reference to a person. It is a symbol that gives a person their identity. Some of the English names chosen by students in this study are not appropriate, such as Pig, Not, or Apples. One girl

with a high English proficiency level insists on using Tommy as her English name even though the teacher explained to her that Tommy is a boy's name. Making a name one's own is an important part of individual's self-identification (Nicholaisen, 1984). Nicholaisen further argues that when a name is both given and used, it will invariably lead to recognition, which is a determinant of one's identity formation. Obviously, students who chose these inappropriate names were not aware of what native English speakers' attitude or impressions would be when they heard the names. Therefore, English teachers should guide students in choosing appropriate English names.

C. Knowledge of English Names

When selecting a Chinese name, Chinese people concentrate on the semantic sense, the musical sense, and the structures and meanings of the name (Liu, 2001). However, in this study, neither the parents and teachers nor the students themselves thought of the meanings of the English names when they chose them and none of the students know the meaning of their name. Liu (2001) further states that adoption of English names is a way of rebirth, implying that a new meaning has been attached to the names. Names do not only express the identity, but also the character and the ideals of the person bearing a particular name. For example, one girl in this study chooses Jolin as her English name, which makes people associate her with the well-known Taiwanese singer Jolin Tsai.

Not all the students can write their English names or spell them accurately. Some students did not capitalize their name, for example: "jimmy," "andrew," or "gary." Other students spelt their names incorrectly as "Llo," "Wilsno," or "Tin." Students should be able to write English names accurately, because one of the learning indicators under writing abilities mandated by Ministry of Education is "Be able to write your own English name" (Ministry of Education, 2001). EFL learners should be taught about the meanings and spelling of their names, so they will have better knowledge of their names, their meanings, and their identity.

D. Relationship between English Names and Learner's Identity

The younger the learners are, the more they feel that having an English name makes them feel like a native speaker of English; almost 80% of the fourth graders in this study feel that way. These fourth graders' concept of the adoption of English name resonates with the finding in Chatterjee's (2003) study that "adoption of English names is a way of feeling close to the local people."

The fourth graders prefer both their teacher and classmates to call them by their English names in class. Adoption of English names for the fourth graders is an identity investment that can confer a kind of symbolic capital in their target language and target culture learning (Edwards, 2006).

E. Relationship between English Names and English Learning Attitude

The younger the learners are, the more they agree that having an English name or knowing the meaning of their name motivate them to learn English well. About 69% of the fourth graders agree or totally agree with that statement, whilst only one third of the sixth graders agree with it. In McPherron's (2009) study, as adult EFL learners take more English classes in university and their English proficiency improves, they are more likely to adopt and use English names in a variety of contexts. However, the finding in this study contradicts that of McPherron's (2009) study. This study however, focuses on young EFL learners, where McPherron's study focuses on adult learners. Younger EFL learners are not afraid of losing "face" when they have to use or speak English. For them, English is a new and fun subject. Games, communicative tasks, and activities are used more in the fourth grade but as students grow older and move up to the sixth grade, they are required to memorize English words and complete more written tasks rather than just do fun games and activities. Therefore, the younger learners are more likely to feel that having an English name or knowing the meaning of their name motivates them to learn English well.

VI. Implications

Chen and Chien (2007) provide seven tips for English teachers when choosing appropriate names for students.

First, it is very important that teachers should choose names that are easy to pronounce. Take the name *Raul* as an example. Raul originates from Spain. Generally speaking, since Taiwanese EFL learners have difficulties in pronouncing l and r sounds, the name *Raul* is difficult for them to pronounce.

Second, don't choose things as names, e.g. *Mountain*, *Pencil*, *Apple*, or *Banana*.

Third, avoid cute names like *Bobo*, *Fifi*, or *Lala unless* this is the sort of image your student wants to project.

Fourth, don't invent names such as *Gindrom*, or *Brinty*. Teachers should use names that already exist.

Fifth, when you choose names for your students, think carefully about their meaning. Some English names have roots that imply important meanings, such as *jus* for justice, *vict* for winning, *Phil* for love, *Soph* for wisdom, grace for gracefully, *joy* for happiness, etc. If an EFL learner describes themself as having a certain kind of personality, they may consider names with special meanings such as *Justin*, *Victoria*, *Phil*, *Sophia*, *Grace*, *Joy* or *Joyce*, etc.

Sixth, when choosing English names, the student's gender should be taken into consideration. Boys should choose a boy's name, for example *Michael or Paul* and girls should choose a girl's name such as *Michelle* or *Polly*. Some names, like *McKenzie* and *Jamie*, are acceptable for both girls and boys. Finally, teachers can help students choose English names that sound similar to their Chinese names.

Names indicate a person's identity and English names do contain meaning. Blau (1996) recommends activities such as asking students to write down their names, brainstorming lists of words and images, and the feelings conjured by their names, reading stories and articles, and writing stories of names. Blau's recommendations mainly focus on students' names in their first language. How should English teachers introduce such concepts to their students in English classes? On the first day of the lesson, English teachers can ask students to make their own name tags. When students write down their names, the teachers can emphasize the capitalization and the correct spelling of the names.

Students can also be asked to count how many letters they have in their names or what the first letter is in their English name. English teachers can ask students to make a class graph using the amount of letters and the capital letter in each student's name. Students can title the graphs and mention what a visitor might learn from the graphs. English and math can be integrated in such an activity.

Moreover, Kevin Henkes' (1991) Chrysanthemum is a good picture book to introduce names and identity. This book is about a girl named Chrysanthemum. Chrysanthemum loves her name until she goes to school. The children laughed because her name was so long and she was named after a flower. The teasing continued until they discovered the name of their favorite music teacher!

Several questions can be asked after reading the picture books, such as: (1) How did Chrysanthemum feel about her name in the beginning of the book? (2) What happened that changed how she felt about her name? (3) How would it make you feel if someone teased you about your name? (4) What did Mrs. Twinkle think about Chrysanthemum's name? or (5) Do you have a favorite doll or stuffed animal? What is its name? Why did you choose this name?

English teachers can provide the names of online websites and ask students to research the meanings and origins of their names. English teachers can provide students with sentence strips, so they can introduce themselves by saying, "My English name is___. It means ___. The name is from ___(language)." Taking the most common boy's name among the participants in this study "Jason" as an example, a boy named Jason can say, "My name is Jason. Jason means 'healer.' It is from Greek." For students with higher proficiency levels, they can be asked to read the stories and myths about their names.

Chatterjee (2003) claims that EFL teachers can create bridges between the learners and the target languages. In the process of doing this, EFL teachers go through levels of cross-cultural awareness. Through the introduction of awareness and knowledge of adoption and meanings of English names, students will be able to raise their general cultural awareness of English names. Through the study of names historically and phonologically, students will be able to learn the social and natural environment, social development and political background of the time and culture (Liu, 2001).

VII. Conclusions

The adoption of English names is common among elementary school EFL learners in Taiwan. In this study 86% of participants in this study have their own English name and 67.5% of those who do not have one would like to. However, none of the students who have an English name know its meaning or have been told why their particular name was chosen for them. English names were mostly given to learners by English teachers at their school or a private language school. The younger the learners are, the more they feel that the adoption of an English name makes them feel like an English native speaker. Younger EFL learners also feel that having an English name makes a positive impact on their English learning and attitude.

This study focuses on elementary school EFL learners' attitudes toward the adoption of English names. Students responded that their English names were chosen by their English teachers in school or private language institutes. A follow-up study could focus on elementary school teachers' perspectives of EFL learners' adoption of English names and their classroom practice regarding the teaching and selection of English names.

Appendix I: Questionnaire

1. I have an English name. ☐Yes☐ No
2. My English name is _____.
3. I don't have an English name, but I want to have an English name. ☐Yes☐ No
4. I know the meanings of my English name. ☐Yes☐ No
5. The meanings of my English name is _____
6. The person who gave me this name is .
   ☐ My parents ☐ Teachers in language schools ☐ Teachers in my school
   ☐ Myself ☐ Others (please specify)_____
7. The person who gave me this name told me the meaning of my English name.
   ☐Yes ☐ No
8. The person who gave me this name told me why he/she gave me this name.
   ☐Yes ☐ No
9. I want to know the meaning of my name. ☐Yes☐ No
10. I will continue to use this English name. ☐Yes☐ No

Read the following five statements and choose 1-5.

☐1 total disagree ☐2 disagree ☐3 OK ☐4 agree ☐5 total disagree

Statements	1	2	3	4	5
11. Knowing the meanings of my English name motivates me to learn English well.					
12. Having an English name motivates me to learn English well.					
13. Having an English name makes me feel like a native speaker of English.					
14. I feel good when my English teacher calls my English name in class.					
15. I feel good when my classmates call my English name in class.					

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Classroom Teaching Strategies of Improving the English Majors' Self-instruction in Newly–promoted University in China

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***Abstract*—This study investigated the effect of classroom teaching strategies in cultivating the EFL students' self-instructive ability of English majors in a newly-promoted university in China. 87 freshmen of English majors enrolled in Bijie University in the year of 2010 were the participants involved in this study. This study aimed to explore four research questions: 1.Is there any teacher-dependence in this study? If any, attempt to examine the research question 2, 3 and 4. Does teacher questioning strategy have the positive effect of improving students' self-instruction in English learning? Does students' cooperative learning help foster students' self-instruction in English learning? Does the 5-minute English talk show in class cultivate students' self-instruction ability? The research findings show that the teacher questioning strategy, the student's cooperating learning strategy and the five-minute talk show in class can help the teacher-dependent students improve their self-instruction in English learning.**

***Index Terms*—classroom teaching strategies, self-instruction, teacher-dependence, English majors**

I. Introduction

Autonomous language learning has held the attention of language learning and teaching researchers for many years. Holec (1981) claimed that the final aim of foreign language teaching is to arouse language learners' awareness of how to learn the language. It is commonly agreed that language learners are the central focus in learning. The teacher plays a role of a guider and facilitator to the language learners in learning process. The autonomous language learning involved the language learners in actively taking responsibility for their own learning.

A. Definitions of Autonomous Learning

The researchers had a heated debate on the definition of autonomous learning. Holec (1981) contributed "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" to the first definition of autonomy in 1981(p.3). Little (1990) stated that autonomous learning was "essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning" (p. 7). Boud (1988), Dam et al. (1990), Gardner and Miller (1996) and Nunan (1997) regarded that autonomous learning is related with the language learner's personal characteristics. Due to the different purpose and aim of encouraging language learners not to depend on teachers completely and to improve their autonomous language learning, there appear a great many terms such as self-directed learning, self-access, self-instruction, independent learning etc. Gardner and Miller (1999) stressed that though these terms are various, they are "approaches which assist learners to move from teacher dependence towards autonomy' and 'there are more similarities than differences" (p.8).

B. Research Contributions to the Autonomous Language Learning

The language teaching researchers made great contributions to the practical practice in language teaching and autonomous language learning. Richards and Lockhart (1994) reinforced the beliefs of autonomous language learning and encouraged the autonomous language learners to adopt their favorite language learning ways and strategies to create a preferred language learning environment. Dickinson (1997) and Gardner and Miller (1997) affirmed the benefits of using language learner profiles to stimulate the language learners to take their responsibility for study. Gardner and Miller (1999) provided many suggestions of self-access activities for language learners. Straka (2000) asserted that self-directed language learning needs individual language learner takes responsibility for the goals and decisions about their learning and work with others to achieve them.

At home, the Chinese language teaching researchers have discussed and analyzed the possibility and adaptability to the approaches of boosting English learner autonomy. Li Hong (1998) claimed that the traditional English teaching made students passive in English language learning and the autonomous learning way has involved students in English learning. She also pointed out that English teachers should be the guiders to help develop students' autonomous learning ability gradually in class. Xiao Fei (2002) advocated the student-center teaching approach and suggested some teaching strategies to foster students' autonomous learning in English. Peng Jinding (2002) thought that learner autonomy was an educational philosophy and the autonomous leaning approaches would be beneficial to Chinese college students. He

Xiaodong (2005) focused his research on the effects of autonomous English learning by adopting the self-access approach in extensive reading program and found some positive changes of students' attitude and behavior in autonomous English learning. Zhong Ming (2006) discussed the possible problems that college students may encounter in the self-access learning, analyzed the connections between self-access materials, teachers' and learners' beliefs, self-access centers and provided some countermeasures to promote students' autonomous learning ability. Zhao Yang (2007) emphasized that the formative assessment used in self-directed learning approach can assist Chinese college students to grow up into an effective self-directed English learners. Lv Haibing (2011) conducted a research on the efficacy of cultivating non-English majors' autonomous learning ability through explicit and implicit courses. His research found that explicit courses taught college students to make good use of campus intranet and the implicit courses instructed students' autonomous learning strategies, creating an active English learning atmosphere in class and after class.

C. Learning Strategies

The language teaching researchers have discussed that the different learning strategies enhanced language learner autonomy. O'Malley(1987),Weinstein & Mayer(1986), Prokop (1989), Nunan, (1996) found that if the learning strategies were taught to language learners in class ,language learners could achieve better performance in language learning. They stated that a language teacher's task was not only teaching learners' knowledge but also teaching how to learn. The term of autonomous learning used in the present study as students' learning strategies is self-instruction. Dickinson (1987) described the self-instruction as "situations in which a learner, with others, or alone, is working without the direct control of a teacher"(p.5).

D. Teaching Strategies

1. Teachers' questioning strategy

The communicative language teaching theory shows that the communication and interaction in class facilitate the language learning. They are the purpose of the language learning (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). The teachers' talks and raising questions in class engage the language learners thinking about the learning materials. Teachers' questioning strategy aids language learners to make critical thinking in learning process and guide learners to achieve better understanding of the learning materials. Ornstein (1990) stressed that "through the appropriate strategies in formulating and ask questions, the teacher can help students understand and utilize content and formulate ideas, concepts, relationships and principles." (p.284) According to Ornstein (1990) the teachers' questioning strategies included the types of questions, wait-time and feedback. According to Bloom (1956), the types of the questions fall into five categories: knowledge, comprehension, analysis, synthesis and evaluation.

2. Students' cooperative learning

Numerous studies have disclosed the positive effect of cooperative learning. Long, Adams, McLean, and Castanos (1976) found that group work made students produce better language production compared to learners working individually. This suggests that group work offers more opportunities for learners to produce language and to learn from each other. Wong-Fillmore (1982) demonstrated that interactions between a teacher and individual students, as well as between and among learners influence L2 learning.

3. Free talk show in class

Self-confidence is commonly agreed to be the important factors of one's success. A self-confident language learner has a positive attitude to learning. They will find every chance to learn the target language, participating in any language activities. Prepared free talk-show allows the students have a good preparation for the talk show in class. They rehearsed it with their group members to practice the talk that will be given in class next time can build students' self-confidence

E. Research Background

The previous studies abroad mainly focused on the definition clarification of autonomous language learning, the language teachers' and learners' beliefs and learning strategies of the autonomous learning, the different practices of autonomous learning approaches in the language learning context. The Chinese language researches have conducted many researches on autonomous learning based on the autonomous learning theories. However, most of the researches have just concentrated their attention on the autonomous language learning of non-English majors, and fewer studies have involved their studies classroom teaching strategy in English-major class. Particularly, more studies are needed on the investigation and the analysis of the autonomous English learning in the university or college newly promoted from a three-year college in the undeveloped area. Taking Bijie University as an example, it is a newly promoted university in which the most of enrolled students come from the schools where traditional English teaching still prevails. Teacher dependence is the common phenomenon among students who are always waiting for teachers to feed them everything in class. It is necessary to teach students how to learn in college study and use some beneficial classroom teaching strategies to guide the students to adopt the self-instruction learning strategy to make autonomous language learners out of them. This present study aims to investigate the effects of classroom teaching strategies in cultivating the self-instructive ability of English majors. The present study addresses the following research questions.

1. Is there any teacher-dependence in this study? If any, attempt to examine the research question 2, 3 and 4.

2. Does teacher questioning strategy have the positive effect of improving students' self-instruction in English learning?
3. Does students' cooperative learning help foster students' self-instruction in English learning?
4. Does the 5-minute English talk show in class cultivate students' self-instruction ability?

II. Method

A. Participants

The participants in this study were the 87 freshmen of English majors enrolled in Bijie University in the year of 2010. Of the 87 participants, 13 were male students. The other 74 students were female students. They were all four –year college students in Foreign Languages Department in Bijie University. Most of them entered the university directly from the middle school after passing the college entrance examination. Only three of them had the working experience and one of them studied in the other university before they were admitted to Bijie University. They have been exposed to English learning for 6 years to 10years.

B. Questionnaire Sheet

Nunan (2002) claimed that the questionnaire is a relatively popular method and an easy way for researchers to extract research data that are more amenable to quantification. The material used in this study was a questionnaire. The questionnaire is designed as a yes-or-no question for the quality of data collection. It consists of four parts (see Appendix). The first part of the questionnaire is designed for the purpose of examining students learning strategy. The second part is considered to investigate the effects of teachers' questioning strategy on improving students' autonomous English learning. The third and the fourth parts aim to explore whether the students' group work and the five-minute talk show in class can help students' self-instruction in English learning.

C. Research Design

This study was designed to find out whether the teaching strategies could help the participants grow into self-instructive English learners from the teacher independence English learners. The teaching strategies the teacher applied to in English class in this study were the teachers' questioning strategy, students' group work and the 5-minute talk show in class. The present study aims to investigate whether the participants adopted self-instruction as their learning strategies in the English learning and whether the teacher's classroom teaching strategies help the participants improve their self-instruction. The participants were presented with the same questionnaire twice. The first time was on the fifth academic week in the first term of their college study. It was the time the participant students had just finished their military training and began their college study. The purpose was to examine whether the participants were teacher-dependent or not. The data collected this time was named Data 1. The second time for conducting the questionnaire was on the first week of the second term. The collected data was Data 2. There was a comparison between Data 1 and Data 2, exploring the problems on self-instruction learning strategies of the participants involved in this study.

D. Data Analysis

Answers collected from the questionnaire were served as research data. Mean (see Table 1) was applied to investigate the roles of learners learning strategy. Mean in Table 2, 3 and 4 was used to disclose the effect of classroom teaching strategies in fostering English learners to move away from teacher-dependence.

III. Results and Discussion

TABLE 1
RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONS OF LEARNING STRATEGIES (LS)

Questions No.	Mean of answer "yes" for Data 1 N=87	Mean of answer "yes" for Data 2 N=87	Implication of students' learning strategy	Mean of answer "no" for Data 1 N=87" ;	Mean of answer "no" for Data 2 N=87"	Implication of students' learning strategy
1	59.77	97.77	Self-instruction	40.23	2.23	Teacher-dependence
2.	95.40	97.70	Self-instruction	4.60	2.30	Teacher-dependence
3.	32.18	73.56	Self-instruction	67.82	26.44	Teacher-dependence
4.	89.66	39.08	Teacher-dependence	10.34	60.92	Self-instruction
5.	52.87	86.21	Self-instruction	47.13	13.79	Teacher-dependence
6.	24.14	89.66	Self-instruction	75.86	10.34	Teacher-dependence
7.	47.13	83.91	Self-instruction	52.87	16.09	Teacher-dependence

Table 1 displays the mean of the students' learning strategies used in their English learning. In Table 1, Data 1 shows that most of the students have serious teacher dependence. Students' answers to Question 4 mean that 89.66 % of the students wait for the teacher to give them the answers instead of trying other ways by themselves to solve the problems. More than half (67.82%) of the students don't like to cooperate with the others. Most of the students (75.86) do not make use of the internet to help with their study. 52.87% of the students do not engage them to interact with the teacher in class. The mean (59.77) of the first question shows that over half of the students do not preview the text they are going to learn. This result is accorded with that of Question 4. This means that the students have the poor study strategy. However, the mean of Question 2 shows that 95% of the students utilize some reading skills to help them understand the learning text. This strategy may be developed from the middle school study because this strategy is commonly used to improve the scores in the tests. Compared with Data 1, Data 2 shows clearly that most of the students have changed their learning strategies of college study in a term's time. The number of the students who always wait for the teacher' answer is reduced to a great extent from 89.66 in Data to 39.08 in Data 2. 73.56 % (32.18% in Data 1) of the students begin to study with the other classmates. This may imply that the students find they have been benefited from the group work. The means of Question 1,3,4,5, 6, and 7 in Data 2 reveal that the students adopt the self-instruction learning strategy to make them move from teacher dependence toward self-instruction.

The results of Table 1 provide the affirmative answer to the first research question that intends to investigate whether there is any teacher-dependence among the participant students. Data 1 shows that most of the students have teacher dependence. It is not surprising to find that the participants were teacher dependence because most of the students studied English in a middle school where they were taught for the purpose of passing college entrance examinations. Most of the students in their written answers to the questions "why" said that the teachers in the middle school English class used Chinese to teach English and the teacher would give students a detailed explanation about the language knowledge in every corner of the textbooks. The teachers were expected to provide all the answers to the English study problems. The students were all engaged in doing test papers in most of their time and they have no time working with other students. What they could do in English class was sitting down in the classroom silently, listening to the teachers carefully, taking down what the teacher said and finishing the homework assigned by the teachers. Only at college do they have the chances to receive the training of self-instruction learning.

TABLE 2
RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS OF THE TEACHER QUESTIONING STRATEGY

Questions No.	Characteristics of Questions:	Mean of answer "yes" for Data 1 N=87	Mean of answer "yes" for Data 2 N=87	Mean of answer "no" for Data 1 N=87	Mean of answer "no" for Data 2 N=87
8.	knowledge	97.70	98.85	2.3	1.15
9.	comprehension	74.71	96.55	25.29	3.45
10.	comprehension	26.44	64.37	73.56	35.63
11.	comprehension	6.90	49.43	93.1	50.55
12.	analysis	73.56	89.66	26.44	10.34
13.	synthesis	36.78	66.67	63.22	33.33
14.	evaluation	32.18	58.62	67.82	41.38
15.	wait-time	94.25	91.95	5.76	8.05
16.	Wait-time	89.66	98.85	10.34	1.15
17	feedback	80.46	87.36	19.54	12.65

Table 2 presents the students' responses to the questions raised by the teacher in class. In Data 1, it is found that only 6.90% of the students felt easier to do some paraphrasing. It is clear that most of the students did not know how to paraphrase a sentence in the learning text. The students need to lay a training on how to paraphrase a sentence because it is a new skill for understand the learning text better at college. The mean (26.44) of question 10 reveals that the students found it difficult to explain the meanings of the new words in English. This may be due to the limited vocabulary and poor oral English. The purpose of Question 13 is to examine the students' ability to assimilate the learning materials and Question 14 is to check the students' ability to develop their opinions. The means (36.78, 32.18) of the two questions imply that the students had weakness to deal with higher level questions. The means (97.70, 74.71) of Questions 8 and 9 reveal that the students had done better in the lower level questions. It is understood that factual knowledge can be easily found in the learning text and the simple analyzing ability is required for the tests in the middle school. As to the other questioning strategies such as wait-time and feedback, most (89.66%, 80.46%) of the students said "yes" to the question.

It is inspiring to find in Data 2 that most of the students made great progress in dealing with the higher level comprehension questions after a term's college study. Although less about half of the student still had the problem in sentence paraphrase, the number of the students who had improved their paraphrasing ability is obviously increased.

As to the second research question of whether the teacher questioning strategy has the positive effect on improving students' self-instruction in English learning. Data 2 in Table 2 provides the positive answers to this research question. The results in Data 2 disclose that the teaching strategies used in this study lead students to adopt the self-instruction learning strategy. The answers to the question "why" in the questionnaire given by most of the students were that

because they wished to have a better understanding of the learning texts, interact with the teacher successfully and behave well in English class, they spent most of their spare time in the classroom and the school library learning English alone or with the other classmates. This indicates that the teacher questioning strategy may help foster the students' self-instruction learning in English. Ornstein (1990:284) stressed that "through the appropriate strategies in formulating and ask questions, the teacher can help students understand and utilize content and formulate ideas, concepts, relationships and principles."

TABLE 3
RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONS OF GROUP WORK

Questions No.	Mean of answer "yes" for Data 1 N=87	Mean of answer "yes" for Data 1 N=87	Mean of answer "no" for Data 2 N=87	Mean of answer "no" for Data 2 N=87
18.	24.14	73.56	75.86	26.44
19.	49.43	72.41	50.57	27.59
20.	14.94	78.16	85.06	21.84
21.	28.74	81.61	71.26	18.39
22.	43.68	71.26	56.32	28.74
23.	4.60	62.07	95.4	37.93

Table 3 demonstrates the comparison of students' responses to questions of group work in Data1 and Data 2. The results in Data 1 display that at the beginning of the college study most (75.86%) of the students did not enjoy the group work. The same implication is found in the mean of Question19 that less than half (49.43%) of the students had the group work more than once a week. Only 14.94% of the students engaged themselves in talking in English with the group members in group activities. 28.74% of the students thought they had learned something from the partners in the group activities. 43.68% of the students found group work help improve their English pronunciation and oral English. Terribly, fewer students (4.60%) worked with the classmates to solve the other study problems.

Data 2 presents the amazing results of the group work and provides a positive answer to the third research question of whether students' cooperative learning helps foster students' self-instruction in English learning. Most of the students appreciated the group work. They said that they were benefited a lot from the group work in the answers to the question "why" in the questionnaire. Particularly cooperative learning taught those students who were not familiar with this type of learning. Each group member is responsible not only for his own learning but also for helping group members, thus, every member can have a sense of achievement. The students found easier and interesting to talk with the partners in English because the group activities involved the students' interest and their favorite topic. They said that they were always eager to share the information with their group members. The group work helps students develop oral communicative and social skills. Long, Adams, McLean, and Castanos (1976) stated that group work made students produce better language production compared to learners working individually. According to Dickinson (1987: 5), the self-instruction is "situations in which a learner, with others, or alone, is working without the direct control of a teacher". Working with others is one of the elements of self-instruction. Thus, it is a good teaching strategy to help the students improve self-instruction.

TABLE 4
RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONS OF THE FIVE-MINUTE TALK SHOW IN CLASS

Questions	Mean of answer "yes" for Data 1 N=87	Mean of answer "yes" for Data 2 N=87	Mean of answer "no" for Data 1 N=87	Mean of answer "no" for Data 2 N=87
24.	88.51	45.98	11.49	54.02
25.	52.87	93.10	47.13	6.90
26.	28.74	62.07	71.26	37.97
27.	45.98	64.36	54.02	35.64
28.	12.64	79.31	87.36	20.69
29.	33.33	83.91	66.67	16.09

Table 4 demonstrates the responses to the questions of the five-minute talk show in class. The mean of Question 24 in Data 1 shows that most (88.51%) of the students felt worried to do the talk show. There may be some reasons. The first reason may be that the speakers were not allowed to read the written material prepared before the talk show. This may be their first time to speak English before the whole class. Second, the students were not self-confident and afraid of making mistakes. Third, the students may not make good preparation for it. About half of the students spent little time preparing the talk show in their spare time according to the mean of Question 25. Fewer students (28.74%) in Data 1 can do the talk show freely and fluently without referring to the prepared written material. One of the reasons the students stated in their answers to the question "why" in the questionnaire is that they felt so nervous that they could not remember everything. Only 12.64%of the students announced they had some benefit from the talk show given by the other classmates. They reported the reason in their answers to the question "why" in the questionnaire that they could not understand what the others said in talk show. Based on the mean and discussion about the talk show done at the beginning of the term, it is not surprising to notice that only 33.33% of the students would like more chances to do the talk show in class.

With respect to the fourth research question about whether the 5-minute English talk in class cultivates students' ability of self-instruction, Data 2 in Table 4 offers a affirmative answer. The mean of Question 24 in Data 2 shows that the students who did not feel worried outnumber (54.02%) the students (88.51%) who felt worried to do the talk show. The reason may be that the students had the experience of talk show in class and they practiced it as long as they had the chances . So 93.10% of the the students spent more time preparing and practicing the talk show in their spare time according to the mean of Question 25 in Data 2. Compared with Data 1(28.74%), much more students (62.07%) in Data 2 can do the talk show freely and fluently without referring to the prepared written material. They claimed that the talk show experience improved their self-confidence. It is exciting to find that 87.36 %of the students reported they had some benefit from the talk show given by the other classmates. The mean (83.91) of Question 29 indicates that the students had improved their self-instruction through the talk show in class. Without the control of the teacher in their spare time, the students had learned to manage to solve the problems in English learning at college.

IV. Conclusion

This study examined the effects of classroom teaching strategies in cultivating the self-instructive ability of English majors. There are some findings in this study. First, most of the students involved in this study were the victims of the teacher dependent English teaching. Second, it is confirmed that the teaching strategies such as teacher questioning strategy, students' cooperating learning and the time-limited English talk show in class can help the teacher-dependent students grow into the self-instructive ones. Third, the teacher questioning strategy will encourage students to participate in the classroom discussion, give students the opportunity to think about the questions and work out of ways to solve them. Wait-time strategy allows students to utilize the different skills to produce appropriate answers. Positive feedback to the students' answers encourages and stimulates students to learn English. This can aid students learn to be self-instructive. Fourth, students' cooperative learning motivate the students to learn from each other without the control of the teacher. Group work can help students improve their oral communication; promote their self-esteem and help foster students' self-instruction in English learning. Fifth, talk show involves the students in doing more English learning on their own without the teacher. It may improve the students' self-confidence. The results in this study indicate that the students had improved their self-instruction through the talk show in class.

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Appendix

Questionnaire Sheet

Age _____Gender_____Grade_____

The years that have been exposed to English_____

A. Questionnaire of students learning strategy

1. Do you often preview the texts before class?
2. Do you try some reading skills to understand the new words and the learning text?
3. Do you like to study with the other classmates?
4. Do you always wait for the teacher's answers or solutions to the study problems?
5. Do you manage to solve the study problems by yourself immediately?
6. Do you like to search for the solutions to the study problems on the internet?
7. Are you always active in answering the teacher's questions in English class?

B. Questionnaire of teachers' questioning strategy

8. Do you feel easier to answer when the teacher asks the questions of when and where the story happened in the textbook, and why?
9. Do you feel easier to answer when the teacher asks how the story happened, and why?
10. Do you feel easier to answer when the teacher asks you to explain the meanings of new words in English, and why?
11. Do you feel easier to answer when the teacher asks you to do some paraphrasing in English, and why?
12. Do you feel easier to answer when the teacher asks you to analyze the text structure, and why?
13. Do you feel easier to answer when the teacher asks you what you can infer from the story, and why?
14. Do you feel easier to answer when the teacher asks your opinions about the characteristics of the main protagonist and why?
15. Do you feel anxious when the teacher asks you to answer the questions at once?
16. Do you like the teacher to ask you to answer the questions after you discuss them with the partners or the group members?
17. Do you like the teacher to correct your mistakes in time?

C. Questionnaire of students' group work

18. Do you enjoy the group work?
19. Do you have your group activity more than once a week?
20. Do you often engage yourself in talking in English with the group members in group activities?
21. Do you think you have learned something from your partners in the group activities?
22. Do you find any progress you have made on English pronunciation and oral English through group work?
23. Do you often have the group activities to deal with other study problems except the required tasks?

D. Questionnaire of the five-minute talk show in class

24. Do you feel worried about the five-minute talk show in class?
25. Do you spend enough time preparing the five-minute talk show in class?
26. Can you or are you going to do the talk show in class without the prepared written materials?
27. Do you think the talk show in class improve your self-confidence?
28. Do you benefit from the talk show given by the other classmates?
29. Do you want more chances to do such talk show in class?

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The Impact of Teacher Self-efficacy on the Students' Motivation and Achievement

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***Abstract*—The study of self-efficacy and its impact on human performance has intrigued a lot of scholars during the last two decades (e.g. Clayson, D. & Sheffet, M. 2006; Nauta, M. 2001; Muijs &Rejnolds, 2001; Bandura, 1997; Podell & Soodak, 1993). The objective of this research was to investigate the influence of teacher self-efficacy (TSE) on the students' motivation and achievement. To this end, eighty senior high school teachers in four different cities in Iran, and one hundred and fifty senior high school students, based on their teachers' level of self-efficacy, have been selected randomly. For data collection, two instruments were employed: Teacher Self-Efficacy and Students' Motivation questionnaires. Data were analyzed through Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and ANOVA. The results of the study revealed that teacher self-efficacy has a positive influence on the students' motivation and achievement. The results of the study and their pedagogical implications are discussed, and recommendations for further research are provided.**

***Index Terms*—self-efficacy, teacher self-efficacy, students' motivation, students' achievement**

I. Introduction

The role of self-efficacy in teaching and learning continues to intrigue researchers and practitioners. Previous research has provided empirical evidence in supporting the effectiveness of teacher self-efficacy, or the extent to which a teacher believes that he or she can influence the students' outcome, in educational contexts (Podell & Soodak, 1993; Muijs &Rejnolds, 2001; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy 2001). Studies have indicated that teacher self-efficacy has been associated with teacher effort and persistence in encountering difficulties (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Podell &Soodak, 1993), self-efficacy beliefs and academic performance and persistence (Martin & Marsh, 2006; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2004), professional commitment (Evans & Tribble, 1986), openness to new methods in teaching and positive teacher behavior (Guskey, 1988) and using more humanistic, positive, or teacher-based strategies to deal with student problems (Woolfolk, Rosoff, & Hoy, 1990).

Although a substantial body of research (e.g., Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Ashton and Webb 1986 ;Rushton, Morgan, & Richard 2007) has revealed that TSE has influence on teachers and students, unfortunately, such studies have failed to investigate more explicitly the link between teacher self-efficacy and students' motivation and achievement. In addition, few studies have explored the validity of TSE across groups of teachers in different settings.

The purpose of this study was two-fold: The first purpose was to examine whether there is any significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and students' motivation, and the second purpose was to examine if there is any difference in students' achievement based on their teachers' level of self- efficacy.

II. Review of Literature

Studies on teacher self-efficacy have largely been conceptualized within Bandura's (1994, 2002) notion of self-efficacy. Teacher self-efficacy has been defined as the extent to which a teacher is confident enough to his or her ability to promote students' learning (Bandura, 1994). According to Bandura, human behavior is motivated by the interaction of two kinds of expectations: Self efficacy and outcome expectancy; the former referring to peoples' judgments of their capability to undertake and execute successfully a specific task in a specific context, and the latter including judgments about the likely consequences that this performance would bring about.

Ashton and Webb (1986) recognized that highly efficacious teachers tend to be more organized, display greater skills of instruction, questioning, explaining, and providing feedback to students having difficulties, and maintaining students on task. Low efficacy teachers, on the other hand, display a more custodial than humanistic approach to classroom management, spend significantly more time in group work as opposed to whole group instruction, feel angered and threatened by misbehavior, and experience difficulty in maintaining students on task.

Finally, according to Smylie (1989), teachers with high self-efficacy are much more likely to provide opportunities for student communication by using a variety of models to meet the needs of all learners (working individually, in pairs, and in groups). Research has also substantiated that teachers with high level of self-efficacy are more likely to divide the class into small groups rather than teaching the class as a whole, thereby allowing the opportunity for more individualized instruction (Tschannen-Moran, 2001)

A. Teacher Self-efficacy and Students' Motivation

According to Pintrich & Schunk (2003) motivation is "a process for goal-directed activity that is instigated and sustained" (p.5). According to Gardner motivation theory (1985) students are motivated to learn and achieve when they perceive their teachers care about them. Teachers who care were described as demonstrating democratic interaction styles, developing expectations for student behavior in light of individual differences, modeling a "caring" attitude toward their own work, and providing constructive feedback.

Moreover, efficient teachers encourage students for understanding. They treat students' misunderstandings in the subject and they utilize different visual aids in order to make the subject more enticing and meaningful. Additionally, they give students opportunities to engage in conversations and give substantive feedback rather than scores on assignments. Additionally, there is some evidence that teachers' affect, like enthusiasm for learning and their sensitivity concerning students' treatment, might affect students' emotions related to the objectives (Stipek et. al., 1998).

The relationships between teachers and students also influences classroom climate; Teachers are responsible for regulating the classroom environment, including regulating classroom discipline, implementation of approaches and methods to learning, interacting with the students in the classroom. Wentzel (1994) found that students' perceptions of positive affinity with their teachers were related to their pursuit of pro-social classroom goals such as getting along with others and being socially responsible, and were more strongly correlated to student interest in school than perceived support from parents and peers.

Perceived support from teachers also is a positive predictor of effort in schools and the pursuit of social responsibility goals, including acting in pro-social ways that encourage peer cooperation (Wentzel, 1994). Conversely, students who perceive teachers as harsh and cold are found to consistently display poor social behavior and low social goals as well as to achieve lower academically, in comparison with their peers (Wentzel 1998).

Students care about their relationships with their teachers and respond with greater engagement and effort when they believe that their teachers care about them and are supportive. One way that teachers convey these qualities is through their discourse with their students in the classroom. Classroom discourse structure concerns the manner in which teachers engage student participation in learning, promote intrinsic motivation, and balance appropriate challenges with skill levels.

B. Teacher Self-efficacy and Students' Achievement

A number of studies have elaborated about the influence of teacher self-efficacy beliefs on children's achievement and success at school (Muijs &Rejnolds, 2001; Tournaki& Podell, 2005). Teacher's self- efficacy beliefs may influence a student's achievement in several ways: teachers with high self-efficacy beliefs are more likely than teachers with a low sense of self-efficacy to implement didactic innovations in the classroom, to use classroom management approaches and adequate teaching methods and encourage students' autonomy, and to take responsibility for students with special learning needs (Allinder, 1994), to manage classroom problems (Chacon, 2005), and to keep students on task (Podell& Soodak, 1993).

Ross (1992) investigated the relationship between student achievement, teacher efficacy, an interaction with assigned coaches on a sample of 18 grade 7 and 8 history teachers in 36 classes. The result of the study indicated that students' achievement was higher in classrooms of teachers who had more contact with their coaches, and in classrooms of teachers with greater confidence in the effectiveness of education.

In addition, Tournaki and Podell (2005) gathered data from three hundred and eighty-four general education teachers in order to examine how the interaction between student and teacher characteristics affects teachers' predictions of students' academic and social success. The participants responded to one of 32 possible case studies describing a student, in which gender, reading achievement, social behavior, and attentiveness were manipulated experimentally, and to a 16-item teacher-efficacy scale. Their findings indicated that teachers with high efficacy made less negative predictions about students, and seemed to adjust their predictions when student characteristics changed, while low efficacy teachers seemed to be paying attention to a single characteristic when making their predictions. Also, all teachers responded similarly to students who exhibited a combination of aggressive and inattentive behaviors, that is, if students were friendly, inattentiveness were tolerated more than if they were aggressive. Furthermore, all teachers made higher predictions of academic success for students reading on grade level even when they were aggressive, than for students reading below grade level even when they were friendly.

The necessarily brief review of studies has indicated the paucity of practical work on investigating the impact of teacher self-efficacy on the students' motivation and achievement in the ESL classroom. This provides a good justification for more studies in the areas. To this aim, this research addressed the following research questions:

1. Is there any relationship between teacher self-efficacy and students' motivation?
2. what is the impact of teacher self-efficacy on the students' achievement?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participant of this study comprised of two groups: the first group consisted of eighty senior high school teachers in four different cities of Iran. The teachers were both male (N=40, 50%) and female (N=40, 50%). Most teachers reported having a BA degree in English (N=68, 85%). The mean age of the participants was 31.68 (SD= 5.71) and their average years of experience was 10.17. The second group of participants consisted of 150 students in different cities. The students actually belonged to the classes whose teachers contributed to this study. That is, after completing the questionnaire, the teachers were divided into three groups, based on their level of self-efficacy. Of each group, five teachers were selected randomly. The researcher then asked 10 students, of each selected teacher, to fill out the students' motivation questionnaire. Of all 150 students who participated in the study 30 students were excluded in further investigation because they did not complete the questionnaire thoroughly. Multiple responses to individual items were also treated as unanswered, and were deleted from further scrutiny.

B. Instruments

For the purpose of data collection, two instruments were employed in this study:

1. The teacher self-efficacy Questionnaire, developed by Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2001). This questionnaire included 24 items which examined the teacher's idea about his/her effective control over Instructional Strategies (8 items), Classroom management (8 items), and Student Engagement (8 items). It used a 5-point Likert scale (*ranging from 1(Nothing) to 5(A great deal*)), to rank the teachers' level of self-efficacy. The items were translated into Persian, and checked for their meaningfulness by the researchers. The questionnaire was then piloted to ensure the researchers of the appropriate timing, and administration procedures, and also to avoid ambiguity and other related problems in the main study.

Using Cronbach alpha, the reliability estimates of the questionnaire was calculated. The reliability coefficient of the questionnaire was .76, showing a reasonably acceptable index of reliability coefficient.

2. Students' Motivation questionnaire (Appendix A) consisted of four parts: The first and the second parts elicit information on students' intrinsic (items 1-7) and extrinsic motivation (items 8-12), adopted from Schmidt (1996), the third part seeks out information on students' attitude toward learning English (items 13-18), adopted from Gardner (1986), and the fourth part shows students' opinion about the teacher (items 19-25), developed by the researcher. In order to examine the validity of the fourth part of the questionnaire (i.e., the students' opinions about the teacher), it was first reviewed by 8 experts in different universities; According to the experts' opinion, some of the items were deleted, and some others were modified.

Factor analysis was conducted on the students' motivation questionnaire to identify how the items in the questionnaire functioned, and whether they load on different factors. They could be actually classified into four groups.

To run factor analysis, the preliminary tests of the factorability of data were conducted. The result indicated that factor analysis was appropriate and could result in reliable information. Table 3.1 shows the results of tests of factorability of data.

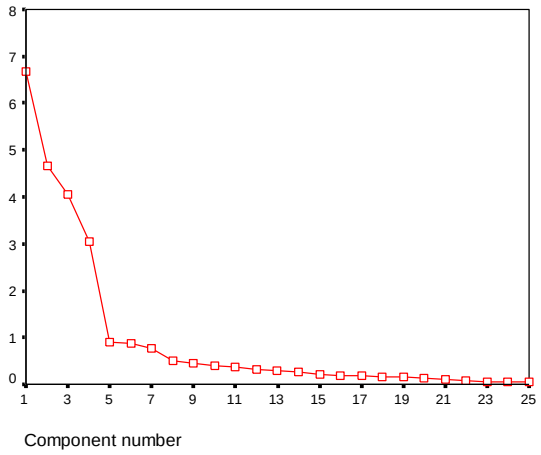
TABLE 3.1.
TESTS OF FACTORABILITY OF DATA

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure...		.815
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2830.755
	Df	300
	Sig.Bartlett	.000

According to the above table, Kaiser- Meyer-Olkin value was .815, exceeding the recommended value of .6, and Barlette's Test of Sphericity showed significant, supporting the factorability of the data.

The Screeplot (table 3.2), however, revealed that there was a clear break after the fourth component. In other words, after the fourth component the shape of the cure changed its direction and became, nearly, horizontal, which meant just four components were suitable for analysis.

TABLE 3.2.
SCREEPLOT ON THE STUDENTS' MOTIVATION ITEMS



The reason for running factor analysis on the data was to ensure statistically the items were related to each aspect of the students' motivation. Table 3.3 shows the student motivation items loaded on four different factors.

TABLE 3.3.
VARIMAX ROTATION OF FOUR FACTOR SOLUTION

Items	Comonent1: Extrinsic motivation	Component 2: Opinion about the teacher	Component 3: Attitude toward learning English	Component 4: intrinsic motivation
Item 2	.966			
Item 3	.897			
Item 4	.881			
Item 5	.878			
Item 6	.869			
Item 1	.859			
Item 7	.854			
Item 19		.882		
Item 20		.879		
Item 21		.857		
Item 22		.839		
Item 23		.816		
Item 24		.695		
Item 25		.542		
Item 13			.934	
Item 14			.849	
Item 15			.817	
Item 16			.817	
Item 17			.758	
Item 18			.739	
Item 9				.932
Item 10				.911
Item 8				.885
Item 11				.879
Item 12				.841
% of variance Explained	26.682%	18.643%	16.203%	12.196%

Note: Only loading above .3 are displayed

As indicated in the above table, factor analysis, and its later Varimax rotation revealed the presence of four components on which the items in the questionnaire were loaded strongly. This supported the idea that the questionnaire had four groups of items which addressed intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, attitude toward English, and opinion about the teacher separately. In other words, the result indicated that items related to students' extrinsic motivation loaded strongly on factor 1, items regarding students' opinion about the teacher loaded strongly on factor 2, items related to students' attitude toward learning English loaded on factor 3, and items related to students' intrinsic motivation loaded strongly on factor 4. More specifically each cluster items loaded separately on a different factor, reporting the multi-construct nature of the questionnaire.

Furthermore, the students' motivation questionnaire was piloted to help the researcher for the appropriate timing, administration procedures, and other related points in the main phase of the study. The pilot study was conducted on 50 students at two different schools in Iran. After piloting the questionnaire, some changes in some of the items were made. In addition, it was decided that the questionnaire be explained verbally in the main study, to avoid any

misunderstanding by the students. Using Cronbach alpha, the reliability of the whole instrument in the pilot study was estimated. It showed the reliability as .85, which was quite acceptable for the present study.

C. Procedures

The data collection was carried out in June 2011. For each data collection session, after a semi-detailed explanation to the teachers on how they were expected to fill out the questionnaire, they were asked to write their name and school name, but they were assured that all the data received from them will be publicized anonymously. The reason for writing their personal information on the questionnaire was for having their students' scores from their schools, and also selecting some of their students randomly. After that, the self-efficacy questionnaire was distributed among the teacher participants, and they were asked to complete it.

After the teacher participants completed the questionnaire, the data were sorted, and then the teachers were divided into three groups, based on their level of self-efficacy. Of each group, five teachers were selected randomly to select some of their students randomly to fill out the students' motivation questionnaire, and also to collect students' scores form the school that they have been teaching.

The second group of participants comprised 150 students who were selected from four different cities, based on their teachers' level of self-efficacy. After a brief explanation on how to fill out the questionnaire, the questionnaire distributed among them. When the student participants were completed the students' motivation questionnaire, the data were analyzed using SPSS software.

IV. Results

This study addressed two research questions: in the first research question, the researcher wanted to investigate the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and students' motivation. To this aim, Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted on teacher self- efficacy and students' motivation responses. It was also conducted on teacher self-efficacy and each component of the students' motivation responses. Table 3.1, shows the result of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient on students' motivation:

TABLE 3.1.
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER SELF- EFFICACY AND STUDENTS' MOTIVATION

		Teacher Self-efficacy	Students' motivation
Teacher Self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	1	.446(**)
	Significance(2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	80	80
Students' motivation	Pearson Correlation	.446(**)	1
	Significance(2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	80	120

** Correlation at 0.01(2-tailed):...

As the above table indicates, a significant correlation coefficient between teacher self-efficacy and students' motivation could be traced. Therefore, it can be inferred that the higher the teacher self-efficacy, the higher the students' motivation. Table 3.2 shows the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and different aspects of students' motivation (i.e., extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, attitude toward learning English, and opinion about the teacher) in this study:

TABLE 3.2.
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY AND DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF THE STUDENTS' MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

		Teacher Self-efficacy	Intrinsic	Extrinsic	AAtitude	Opinion
Teacher Self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	1	.394(**)	- .089	.793(**)	.240(*)
	Significance(2-tailed)	.	.000	.431	.000	0.032
	N	80	120	1120	1120	1120

* Correlation at 0.05(2-tailed):...
** Correlation at 0.01(2-tailed):...

As the above table illustrates, there is a reasonably positive correlation between teacher self-efficacy and different aspects of students' motivation: However, for the correlation between teacher self-efficacy and students' extrinsic motivation the result seems interesting: the more the efficacy of the teacher, the less the extrinsic motivation of the students' will be.

The second objective of this research was to investigate if there any difference in students' achievement based on their teacher's level of self-efficacy. To address the above-mentioned objective, one-way ANOVA was conducted. It was to show if there is any significant differences in students' achievement in different groups, based on their teachers'

level of self-efficacy. The one-way ANOVA was followed by Tukey post-hoc tests to find out where the significant difference among the groups was located. The result of this phase of study in summarized in tables 3.3, and 3.4.

TABLE 3.3.
ONE-WAY ANOVA ON STUDENTS' ACHIEVEMENT BETWEEN THE GROUPS

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Between Groups	27.757	2	13.879	8.402	.001
Within Groups	127.187	77	1.652		
Total	154.944	99			

* p< .05 ...

As the above Table demonstrates, F value was significant. This shows that there is a significant difference between/ among the groups. It is also necessary to find out where the difference is posited. Thus Tukey Post-hoc tests were conducted (table 3.4) to compare the groups, and to show where the difference is.

TABLE 3.4.
POST-HOC TEST RESULTS ON DIFFERENT GROUPS OF STUDENTS

(I) GROUP	(J) GROUP	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Significance	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Group A	Group B	1.0504(*)	.38697	.022	.1256	1.9753
	Group C	1.9893(*)	.48576	.000	.8284	3.1502
Group B	Group A	1.0504(*)	.38697	.022	-1.9753	-.1256
	Group C	9388(*)	.38697	.046	.0140	1.8637
Group C	Group A	1.9893(*)	.48576	.000	-3.1502	-.8284
	Group B	.9388(*)	.38697	.046	-1.8637	-.0140

* p< .05 ...

As the above table indicates, Group A performed significantly differently from both groups B (.22) and C (.000). Also students in group B performed better than those in C (.046). Thus it can be inferred that the scores of student group B is higher than that of group C.

V. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND IMPLICATION

This study investigated the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and students' motivation. It was also delved into the impact of teacher self- efficacy on the students' achievement. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was conducted between teacher self-efficacy, and students' motivation, and four different aspects of students' motivation (i.e., Extrinsic and Intrinsic motivation, Students' attitude toward learning English, and students' opinion about the teacher), in order to examine whether there is any significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and students' motivation, and also the different aspects of the students' motivation questionnaire or not. The analyses revealed that there is a reasonably positive correlation between teacher self-efficacy and students' motivation (.446). Thus, it can be argued that teacher self-efficacy positively influence students' motivation. Pearson product-moment correlation also showed a positive correlation between teacher self-efficacy and some aspects of the students' motivation, that is, intrinsic motivation, students' attitude toward learning English, and student opinion about their English teacher. The degrees of correlation were .394, .793, and .240 for intrinsic motivation, students' attitude toward learning English, and students' opinion toward the teacher, respectively. But the results showed little correlation (negatively) between teacher self-efficacy and students' extrinsic motivation.

In educational context like Iran, in which getting good scores in English is a best reward for the student in order to get a good job, to pass the course, and to succeed in the University Entrance Examination is very important. According to the finding in this research, teachers with a higher level of self- efficacy try to change the students' attitude toward learning English and consider English as a favorite subject to students.

This study also investigated the impact of teacher self-efficacy on the students' achievement. To address this phenomenon, ANOVA and post-hoc tests were conducted to examine if there is any difference in students' achievement, based on their teachers' level of self-efficacy. The result of one-way ANOVA revealed that the difference in the students' achievement in different group is significant (.001). Also the F value was significant (8.402). This shows there is a significant difference between the groups based on their achievement. The result of the post- hoc tests also revealed that the students' in group A, who had teachers with higher level of self-efficacy, got better scores than those of group B and C. In other words, it can be inferred that the higher the level of teacher self- efficacy, the higher the students' achievement.

The results of this study support the findings of the previous researches suggesting a significant correlation between teacher self- efficacy and increased students' achievement, by influencing teachers' instructional practices, enthusiasm, commitment, and teaching behavior (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001;Tournaki & Podell .2005; Wolters & Daugherty, 2007). The results are also in line with Bandura's observation (1994) that teachers who have a strong sense of efficacy

about their capabilities can motivate their students and improve their cognitive development. However, those who have a low sense of efficacy favor a "custodial orientation that relies heavily on negative sanctions to get students to study". (p. 11).

The results of this study, also, support Gibson & Dembo (1984) ideas, who maintained that teachers with a high sense of efficacy believe that unmotivated students can be taught, given the extra effort and appropriate techniques. In contrast, teachers with a low sense of instruction efficacy think that they can do little if students are poorly motivated, and the influence which teachers can exert on their students' intellectual development is severely limited by non-supportive or opposing influences from the home and the community in which the students live, and Moran &Hoy (2001) ideas that teacher self- efficacy is powerfully related to many meaningful educational outcomes such as teacher persistence, enthusiasm, commitment and instructional behavior, as well as student outcomes such as achievement and motivation.

The current study adds to our understanding of the motivation beliefs of teachers, and provides support for the use of the TSE scale outside of culturally western settings. Thus, we can hypothesize that teacher self-efficacy can influence students' motivation and achievement in different settings and thus it is not context–bound. It is also important that educational contexts, as well as schools' administrators provide clear opportunity in order to enhance teacher self-efficacy and, consequently, improve students' motivation and achievement. For young teachers who have not had adequate opportunity to build successful experience, and for whom self-efficacy may be most malleable, positive modeling and verbal encouragement may be especially important in building self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al. 2007).

Additionally, it seems that personality testing is lagging behind in education compared to the other disciplines. For example, in teacher recruitment, personality testing is either totally neglected, or there is just a subjective evaluation of applicants' personality. By replicating this study with larger samples and in different contexts, applied linguistics researchers can identify the personality characteristics which better fit English language teaching profession. Then, an objective personality testing can be applied to the applicants for this profession as one criterion for their selection, as it is common among other occupational groups. All of these implications seem to be applicable if the society and policy makers change their views towards teaching and education.

The results of this study indicated that there is a positive correlation between teacher self- efficacy and students' motivation and achievement. However, much other valuable information remains to be learned about the role of teacher self- efficacy in teaching. The following ideas for further research evolved out of this study:

1. Further studies can investigate the effect of teacher self- efficacy on students' self- efficacy
2. Further research is needed to investigate the effects of teacher self- efficacy on job satisfaction and teacher burnout.
3. There seems to be a need for further research to determine if teacher efficacy beliefs can be changed by specific administrators' action.
4. There seems a need for further research to investigate whether teacher self- efficacy can affect the amount of parental involvement in teaching.
5. Further research is needed to investigate if the level of teacher self- efficacy differs among beginner and experienced teachers.

APPENDIX A STUDENTS' MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear student

This questionnaire is designed to help us improve teaching English at high schools, and it isn't related to your lesson scores. Please indicate your opinions about each of the following statements by circling the appropriate number. Your answers will be kept strictly confidential.

A1. Answer according to the following scale:

Strongly disagree (1) Moderately disagree (2) slightly agree (3) moderately agree (4) strongly agree (5)

1. The main reason I am taking English class is that my parents want me to improve my English.
   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
2. I want to do well in English class because it is important to show my ability to my friends.
   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
3. I want to learn English because it is useful when traveling to many countries.
   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
4. I am learning English to pass examinations**.**
   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
5. I am learning English because English it is my compulsory subject.
   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
6. If I learn English better, I will be able to get a better job.
   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
7. I want to learn English because I want to study abroad in the future.
   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

8. English is important to me because it will broaden my view.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
9. I want to learn English to learn about people of England and USA.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
10. I want to learn English to get familiarized with the western cultures.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
11. I really enjoy Studying English.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
12. I love learning English.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
13. English is a very important part of the school programme.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
14. I plan to learn English as much as possible.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
15. I would Learn English if it were not our compulsory subject.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
16. Learning English is an enjoyable experience.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
17. I look forward to going to class because learning English is so good.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
18. I really enjoy learning English.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

A2. Answer the following questions according to the following scale:

Nothing (1) Very little (2) some influence (3) Quit a bit (4) A Great deal (5)

19. How much is your English teacher interested in teaching English?
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
20. How much is your English teacher interested in English?
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
21. How much does your English teacher use different teaching method
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
22. How much does your English teacher use Scores to discipline the classroom?
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
23. How much does your English teacher motivate you in cooperating?
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
24. How much does your English teacher provide feedback to students when they have difficulty in understanding the lessons?
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
25. How much is your English teacher tolerance to the students' misbehavior?
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

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A Short Analysis of Information Structures of English Sentences

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***Abstract*—This paper analyses information structures of English sentences broadly by comprising structural and semantic properties of utterances relating to the discourse status of their content and the states of the discourse participants. It mentions the concept of the notions like presupposition, focus, given vs. new, and topic vs. comment and discusses the relationships between them. Then it introduces the categories of information status and the animacy hierarchy. Finally it states the significance of information structure of English sentences.**

***Index Terms*—information structure (IS), information status, animacy hierarchy**

I. Introduction

Information structure (IS) is one aspect of the textual organization of language. It refers to the organization of a text in terms of the functions Given and New. These are often conflated with Theme and Rheme under the single heading "topic and comment"; the latter, however, is a complex notion and the association of Theme with Given, Rheme with New. IS is the encoding of the relative salience of the constituents of a clause, especially nominals, and is realized as choices among alternative syntactic arrangements. The IS of a particular clause is determined by the larger sentence or discourse of which it is a part (i.e., its context). The communicative effect of the IS is to foreground certain aspects of the message of the clause, but to background others. The need to encode IS is a language universal, but the formal means to do so vary widely across the languages of the world. In English, word order is strongly determined by syntactic conditions, such as the encoding of grammatical relations like subject and object, so here comes an important issue that how English indicates IS.

II. Terminology Explanation

Before the discussion of this issue, I will provide the explanations of some terms that will be mentioned later.

Given:

Given refers to "information that is presented by the speaker as recoverable to the listener" (Halliday, 2000, p.298). It is the information mentioned before in the context and shared by both the speaker and the listener). It serves as a link or bridge, or mark of relevance to new information.

New:

New refers to "information that is presented by the speaker as not recoverable to the listener" (Halliday, 2000, p.298). It is not really available in the context. It serves as the speaker's contribution that is based on the Given.

Topic:

Topic refers to "the entity, in a sentence, about which something is said" (Asher.R.E. and Simpson.J.M.Y, 1994, p.5181). e.g., "the books" in "The books were all on the bookshelf" is the topic here.

Comment:

Comment refers to "the part of a sentence which says something about the topic of the sentence" (Asher R.E. and Simpson J.M.Y, 1994, p.5103). e.g., "were on his head" in "His spectacles were on his head" is the comment here.

Presupposition:

"The assumption made in an utterance or discourse, the given which can be inferred from what is stated (Asher R.E. and Simpson J.M.Y, 1994, p.5160). e.g., from "Has your cat recovered?" it can be inferred that listener owns a cat and that the cat has suffered some illness, accident, or the like.

Focus:

"The new material in a sentence (Asher.R.E. and Simpson J.M.Y, 1994, p.5123).

e.g., if "John fell" is the answer to "Who fell?" "John" is the focus, not so if the question is "What happened?"

III. The Relationships between Topic/Comment, Presupposed/Focus and Given/New

There are no all-encompassing definitions of topic and focus in the literature. Both terms cover phenomena belonging to the whole spectrum of syntax, semantics, and pragmatics, with an extension to the phonological level. Perhaps the

most controversial concepts lie at the pragmatic level.

With different terminology, these two notions have been opposed to each other as 'given' (topic) versus 'new' (focus).

It is a fact that has been widely recognized, but for which up till now poor theoretical explanations have been given, that across natural languages there is a high tendency in unmarked sentences to map the contextually bound stretch of the sentence on to the subject and the contextually unbound stretch on the predicate. This tendency as well as the fact that the overwhelming majority of the world's languages are either SVO or SOV raises a problem concerning linearity. There is in fact no a priori reason why the contextually bound (given/less dynamic/presupposed) part of the sentence should come first.

The same correlation shows itself in the semantic definition associated with the two terms (note, however, that at this level the term "comment" is often found instead of focus). Here topic is "what is being spoken about", focus (or comment) is "what is being said on what is being spoken about".

When it comes to a purely syntactic definition of topic and focus, apparently it is the linear dimension of the sentence that is essentially involved. Different models have variously assessed the property of being a topic as the occurrence of a constituent in the first position of the sentence. This generalization, however, can be questioned. The property of being an argument of the verb is no less important as a syntactic criterion than purely linear considerations. By a larger consensus in the literature only those constituents that convey grammatical functions are considered as candidates for the topic function. Thus languages may have topics that do not occur in the first position of the sentence; to take one example, the so-called circumstantial elements that express the temporal or spatial setting may be placed in the first position, as in the sentence "Yesterday Mary was in great depression". Here the topic is not "yesterday", but the constituent with the subject function. Thus the idea seems well-founded that in general the first position should be differentiated from topic position, although there will be many cases in which the first position is the topic position. Things are further complicated by the fact that the topic often coincides with a phrase with multiple constituents.

Similar problems are faced in the attempt to obtain a syntactic definition of focus. Here again what is crucial is not merely the position inside the sentence, but also the categorical or functional nature of the constituent involved. Following a purely linear criterion, in fact, one could be led to assume that, at least in unmarked (i.e., nonemphatic) sentences, the focus position is the final one, since the linear dimension of the sentence can be conceived as a serial process of adding information quanta, each quantum conveying a higher information value than its antecedent. This assumption is wrong for two reasons: first, as in the case of topic, focus often does not coincide with a single constituent, but with a configuration of constituents. To resume the proceeding example, in the sentence "Yesterday Mary was in a bad mood" the whole string "was in a bad mood" is the focus, or more precisely, the "broader focus", although inside this domain, some constituents are more focal than others. For example, inside the VP (verb phrase) domain the focus proper is the NP (noun phrase) "a bad mood"; inside the NP domain, in unmarked sentences, the general consensus would be that the focus proper is the modifier "bad" (this is what is called 'narrow focus'). Second, the final position could be occupied by a circumstantial element, which is a typical nonargument of the verb: the previous assignment of "foci" holds true even in "Mary was in a bad mood yesterday" as well as in "Mary was in a bad mood during her stay in Japan", when these sentences are uttered with normal intonation contours (i.e., "yesterday" and "during her stay in Japan" have either no nucleus or a secondary one). Similar considerations hold true for other constituents occurring in the final position that do not have a strong dependency relation with the predicate frame and thus are extrasentential (e.g., "he said" in *John was upset by the War, he said*) or appositional (e.g., "Peter" in *I have just met my brother*, *Peter;* note that in "*I have just met my brother Peter*", with no pause between "brother" and "Peter" and the nucleus on "Peter", the latter constituent is the focus proper of the sentence).

Generally, topic occurs initially in a sentence and focus, finally, but not all of English word order is rigidly fixed. Some alternatives are commonly found, for example, "Today Mary is reading" and "Mary is reading today" and "The children are playing in the yard" and "In the yard the children are playing". That these differences encode information structure is apparent from constructing mini-dialogues. For example:

Question: When is Mary reading? (1)
Answer: Mary is reading ‖ today. (2)
PRESUPPOSED FOCUS
Answer: ? Today ‖ Mary is reading. (3)
FOCUS PRESUPPOSED
Question: Is Mary writing today? (4)
Answer: No, today Mary ‖ is reading. (5)
PRESUPPOSED FOCUS

The normal position for focused information in English is sentence final, but English is flexible and it does allow some deviations from this rule. However, the language does require that this deviation be signaled. Thus, the common way in English to encode focused information that is not sentence final is by a high falling pitch on the constituent (sometimes called "emphatic stress"). For example,

Question: Who saw Bill? (6)
Answer: ? Bill was seen ‖ by John. (7)

PRESUPPOSED FOCUS
Answer: John ‖ saw Bill. (8)
FOCUS PRESUPPOSED
Question: Which one is John? (9)
Answer: ? John is ‖ the manager.
PRESUPPOSED FOCUS
Answer: The manager is ‖ John. (10)
FOCUS PRESUPPOSED

Another way of altering the normal English ordering of presupposed information before focused is through it-cleft constructions. Thus the meaning of the sentence "Mike ate an icecream" could be expressed in it-cleft constructions, indicating unusual encodings of information structure. For example:

It was Mike ‖ who ate an icecream. (11)
FOCUS PRESUPPOSED
It was an icecream ‖ that Mike ate. (12)
FOCUS PRESUPPOSED

The relative clauses in it-cleft constructions are typically used to reintroduce information already known, but not foregrounded in the present discourse context. They are presupposed information, but are now being reintroduced and partially highlighted in this context; hence, they appear at the end of the sentence and in the position of focused information. It-clefts, contrast with wh-clefts, which have expected ordering of presupposed information before focused. For example:

The one who ate the icecream was ‖ Mike. (13)
PRESUPPOSED FOCUS
What Mike ate was ‖ an icecream. (14)
PRESUPPOSED FOCUS

Given their different information structure, it should come as no surprise that wh-clefts are found in different discourse contexts than it-clefts. The relative clauses of wh-clefts (presupposed) express information already foregrounded, assumed to be in the hearer's mind at the moment. Hence they have no need to appear in focus position, in fact, rather properly belong in the topic position they do indeed occupy.

The encoding of the topic-comment information structure in English is complicated by the common sentence initial position for subject nominal. There is, in fact, a very strong correlation between the concepts of topic and subject in English. Thus, the typical way to express alternatives of topic choice is to select different subjects. This is very common in English. For example:

Tears ‖ streamed down her face. (15)
TOPIC ‖ COMMENT
Her faces ‖ streamed with tears.
Blood ‖ flowed in the streets. (16)
TOPIC ‖ COMMENT
The streets ‖ flowed with blood.

In these two examples the same predicate is used with different subject/ topic choices. In other cases different predicates must be used. For example,

Question: Where is the dot? (17)
TOPIC ‖ COMMENT
Answer: The dot ‖ is ‖ inside the circle. (18)
PRESUPPOSED ‖ FOCUS
Answer: ? The circle surrounds the dot. (19)
Question: Where is the circle? (20)
TOPIC ‖ COMMENT
Answer: The circle ‖ is ‖ around the dot. (21)
PRESUPPOSED ‖ FOCUS
Answer: ? The dot is inside the circle. (22)

Any construction in English that affects subject selection also typically encodes the topic-comment information structure. For example, extraposition is a topic-altering device:

That John will attend ‖ is certain. (23)
TOPIC COMMENT
John ‖ is certain to attend. (24)
TOPIC COMMENT

And, perhaps, the most common information-structure encoding device in English is the alteration between active and passive voice, for example,

The manager ‖ sacked the pilots. (25)
TOPIC COMMENT

The pilots ‖were sacked by the manager. (26)
TOPIC COMMENT

Thus, the immediate discourse context determines the proper choice between active and passive, as with all information-structure alternatives. Consider these mini-dialogues:

Question: Who saw Bill? (27)
Answer: Bill ‖ was seen by John. (28)
TOPIC COMMENT
Question: Whom did Bill see? (29)
Answer: John ‖was seen by Bill. (30)
TOPIC COMMENT

The second answer is bizarre because "Bill" is the natural topic, as established by the question. Hence, Bill should be subject and the answer is proper in the active voice: "Bill saw John".

While there is a very close correlation in English between the notions of topic and subject, it is not the case that they are isomorphic; these are clear cases of topics which are not subjects. These are topics occurring sentence initially and preceding the subjects as the following sentences:

TOPIC		COMMENT	
Last night	‖	I saw three movies in town.	(31)
As for John	‖	he is such a clown.	(32)
Soukous	‖	I think it's the great African twentieth-century contribution to civilization.	(33)

Such constructions are especially common in informal spoken speech styles. The first example is an ordinary topicalization, while the second and third examples illustrate left-dislocations, in which a pronoun marks the position where otherwise the topic nominal would be found. Left-dislocations are used in English to express a change in topic in discourse, such as when a new topic is introduced which supersedes a previous one (this is especially noticeable with "as for"). Ordinary topicalizations, on the other hand, can be used to prevent as topic any constituent which is presupposed. It may not be explicitly mentioned previously, but must be presupposed. For example:

Question: What's your favorite dance music? (34)
TOPIC COMMENT
Answer: Soukous ‖my feet find irresistible. (35)

Soukous, a type of African dance music, is presupposed by the general cover term "dance music" in the question.

IV. Categories of Information Status

A. Given versus New Information

Topics are typically presupposed information and they are the starting point of the sentence. Focused nominals, on the other hand, are the end goal of the sentence, the information which the speaker intends to introduce into the discourse. Hence the topic tends to occur toward the beginning of a sentence and focus toward the end. Topics are closely correlated with the given or old information, which is currently in the speaker's awareness, while focused constituents are new information, just being introduced into the discourse. The concept of given information is more or less equivalent to presupposed, but new information need not (although it usually does) correspond only to the focused constituent.

Question: What happened? (36)
Answer: An enormous storm devastated Manila. (37)

Arguably, all the information in the answer is new, but only the nominal "Manila" is really the focus, which is usually demonstrated by high falling pitch.

There are other types of mismatches between topic and presupposed/given and focus and new. Some of these are exemplified by contrastive nominals. These are usually marked like focused constituents by a high falling pitch. Contrastive nominals are typically focused, but presupposed. For example:

Considering the suspects, only John has a motive. (38)

John is one of several suspects in a crime investigation; he is thus presupposed, yet new information is provided about him, as focus, as being the only person among them with a motive. Thus, he is set up in contrast to the other suspects, presupposed but focused. Another example of a focus-presupposed nominal would be in the following sentence in a discourse about dances. For example:

I like the lambada, but Sam likes the Cha-cha. (39)

People who like dancing are presupposed, and Sam is among them. But he is focused as being unusual in liking the Cha-cha; the goal of the sentence is to communicate this piece of gossip.

There are also examples of topics which are new information. Perhaps the best-known examples of these are found in the opening lines of stories, such as fairy tales. For example:

Once upon a time, a handsome prince lived in an old castle. (40)

"A handsome prince" is the topic of this sentence, but as it initiate a discourse, it is obviously not given information, but new.

B. Referential versus Nonreferential

Besides given/presupposed versus new, nominals may bear other kinds of information statuses, depending on the speaker's view of the listener's knowledge of their referents. A nominal is referential if the speaker intends that it refers to a particular entity in the world. For example, if someone rings a friend and asks "What are you doing?" and the response is "I'm looking for a dog". The nominal "dog" could be either referential or nonreferential. If the respondent has a particular dog in mind, for example, a pet, then "dog" would be referential as in

I'm looking for a dog. Shelby escaped from his cage. (41)

Here, Shelby is the dog's name. If, on the other hand, she/he is lonely and just wants a pet dog, then "dog" would be nonreferential, as in

I'm looking for a dog. I want a pet.

Pronouns like "I" "we" "you" "they" are typically referential, but at least two, "you" and "it", have nonreferential uses. For example:

You pay your money and you take your chances. (42)

It's raining in Melbourne, as usual. (43)

C. Definite versus Indefinite

A nominal is marked as definite when the speaker presupposes the listener can uniquely identify its referent; otherwise a nominal is indicated as indefinite. So if Mary goes up to John and announces, "Mike bought the dog", the definite article indicates that Mary presupposes John knows which dog she is talking about. If she does not, she would probably come back with additional information to help identify the referent of "the dog". On the other hand, if Mary believed that John had no knowledge of the particular dog, she would have initiated the conversation with the nominal indicated as indefinite: " Well, Mike just bought a dog."

Topic nominals are closely correlated with definiteness and because subject selection is largely equivalent to topic choice in English, indefinite subjects are sometimes impossible. For example:

TOPIC ‖ COMMENT
John ‖ has ‖ a new camera. (44)
PRESUPPOSED ‖ FOCUS

TOPIC COMMENT
The new camera ‖ is John's (45)
PRESUPPOSED‖ FOCUS

?A new camera is John's. (46)

Note that the variant with the indefinite nominal as subject and, hence, topic, is ungrammatical.

D. Generic versus Specific

This distinction indicates whether a nominal refers to the entire class of its possible referents or a specific one. For example:

Dogs are easy pets to care for. (47)

The dog is my favorite among my pets, but it keeps escaping. (48)

"Dogs" in the first example is generic; the statement is meant to cover all animals classed as dogs. The nominal "the dog" in the second example is specific, as the sentence only applies to a particular dog, my pet dog. Generic nominals can be definite or indefinite. For example:

The dog is an easy pet to care for. (49)

A dog is an easy pet to care for. (50)

Dogs are easy pets to care for. (51)

V. The Animacy Hierarchy

The distinctions of information status for nominals considered above were all established by the discourse context. Now it is time to assess the information status of nominals as determined by inherent properties of their referents, the most significant of which properties is being one of the immediate speech act participants: the speaker or the addressee. Speaker and addressee generally correspond to the personal pronouns "I" and "you". The traditional definition of a pronoun as a word which stands for a noun is inaccurate in the case of "I" and "you" in that there is no possible nominal for which they stand. The referents "I" and "you" are not constant, but rather they change in the course of interaction, depending on who is doing the speaking and who is being spoken to. This interplay of shifting referents of "I" and "you" in the continuing speech act is a fundamental fact of language.

The elements which do fit the traditional definition of pronouns as the forms which take the place of nouns are the third-person pronouns: in English "he, she, it, they". These are fundamentally different from "I" and "you". Whereas "I" and "you" have the present speech participants as referents, a third-person pronoun may refer to any referent, other than the speech act participants. The third person is, in fact, a non person, its possible referents being restricted to non participants in the speech act.

There is a fundamental principle of salience in the system of persons. The speech act participants, speaker and

addressee, are more salient than the absent participants of the third person. In some languages the addressee is more salient than the speaker. In other languages the speaker is more salient than the addressee. And, in still other languages, speaker and addressee have equal salience. Many languages make further distinctions between different types of third person nominals. Nominals with animate referents are more salient than those with inanimate referents, and among animates, human referents are the most salient. Some languages make a further distincdtion among nominals with human referents, with proper nouns more salient than common nouns. Finally, third-person peonouns are generally more salient than full nominals. A hierarchy of inherent salience can be established:

Speaker/listener > third-person pronouns > human proper nouns > human common nouns > other animate nouns > inanimate nouns.

The inherent salience of a nominal often determines the packaging of a particular expression. Nominals higher on the animacy hierarchy tend to occupy more prominent syntactic positions than nominal lower on it.

VI. Conclusion

Information structure construes a piece of information from the complementary point of view, as something having news value---something the listener is being invited to attend to. It may not contain anything the listener has not heard before; a great deal of "news" is totally familiar, being simply contrasted or even reiterated. On the other hand, the entire message may consist of unknown information. The message is construed along prototypical lines as an equilibrium of the given and the new, with a climax in the form of a focal point of information. This focal point usually comes at the end: but unlike the Theme+Rheme, the Given+New structure is not signaled, in English, by word order---it is signaled by intonation, and specifically by pitch prominence, the point of maximum perturbation (falling, rising or complex) in the intonation contour. The principle behind this is clear: if the Theme always came first, and the New always came last, there would be no possibility of combining them; whereas one powerful form of a message---powerful because highly marked---is that in which the two are mapped on to one another.

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Mnemonic Effectiveness of CL-motivated Picture-elucidation Tasks in Foreign Learners' Acquisition of English Phrasal Verbs*

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Abstract—**Learning the behavior/meaning of English phrasal verbs can prove challenging to the foreign language learner. This is mainly because such verbs, in their combinations with various prepositional/adverbial particles, often exhibit figurative senses not readily transparent to the learner. The absence of a culturally/socially rich experiential language setting giving rise to image-schematic patterns, as conceived in Cognitive Linguistic theory, might be an inhibiting factor in this regard. The present study takes this issue as its point of departure and examines whether pedagogical, picture-cued tasks revealing image-schematic concepts behind phrasal verbs would facilitate learners' inferences from their concrete to more abstract senses. It also aims to find out if such tasks would help enhance participants' acquisition and use of such verbs in the long run. For this purpose, 56 intermediate-level students aged 12-18 were randomly selected to go through the process of learning 42 phrasal verbs in an experimental or a control group each comprising 28 learners. Comparison of the results from the tests reveal a positive effect for picture-elucidation tasks – in contrast to more traditional use of discrete dictionary definitions – raising learners' awareness toward image-schematic concepts behind English phrasal verbs. The study also carries implications for foreign language pedagogy as the tasks designed for the purposes of this study could be effectively used and further explored within the framework of Task-Based Language Teaching.**

Index Terms—**Cognitive Linguistics (CL), image schemas, image-schematic picture-cued tasks, English phrasal verbs (EPVs), task-based language teaching (TBLT)**

I. Introduction

English Phrasal verbs (henceforth EPVs) constitute a class of verbs that provides particular difficulty for the foreign language learner (Condon, 2002; Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003) as they are made up of a main verb element and a prepositional/adverbial particle which more often than not extends the literal meaning of the verb into figurative significance (Dirven, 2001). Such configurations and the senses they embody create less of an obstacle for native speakers as they come across abundant evidence of their use from an early age (Mandler, 2004; Tomasello, 2003). This early, gradually expanding experience undoubtedly aids the native speaker in forming the necessary "image schemas" whose properties would then scaffold the construction of abstract concepts signifying in turn relevant linguistic expressions which embody abstraction in meaning (see Geeraerts & Cuyckens 2007 for various articles; see also Lakoff & Johnson 1980, 1999). Such image schemas, in the words of Johnson (1987), "emerge as meaningful structures for us chiefly at the level of our bodily movements through space, our manipulations of objects, and our perceptual interactions" (p. 29). In this sense, an image schema is the product of human perceptual interaction with real-world events and processes, "a recurrent pattern, shape, or regularity in, or of, our actions, perceptions, and conceptions" (Rohrer 2007, p. 35). In fact, image schemas act as "buffer" between bodily percepts and more abstract conceptual domains, mapping real world structure onto conceptual structure (Fauconnier & Turner, 2002). Cognitive linguists have invariably stressed and successfully demonstrated the fundamental role image schemas play in the construction and

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interpretation of linguistic expressions at various levels of abstraction (see, for example, Lakoff, 1987; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980 among others).

A number of CL-oriented research studies have aptly demonstrated that native speakers are subconsciously aware of such image schemas and constantly manipulate them in their application and comprehension of figurative language (see, for example, Gibbs, Bogdonovich, Sykes & Barr, 1997; Gibbs & O'Brian, 1990; Gibbs, Strom & Spivey-Knowlton, 1997; Nayak & Gibbs, 1990). The researchers believe these image schematic patterns are indispensible to appropriate understanding and use of figurative language.

For non-native learners of English in a foreign language setting, as postulated in the present research study, phrasal verbs seem a strange and elusive part of language to understand and use (Condon, 2008; Side, 1990). This is mainly because these learners are somehow removed from and are largely unfamiliar with the experience-embedded image-schematic concepts responsible for the formation of such linguistic expressions and their various senses (Tyler & Evans, 2005). This unfamiliarity is itself due to the fact that learners in a foreign language context do not share the lifelong socio-cultural experiences of the native speaker so as to arrive at the metaphoric extension a certain phrasal verb might encompass (see Ellis & Laporte, 1997; Tyler & Evans, 2001). Moreover, metaphor is a property of the human conceptual organization arising as a result of interaction within a certain environmental and socio-cultural context rather than a characteristic specific to linguistic elements per se, the received view from formal linguistics (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, 1999; McGlone, 1996). As such, to grasp the metaphoric senses of linguistic expressions, the learner should have gone through the life-long experiential process that gave rise to this metaphoric extension in the first place[1], the process Lakoff (1987) and Johnson (1987) refer to as "conceptual projection" (for a detailed description and analyses of the conceptual projection process, see Johnson, 1987 and Lakoff, 1987). This is apparently impossible in the case of the foreign language learner who inhabits a different linguistic/cultural environment, and would eventually result in learners' total avoidance or erroneous understanding and application of this class of verbs (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Ellis & Lapporte, 1997).

Undoubtedly, learning to recognize, comprehend, and actively use phrasal verbs is an inevitable part of learning English as a second/foreign language. The publication of numerous textbooks and reference dictionaries focusing exclusively upon the teaching and learning of phrasal verbs bears testimony to the prominence of this claim (among numerous textbook publications, see Allsop, 1990; Hart, 2009; McCarthy & O'Dell, 2007; for dictionaries and other reference works, see *Cambridge Phrasal Verbs Dictionary, 2006*; *Longman Phrasal Verbs Dictionary, 2000*; *Oxford Phrasal Verbs Dictionary for Learners of English (McIntosh, 2006)*). Phrasal verbs are frequently used in spoken English, especially in informal, conversational exchanges as well as in fiction and film (Burke, 2002). Learners encounter them in diverse contexts of use and need to find out about their meaning if they intend to communicate efficiently (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003). Misunderstanding and embarrassment often arise as a result of learners' avoidance and misuse of even a single phrasal verb (take, as an illustration, learners' frequent confusion over instances of prepositional/adverbial combinations with "look" as in *look for, look into, look up, look forward, look at, look out, look up to, look down on, look after*, and so on). The main challenge, as Azzaro (1988) points out, seems to originate from the widespread misconception among learners – as envisaged by teachers and textbooks – that verb-particle combinations do not follow precise patterns of construction and are to be merely memorized.

Even traditional EFL textbooks encourage learners toward the misleading conception that phrasal verbs and their verb-particle arrangements are absolutely random and need to be memorized rather than analyzed. As an illustration, Richards et al. (2005, p. 60) presents learners with a list of unrelated English phrasal verbs where the learner is supposed to pair a phrasal verb and its definition in a matching task. Undeniably, the sentences are so designed as to provide learners with helpful clues to the meaning of the phrasal verb in sentence context. Nonetheless, although the authors make generous use of pictures, cartoons, photos, and drawings elsewhere throughout the book, they have made no attempt to encourage the learner to grasp conceptual aspects of phrasal verbs through similar pictorial elucidations or informative illustrations of any sort. In fact, they seem to have considered the use of illustrations unnecessary and futile with respect to phrasal verbs and this is the issue this research study is perhaps most concerned with.

In order to enhance learners' recognition of abstract meaning conceptualization in phraseology, various researchers have specifically used CL theory and have devised pedagogical strategies to help learners cope with difficulties in this regard (see Boers, 2000; Condon, 2008, 2002; Csábi, 2004; Kurtyka, 2001; Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003; Side, 1990 among others). Although many such approaches have yielded fairly positive results in terms of their instructional objectives, it seems that the majority have, nevertheless, attempted to provide tables or representations depicting abstract relations between and among particles responsible for making up different phrasal verb constructions. Such abstract depictions and analyses needlessly – and perhaps inadvertently – make the task of acquiring nuances in meaning even more complicated and gruesome for the language learner. In essence, according to Bolinger (1971), if one intends to change learners' views that phrasal verbs are arbitrary and random combinations of verb-particle associations, clear and

[1] Recent approaches in foreign language pedagogy, from the more general Communicative Language Teaching Approach to specific methods like Task-Based Instruction, have all been concerned with producing a naturalistic environment of teaching/learning in foreign language contexts. All efforts have been directed toward the creation of process-oriented, real-life "tasks" that simulate an authentic environment similar to that of a native speaker (for more information, see Nunan, 1999; Richards & Rogers, 2001).

comprehensible conceptual delineations are inevitably required in any learning/ teaching context (see also Boers, 2000 in this regard).

Building upon CL theory, the present study takes a novel perspective toward the teaching of phrasal verbs in a foreign language context. The basic idea here is that if learners are to properly acquire and use phrasal verbs in English, the instruction of the abstract senses of their prepositional/adverbial particles is as futile as vague dictionary definitions stating the meaning of such terms[2]. Although dictionary compilers and editors have chosen good examples and have provided clear definitions, most students would still become completely baffled over the use of the same phrasal verb in a more figurative sense as in the sentence "*Hold on to hope*" (see part A & C of the Appendix for an imagistic representation of this metaphoric sense). In practice, many teachers have to resort to translation which may sometimes complicate matters to a great extent (see Vahid Dastjerdi & Talebinezhad, 2002 for a discussion of Persian university students' problems with figurative language use).

Picture-elucidation tasks in this study seek to integrate creativity and authenticity into the teaching of a number of phrasal verbs in English. These tasks are specifically designed to guide learners through various levels of abstraction in 42 instances of English phrasal verbs, building upon more concrete senses leading the learner smoothly toward having a better, fully operational grasp of their abstract senses. Tasks, within Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), are defined as learning activities whose main purpose is to help focus learners' attention and raise their awareness of a specific aspect of language (Willis & Willis, 2007). As Long (1985) puts it, "…by *task* is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in-between" (p. 89). As such, tasks draw on and reflect the experiential and humanistic aspects of learning (Nunan, 1999; Samuda & Bygate, 2008). A "picture-elucidation task," in particular, is one type of cognitive awareness-raising task (Skehan, 1998) in which learners' attention is directed toward salient features of one or a series of pictorial sketches, cartoons or photos rendering a more concrete aspect of the meaning of a linguistic expression. This concrete aspect then gradually leads learners to recognize similar salient features in more abstract pictorial elucidations of the linguistic expression in question. "Discovery" plays a vital part here in directing learners toward then intended goals of the task (for discovery tasks see Breen, 1987; Littlewood, 2004). Various learners' books (Collis & Kohl 1999; Collis, 2007) have utilized picture-cued elements to stimulate learner recognition and retention of various figurative items in English albeit in informal, non-professional terms.

With respect to the unique CL-informed perspective adopted in our treatment of EPVs, the research questions addressed in this study are as follows:

1. Does a CL-motivated instructional approach help EFL learners better acquire EPVs, compared to traditional strategies such as the use of dictionary definitions and/or the provision of plain statements of meaning?

2. Do pictorial elucidations evoking basic image-schematic concepts behind phrasal verbs significantly enhance participants in their understanding, retention, and proper use of EPVs?

3. Does a pictorial representation of a more concrete sense of a certain EPV assist participants' recognition of a more figurative sense of that EPV?

II. Method

A. Participants

The participants initially selected to take part in this study were 62 young male learners (aged 12-18), from a total population of approximately 500 EFL students, placed at intermediate levels of English proficiency at a private language school in Isfahan, Iran. In order to ensure homogeneity among the participants in the experiment, the placement procedure was carried out using a version of the Oxford Placement Test (OUP, 2005). All the students in the study shared Persian as their mother tongue. Prior to entering their relevant courses of instruction, participants were informed that they were going to receive instruction concerning a number of EPVs incorporated into their regular summer English courses at the institute.

In order to ascertain homogeneity with respect to knowledge of EPVs, a pretest comprising items testing potential participants on random instances of such verbs was also run. Eventually, six students with extreme scores on the pretest were eliminated from the total number of potential participants (for more information regarding the pretest results, see the section on *Results* further below). Thus, in the final stage, a total of 56 participants were randomly assigned to two groups in this study using tables of random numbers:

1. An "experimental group," arranged to receive treatment in the form of tasks including picture elucidations of the EPVs used in this study.

2. A "control group," which was to receive instruction on the same EPVs as in the experimental group. However, this was carried out through the presentation of dictionary definitions and/or example sentences containing uses of the verbs in question (see the section on *Instruction and Procedures* below for a discussion of materials and classroom procedures).

Table I below displays the results of an analysis of the scores gained by the selected 56 participants on the OPT:

[2] As an example of a dictionary definition of "hold on to," see the following from Longman dictionary of Contemporary English (2009, p. 837): [1] to have your hands/arms tightly around something: *Hold on to my arm.* [2] keep something rather than losing it, selling it, or giving it to someone else: *I think I'll hold on to these old records for now.*

TABLE I.
MEAN SCORES DETERMINING HOMOGENEITY BETWEEN GROUPS ON THE OPT

Groups	Mean	Number	Std. Deviation
Experimental	34.82	28	2.72
Control	35.92	28	2.96
Total	35.37	56	2.87
p-value	p > .8		

To control for the teacher variable, the main researcher in the study was given the responsibility to teach both groups so that any differences between groups in their results could be ascribed to the given treatment rather than personal styles of instruction. However, all three researchers collaborated in monitoring classroom activity and interaction and checked the materials and tests implemented.

B. Materials

After ensuring homogeneity in their general English proficiency levels (see Table I above) and prior to being assigned to any groups, the potential participants were required to take a written pretest containing a total of 84 gap-filling items in 2 sections each comprising 2 cloze-type passages. This division into 2 sections was for practical reasons, since testing a relatively large number of phrasal verbs in a single cloze task would prove both impossible to design and confusing for the students to respond to[3]. Moreover, a cloze task was preferred over isolated, decontextualized sentences as these would offer students no meaningful clues as to the selection of the appropriate EPVs for a certain context of use. Translations in the pretest, as in all other tests used in the study, were generally avoided[4].

The first half of the pretest – the "concrete section" – used two cloze passages to examine potential participants' knowledge of 42 phrasal verbs in their more tangible senses. The second – "figurative" – section, on the other hand, verified learners' awareness of more metaphorical meanings of the same 42 items included in the first section of the test. As such, the concrete/abstract senses of the phrasal verbs in question were tested separately.

No specific criteria were applied in choosing the 42 phrasal verbs examined in the pretest; we only made sure each selected phrasal verb could be paired based on a more concrete and a more figurative aspect of its meaning.

The pre-, post-, and delayed post-tests were all similar in design in that they all comprised parallel tasks (cloze gap-fill procedures dividing concrete/figurative phrasal verb senses); nonetheless, there were differences incorporated to minimize damage to the reliability of the scores we obtained from each test. One important difference between the pretest and the other tests was the inclusion of multiple-choice items (MCIs) each corresponding to a gap in the cloze task[5].

An immediate and a delayed posttest were also given to examine participants concerning their recognition and use of EPVs after passing their relevant courses of instruction. The immediate posttest was designed to verify participants' performances immediately after receiving their relevant treatments in each group, whereas the purpose of the delayed posttest was only to check for retention of similar material about four weeks following instructional procedures.

The two posttests were similar in design to the pretest; nevertheless, distinctions were incorporated as to improve test reliability factors. Firstly, the texts in each test differed in their subject matter, content, and wording to prevent repetition. Further, we only presented the participants with a jumbled list of the phrasal verbs at the beginning of each cloze passage in the posttests as to compel learners to "think over" and choose items to match gaps in the cloze tasks. The arrangement and use of phrasal verb instances in the four passages was varied as well.

With regard to scoring procedures, a correct answer (that is, the appropriate choice of one phrasal verb to complete a single gap in each passage) on each of the tests would count as "one score" and each incorrect/no response would otherwise count as "zero." Therefore, a total of 84 would be a complete score a participant could gain on every single test, and a total of 42 on each concrete/abstract section of the tests. Participants' informal oral/written classroom descriptions and reports were not included in the scoring, though.

The pictures, drawings, and photos used in classroom tasks were selected from various sources. Some were conveniently taken from the World Wide Web, while others were drawn by a cartoonist we consulted. One important feature we had in mind while choosing pictures or having them sketched was that the pictures had to conspicuously display the intended meaning figured in a certain EPV. For instance, if a schematic image of "hold on" were to be displayed, we made sure the picture chosen contained features that would readily provoke a mental image of "hold on" in the mind of the user (see, e.g., part C of the appendix). Further, we made sure the paired concrete abstract pictures displayed shared characteristics that were easily discoverable on the part of the learner (see appendix, part A).

C. Instruction and Procedures

[3] Language testing principles instruct test designers to include an average of 25-30 gaps in a cloze task consisting of a standard of 220-250 words (see Brown, 2010; Hughes, 1989; Madsen, 1983).

[4] In some instances, however, we were obliged to include translations of test rubrics or even had to translate difficult vocabulary within the text to prevent misunderstanding of general sentence meaning on the part of test takers.

[5] This was simply because, here, we only checked learner's "recognition" of a limited number (each MCI presented five choices for a single corresponding gap) of phrasal verbs for each cloze test gap, and not their productive, independent use (Brown, 2010 considers 3 to 7 choices for each MCI as optimal).

Before administering the pretest, participants were briefed about EPVs (giving examples they had already been practically familiar with, such as get up, go out, and come back) and were assured that their scores on the experimental tests would have no negative effect upon their end-of-term results.

The instruction of phrasal verbs was integrated into an extended general EFL program lasting over 3 consecutive summer months in 3 one-and-a-half-hour sessions per week (a total of 42 sessions). Furthermore, each session was divided into two 40-minute halves with a ten-minute break in between. Owing to the bulk of content students had to cover in standard courses, and for practical teaching considerations, we chose to introduce one phrasal verb every session, including both the more concrete and the more abstract senses. Both the experimental and the control group received the same phrasal verbs in their courses of instruction. The basic rationale for the inclusion of only one phrasal verb was that a single phrasal verb had to be examined in several contexts of formal/informal, concrete/abstract use. Further, in subsequent sessions, we began to include review activities of the phrasal verbs students had been taught in earlier sessions. After all, our delayed post-test aiming at retention of phrasal verbs would not exhibit any validity if we did not include elements of retention throughout our course of instruction.

The criteria for choosing which phrasal verbs to include were variation in base verb (be, come, go, hold, take) and variation in accompanying particles (in, on, up, down, out, and back). We consulted and randomly chose EPVs from classifications provided by Rudzka-Ostyn (2003) and from among the instances cited in Allsop (1990). The classifications were not, however, criterial in our choices of EPVs. Rather, the basic idea was to select items with a variety of particle and/or base verb combinations. This was because, unlike some previous studies (Condon, 2008; Dagut & Laufer, 1985), we did not intend to instruct the different senses and foci of a specified group of "particles" accompanying a verb base in relation to those particles' abstract representations. As mentioned before, for purposes of this research study, we separated the more concrete and the more abstract senses of each phrasal verb taught.

The instruction and practice procedures "experimental group participants" went through essentially included pictures, photos, images, and drawings that were representative of the image-schematic concepts giving rise to a certain phrasal verb meaning. To begin, students were randomly divided into groups of two or three. Copies of the initial picture and its accompanying sentences containing a concrete use of an EPV were given to every group. They were told to read the sentences carefully, look at the picture drawing, and try to recognize the meaning of the phrasal verb in context. The teacher also pointed out the fact that the picture represented an image which encompassed the meaning they were looking for.

After correctly identifying the meaning of the verb, the learners were given time to think over and discuss their "explanations" of salient picture features before they presented their oral/written, first/second language explanations to the teacher and other groups in class (for sample experimental participant descriptions, see part B in the Appendix). The purpose for this presentation by students was two-fold: to determine if they had worked out the appropriate meaning of the phrasal verb in focus and to correct any possible misconceptions about the intended features shown in the pictures.

In the second half of the session, the teacher started by handing out a different picture with a different set of sentence samples embodying a second more figurative sense of the EPV under analysis[6]. The same procedure as before was carried out here; but participants were made aware that they could draw on their understanding of the initial picture task and the more concrete usage of the verb to arrive at the more figurative sense. The purpose here was to ease learners into making a transition to the more abstract meaning of the phrasal verb they were working on. To conclude, the teacher further helped clarify commonalities between the pictures and, as such, intimate relations between phrasal verb meanings. The idea here was that "discovering" common attributes between the paired concrete and abstract image patterns would strengthen learners' association and retention of the more remotely evident sense(s) of an EPV.

The same sequence of phrasal verb instruction was carried out for the "control group participants". However, the teacher avoided using any visual stimuli to help learners work out the concrete/abstract meaning of a phrasal verb; instead, in the first half of the lesson, after being assigned to groups of two/three, the participants were given a phrasal verb in the form of a regular matching, sentence completion, or multiple-choice task of a more concrete sense and were given the chance to look up its meaning in a dictionary. Unlike their peers in the experimental group, control group participants were not supposed to provide any explanations regarding the meaning of the EPV taught.

As the class convened for the second half of the lesson, participants were given an exercise (once again in the form of a typical matching, multiple-choice and/or completion task) containing a more abstract use of the same phrasal verb introduced earlier in the first part of the session. They were instructed to complete the exercises by inferring the figurative meaning of the same phrasal verb the more concrete definition of which they had already identified. The instructor also helped, through translations or paraphrases, if learners ran into problems with overall sentence meaning. Table II below shows the sequence of activities used in the classroom for both groups in the study:

[6] Note that at times, to smooth this "transition" to the more abstract meaning, a series of consecutive pictures were utilized (see part C of the Appendix for one example in this regard; see also Spivey-Knowlton et al., 1998).

TABLE II.
SEQUENCE OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES FOR THE CONTROL & EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

Study Groups	Class Time: First Half	Class Time: Second Half
Control Group	Introduction & Interactive Practice: Examples of More *Concrete* Phrasal Verb (e.g. *hold on to the door*)	Introduction & Interactive Practice: More *Abstract* Instances of Phrasal Verb (e.g. *hold on to hope*)
Experimental Group		

In order to assess group achievement with regard to their methods of instruction, an immediate posttest was administered to both groups as soon as their courses of instruction were over (for test facets, see *Materials* above). Approximately four weeks later, a delayed posttest was administered to all the participants[7].

III. RESULTS

For the analysis of the numerical data from our tests, the SPSS software was used. The results we obtained from our data analyses, in terms of mean score differences and their corresponding *p*-values, were divided into three categories:

1. The mean scores obtained for each of the two groups in the study with separate analyses of average performance in each section of the pre-, post-, and delayed post-tests;
2. The amount of learning that took place as a result of the treatment from the pretest to the immediate posttest calculated by comparing the relevant group mean scores;
3. The degree of learning from the pretest to the delayed posttest plus the extent to which the participants in each group recalled the material they had learned verified through comparing the means from the immediate to the delayed posttest.

In order to compare the results from the control and experimental groups, the average scores for their respective performances on all the three tests in the study were analyzed immediately after obtaining the data. Table III depicts the overall average scores and their *p*-values for both groups on the three tests administered in the study:

TABLE III.
OVERALL MEAN SCORES ON THE PRE-, IMMEDIATE POST-, AND DELAYED POST-TESTS

Study Groups	Pre-Test	Immediate Post-Test	Delayed Post-Test
Control Group	3.18	40.07	26.93
Experimental Group	3.14	53.86	41.93
Significance	$p > .8$	$p < .005$	$p < .005$

Table III demonstrates an advantage for the experimental group on both the immediate and the delayed posttests. In keeping with the teaching practices in our group instructions (see Table II further above) as well as maintaining more precision in the results gained, an attempt was made to have two sections on each of the tests: a primary section checking the comprehension/use of more concrete instances of the EPVs taught, and a secondary section checking for the learning and appropriate use of the corresponding figurative senses of the same EPV. This allowed us the further benefit of providing more detailed analyses of experimental and control group performances on various subsections of each test. Table IV displays these detailed measurements and their relative *p*-values for both groups in the study:

TABLE IV.
DETAILED MEAN SCORES ON EACH SECTION OF THE PRE-, IMMEDIATE POST-, AND DELAYED POST-TESTS

Study Groups	Pre-Test		Immediate Post-Test		Delayed Post-Test	
	Part (A)	*Part (B)*	*Part (A)*	*Part (B)*	*Part (A)*	*Part (B)*
Control Group	1.89	1.29	26.76	12.96	19.82	7.11
Experimental Group	1.93	1.21	30.14	23.71	26.25	15.75
Significance	$p > .8$	$p > .7$	$p = .051$	$p < .005$	$p < .005$	$p < .005$

The means obtained on the "more concrete" section (Part A) of the immediate posttest reveals insignificant difference in performance between the control and the experimental groups. In contrast, the mean scores for the "more abstract" section (Part B) of the same test illustrate highly significant results for the experimental group as opposed to the unsatisfactory average for the control group. Both groups did have a drop in their mean scores on the first part of the delayed posttest, with the experimental group performance still significantly better. However, although the two groups gained much lower results on the second part of the same test with respect to their scores for the same section on the immediate posttest, the results indicate a significantly poor gain for the control group, only slightly more than half of the average on the second section of the immediate posttest.

Table V below illustrates the amount of learning that took place from the pre- to the immediate post-test as measured by subtracting participants' pretest scores from their respective scores on the immediate posttest. Although the table confirms greater benefit (almost double) from the CL-motivated approach for the more abstract section (Part 2), it only indicates slightly more gain (however insignificant) for the more concrete section (Part 1) by that group.

[7] There was no chance of delaying this test further since the students had to begin their next quarter a month from the end of our course and, thus, exposure to English would have probably confounded the results.

TABLE V.
BETWEEN-GROUP MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PRE-TEST & IMMEDIATE POST-TEST

Study Groups	Mean Differences between Pre- & Immediate Post-Tests	
	Part (1)	*Part (2)*
Control Group	24.86	11.68
Experimental Group	28.21	22.50
Significance	$p > .1$	$p < .005$

The pattern appears quite different, however, when comparing the groups' respective average scores from the pretest to the delayed posttest, as displayed below in Table VI:

TABLE VI.
BETWEEN-GROUP MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PRE-TEST & DELAYED POST-TESTS

Study Groups	Mean Differences between Pre- & Delayed Post-Tests	
	Part (1)	*Part (2)*
Control Group	17.93	5.84
Experimental Group	24.32	14.54
Significance	$p < .005$	$p < .005$

Here, the experimental group participants outperform their control group peers in both sections of the test (although both groups have significant drops in gain from their results on the immediate posttest). This is while the control group's performance decreases to a low mean on the second, "more abstract" part of the test in comparison to that of the experimental group. There is also a significantly greater reduction in average score on Part 2 for the control group compared to their score on Part 1 of the test.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. Response to Research Question One

The results from this study lend strong support to the basic hypothesis that a CL-inspired approach to the instruction of EPVs enhances EFL learners' acquisition of these verbs. Analysis and comparison of group performance in various parts of the tests (see the *Results* section above) demonstrates significant results for experimental group participants who received phrasal verb instruction using CL-inspired picture-elucidation tasks. These conclusions are already in line with current research illustrating the merits of applying insights from wide-ranging CL-directed research to problems of foreign language pedagogy. In a thorough review of studies of CL theory applications to practical language pedagogy, Boers (2011) argues for the favorable evidence which demonstrates the effectiveness of CL-informed second language pedagogy in general. De Knop et al. (2010) also presents positive evidence from CL-motivated classroom research and emphasizes the need for a pedagogical approach that explicitly demonstrates the semantic and conceptual regularities exhibited in the language being taught. Such a perspective, they argue, would help produce, in the long run, maximal benefit in terms of classroom investment of time and resources. Norris and Ortega (2000) investigated the effectiveness of implicit and explicit L2 instruction and maintained a strong case for the latter believing that explicit instruction drawing on research synthesis and qualitative meta-analysis proves more efficient and long-lasting in terms of its effect on L2 learning.

The researchers in this study contend that a CL perspective, such as the one adopted here, can serve second/foreign language teachers by providing models and suggestions for the design of innovative tasks that provide related concrete visual stimuli in inferring abstract meaning. In fact, an important dimension of our research concerns drawing on "shared" concepts from both CL and TBLT, namely experientialism and awareness-raising, to devise novel tasks that effectively address learners' problems in foreign contexts of learning. In their review of feedback from CL research for task-based instruction, Robinson & Ellis (2008) maintain that insights offered by CL can be fruitfully used in designing, sequencing, and creating tasks drawing on CL notions such as experientialization and conceptualization to maximize opportunities for learners in their analysis, interpretation, and use of various aspects of language. As Csábi (2004) also claims, offering challenge and motivation in second language teaching/learning options is a favorable aspect of CL theory and research yet to be discovered and usefully applied.

It is now generally agreed, following Paivio's *dual coding hypothesis* (Paivio, 1986), that a teaching/learning methodology drawing on channels other than purely linguistic ones such as drawings, visual representations, gestures, and the like can facilitate and improve not only the acquisition of a foreign language but also the retention of meaning and form through mental imagery and representation of verbal information. This study is one attempt at illustrating the practical merits of this hypothesis with a novel empirical procedure which is very promising (see also Skehan, 1998).

B. Response to Research Question Two

A quick look at the test results gained by our experimental group participants reveals that work on picture-cued tasks greatly improved their comprehension and proper use of EPVs. It seems that the enhanced recognition of concrete/abstract meanings in EPVs has been the result of participants' establishment of meaningful connections

between concrete/abstract image-schematic visual stimuli presented to them. Paivio's dual coding theory is especially relevant here (see Paivio, 1986) as visual representation of information contained in a linguistic expression seems to positively scaffold and enhance mental imagery, as the results of this study demonstrate.

Another important aspect of this enhancement is related to what Talmy (2008) refers to as the fundamental attentional system of language. He maintains that learners attend to the interactive salient features shared by the linguistic expression, the conceptual content, and the context at hand to create meaning. It is the integration of related sets of features presented by information from these various channels, rather than the pure linguistic expression, that helps discover meaningfulness in language (see also Rosch, 1977). What we have done in this study is the simple provision of the conceptual content and the context at hand accompanying the presentation of a phrasal verb that has "elucidated," in the words of Boers et al. (2008), learners' entry into various levels of meaning of an EPV. Learners' understanding of the semantics of an EPV is the result of their deriving vital information represented in physical-spatial, image-schematic patterns "mimicked" in simple yet creatively-designed picture-elucidation tasks.

An encouraging dimension of the experimental group performance is their relative success in the effective retention of meaning of EPVs, compared to the significantly low outcome achieved by the control group. It is evident that both groups have been subjected to memory loss over the one-month time lapse between the immediate and the delayed posttest which is a natural part of any short-term course of language instruction (for detailed discussions of second/foreign language attrition, see De Bot, 1995; Schmid, 2006). However, the large gap between the results of the two groups on the retention test of more abstract EPV senses, with the experimental group gaining a mean twice as much as that for the control group, supports the mnemonic effectiveness of pictorial elucidations over a longer period of time when virtually no treatment with regard to phrasal verbs took place[8]. This is already in agreement with findings from other studies of mnemonic variables in pictorial elucidations motivated through a CL approach (Boers et al., 2008; Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008). Boers et al. (2008), for example, examined ways in which pictorial elucidations of concrete linguistic expressions aided learners' recall of their more figurative usage. Similar to the results in this study, they found that pictorial representations of concrete/abstract meanings were highly beneficial to learners who tended to think in pictures; their data also demonstrated, perhaps surprisingly, that such representations further encouraged learners with a tendency to think in words to opt for visual imagery that seemed more motivating and helpful in nature.

Interestingly enough, contrary to the findings by Boers et al. (2008) above, an informal review of the test responses provided by our experimental participants revealed that the picture-cued tasks facilitated learners' retention of meaning, as well as their retention of "form." Perhaps, the reason for this success in remembering form, especially recall of which prepositional/adverbial article to use even in the case of abstract EPVs, could be attributed to the unique nature of pictorial tasks created and used in this study (see parts A & C of the Appendix for representative samples). In fact, in our picture drawings, one salient feature particularly addressed was how the prepositional/adverbial particle was to be visually transparent.

Naturally, to direct participants' attention to minute distinctive features of "particles" in the picture tasks, teacher guidance and supervision was indispensible. Along with studies that encourage teacher intervention (see, for instance, Tyler & Evans, 2005; Boers, 2011; Vahid Dastjerdi and Talebinezhad, 2002), we believe that teachers can play an extremely useful role in directing and maintaining learners' attention to such escapable but important aspects of pictorial representations of EPVs.

C. Response to Research Question Three

Perhaps, the most fundamental objective of the present study was to observe whether a visual representation of concrete meaning could guide learners' inferences of related abstract significance. Comparison of the results between the first and second sections of our posttests lends support to this notion in particular. In fact, the results clearly demonstrate that visual elucidations of basic image-schematic content not only do enhance performance on the more concrete instances of EPVs, but also significantly improve inferences of related abstract meanings of such verbs.

Isolated dictionary-like definitions and/or examples of EPVs strung together in a list, such as the ones used in control group classroom activities in this study, create more struggle than service in helping learners' smooth transition from concrete to abstract meaning (see Tyler & Evans, 2005 For similar views). In practice, dictionaries tend to coax learners into believing that multiple, discretely numbered definitions of an EPV present unrelated and distinct senses of an accidental homonymy!

For a thorough work on EPVs, Condon (2008) constitutes an interesting piece of research. She reports findings of a large-scale study where large groups of EFL learners are presented with instruction of EPVs using different CL-motivations. The conclusions she reaches support the general idea that CL-informed explicit instruction of underlying concepts in EPVs help retention and transfer of knowledge to other similar EPVs instantiating the same concepts. However, her instructions comprise detailed verbal explanations of CL motivations behind phrasal verbs, instructions which clearly increase the learning load on the part of the student (see Baddeley, 1997, for memory processing and constraints). As she later contends, even the simplified statements she used in her instructions might have been "relatively abstract and hard to visualize," and that "such spare generalizations may not always be pedagogically appropriate, particularly in relation to relatively abstract phrasal verbs" (Condon 2008, p. 153).

[8] We strictly controlled for our participants' subsequent learning or course participation in the period of time allowed between the two posttests.

V. Conclusion and Suggestions for Further Research

The primacy and pervasiveness of tangible visual-spatial experience and conceptual/linguistic abstraction is an indispensible part of linguistic thinking and expression that a theory of language must account for (Slobin, 1996). Perhaps, it is fair to claim that CL is currently the most relevant and informative theory assuming a close-knit tie between image-schematic representation, abstract conceptualization, and linguistic expression (Langacker, 1991; Talmy, 2000, 2008; Tyler & Evans, 2001). Insights from CL theory and research, when properly applied for pedagogical purposes, can contribute to fostering even more creativity and efficiency in language pedagogy (De Knop et al., 2010).

A word of caution seems appropriate here: the key basis for the creation and development of image schemas in the mind of the native speaker is life-long, enduring presence in his/her socioculturally rich, native language environment (Gibbs & O'Brien, 1990). As Mandler (1992; 2004) points out, humans create mental image schemas and their relevant abstract conceptual patterns through a process of reanalysis of perceptual experience arising from recurring experiential encounters with the tangible events in the surrounding socio-cultural context. It is a serious mistake to assume that this genuine, enduring process can ever be replaced by a few sessions of experience and activity on the part of the foreign language learner in an artificial classroom environment. Nevertheless, the aim of this research is to demonstrate, perhaps for the first time, that such a natural process of sensory experience could be mimicked, however minimally and insufficiently, to enhance learners' awareness and raise their consciousness toward bits and pieces of such experience as to render it slightly more meaningful to them. Further, as argued before, the long-term, mnemonic aspects of this experience should not be neglected (Boers et al., 2008).

In our design of test material, we used meaningful storylines to further create genuine contextualized and communicative instance of EPVs in use. We also paralleled the concrete and abstract uses of the EPVs under study in our test material to enhance learner awareness and recognition of relations between these verbs. These ideas can also be helpful to test designers and textbook writers in their construction of test and practice material. As Tyler & Evans (2005) maintains, such tasks can create a firm ground for learners from which to infer the meanings of extended abstract uses of linguistic expressions they encounter in various contexts of use. Grouping of visual elucidations into concrete/abstract sequences accompanied by meaningful, contextualized sentences can further pave the way for learners to effectively comprehend and retain essential graphic information.

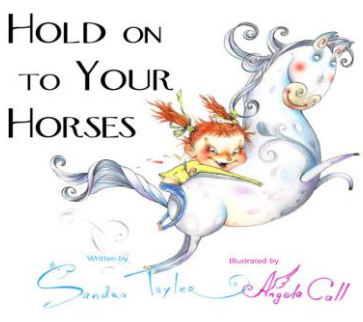
One beneficial line of research is to observe if learners, in an extended course of instruction expanding over several years, could possibly become capable of "independently" arriving at connections and extensions of concrete to abstract senses in EPVs over time. Studies can also be designed to check to what extent learners recognize and appreciate the effective uses of pictorial elucidation tasks and/or possibly what other advantages could be gained from this kind of approach to teaching/learning.

The tasks in this study represented creative yet intuitive ways of designing classroom activities to enhance learning and teaching EPVs. Further research can be carried out creating and adopting more systematic and principled ways of designing similar tasks for classroom instruction and tests. In practical terms, due to limitations imposed by the institute, we were obliged to include male-only students of English with a Persian mother tongue background[9]. Further research can explore possibilities of research with both sexes and members of other L1 backgrounds in order to be able to interpret the data and apply the findings with greater certainty to a wider population. Last but not least, this study was mainly product-oriented in that we only asked for and used students' responses to questions on end-of-term written tests. Other research studies could take the initiative further and conduct more systematic analyses of students' responses from a process-oriented perspective using ongoing classroom data.

Appendix

A. Two sample "picture-cued tasks" & their order of presentation in the *experimental group* (first, the more literal one(s) on the *left* and then, the more figurative one(s) on the *right*):

1) Hold on to:



[9] Note that according to general educational laws in Iran, schools and institutes cannot offer coeducational courses.

2) Sign in:

B. Sample classroom learner descriptions for picture task (a) above:

1) More *concrete* picture on the left: "I can see a small girl. She is on the horse. She is holding her hands…tightly on the sides. The horse is maybe running toward a…garden [*he looks for a garden in the picture and adds,*] I suppose! The girl is trying to hold the horse's…'neck' not to fall down. Yes, she's holding…fast to the horse. Um, yeah, she's holding…on…to the horse."

2) More *abstract* picture on the right: "Um, as I understand it, this means… [*taking a passing glance at the 'girl & horse' picture on the left*] like the girl and the horse! I mean, …like the girl who's holding her hands onto the horse to go to garden, we should hold fast to hope…which like the horse is good for us…because it takes us to …a good situation. We hold…on to…hope to go…until a warm season like the girl who's holding on to the horse to go…home or to win, um, maybe?! Yes?"

C. We sometimes provided more picture drawings to smooth experimental participants' transition from concrete to abstract meaning (e.g., for "*1.a*" *above*):

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The Realization of Derivation-by-phase Causatives in the Framework of Tree Adjoining Grammar

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***Abstract*—Based on the possibility and necessity of integrating phased-based approach and TAG-based approach, the article attempts to realize the derivation-by-phase causatives in the framework of TAG and, in light of comparison and contrast of four subprograms according to conditions, constraints and hypotheses of the two approaches, finally chooses a subprogram with $v\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{BE}}$ as the foot node, which is well in line with the Double-Phase Hypothesis proposed in the framework of minimalist syntax, as the one and only acceptable TAG derivation model of causatives.**

***Index Terms*—phase theory, tree adjoining grammar, causative, double-phase hypothesis**

I. Introduction

Derivation by phase is one of the latest proposals of formal syntax, the Minimalist Program/MP (Chomsky, 2000, 2001, 2004, 2008) in particular. It aims to carry out syntactic derivation of a construction phase by phase for the purpose of economy principle and efficient computation of the Language Faculty of human beings. Tree Adjoining Grammar/TAG, in computational linguistics, is a grammar formalism originally defined in Joshi (1975). Since then, more variations are developed such as lexicalized TAG. Now the research of tree adjoining grammar is so developed that we have the professional International Workshop on Tree Adjoining Grammar and Related Framework which is held every two years. Up to now, TAG has been used in the formalization of major basic and derived constructions, such as wh-question, relativization, cleft-extraction, raising and equi construction, and passive among others. Since both MP and TAG belong to the formal grammar family, it can be a brilliant idea to study the interactions between them. Frank (2006) made a pioneering attempt in this regard, and uncovered certain thought-provoking relationship there. Causative is a major construction in natural language, so it is necessary to study the derivation of causatives in the framework of TAG, which may provide further insights about the formalized expression of causatives and its application in related fields such as automatic computer processing of causatives and other complex event structures.

This article is composed of four parts. Part I is the introduction. Part II outlines the theoretical framework of phase-based approach and TAG-based approach. Part III, the core part of this article, explores the realization of derivation-by-phase causatives in the framework of TAG of computational linguistics. Part IV summarizes the main findings of this article and provides further problems to be investigated.

II. Phase-based Approach and TAG-based Approach: The Framework

A. Phase-based Approach

Chomsky (2000, 2001, 2004) claims that all syntactic operations involve a relation between a probe P and a local goal G which is sufficiently ‘close’ to the probe. The probe-goal relations must be local in order ‘to minimise search’, which in turn is forced by the implication that the Language Faculty can only process limited amounts of structure at one time – and, more specifically, can only hold a limited amount of structure in its ‘active memory’. In order to ensure a ‘reduction of computational burden’, Chomsky proposes that ‘the derivation of EXP[ressions] proceeds by *phase*’, so that syntactic structures are built up one *phase* at a time, which should be as small as possible, to minimise memory. More specifically, he suggests that phases are ‘propositional’ in nature, and include CP and *v**P (i.e. a *v*P with an AGENT or EXPERIENCER external argument). His rationale for taking CP and *v**P as phases is that CP represents a complete clausal complex (including a specification of *force*), and *v**P represents a complete thematic (argument structure) complex (including an external argument).

Phase theory is explored more explicitly in Chomsky (2004) that they are CP and *v**P, where C is shorthand for the region that Rizzi (1997) calls the “left periphery,” possibly involving feature spread from fewer functional heads; and *v** is the functional head associated with full argument structure, transitive and experiencer constructions, and is one of several choices for *v*, which may furthermore be the element determining that the selected *root* is verbal.

The intuitive idea, to be sharpened, is that features deleted within the cyclic computation remain until the phase level, at which point the whole phase is "handed over" to the phonological component. Hence there is an important condition

for derivation by phase is Phase Impenetrability Condition/PIC (Chomsky, 2000) as in (1) below.

(1) Phase Impenetrability Condition/PIC: In phase α with head H, the domain of H is not accessible to operations outside α, only H and its edge are accessible to such operations.

Radford (2004, p. 293) explains the motivation for PIC is that once a complete phase has been formed, the domain of the phase undergoes a transfer operation by which the relevant (domain) structure is simultaneously sent to the phonological component to be assigned an appropriate phonetic representation**,** and to the semantic component to be assigned an appropriate semantic representation – and from that point on, the relevant domain is no longer accessible to the syntax.

Summarizing the phase theory, Chomsky (2008) further argues that iterated Merge incorporates the effects of three of the EST/Y-model compositional cycles, while eliminating d-and s-structure. Still unaccounted for are the cyclic/compositional mappings to the phonetic and semantic interfaces. These too are incorporated, and the final internal level LF is eliminated, if at various stages of computation there are transfer operations: one hands the syntactic object (SO) already constructed to the phonological component, which maps it to the sensory-motor (SM) interface ("Spell-Out"); the other hands SO to the semantic component, which maps it to the conceptual-intentional (C-I) interface. These SOs are called *phases*. For more information about phase theory, see He (2007) and Tang (2009).

Above is the framework upon which we develop our double-phase hypothesis for syntactic derivation of causatives. We may find that there are two v*Ps in the syntax of causatives, i.e., two phases, and that PIC is perfectly observed in the hypothesis. A further step is to show how to realize such derivation in the framework of TAG which to be discussed in Part III.

B. TAG-based Approach

Tree adjoining grammar initiated by Joshi (1975) takes tree as the elementary unit of rewriting and has rules for rewriting the nodes of trees as other trees. There are two types of basic trees in TAG: initial trees ("α") and auxiliary trees ("β"). A derivation starts with an initial tree, combining via either substitution or adjunction. Substitution replaces a frontier node with another tree whose top node has the same label. Adjunction inserts an auxiliary tree into the center of another tree. Substitution and adjunction are schematized as below (see Frank, 2006).

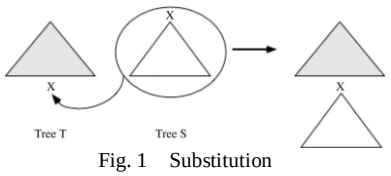


Fig. 1 Substitution

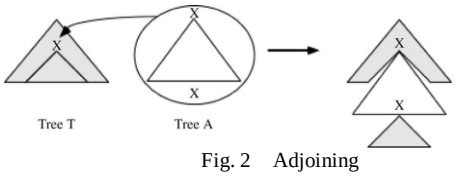


Fig. 2 Adjoining

Kroch & Joshi (1985) states that a TAG defines a finite set of simple sentence elementary trees and an adjunction operation that produces complex sentences through the combination of simple sentences. What TAG contributes to the theory of grammar is a constrained theory of syntactic embedding, one requiring that embedded structures be composed out of elementary structures in a fixed way and one which forces co-occurrence relations between elements that are separated in surface constituent structure to be stated locally as constraints on elementary trees in which those elements are co-present. It is also pointed out that the elementary trees (initial and auxiliary trees) are the appropriate domains for characterizing certain dependencies (e.g., subcategorization dependencies and filler-gap dependencies). Each step in the derivation selects an elementary tree together with a set of appropriate lexical items. Now that as we select the lexical items for each elementary tree we can check a variety of constraints on the set of lexical items. Also, Kroch & Joshi (1985) present in important constraint on TAG as in (2) below.

(2) Null adjoining local constraint: No auxiliary tree is adjoinable at the node n.

This implies that TAG disallows rightward derivation. Since it is so easy and obvious to identify the direction of a derivation, it will be firstly used to judge whether a TAG derivation is grammatical or not later.

Morawietz & Mönnich (2001) sketches a definition of tree adjoining grammar with a strong flavor of formalism as in (3) below.

(3) A Tree Adjoining Grammar (TAG) is a quintuple $<V_N, V_T, S, I, A>$where V_N is a finite set of nonterminals, V_T a finite set of terminals, $S \in V_N$ the start symbol, I a finite set of initial trees and A a finite set of auxiliary trees.

According to them, initial trees are such that all interior nodes (including the root node) are labeled with nonterminals and all nodes on the frontier are labeled with terminal or nonterminal symbols; the nonterminals being marked for substitution. The same holds for the auxiliary trees with one exception. There exists one distinguished leaf-node which is labeled with the same nonterminal as the root node, which is called the foot node. New trees are built from the sets *I* and *A* via adjunction or substitution. Adjunction is defined such that an auxiliary tree is spliced into an existing tree such that it basically "expands" a nonterminal. A subtree rooted in the node labeled with a nonterminal *A* is taken out of a tree. A new auxiliary tree is inserted in its place (if the root and foot are also labeled with the identical nonterminal *A*) and the original subtree is appended at the foot node. There also exists a simpler operation in TAGs, called substitution, to generate new trees. Intuitively, in substitution, a nonterminal is replaced by a tree with a matching nonterminal at its root. Evidently, these are in line with the original framework of Joshi (1975). For more information, see Weng & Wang

(1998) and Yu (2003).

C. Possibility and Necessity of Integrating Phase-based Approach and TAG-based Approach

Generally speaking, both phase-based approach and TAG-based approach belong to context-free grammar. Since so, it's possible and necessary to integrate them in solving specific linguistic issues. But how?

Emphasis on locality is one of the spirits of the TAG formalism and those of phase theory as well. The constraints on lexical insertion are always local, so the TAG formalism treats insertion locally. On such very basis, it is reasonable to integrate phase theory and tree adjoining grammar. In this regard, Frank (2005) made breakthroughs, where a series of difference between the notion of elementary tree structure and that of phase were explored. First, the lexical array that underlies the construction of an elementary tree is somewhat larger than that which feeds a phase as that notion is usually understood. In particular, the Condition on Elementary Tree Minimality requires the heads in an elementary tree must form part of the extended projection of a single lexical head. As a result, the lexical array underlying an elementary tree must include a lexical head and may include any number of functional heads that are associated with that lexical head.

Also in Frank (2006), it is argued that the phase-based approach to grammatical derivation and one rooted in the TAG formalism share the idea that the derivation of a complex sentence is divided into separate derivations of local domains. However, the TAG-based approach to syntactic derivations allows us to derive island-based locality from the derivational architecture, which stands in contrast to the phase-based approach, where adjuncts should be transparent to extraction unless further stipulations are made.

In addition to the common feature of locality between the two approaches, they share the same basic operations, that is, substitution and adjucntion. In the framework of minimalist syntax, Chomsky (1995) takes substitution and adjucntion as the basic syntactic operations, that are revised to "set Merge" and "pair Merge" respectively in Chomsky (2000), and to "Merge" collectively in Chomsky (2001, 2004, 2008). Chomsky (1995, p. 248-249) stipulates that, suppose there are two objects α and β, substitution forms L = {H(K), {α, K}}, where H(K) is the head (=the label) of the projected element K. But when α adjoins to K and the target projects, adjunction takes L = {<H(K), H(K)>, {α, K }} in which <H(K), H(K)>, the label of L, is not a term of the structure formed. It is not identical to the head of K as before though it is constructed from it in a trivial way. Therefore, adjunction differs from substitution only in that adjunction forms a two-segment category rather than a new category. We may easily note that the operation processes of substitution and adjunction are extremely similar to those in the framework of TAG. In addition, Merge and adjunction in syntax always applies in the simplest possible form: at the root which is also the place that adjunction operates in the framework of TAG, as is shown in Fig. 1 and 2 above. All of these lay a solid foundation for the integration of the two approaches.

Frank (2006) presents a fundamental TAG hypothesis as in (4) below.

(4) The fundamental TAG hypothesis: Every syntactic dependency is expressed locally within a single elementary tree.

This hypothesis substantially constrains the nature of elementary trees: they must be large enough to express all syntactic dependencies. At the same time, if our goal is to derive locality conditions from properties of the TAG derivation, these trees must not be too large. With sufficiently large elementary trees, a dependency within a single elementary tree could violate locality conditions, and the TAG system of derivation will say nothing about such violations.

Frank (2006) points out that when a complex structure is built in a TAG derivation, we can always view it as deriving from a single elementary tree into which other trees have adjoined or substituted. Such TAG derivations must be constrained by a Markovian condition as in (5) below.

(5) Markovian condition on TAG derivations: Each step in a TAG derivation must involve the wellformed combination of two elementary trees.

What the Markovian condition requires is that the combination of two complex trees α and β cannot depend on the presence of any structure that has been adjoined or substituted during the construction of α and β, but only on the properties of the two elementary trees that are the "core" of the derivations of α and β.

As a nice interface between phase-based approach, syntactic tree in particular, and TAG-based approach, a condition on elementary tree minimality is also made in Frank (2006) as in (6) below.

(6) Condition on elementray tree minimality: The heads in an elementary tree must form part of the extended projection of a single lexical head.

As a result, the lexical array underlying an elementary tree must include a lexical head and may include any number of functional heads that are associated with that lexical head.

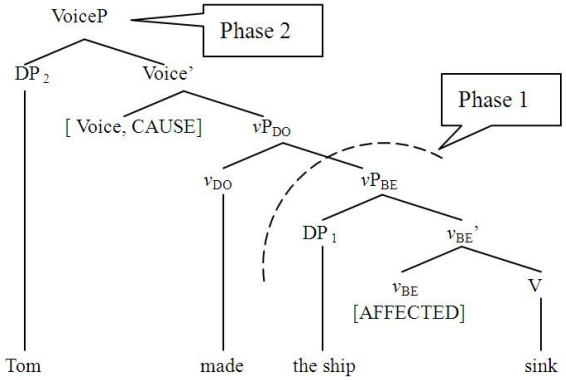
If any proposal attempts to integrate both phase-based approach and TAG-based approach, the operations must be substitution and adjunction while all the constraints specified in both approaches must be observed, including the locality principle (i.e. PIC), the Markovian condition on TAG, and the Condition on Elementary Tree Minimality. These are also the requirements for our proposal to be stated in Part III below.

III. The Realization of Derivation-by-phase Causatives in the Framework of TAG

A. Syntactic Derivation of Causatives by Phase

In the minimalist syntax, Wang (2009a, 2009b) gives up the proposal of derivation between periphrastic causative construction and lexical causative construction, inherits the proposal of non-derivation between them on a critical basis, and points out that causatives are affected applicatives in nature. As a new proposal of syntactic derivation of causatives, a Double-Phase Hypothesis of Causatives is proposed that there are two phases, i.e. VoiceP and vP$_{BE}$, in causatives, which contains two functional heads, i.e. CAUSE and AFFECTED, respectively. In the vP$_{BE}$ phase, AFFECTED selects the verbal V as its complement, and after Merge, further selects direct internal argument as its Spec; in the VoiceP phase, v_{DO} selects vP$_{BE}$ as its complement, and after Merge, vP$_{DO}$ is in turn selected by CAUSE/Voice as its complement while CAUSE/Voice further selects external causer argument as its Spec. The derivation process is shown in (7) below.

(7)



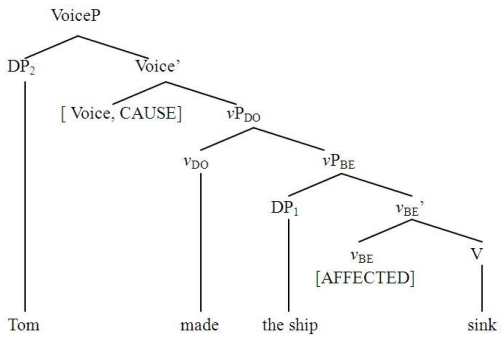
Obviously, VoiceP and vP$_{BE}$ are both typical vPs with external arguments, hence are phases. In addition, such double-phase derivation of causatives perfectly observes the PIC, and also the hypothesis that there are two functional heads, i.e., CAUSE and AFFECTED, in causatives, matches the intuition that there are cause event and effect event in causatives. In light of this, we hold that the Double-Phase Hypothesis of Causatives is a rational proposal for the syntactic derivation of causatives. Next our task is to realize this derivation program in the framework of TAG.

B. Derivation-by-phase Causatives in the Framework of TAG

Based on the stipulations of TAG, there can be several possible programs for the derivation of causatives. Program 1 can be made that the derivation is accomplished in one stroke and that there is one initial tree yet without any auxiliary tree. Hence there should be no adjunction or substitution here. Such TAG derivation model is rather similar to the syntactic derivation as shown in (7) above at the first sight except that no phases are marked any more. The TAG derivation model of Program 1 is shown in (8) below.

(8) Program 1: only one initial tree, no auxiliary tree and no adjunction

Initial tree α_0

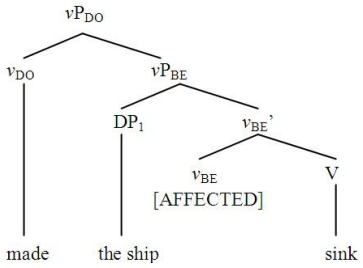


However, Program 1 in which only one elementary tree is involved, is in violation of the Markovian condition on TAG derivations as described in (5) above, which requires that each step in a TAG derivation involve the well-formed combination of two elementary trees. Moreover, since our goal is to derive locality conditions from properties of the TAG derivation, the elementary trees must not be too large, according to the fundamental TAG hypothesis as described in (4) above. But now the elementary tree in Program 1 is so large that a dependency within a single elementary tree could violate locality conditions, and the TAG system of derivation will say nothing about such violations. So, Program 1 must not be taken as a reasonable program for derivation of causatives in the framework of TAG.

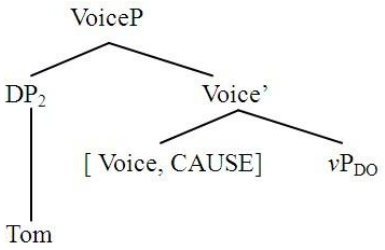
Program 2 can be made that there is one initial tree and one auxiliary tree. And three subprograms can be further made as below in which the structure is parsed after "Tom", "made" and "the ship" respectively.

(9) Subprogram 1: adjoin β_1 to α_1

Initial tree α_1 (where vP_{DO} is the foot node)

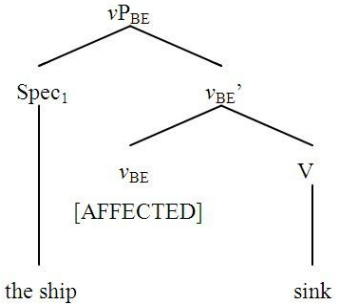


Auxiliary tree β_1

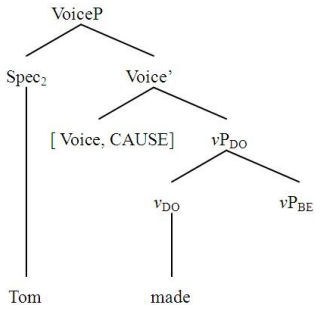


(10) Subprogram 2: adjoin β_2 to α_2

Initial tree α_2 (where vP_{BE} is the foot node)



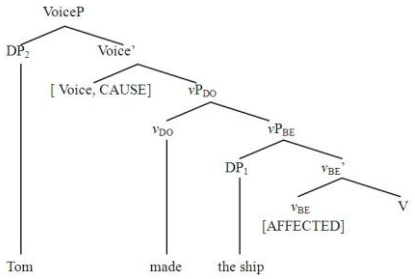
Auxiliary tree β_2



(11) Subprogram 3: adjoin β_3 to α_3

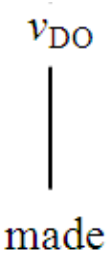
Initial tree α_3 (where V is the foot node）

Auxiliary tree β_3

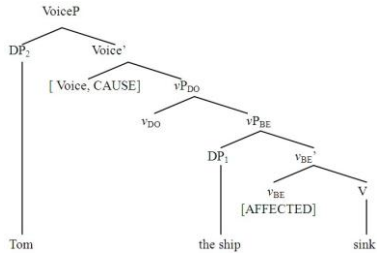


(12) Subprogram 4: adjoin β_4 to α_4

Initial tree α_4 (where v_{DO} is the foot node)



Auxiliary tree β_4



Given such constraints as PIC, Markovian condition on TAG hypothesis, condition on elementray tree minimality, and null adjoining local constraint among others, which possible subprogram above is acceptable in the framework of TAG?

First, according to what is implied in the null adjoining local constraint, that is, only leftward derivation is allowed, it can be safely said that subprogram 1-4 are all grammatical as their derivations are all leftward.

Next, we confirm the grammaticalness of the four subprograms mainly according to the fundamental TAG hypothesis, which requires that the elementary tree must be large enough but not too large. Locality must be respected there. It can be seen that the auxiliary tree β_1, the initial tree α_3, and the initial tree α_4, are all so small that syntactic dependencies are not perfectly expressed there, whereas correspondingly the initial tree α_1, the auxiliary tree β_3, and the auxiliary tree β_4, are all so large that TAG can say nothing about its locality and other properties. In contrast, the initial tree α_2 and the auxiliary tree β_2 are neither too large nor too small, where all syntactic dependencies are expressed well

and meanwhile locality conditions are respected well. Therefore, among the four subprograms, only the subprogram 2 complies with the fundamental TAG hypothesis. More importantly, the subprogram 2 also complies with the basic proposal of phase theory that a structure is derived phase by phase and the specific Double-Phase Hypothesis of Causatives. This shows the effect of common features between phase-based approach and TAG-based approach.

Then, it can be found that there is at least one lexical head in the initial trees and auxiliary trees in the four subprograms while the two functional heads, i.e. CAUSE and AFFECTED, appear optionally any lexical insertion in some trees without. So, the condition on elementray tree minimality can not be used here to exclude any subprogram above.

Up to now, we have considered the derivation of causatives in the framework of TAG according to its conditions, constraints or hypothesis. It can be safely concluded that the subprogram 2, the derivation model maded based on our Double-Phase Hypothesis of Causatives, is the one and only acceptable program in the framework of TAG.

IV. Conclusion

The article outlines the basic proposals of phased-based approach and TAG-based approach, presents the possibility and necessity of integrating the two approaches, proposes programs to derive causatives in the framework of TAG among which the subprogram with $v\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{BE}}$ as the foot node is chosen as the one and only acceptable derivation model of causatives. Luckily, the subprogram chosen is also in line with the Double-Phase Hypothesis proposed in the framework of minimalist syntax. This research is helpful for us to know more about the structure of causatives and its application in the field of computational linguistics.

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The Competency Based Approach to English Language Education and the Walls between the Classroom and the Society in Cameroon: Pulling Down the Walls

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***Abstract*—This paper contends that English as a foreign language teaching in the classrooms at all the levels of education is not adapted to the everyday communication needs of the Cameroonian learners and that an English language pedagogy of integration; otherwise known as the outcomes approach or the competency based approach can solve the problem. This approach seeks for linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the language. In fact, walls seem to exist between the knowledge these learners get in the classrooms and the implementation of the knowledge in the real world society for which that knowledge is destined. Literature in the domain of attitudes and motivation shows that they are affectively predisposed to learn the language. A critical examination of the syllabus revealed that it spells out laudable learning outcomes or expectations and that it has adequate communicative approach recommendations for a post-methods era English language teacher. But recent literature on classroom teaching holds that English language teaching in Cameroon is a matter of teacher talk and chalk and course books; some of which are not adapted to the learners' needs and interests**

***Index Terms*—competency, outcomes, affectively predisposed, lathophobic aphasia, cognitive strategies**

I. Introduction

It is rather strange to hear that Cameroon is a French-English bilingual country when most of her citizens do not express themselves satisfactorily in both languages. Walls seem to exist between the knowledge they get in the classrooms and the implementation of the knowledge in the real world society for which that knowledge is destined. The focus of this article is on Francophone Cameroonian learners of English. English is 'taught' to them from the nursery level for two (02) years, the primary level for six (06) years, six (06) years at the secondary school level and three (03) years at the university level. In spite of this length of time of learning the language, there is "… much concern and dissatisfaction over the marked deficiency in the level of English used by Cameroonian children at all levels of education" (Odusina and Ayuk (1995, p.32). The contention of this paper is that English language teaching in the classrooms at all the levels of education is not adapted to the everyday communicative needs of the Cameroonian learners and that an English language pedagogy of integration; otherwise known as the outcomes approach or the competency based approach can solve the problem. This is an approach that integrates the knowledge, know-how and attitudes in the solution of real-life problems. This approach seeks for linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the language.

II. Examination of the Syllabus Specifications of the English Language for Francophone Learners of Cameroon

The syllabus of English for Francophone general secondary schools clearly spells out that English language teaching (ELT) is in a state of constant flux and teachers of English have to be abreast with current trends so that products of the system would not sound outdated in what they do with language. The products of the system would have to use language to cope with the many varying situations and contexts in which they find themselves at all times. Language should be taught in such a way that the learners are provided with study skills and strategies to cope with an ever-changing world. In other words, language is taught for effective communication. The syllabus takes into consideration the following pertinent issues:

The socially appropriate and communicative use of language, the linguistic and general structure to include: the social roles that the learners are called upon to play, the language functions and notions that are indispensable for the proper mastery of language, the listening, speaking, reading and writing skills; the grammatical, lexical and pronunciation skills as well as the thinking skills.

Noteworthy is the fact that this syllabus is skill-based and the various language skills are integrated. The syllabus does not spell out all the themes or the lexicon of the course, but it is through the selection of the various skills and themes that the lexicon is expected to unfold.

The underlying theory of language learning adopted by the syllabus is based on the assumption that language learning is intended for communication between/among speakers in various social contexts. The learners do things and get things done with language in specific situations. In this way, the learners are considered as active participants in the whole learning process. Consequently, they are expected to develop certain skills and strategies of learning how to learn. In other words, the syllabus advocates a learner-centred approach, which focuses and draws from the experience, knowledge and expertise of individual learners. It is activity oriented and lends itself to creativity. The teacher in the whole learning process is considered a facilitator and an organiser. This does not undermine the vital role of the teacher, which is that of creating the learning situation The teacher continues to provide or identify the learning tasks, and organises them in the most interesting and satisfactory manner so that the learners can derive the best from them. The teacher monitors the strengths and weaknesses of the learners in order to ensure that effective learning has taken place. Hence, diagnostic tests and remedial lessons have to be organised from time to time. But, unfortunately most of our teachers seem to ignore this vital role of theirs.

The teacher is supposed to remain the ultimate selector of adequate teaching materials. Authentic communicative materials for realistic language learning are supposed to be selected from every environment. From the syllabus, teachers have to draw up their schemes of work; selecting materials from as many sources as possible.

A further analysis of the syllabus shows that its ultimate aim is to enable learners to: communicate orally and in writing effectively and efficiently in varied situations; develop skills, knowledge of, and about, the language in terms of listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary.

As for the listening objectives, learners have to be able to develop the ability to listen attentively and respond to stories, news and rhymes; develop the ability to listen and respond to instructions; develop the ability to listen effectively to a variety of text types that will include authentic texts. They equally have to be able to recognise, discriminate and produce accurately the sound system, intonation, stress and rhythm patterns of the language. They have to acquire skills that permit them to identify discourse markers in listening texts that will facilitate understanding i.e. listen for gist, detail, answer questions give instructions, thereby developing the ability to be effective listeners by developing listening skills and appropriate strategies of listening.

The Speaking objectives of the syllabus are as well very laudable as learners are expected to be able to participate as speakers in pair or group activities real or imagined life situations; produce, discriminate and recognise all the sounds of the English language; produce stress and intonation patterns of complex utterance; contribute and respond constructively to discussions, put across their own ideas and justify a point of view. Learners have to read aloud familiar stories, poems and dialogues with appropriate expression; use language to convey information, ideas and emotions effectively in varied situations, contribute to the planning of and participation in a group presentation fluently and finally, use spoken English and written English appropriately.

The specifications of the syllabus concerning reading spells out that Cameroonian learners are supposed to be able to read and respond to all types of writings as well as retrieve information for the purpose of study; demonstrate knowledge of the alphabet in using dictionaries; use picture, context cues and phonic cues in reading. They have to be able to read a range of material with some independence, fluency, accuracy and understanding; read silently and with sustained concentration; read a range of fiction, literary and scientific texts and express preference through talking and writing; identify features of presentation in a text which are used to inform, to regulate or to persuade; read, talk and write about texts, giving personal response and showing understanding of the writer's point of view. Finally the students would be expected to select, retrieve, evaluate and combine information independently and with discrimination from a comprehensive range of materials and develop different reading styles such as skimming, scanning and predicting.

The writing goals that Cameroon Francophone learners are expected to attain by the end of the second cycle of secondary education are among others, to be able to use pictures, symbols or isolated letters, words or phrases to communicate meaning in writing; produce, independently, pieces of writing using complete sentences indicating appropriate punctuation and spelling; structure sequences of real or imagined events coherently and undertake authentic writing tasks such as filling in forms, birth certificates, and curriculum vitae. The students also have to show proof of their ability to write stories that have an opening, a setting, characters, a series of events, conflicts and resolutions which engage the interest of the reader; organise their own writing, revise and redraft them as appropriate; write in a wide variety of forms with a clear sense of purpose and awareness of audience, and demonstrate an increased awareness of the fact that a first draft may be changed, amended and reorganised in a variety of ways. They must show in writing an awareness of what is appropriate and inappropriate language use; demonstrate knowledge of organisational differences between written and spoken English texts; demonstrate in writing knowledge of ways in which language varies between types of texts and be able to sustain a personal style, making an appropriate use of a wide range of grammatical constructions and an extensive vocabulary in distinct paragraphs and maintaining the interest and attention of the reader.

As concerns knowledge about the language, learners should be capable of the following: write letter shapes in response to speech sounds and letter names; read phonetic transcriptions and transcribe words phonetically and produce recognisable spelling of a range of common words. Furthermore, they should be able to spell correctly, in the course of

their own writing, simple polysyllabic words they use regularly and which observe common patterns; identify and use correctly, regular patterns of vowel sounds and common letter strings; show a growing awareness of word families and their relationship; spell correctly in their writing, words which display other main patterns in English orthography. Finally they would have to recognise words with related meanings, which may have related spellings, even though they sound different; recognise that the spelling of unstressed syllables can always be deduced from the spelling of the stressed syllable in a related word.

The objectives of grammar in the syllabus specify that learners have to be able to use English grammar appropriately to express their thoughts and feelings fluently in correct grammatical utterances and in varied situations and, also to demonstrate a mastery of English grammar in oral and written communication. As for vocabulary, the students should be able to identify or guess the meaning of words from their contexts; use synonyms and antonyms of words in context; develop vocabulary attack skills in order to cope with difficult words. Besides these, they are expected to develop word, phrase and sentence building skills; identify and use false cognates; identify and use homonyms and homophones; and process information in spoken and written texts in order to develop comprehension abilities.

The designers of the syllabus strongly recommend that themes and topics of the course reflect the cosmos and cultural background of the learners and that the course should also provide some openings into the world. Furthermore, supplementary reading is recommended to develop in the learner the reading culture. The materials selected should have to influence the learner to be an active participant in the whole reading process. Thus, they should be placed at the right level in order to enable the learners to read comfortably and with interest. The learner should develop reading skills that would become indispensable for survival in life. Since the underlying principle in supplementary reading is enjoyment, the learners should enjoy reading and should read many books because that will help them to develop many more study skills.

With such a syllabus, it is expected that all Francophone Cameroonians who leave high school should be the real perfect bilinguals; but it is feared that what actually obtains of these learners is the tip of an iceberg of what they are supposed to be.

The poor performances of learners are attested, meanwhile overall recent studies have shown that Cameroonian learners are motivated and have positive attitudes towards the English language. Earlier in 1990, Penn-Tamba carried out a study on the attitudes and motivation of Cameroonians towards the English language and came out with the findings that learners were not very motivated in learning the English language and that they had negative attitudes towards their Anglophone counterparts and native speakers of English. But before then, Tenjoh-Okwen (1987) had posited that Francophone Cameroonian learners were interested in speaking English and that their unsatisfactory performances were to be attributed to factors like poorly trained teachers, large classes and lack of resources. Just like Tenjoh-Okwen, Nkwetisama's (1998) study revealed that these learners were motivated in spite of their poor performances. Akum (1999) endorses those of Tenjoh-Okwen (1987) and Nkwetisama (1998) as she holds that the learners are motivated but that the blackboard, desks and enrolments ranging from sixty to one hundred are what could be found in almost all the classrooms.

More recent concerns about the unsatisfactory performances of Cameroonian learners' attitudes and motivation have been carried out by Owingo (2005), Tchindji Fomo (2007) and Djieuga Tchouatcho (2008). Owingo (2005) sought to find out the attitudes and motivation of Francophone Cameroonian secondary school learners of English. His study demonstrated that the learners were instrumentally motivated and that the problem with students' performance was due to the quality and quantity of teachers posted to teach English in secondary schools. In her investigation into the attitudes and motivation of Francophone students towards English language learning, Tchindji Fomo (2007) found out that the learners were motivated and had positive attitudes towards the English language. Her study also showed that schools lacked resources since classrooms were over-crowded and had no audio-visual materials. Besides resources, she discovered that the teachers were 'harsh' and 'too serious'; and according to her, "…if teachers' methodology was student-centred as they (teachers) claim, students would participate during English lessons and would therefore achieve better performances" Tchindji Fomo (2007, p.68). In another study of Francophone Cameroonian learners' attitudes and motivation towards the English language, Djieuga Tchouatcho's (2008, p.70) subjects held that "… the Anglo-Saxon way of life opens windows to the world." Her study equally revealed that few learners are satisfied with the way their teachers teach.

From the foregoing examination of the literature on the attitudes and motivation of Francophone Cameroonian learners (though with some encroachments on teaching), it is evident that they are affectively predisposed to learn the English language. In spite of this affective readiness, their performances in using the language in examinations and in real-life formal and informal communication situations remain wanting. This state of affaires has also urged researchers such as Ekwogo (2005), Tonzock Folegwe (2006), Ngoulga Ndzana (2006) and Kuatie Tchuimeni (2008) to investigate into the way English language teaching is done in the classrooms.

Ekwogo (2005) undertook a study to find out the attitudes and reactions of teachers towards students' errors. Her results revealed that most teachers view students' errors as a negative aspect of language learning. 70% of the teachers attributed students' errors to stubbornness, carelessness and negligence. Learners' errors however, are part and parcel of the learning process and are very normal in every human endeavour in real life. Errors are positive indicators that learning is taking place and that are struggling to put into practice what they have learned. This may be the cause of the

lathophobic aphasia (unwillingness to speak the language for fear of being laughed at) that characterizes many Francophone Cameroonian learners.

Tonzock Folegwe's (2006) investigation into the classroom methodology and its effects on the learners' participation and understanding of English as a foreign language in Yaounde pointed out that most teachers were aware of the existence of many teaching methods and techniques. However, these teachers did not make a systematic use of them. Her findings also revealed that most teachers used the communicative methods but ignored aspects like learners' feelings. Techniques like role-play, group or pair work and games were seldom used in spite of their beneficial effects on language learning. These findings can be interpreted as not bringing the outside world into the classroom so as to facilitate the integration of the classroom into the outside world. In other words, techniques that would enable learners to effectively and confidently use what they learn in the classroom for real time communication in their society.

Students' poor performances have also been attributed to 'obsolete' teaching methods and to the little attention paid by educational authorities on English in science classes at the secondary school level. This, according to Ngoulga Ndzana (2006) has led to lack of interest and motivation to learn the language by these students. Kuatie Tchuimeni (2008) carried out an investigation into the teaching of English in Francophone schools in the West Region of Cameroon. Her results showed that though qualified (i.e. trained), the teachers lacked the appropriate methods adapted to the students' needs and interests. The course books used in secondary technical schools are those meant for secondary general ones. All these point out that upon graduation; most of the learners would not be competent in the English language.

III. Learner Inadequacies

Learners' inadequacies, incompetency and frustrations are often demonstrated in utterances such as "c'est Dieu qui donne l'anglais de quelq'un" (it is God who gives one's English - not the teacher!); "quand on parle, je comprend, mais je ne parvien pas a dire un mot" (I understand when they speak but I cannot utter a word), "l'anglais est trop difficile" (English is too difficult) and "je ne comprend pas votre anglais la" (I do not understand that English of yours). Besides, most learners hardly go beyond routines expressions like "How are you?" and "Fine thanks", and "What is your name?" and "My name(s) is/are …" This implies that in Cameroon, learners are "taught" grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation but they do not "learn" to use them functionally in English. They are not competent. This situation is compounded by the fact that the learning is geared towards passing the different examinations and not necessarily for real time communication. In fact, English language learning is a matter of the classroom, for the classroom, and not for social interaction. Tchindji Fomo (2007, p. 68) holds that the way the different examination items are set is an impediment to effective language learning. She cites Kouega (1999, p.41) as saying "… students are asked to answer comprehension questions, write essays on philosophical topics and complete complex drills on grammar and lexical structures." This approach may be beneficial to language but it does not help students to master the language in the long run. It explains why many learners are unable to sustain a conversation or write effectively out of the classroom setting. This wall separating the classroom and the society for which the learning is aimed could be demolished through an appropriate application of the competency-based approach to language teaching which targets overall competency in the language use by the learners.

IV. The Competency Based Approach

As earlier stated, the competency based approach is also referred to as the pedagogy of integration or to an outcomes approach. This approach entails the putting together of all the knowledge, know-how and attitudes required for the solution of real life problems or situations. Put simplistically and with reference to language learning, using all the grammar, vocabulary, punctuation and pronunciation to communicate effectively in real time listening, speaking, reading and writing situations. Furthermore, it consists of knowing what to do, where, when and with whom; or, being linguistically, communicatively and sociolinguistically competent with the learned language. CBA as earlier mentioned seeks to bridge the wall between school or the classroom and everyday real life: seeking and giving information by interacting with people in the market, hospital, school, offices etc through listening, reading, writing and speaking; in short communicating: CBA is thus interdisciplinary; for, to effectively solve problems in read life one has to deploy knowledge, know-how and attitudes drawn from several domains of life like history, science and mathematics. CBA therefore integrates theses domains in its approach.

A. Definitions of the Concept

1. Richards and Rodgers (2001) hold that the competency based approach focuses on the outcomes of learning. It addresses on what the learners are expected to do rather than on what they are expected to learn about. The CBA advocates defining educational goals in terms of precise measurable descriptions of knowledge, skills and behavior s that students should possess at the end of a course of study.

2. Schneck (1978) views the CBA as an outcome based instruction that is adaptive to the needs of students, teachers and the community. Competencies describe the students ability to apply basic and other skills to situations that are

commonly encountered in everyday life. Therefore, the competency based approach is based on a set of outcomes that are derived from an analysis of tasks typically required of students in life role situations.

3. To Savage (1993) the competency based model was defined by the U.S. office of Education as a performance based process leading to demonstrated mastery of basic and life skills necessary for the individual to function proficiently in the society. It is therefore a functional approach to education that emphasizes life skills and evaluates mastery of those skills according to actual learner performance.

4. Mrowicki (1986) holds that competencies consist of a description of the essential skills, knowledge, attitudes and behaviours required for effective performance of a real world task or activity. These activities may relate to any domain of life.

B. Components of the Competency Based Approach

Weddel (2006) outlines the components of competency based education and says that the approach consists of the following:

1. An assessment of the learners' needs
2. The selection of the competencies
3. The target instruction
4. An evaluation of the competency attainment

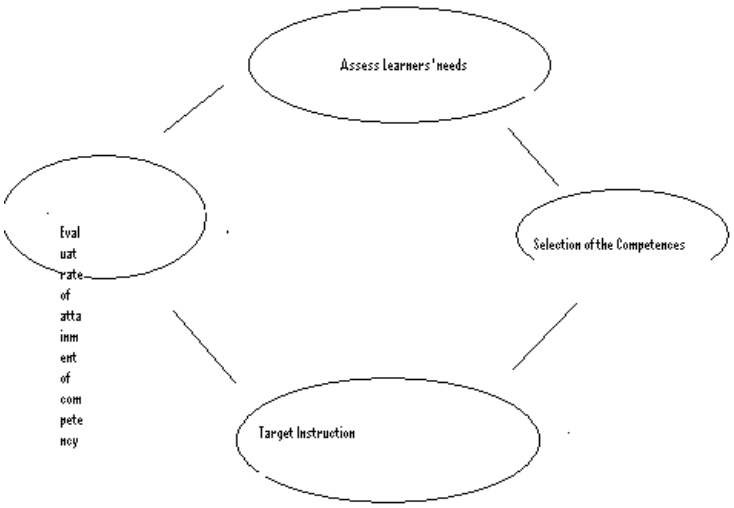

Fig. 1 Components of the Competency based approach

From fig. 1 above it is observed that the four components do not function in isolation. The approach starts with the assessment of needs of the students, moves to the selection of the expected competencies, then to the target instruction from where it moves over to the evaluation of the rate of attainment of the competence, and then back to the assessment of the needs. It is thus a cyclical.

C. Features of the Competency Based Approach

The competency based approach is characterizes by the following:

1. The competencies are stated in specific and measurable behavioral terms
2. The contents are based on the learners' goals, i.e. outcomes or competencies
3. The learners continue learning until mastery is demonstrated
4. The approach makes use of an unlimited variety of instructional techniques and group work
5. It centres on what the learner needs to learn, which is the application of basic skills in life skill language context such as listening, speaking, reading or writing
6. The approach makes extensive use of texts, media, and real life materials adapted to targeted competencies
7. It provides learners with immediate feedback on assessment performance
8. The instruction or teaching is paced to the needs of the learners
9. It gets learners to demonstrate mastery of the specific competency statements or objectives

Mapping of some competency objectives or statements

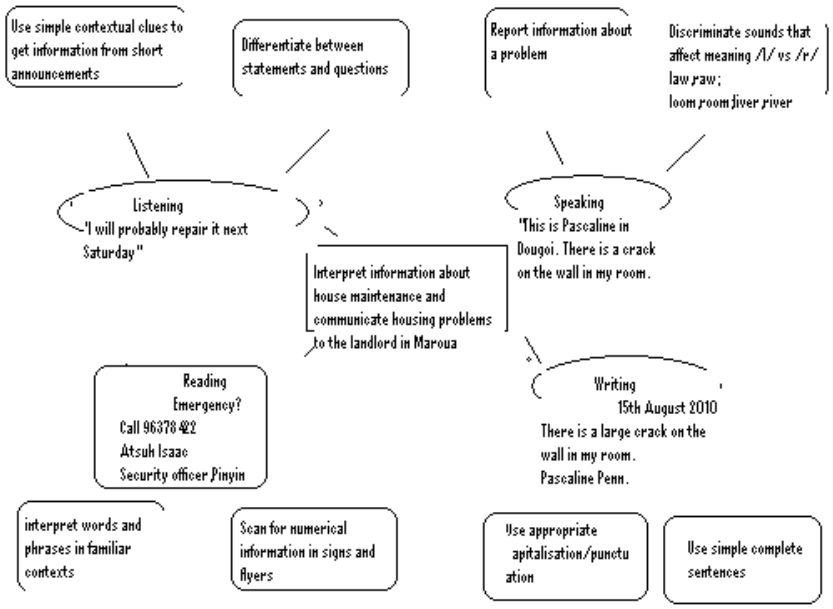

Fig. 2 Mapping of competency statements

In figure 2, the targeted skills are listening, speaking, reading and writing. The specific competency statements make use of tangible and measurable action words like use, differentiate report, interpret and scan.

D. Integrating Language Segments in the CBA

Language segments can be broadly categorized into the larger holistic components like functions, topics, situations, notions or into the smaller ones like grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. Meaningful task based activity or a problem solving complex situation under any of the segments enables learners to be involved more intensively with the language associated with it. Since the competency based model aims principally at the mastery of specific competencies and is learner-participant centred, the techniques used could include the print, audiovisual simulation models. Furthermore, the teaching/learning of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar is most effective when they are also integrated into activities that use the target item meaningfully for a communicative purpose.

Whether we adopt the larger or smaller segment approach, we do not have to lose sight of the importance of the communicative acts and overall interactive context of language use by over stressing correct grammar and pronunciation.

TABLE
INTEGRATING LANGUAGE SEGMENTS

Situation	**Topics**	**Notions**	**Functions**	**Grammar**	**Vocabulary**
Getting to know some one	Tastes hobbies	Inquiring, informing Greeting	Offer, request, promise, advise, threat, instruct, apology, remind, express opinion, (making requests)	Interrogative forms, other verbs	Reading, swimming, past time and leisure activities
Reporting an incident	Road accident	-Past time -Narrating -Describing		-Past tense	-Drive -Car etc road scenes
Shopping	Food stuff -Clothes			Modals, would, could, might	Food stuff, clothes, adjectives of colour, size, tastes etc
Planning a trip	Travel, accommodation	-Future time, -Predicting -Suggestion		-Future tense	-train, plane, bus, hotel, dormitory inn etc
Asking about or describing a job or profession	Jobs/profession Activities Equipment	Describing activities		Present tense, Yes/No questions	Teacher, carpenter, farmer, trader etc jobs.

The obviously binary functions are 'offer' usually followed by acceptance or rejection; 'request'; followed by positive or negative response; "instruction", followed by some expression of comprehension; 'apology', followed by acknowledgement.

All these have to be taken into consideration for competence sake.

The pronunciation column is empty because any aspect of it can be linked to a wide range of activities.

Competence can be applied to language learning and teaching in terms of accuracy and fluency in the language. Mastery of the language means the learner can understand and produce it both accurately (correctly) and fluently (receiving and conveying messages with ease) (Ur: 1999, p. 103).

The teaching of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar is accuracy- oriented while focus on the holistic categories of topic, situations, notions, and functions is fluency-oriented. With fluency, emphasis is on producing appropriate language in context and equal importance is attached to form and message. This is then the case with the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing where emphasis is lowered on accuracy.

E. CBA Lesson

A CBA lesson plan calls for;

1) Presentation of the problem-solving situation:

This is the discovery phase and it contains new notions to be discovered by learners. The teacher presents it and gives instructions to learners.

2) Systematisation:

After examining and bringing out relationship between previously learned elements and elements found in the new problem solving situation, learners come out with rules (hypothetical). This is done with the help of the teacher.

3) Application:

Here, the teacher gives tasks where learners apply the new knowledge.

4) Partial Integration Activities:

The teacher presents a new complex situation that will necessitate the exercise of the skill to solve a problem which is similar to the competence/skill the learners used at the beginning of the lesson. Note that this has to be a concrete real life situation

It should be noted also that partial integration activities are not done systematically at the end of every lesson.

TABLE
LESSON FORMAT BASED ON THE COMPETENCY BASED APPROACH

Stages	**Intermediary Pedagogic Objectives**	**Teachers Activities**	**Learners Activities**
1 **Discovery** (presentation of the problem solving situation)	-To clearly restate the problem	-Presents the problem solving situation through statements, drawing, questions, actions, mimed, etc. -Ensures that everybody understands the problem. -Gives instructions.	-Get acquainted with the situation by reading or by listening -Ask questions if any
2 **Research** (Individually or in groups seek solution(s) to problem) Hypotheses are put forth and analysed	-To posit and verify hypotheses	-Recalls the instruction so as to elicit the emission of hypotheses -Goes round the groups to help and encourage learners	-Give hypotheses -Work individually, and then in groups, compare their findings. -Call teachers attention in case of conflict
3 **Comparison and validation** of findings or results	-To present -To justify the results -To validate	-Recalls the instructions once more -Puts away wrong answers and retains justifiable answers which tie with the objectives	-Give the answers or solutions -Justify their answers or solutions -Get the final opinion or say of the teacher
4 **Institutionalisation and formulating** the new knowledge (generalisation)	-To formulate the new knowledge	-Generalizes one case -Identifies new knowledge -Introduce new vocabulary (concept)	-Use what they already know to come up with new knowledge
5 **Consolidation** (application)	-To use the new knowledge	-Gives exercises (written or oral) to verify if objectives have been attained	-Get used to new knowledge by using it accordingly
6 **Partial integration activities**	-To put together the new knowledge and know how to solve a complex problem situation	-Gives complex problem solving situations to verify the level of development of the skill.	-Get acquainted (more familiar) with the new leanings and use them in solving real life problems
7 **Remediation activities**	-To tackle cases of incomprehension	-Explains over and over that which was not understood.	-Discover their errors and rectify them.

The lesson plan in the table portrays implicit and explicit use of cognitive strategies like noticing or observing, emitting hypotheses and testing them, problem solving and restructuring. This is in opposition to the traditional approach which stressed on structures and functions.

V. CONCLUSION

The article sought to examine the competency based education model and then to see how it could be used to remedy the English language learning quagmire among Francophone Cameroonian learners, A critical examination of the syllabus revealed that it spells out laudable learning outcomes or expectations and that it has adequate communicative approach recommendations for a post-methods era English language teacher. The article also examines the affective components of the Cameroonian learners and literature in this domain shows that they are affectively predisposed to learn the language. Recent literature on classroom teaching holds that English language teaching in Cameroon is a matter of teacher talk and chalk and course books; some of which are not adapted to the learners' needs and interests.

The paper finally examines the competency based education model and recommends that the cognitive learning virtues inherent in the approach could be used to salvage the dismal outcomes of English language teaching in Cameroon.

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Effectiveness Study of English Learning in Blended Learning Environment

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***Abstract*—The wide application of information technology makes web-based instruction pervasive in all levels of China's educational institutions. The study aims to explore the inner relationship between learning motivations and learning strategies in the blended EFL learning environments based on a review on former studies about learning motivations, learning strategies and self-regulated learning. Altogether 540 pieces of questionnaire were distributed to non-English majored students in Dalian University of Technology who learnt English in a blended environment. Using the software SPSS, the data were thoroughly analyzed, indicating that students who display more adaptive self-regulatory strategies demonstrate better learning efficacy and higher motivation for learning and students' performance is predictable with the help of learning motivation and strategies.**

***Index Terms*—blended learning environment, learning motivation, learning strategy, MSLQ, SPSS**

I. Introduction

The fast development of information technology makes web-based instruction pervasive. In Chinese higher education institutions, English is still a compulsory core course from undergraduates to doctoral students. To continuously improve the English teaching and learning effectiveness and efficiency, some Chinese universities have developed web-based instruction systems for EFL and teaching.

Postgraduate English teaching in Dalian University of Technology (DUT) is confronted with the challenge of implementing individualized instruction and constructing autonomous learning environment due to the increase of student enrollment, Therefore, DUT developed the Self-Access English Learning System for the non-English-major postgraduates. Since spring 2005, the Self Access English Learning System has been applied as a supplement to classroom instruction, establishing an effective blended learning environment to facilitate postgraduate students' English learning in DUT.

Studies on second language (L2) acquisition have reported that different students with different learning motivations usually tend to select different strategies (Liu & Cha, 2009; Liu & Cha, 2010). In addition, some scholars have also pointed out that learning motivations and strategies strongly affect students' English learning (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001; Pintrich, 2000, 2003). Considering the practical implications for the research involving substantial learning environments, the authors conducted the current study based on the theories on motivations and strategies developed by Pintrich and Schunk etc. Their theories, from a social cognitive view, argue that learning motivations and strategies consist of three components and each component includes several more specific items. On the solid foundation of the above mentioned theories about learning motivations and strategies, the inner relationship between motivations and strategy components can be investigated into and pedagogical implications to improve current English teaching environment may be found as well. Therefore, the study attempts to analyze the collected data about students' English learning efficacy and efficiency in the blended environment, in the hope of finding possible method to predict students' performance in blended learning environment.

II. Literature Review

A. Blended Learning Environment

Though commonly applied in higher education, blended learning does not have a universally accepted definition, either abroad or at home (different definitions see Bersin & Howard, 2004; Garrison & Kanuka, 2004; Harriman, 2004; Singh, 2003). Based on the definitions proposed by some scholars, especially that by Dr. Driscoll (2002), here in this paper, blended learning is referred to as a blending of different learning environments, or as a blending of methods, techniques or resources and applying them in an interactively meaningful learning environment.

In such a blended learning environment, learners should have easy access to different learning resources in order to apply the knowledge and skills they learn under the supervision and support of the teacher both inside and outside the classroom. Learners and teachers work together to improve the quality of learning and teaching, and the ultimate aim of blended learning is to provide practical opportunities for learners and teachers to make learning independent, useful, sustainable and ever growing. (Graham, 2005; Liu & Cha, 2010)

The Self-Access English Learning System of DUT has made blended teaching and learning model possible, giving priority to students and stressing student's initiative. Meanwhile, there is also classroom teaching at fixed time in such a learning environment, where teachers can explain the mistakes and errors made by students and then accordingly offer appropriate learning strategies and techniques. Thus, students can get feedbacks in time, improving learning efficiency and efficacy more effectively.

B. Learning Motivations and Learning Strategies

Numerous studies have repeatedly shown a relationship between different variables of motivation orientation and academic achievement (Valentine, DuBois, & Cooper, 2004; Nota, Soresi, & Zimmerman, 2004). According to Nota, Soresi and Zimmerman (2004), the motivational self-regulation strategy is a significant predictor of the students' high school diploma grades and their desire to pursue further education after high school.

1. Learning Motivation and Self-regulated Learning

Motivations in L2 learning have, indeed, chiefly been used to refer to the long-term fairly stable attitudes in the students' minds. Two types of favorable motivation, namely integrated and instrumental motivation, have been introduced by Gardner and Lambert (1972, 1985). The integrated motivations reflect whether the student identifies with the target culture and people, or rejects them. The more that a student admires the target culture, the more successful the student will be in the L2 classroom. The instrumental motivations mean learning the language for an ulterior motive unrelated to the use by its native speakers – to pass an examination, to get a certain kind of job, and so on. L2 motivation should not therefore be considered as a forced choice between these two. Both types are important. A student might learn an L2 well with an integrative motivation or with an instrumental one, or indeed with both, for one does not rule out the other.

With the development of motivation theory, other approaches to the study of motivation have emerged. Recently, researchers have taken a primarily social cognitive approach to the study of motivation, with an emphasis on the role of students' beliefs and strategies (Nota, Soresi, & Zimmerman, 2004). Theorists have largely conceptualized motivation as a process, rather than a product. It is believed that motivation can be discerned through students' reports of their beliefs as well as through behaviors such as choice of activities, level and quality of task engagement, persistence, and performance. Consequently, self-regulated learning, from the social cognitive perspective, has been developed and research elaborately by several scholars, among whom Pintrich and Schunk, etc. are the most recognized, with a large number of paper and books published elaborating on this topic.

One of the major contributions Pintrich has made to the field of self-regulated learning is the conceptual framework he formulated. Pintrich (2000, 2002) argues that self-regulatory activities mediate the relations between learners and their environments and influence learners' achievements. According to Pintrich, self-regulation comprises four phases, namely, a) forethought, planning and activation, b) monitoring, c) control, and d) reaction and reflection. In addition, four possible areas, i.e. cognition, motivation/affect, behavior and context are critical to self-regulation in each phase.

This model specifies the possible range of activities and does not necessitate them. The full range of areas may not be amenable to self-regulation, and within any area some activities may require little if any self-regulation. The model does not presume that the phases are linearly ordered; instead, they may occur at any time during task engagement. There are learning situations in which learners may engage in some but not all of the phases. Phases also are interactive in that individuals may simultaneously engage in more than one.

2. Learning Strategy and Self-regulated Learning

A central research project on learning strategies is the comprehensive research program by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), who define learning strategy as the 'the special thoughts or behavior' that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information. They further divide learning strategy into three subcomponents, i.e. meta-cognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social mediation strategies.

a. Meta-cognitive Strategies

Meta-cognitive strategies 'are higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring or evaluating the success of a learning activity' (O' Malley & Chamot, 1990). In other words, they are strategies about learning rather than learning strategies themselves.

b. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies 'operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning' (O' Malley & Chamot, 1990).

c. Social Mediation Strategies

Social mediation strategies, or social/affective strategies, 'represent a broad grouping that involves either interaction with another person or ideational control over affect'. (O' Malley et al., 1985)

Meanwhile, from a more specific point of view, Pintrich & DeGroot (1990) suggest that positive motivations could promote some more deliberate learning strategies, including cognitive strategies, self-regulated strategies and management strategies.

d. Cognitive learning strategies

In terms of cognitive learning strategies, following the work of Weinstein and Mayer (1986), rehearsal, elaboration and organizational strategies are identified as important cognitive strategies related to academic performance in the classroom. These strategies can be applied to simple memory tasks (e.g., recall of information, words, or lists) or to more complex tasks that require comprehension of the information (e.g., understanding a piece of text or a lecture).

e. Meta-cognitive and self-regulatory strategies

Apart from cognitive strategies, students' meta-cognitive knowledge and use of meta-cognitive strategies can have an important influence upon their achievement. There are two general aspects of meta-cognition, namely, knowledge about cognition and self-regulation of cognition. Some scholars have suggested that meta-cognitive knowledge has been limited to students' knowledge about person, task, and strategy variables. Self-regulation would then refer to students' monitoring, controlling, and regulating their own cognitive activities and actual behavior.

f. Resource management strategies

The final component of our model of learning and self-regulatory strategies, resource management strategies, concerns strategies that students use to manage and control their environment. Examples include managing and controlling their time, effort, study environment, and other people (including teachers and peers), through the use of help-seeking strategies. In line with a general adaptive approach to learning, these resource management strategies are assumed to help students adapt to their environment.

III. Research Design

A. Subjects

In the pretest which was designed to verify the validity of the questionnaire adopted in this study, 200 students participated and submitted the results. In the formal test afterwards, the questionnaires were distributed to altogether 700 students across three educational levels from Dalian University of Technology (DUT), and at last, 340 were collected, including 120 pieces of questionnaire by non-English major undergraduate students, 120 pieces by non-English major post-graduate students and 100 pieces by non-English major doctoral students. Most of the subjects had experience of using the self-access English learning system, which is one of the most important learning environments in this study, and immersed in classroom-based English teaching environment. Considering the imbalance of gender distribution on the whole campus of DUT, it is reasonable that the majority of the subjects in this research are male students, accounting for about 60%.

B. Instrument

The Questionnaire adopted in this research, based on research of Pintrich et al., is the Chinese version of Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire Manual, also MSLQ, in which the validity and reliability are guaranteed. The Chinese version was chosen since it is convenient for subjects to read.

There are essentially two sections in the questionnaire, namely, a motivation section and a learning strategies section. The motivation section consists of 31 items that assess students' goal and value beliefs for a course, their beliefs about their skill to succeed in a course, and their anxiety about tests in a course. The learning strategy section includes 31 items regarding students' use of different cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. In addition, the learning strategies section has 19 items concerning students' management of different resources. Most importantly, the Cronbach's alphas are robust, ranging from 0.52 to 0.93 with nearly 0.7 for most of items, which means the scales have good internal reliability.

Students rated themselves on a seven point Likert scale form "not at all true of me" to "very true of me". Scores were calculated by taking the mean of the items that make up that scale. Some items in the questionnaire were "reversed" coded and must be reversed when computing the scores. To make it more specifically, a person who chose 1 for a reversed item got a score of 7 for that item. Accordingly, 2 became 6, and 3 became 5, 4 remained 4, 5 became 3, 6 became 2, and 7 became 1. All data were analyzed and processed with the help of the software Statistical Package for the Social Science, or SPSS.

IV. Results and Findings

A. Correlation between Learning Motivation and Learning Strategies

When using SPSS to explore the data, it was found that no variables for learning motivations and strategies could meet the requirement of normality, so here Spearman Rank Correlation was employed instead of Pearson Parametric Correlation. Results are displayed in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
SPEARMEN CORRELATION OF LEARNING MOTIVATION AND STRATEGIES

Variable	Intrinsic goal	Extrinsic goal	Task value	Belief	Self-efficacy	Anxiety
Rehearsal	.463(**)	.303(**)	.433(**)	.198(**)	.394(**)	.144(**)
	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.008
Elaboration	.528(**)	.206(**)	.532(**)	.373(**)	.597(**)	-.183(**)
	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
Organization	.412(**)	.300(**)	.395(**)	.170(**)	.457(**)	.131(*)
	.000	.000	.000	.002	.000	.017
Critical thinking	.490(**)	.280(**)	.491(**)	.315(**)	.486(**)	.035
	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.522
Meta-cognitive Self-regulation	.543(**)	.230(**)	.499(**)	.388(**)	.667(**)	-.147(**)
	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.008
Time and study environment	.432(**)	.002	.320(**)	.223(**)	.522(**)	-.328(**)
	.000	.972	.000	.000	.000	.000
Effort regulating	.217(**)	.147(**)	.200(**)	.178(**)	.397(**)	-.214(**)
	.000	.007	.000	.001	.000	.000
Peer learning	.293(**)	.190(**)	.259(**)	.063	.256(**)	.185(**)
	.000	.000	.000	.254	.000	.001
Help seeking	.281(**)	.132(*)	.249(**)	.197(**)	.293(**)	.010
	.000	.016	.000	.000	.000	.859

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 - tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 - tailed).

The figures in table 1 indicate that correlation coefficient among most motivation orientations and learning strategies are valid, or significant in statistic (only except four pairs: critical thinking, time and study environment and extrinsic goal orientation, peer learning and control of learning beliefs, help seeking and test anxiety). Nevertheless, it is possible that small correlation coefficient could be significant in large-sampled survey, so it is necessary to sort out correlation coefficient big enough ($r \geq 0.5$) putting to analysis, which accord with practical survey, for not each orientations would correlate to every learning strategies and students with different motivation orientations tend to make use of different learning strategies correspondingly. According to table 2, however, the correlation among affective component (test anxiety) and two learning strategies is too small to be significant.

TABLE 2.
SPEARMEN CORRELATION OF LEARNING MOTIVATION AND STRATEGIES COMPONENT

Variable	Value component	Expectancy component	Affective component
Cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies	.552(**)	.508(**)	-.007
	.000	.000	.909
Meta-cognitive self-regulation	.389(**)	.399(**)	-.046
	.000	.000	.417

Table 2 lists the integrated correlation coefficients among motivation components and learning strategies, which indicates that value component and expectancy component are closely correlated to cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies($r = 0.552, 0.508$); while correlation among value and expectancy component and meta-cognitive self-regulation is comparatively weaker($r = 0.3389, 0.399$). Moreover, correlation among affective component and the two learning strategy components is weak that correlation coefficients are even significant in statistics ($r = -0.007, -0.046$).

B. Different Strategies between High-motivated and Low-motivated Groups

Students on three levels were sorted out and classified into two groups, namely, the high-motivated group with 25% of highest motivation score and low-motivated group with another 25% of lowest motivation score according to the sequence of students' ascending score in motivation scale. In the study, high-motivated group, with average score of 5.11, includes 79 students; while low-motivated group, with average score of 4.31, includes another 79 students.

Table 3 shows that students in high-motivated group tend to use learning strategies more frequently than in low-motivated group ($M = 5.06, 4.83$ vs. $3.89, 4.24$). Students in high-motivated, however, prefer cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies to meta-cognitive self-regulation ($M = 5.06 > 4.83$); whereas, students on the counterpart prefer meta-cognitive self-regulation more ($M = 4.24 > 3.89$). Most importantly, the difference between high-motivated and low-motivated groups is significant in statistics ($t = -8.49, -0.59$; $p < 0.05$).

TABLE 3.
T TEST IN STRATEGIES CHOOSING OF HIGH-MOTIVATED AND LOW-MOTIVATED GROUPS

Group / Strategies	Low-motivated（79）		High-motivated（79）		Mean difference	t	Sig.
	M	S. D.	M	S. D.			
Cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies	3.89	0.87	5.06	0.79	-1.17	-8.46	.000
Meta-cognitive self-regulation	4.24	0.77	4.83	0.73	-0.59	-4.81	.000

C. Regression Analysis and Prediction of Students' Performance

Stepwise method was employed in the regression analysis, as it combined the advantages of Backward and Forward. In addition, too many variables might lead to the super-fitting of the regression equation, so here the average scores of motivation and strategies as a whole were calculated to get two comprehensive variables – motivations variable and strategies variable, which then were put into regression analysis. This data treatment was proved valid through the final results (80% variance of dependent variable could be explained by independent variables).

With above method, a regression equation could be generated in form as follows:

$y = a + b_1 X_{1'} + b_2 X_2 + e$

Where,

Y – the students' performance, also final exam or CET-4 scores;

X1 – the learning strategy variable;

X2 – the motivation variable;

e – the equation error;

a, b1, b2 – estimated constants;

In table 4, model 1 (with motivation variable only) and 2 (with both motivation variable and strategy variable) have high multiple correlation coefficient (R = 0.908, 0.913), which the linear relation among student performance and learning motivation as well as learning strategies are very significant. Besides, model 1 could explain 82.4% variance of student performance (R Square = 0.824); while model 2 could explain 83.4% (R Square = 0.834), so the regression equation generated are quiet reliable and valid. One thing to notice, the only strategy variable could explain most variance of student performance (83.4% vs. 82.4%), which means usage of learning strategies influences student performance most.

TABLE 4.
REGRESSION SUMMERY

Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate	Change statistics				
					R square change	F change	df1	df2	Sig. F change
1	.908[a]	.824	.823	.32921	.824	1279.304	1	273	.000
2	.913[b]	.834	.833	.32014	.010	16.685	1	272	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), scores of learning strategies

b. Predictors: (Constant), scores of learning strategies, scores of learning motivation

The results of both model 1 and model 2 all reach the statistical significance ($p < 0.05$). For model 2 could explain more variance, here model 2 is extracted as regression equation. Then it should be as follows:

Student performance = 0.987 + 0.921 x learning strategies – 0.138 x learning motivation

TABLE 5.
REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS [a]

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity statistics	
		B	Std. error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.541	.113		4.771	.000	1.000	
	Scores of learning strategies	.877	.025	.908	35.761	.000		1.000
2	(Constant)	.987	.155		6.361	.000		
	Scores of learning strategies	.921	.026	.954	35.151	.000	.827	1.209
	Scores of learning motivation	-.138	.034	-.111	-4.085	.000	.827	1.209

a. Dependent variable: scores of students' courses

Applying above equation, predicted performance of 340 students was calculated through input of their motivation and strategies scores, and compared with their real performance – final examination scores to verify the regression equation through Paired-sample T test. After the validity verification, predicted performance of another 100 students as control group was calculated with the same method

TABLE 6.
PAIRED-SAMPLE T TEST OF 340 STUDENTS

Pair 1	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Predicated scores – Real scores	.219	2.455	.134	-.046	.483	1.627	333	.105

TABLE 7.
PAIRED-SAMPLE T TEST OF 100 STUDENTS

Pair 1	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean	95% confidence interval of the difference				
				Lower	Upper			
After blended learning environment – before blended learning environment	.150	.794	.048	.056	.244	3.133	274	.002

and compared with their actual CET-4 scores, and then Paired-sample T test was also employed to check out whether students in blended environment tended to performed better (as is shown in Table 6 and table 7).

Table 6 shows that the predicted performance is similar to the real score ($p = 0.105$), and the regression equation is valid. In table 7, however, it is proved that there did exist difference if students did not take course in blended learning environment ($p = 0.002$).

V. Discussion

This study employs the theories based on the work by Pintrich etc. and analyzes the data gathered through questionnaires for the Self Access English Learning System, with help of which the learning environment in DUT is assessed and the English learning situation of students on different levels is explored. The research results strongly prove that there is certain relationship between students' learning motivation and learning strategies; and the Self Access English Learning System can improve students' English learning effects as well as increase their final examination scores, to which extent the Self Access English Learning System is valid as proved from several numerical results.

First of all, the present study explores the correlation between students' motivation orientation and their learning strategies, which is outlined above. The authors thus confirm that highly-motivated students tend to employ diverse learning strategies to improve their English learning efficiency. Besides, the study also proves that students forced to learn English tend to perform badly in learning strategies selecting, for the correlation coefficients between extrinsic goal and learning strategies rank quite low in scale. Self efficacy, on the contrary, is proved to be closely correlated with learning strategies, which means confident students tend to employ learning strategies more frequently and effectively.

In addition, the validity of Self Access English Learning System is inspected by employing Regression analysis of SPSS, in which scores from 100 students in general are used to get regression equation and then the comparison of predicted scores by equation and real score is made. The comparison, however, shows that Self Access English Learning System is valid to what extent the predicted scores have no difference with students' real score. In addition to the comparison, the validity of regression equation, at the same time, proves the possibility that the students' future performance can be predicted, because no difference exists between predicted score and their real final examination scores.

There are also a number of implications for system users and performers with respect to pedagogical insights. The data presented in this paper provide reasonable evidence for the benefits of self-determination. College students' motivation is positively affected by the experience of autonomy. The college students here who perceived their instructors to be supportive of autonomy by allowing students to participate in course policy-making, report greater levels of motivation at the end of the semester, even after partialling out the effects of pretest motivation. Perceptions of autonomy have positive effects not only on intrinsic motivation, but also upon task value and self-efficacy.

As a whole, the pattern of results reported here indicates that experiences of classroom autonomy in the college classroom are more closely related to motivational factors than to performance. While the immediate experience of autonomy may not be directly facilitative of high course grades, autonomy does seem to modestly foster intrinsic goal orientation, task value, and self efficacy, all of which are critical components of continuing motivations. By promoting learning autonomy and self-determination in the college classroom, instructors may not see clear, immediate improvements in performance. Instead, students tend to select more additional courses related to English learning, accumulate more interests in the English learning materials provided by instructors, and show greater persistence facing difficulties in English learning. These are not insubstantial consequences, and we should not neglect factors that promote these positive motivational beliefs in a single-minded search for factors related to higher grades and better performance.

VI. Conclusion

In this study, the social cognitive approach is employed to the research of learning motivations and learning strategies as the theoretical framework to explore the inner relationship between motivation orientations and learning strategies. Altogether 540 pieces of questionnaire were distributed to non-English majored students in Dalian University of Technology who learnt English in a blended environment.

Using the software SPSS, the data were thoroughly analyzed, indicating that students who display more adaptive self-regulatory strategies demonstrate better learning efficacy and higher motivation for learning and students' performance is predictable with the help of learning motivation and strategies. Therefore, conclusions may be drawn that various kinds of learning strategies should be introduced and explained in English teaching and learning according to students' different learning motivations, thus narrowing the gap of students' English learning efficacy in blended learning environment.

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Use of the Metacognitive English Language Learning Strategies Based on Personality Traits

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***Abstract*—The present study aims to find out the relationship between use of the Metacognitive English Language Learning Strategies (MELLSs) for learners of English as a foreign language based on personality traits, and the role of personality traits in the prediction of use of such Strategies. Four instruments were used, which were Adapted Inventory for Metacognitive English Language Learning Strategies based on Metacognitive category of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) of Rebecca L. Oxfords (1990), A Background Questionnaire, NEO-Five Factors Inventory (NEO-FFI), and Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). Two hundred and thirteen Iranian female university level learners of English language as a university major in Iran, were asked to participate in this research work. The intact classes were chosen. The results show that however, there is a significant relationship between four traits of personality and use of the MELLSs, but personality traits cannot be as a strong predictor with high percent of contribution to predict use of the MELLSs.**

***Index Terms*—metacognitive language learning strategies, English learning, personality traits**

I. Introduction

Since individual differences have been identified as variables influencing language learning outcome (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Skehan, 1989); and as it was shown by the study of Marttinen (2008), the high percent of source of learners' knowledge comes from teacher; Horwitz (1988) encourages teachers to discover the prescriptive belief of their own students. Moreover, in order to provide successful instruction, teachers need to learn to identify and understand their students' individual difference, and even they need to become more aware that their teaching styles must be appropriate to their learners' strategies (Oxford & Cohen, 1992).

Recently some studies tend to concentrate more on individual differences in strategy performance (e.g. Oxford, 1992, 1993; Toyoda, 1998). In such related studies, it was showed for strategy instruction to be affected; it should take all the variables into account (Oxford & Crookball, 1989).

Since 1990s, there has been a growing interest on how personality correlates to the academic performance. Personality has been conceptualized at different levels of breadth (McAdams, 1992), and each of these levels include our understanding of individual understanding. Moreover, individuals are characterized by a unique pattern of traits, and some study shows successful language learners choose strategies to suit their personalities (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). In addition, since LLSs are not innate but learnable (Oxford, 1994), broad justifications have been offered for the evaluation of personality traits as a predictor of MELLSs.

In such way, the premise underlying line of this research is that success in MELLSs plays an important role in affecting learners' English language learning process.

II. Review of the Literature

The studies on individual and personality differences are a central theme in psychology as well as the other areas of social and behavior sciences (Saklofske & Eysneck, 1998).

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

Foregoing has highlighted the main goal of the current study was to document how personality traits related to the MELLSs. In such situation, there are some possible ways looking at the MELLSs and their relationship with personality traits. The first is to see the use of the MELLSs as an outcome of personality traits. The second is to see them as having

uni-directional causal role increasing personality traits. The third one is to see the relationship between the two as mutual, and causality is bi-directional.

III. Methodology

A. Participants

The descriptive statistics are such type of numerical representation of participants (Brown, J. D. 1996). The sample drawn from the population must be representative so as to allow the researchers to make inferences or generalization from sample statistics to population (Maleske, 1995). As Riazi (1999) presents "A question that often plagues the novice the researcher is just how large his sample should been order to conduct an adequate survey or study. There is, of course, no clear-cut answer" (pp.242-243). If sample size is too small, it is difficult to have reliable answer to the research questions. If sample is too large, it is difficulty of doing research. To leave a margin of about 20% for ineffectual questionnaires slightly bigger numbers were chosen. In this way, initially a total of two hundred fifty Iranian female university level learners of English language as a university major at the Islamic Azad University Branches of three cities which named Abadan, Dezful ,and Masjed-Solyman in Khuzestan province in south of Iran, were asked to participate in this research work. It must bear in mind that number of participants may affect the appropriateness of particular tool (Cohen & Scott, 1996).The intact classes were chosen.

The chosen participants for this study were studying in third grade (year) of English major of B. A. degree. There was only female, ranging age from 19 to 28(Mean= 23.4, SD= 2).Their mother tongue was Persian (Farsi) which is the official language of Iran, according to Act 15 of the Iranian constitution.

The socio-economic status of participants, such as the participants' social background, and parents' level education controlled as well by questionnaire,. Based on some indicators such as the parents' socio-educational background and occupation, the participants were matched as closely as possible for socio-economic background to minimize the effect of social class. Accordingly, the participants were classified as a middle class. Moreover the most of the participants from the Islamic Azad University in Khuzestan province, Iran, have middle-class and similar socio-economic background.

Because of the nature of this work (regarding the use of English LLSs), a general English proficiency test for determining the proficiency level of participants in English was applied in order to minimize the effect of English language proficiency. As Jafarpour (2001) defines "the percent classification of subjects by the experimental test that corresponds to those by the criterion" (pp.32-33) (as cited in Golkar & Yamini, 2007), top of subjects are 27% and bottom of subjects are 27% (Golkar & Yamini, 2007), the participant whom were classified as intermediate subjects, were asked to participate in the current study.

B. Instrumentation in the Current Study

Four instruments were used to gather data in the current study. They were:

1. Adapted Inventory for Metacognitive English Language Learning Strategies

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning(SILL) of Rebecca L. Oxford (1990) is a kind of self-report questionnaire that has been used extensively by researchers in many countries, and its reliability has been checked in multiple ways, and has been reported as high validity, reliability and utility(Oxford, 1996). In addition, factor analysis of SILL is confirmed by many studies (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002; Oxford, 1996; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995).In this way, as Ellis (1994) believes Oxford's taxonomy is possibly the most comprehensive currently available. Several empirical studies have been found moderate intercorrelation between the items of six categories in SILL (Oxford & Ehrman, 1995).

The SILL includes Memory Strategies(9 items), Cognitive Strategies(14 items), Compensation Strategies(6 items), Metacognitive Strategies(9 items), Affective Strategies(6 items), and Social Strategies(6 items).

Based on the Metacognitive category of SILL, the investigator adapted a questionnaire. In adaptation of each instrument from one language to another in research works, some problems occur, such as the problem of translation one questionnaire to another language (Perera & Eysenck, 1984). As same as the other two questioners (NEO-FFI and Background Questionnaire), adapted MELLSs inventory was checked through back translation into English by three English teachers, and three psychologists who were fully proficient in both languages (English and Persian), in order to check the consistency with English version, and based on the pilot study was performed. The items were corrected until full agreement among the translators was achieved, and the pilot study confirms such translated items. In addition, the balance between spoken and written Persian was checked.

It must bear in mind that the translation/back translation is one of more effective ways to solve the equivalent concepts of translated and original version of one questionnaire (Behling & Law, 2000), and one researcher can be ideal translator if she or he is fluent in target language.

In the case of such questionnaire, three psychologists, and three English teachers were asked to check the questionnaire from two points of view. Firstly, since both psychologists and linguists were fully proficient in both languages (English and Persian), they were asked to check the translated version of the questionnaire in order to check the consistency with English version of them. Secondly, since both the psychologists and English teachers were professional in related study of the questionnaire, they were asked to check the psychometrics of the questionnaire.

After full agreement among the psychologists and linguists was achieved, and the pilot study confirms the items of such questionnaire, it was administrated in the main study.

2. Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL)

Because of the nature of this work (regarding the use of English LLSs), TOEFL(Structure and Written Expression, and Reading Comprehension parts) as a general English proficiency test was used for determining the proficiency level of participants in English in order to minimize the effect of English language proficiency. The participant whom classified as intermediate subjects, were asked to participate in the current study.

3. A background questionnaire

The socio-economic status of participants, such as the participants' social background, and parents' level education was controlled as well by a background questionnaire. The middle class students were chosen.

4. NEO-Five Factors Inventory (NEO-FFI)

The Big Five Personality Questionnaire is based on the Big Five Factor Model of personality whose major proponents are Lewis Goldberg, Paul Costa, and Robert McCare. This theory proposes that five broad dimensions provide complete description of personality.

The questionnaire of the Big Five Factors is one of the most widely used personality assessment in the world. In addition, evidences indicate that Big Five is fairly stable over time (Costa & McCare, 1988; Digman, 1989). Moreover factor structure resembling the Big Five Factors were identified in numerous sets of variables (Digman & Inouye, 1986; Goldberg, 1981, 1990; John, 1990; McCare & Costa, 1985; Saucier & Goldberg, 1996). In addition, the scales of Big Five personality have proven to be a useful tool in a number of applied fields. In this way, the Big Five Factors Inventory has enjoyed wide spread popularity in applied organizational context. The reliability reported in the manual is adequate with mean of .78 across the five factors (Costa & McCare, 1992).

The idea of major dimensions include much of personality is long standing (Norman, 1963). In addition, Digman and Inouye (1986) state "the domain of personality of personality descriptors is almost completely accounted for by five robust factors" (p.116). In this way, the Big Five Factors personality questionnaire can be as a satisfactory tool to assess the relationship between personality and a number of academic variables (Chamorro-Premuzie, Furnham & Lewis, 2007). Despite the FFI enjoys international use, but the Big Five structure has not been accepted generally (Block, 1995; Eysenck, 1992, 1997; McAdams, 1992).

The dimensions composing the Big Five Factors (as cited in related literature by different dominant researchers such as Chamorro-Premuzie, Furnham & Lewis, 2007; Costa & McCare, 1992) are detailed as: a) Neuroticism represents the tendency to exhibit poor emotional adjustment, anxious, and pessimistic; b) Extraversion represents the tendency to be sociable and assertive, cheerful, active, upbeat, and optimistic; c) Openness to experiences (intellect) represents the tendency to imaginative, intellectually curious, imaginative, and artistically sensitive; d) Agreeableness is the tendency to be trusting, compliant, caring, gentle, compassionate, empathic, and cooperative; e) Conscientiousness represents the tendency to responsible, organized, hard-working, responsible, dependable, able to plan, organized, persistent, achievement oriented, purposeful, strong-willed, and determined.

The NEO-FFI is a sixty-item version of S form of the NEO-PI-R that is applied to measure the five domains of personality. It consists of five 12-item scales. Each of these sixty items includes five choices. As same as SILL procedure, the participants were asked to choice the statement which how true of them it is. They were told that answer must be in terms of how well the statement describes them. Also they were told that there is no right or wrong answer to these statements. The NEO-FFI is self-scoring, and paper and pencil survey. It is 5-point scale range from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree". The choices are as: a) Strongly Disagree, b) Disagree, c) Neutral, d) Agree, e) Strongly Agree.

The adapted Persian version of NEO-FFI was used in the current study. The short form of NEO-FFI (Costa & McCare, 1992) was translated into Persian language (Fathi-Ashtiani, 2009). Also it consists of sixty items, 12 items for each of the "Big Five" sub-scales.

C. Sample of the Pilot Study

The sample for the pilot study, as "A small-scale replica and a rehearsal of the main study" (Riazi, 1999, p.198), was selected so as it represents the entire sample for participants whom asked to participate in the main study. Since sample size in pilot study ranges from 20 to bigger of 65(Hinkin,1998), thirty nine female students university level learners of English language as a university major at Islamic Azad University Branches of three cities which named Abadan, Dezful ,and Masjed-Solyman were asked to participate in the pilot study. In this pilot study, the percent of participants from each branch is approximately equal to the others. They were told about the importance of the results of the pilot study.

D. Reliability of the Instruments

This section will explore the reliabilities of the three instruments: Adapted Inventory for Metacognitive English Language Learning Strategies, NEO-FFI, and TOEFL. Since Cronbach's alpha is one of the standard ways of expressing a test's reliability (Foster, 1998); and its coefficient is commonly used to describe the reliability factors of multi-point formatted questionnaires or scales; in such way, the reliabilities of our experimental measures were assessed by calculating Cronbach's alpha over the items of the three instruments across all the participants in the current study

which were found .81 for Adapted Inventory for Metacognitive English Language Learning Strategies,.82 for NEO-FFI, and .80 for TOEFL. The reliability coefficient indicated the degree to which the results on a scale can be considered internally consistent, or reliable (De Vellis, 2003; Ghiasvand, 2008; Moemeni, 2007; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Such finding of reliabilities for the three instruments confirm the finding of reliabilities in the pilot study.

E. Data Collection Procedures in the Main Study

The data for the study described in this study was collected between September 2010 and November 2010 in Iran, at the Islamic Azad University Branches of three cities that are named Abadan, Dezful, and Masjed-Solyman. As stated these three cities are located in Khuzestan province in south of Iran.

All of the instruments were administrated during class time and based on the availability of the participants of third grade (year) at three stages. The researcher, himself, administrated all the instruments. All the participants participated in the main study, were explained the goals of the current study by the researcher. Also for each stage of administration, the researcher explained the instructions for answering the test and questionnaires before each of the instruments was administrated. All the explanation of the materials was performed through Persian language (which is the mother tongue of the participants).

To increase the credibility of the response, the participants were asked that they should be honestly in their answers, and they should not spend too much time on any of the items. The participants were also asked to ask any question or doubt it they had. After completion of answering the questionnaires, the respondents were asked whether they answer all the items or not; and whether they mark their response in correct spaces or not. In each of both states, if the participants did not answer all the items or not mark their responses in correct spaces, they were asked to revise those items, and answer those items or mark their responses in correct spaces.

1. Stage one

At this stage, the participants were asked to answer TOEFL test. Approximately 80 minutes were taken to answer the test. Such duration of time is as the duration of time was calculated in the pilot study (The first week).

2. Stage two

At the second stage, the respondents were asked to fill the Adapted Inventory for Metacognitive English Language Learning Strategies. The respondents were asked to respond to the questions within 5-10 minutes. The time that assigned for participants was determined according to the results obtained from the pilot study. Alongside Adapted Inventory for Metacognitive English Language Learning Strategies, Background Questionnaire was administrated (The second week).

3. Stage three

At this Stage, NEO-FFI was administrated. The time that assigned for the participants in order to complete NEO-FFI was determined according to the results obtained from the pilot study.10 – 15 minutes was enough to complete NEO-FFI(The third week).

F. Data Analysis

After data collection, the data was entered onto databases (Excel and SPSS) to enable data analysis to be carried out.

The First procedure of data analysis includes Pearson Correlation that used to identify the strength and direction of the relationship between variables. As known to the researchers in the field, correlation does not imply causality, but it does provide a picture of relationships. The important point, the classification of strength of correlation is not well accepted among different researchers, and there are different classifications such as the classification suggested by Cohen, J. (1988), Delavar (2010), Ghiasvand (2008). In the current study, the classification that was suggested by Cohen, J. (1988) was chosen as criterion to interpret and discuss about the strength of the correlation. It is as table 1:

TABLE1:
THE CLASSIFICATION WAS SUGGESTED BY COHEN, J (1988)

Level of Strength	Amount of the Strength
Low	r=.10 to .29
Medium	r=.30 to .49
Strong	r= .50 to 1

The second procedure of data analysis includes Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) that is an analytic tool. In non-experimental research, ANOVA does not show the same meaning as experimental research. In non-experimental research, ANOVA does not mean causality between the independent variables and the dependent variables when there is significant relationship. In this way, the use of ANOVA in non-experimental research is criticized if the goal is finding casual relationships (Johnson, 2001). Moreover the use of ANOVA in non-experimental is perfectly acceptable when the goal is not causality according to top statisticians (e.g. Johenson, 2001). In addition, ANOVA has been frequently used for many years in non-experimental research (Johnson, 2001).

In such way, correlation is used to find the degree and direction of the relationship between variables, and ANOVA test the significance of the relationship.

The third procedure of data analysis includes multiple regression analysis. As Newton and Rudestan (1999), point out it is used to find the relationship between multiple distributed independent variables and a single dependent variable. In

such way, the researcher used multiple regression to identify among all the five independent variables the best predictors of the overall use of ELLSs use. In this procedure, stepwise method was used; and the interpretation of the stepwise method of multiple regression was based on the samples of Ghisvand, 2008; Kalantari, 2008; and Pallant, 2007.

IV. Results, Discussion, and Conclusion

In the entire sample, the strategies in the Metacognitive category were the High frequently used, with a mean of 3.7(SD=.64) (Based on the Oxford'key, 1990).

The means were calculated in order to determine the mean of the each of five traits of personality among the total group of the respondents (N=213) (Table 2).

TABLE 2:
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS (SD) OF THE FIVE TRAITS OF PERSONALITY IN THE CURRENT STUDY

Personality Trait	N	Mean	SD
Neuroticism	213	23.0	8.3
Extraversion	213	27.4	5.5
Openness to Experiences	213	27.9	4.7
Agreeableness	213	32.4	5.4
Conscientiousness	213	34.7	6.3

Table 2showed that the mean of the Conscientiousness trait (Mean=34.7, SD =6.3) was more than each of the means of the other four traits, and the mean of the Neuroticism trait (Mean=23.0, SD=8.3) was less than each of the means of the other four traits.

The Pearson Correlation was performed to examine whether there is relationship between the Overall Metacognitive Strategy Use and the Five Traits of Personality (Table 3).

TABLE 3:
THE SUMMARY OF CORRELATIONS AMONG THE OVERALL METACOGNITIVE STRATEGY USE AND THE FIVE TRAITS OF PERSONALITY

		Extraversion	Openness to Experiences	Agreea-bleness	Conscient-iousness	Neuro-ticism
Metacognitive Strategies	Pearson Correlation	.166*	.265**	.121	.372**	-.182**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.015	.000	.078	.000	.008
	N	213	213	213	213	213

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

According to Table 3, the students' overall Metacognitive strategy use was significant positively correlated with the Openness to Experiences trait, and the Conscientiousness trait at the p<.01 level (2-tailed), and the Extraversion trait at the p<.05 level (2-tailed). The levels of correlations were found low for the Openness to Experiences trait, the Extraversion, and medium for the Conscientiousness trait. For the Agreeableness trait, the correlation was no significant (P>.05). For the Neuroticism trait, the students' overall Metacognitive strategy use was negatively correlated with it at the p<.01 level (2-tailed). The level of correlation was found low. In Table 3, there were found both types of positive and negative correlations, but in both types of correlation, the level of correlation was found low (except in the case of the Conscientiousness trait that its correlation level was medium). Moreover, except the case of the Agreeableness trait, all types of correlations were significant at the p<.01 or p<.05 levels (2-tailed).

Table 3 indicated that based on increasing of the Extraversion trait level of the students, higher average of Metacognitive Strategies would be used, and based on decreasing of the Extraversion trait level, lower average of Metacognitive Strategies would be used. In such way, Table 3 showed that there was a meaningful significant positive relationship between the overall Metacognitive strategy use and the Extraversion trait (r=.166, p<.05). The positive relationship implies that the more extraverted students use Metacognitive Strategies more.

Table 3 indicated that based on increasing of the Openness to Experiences trait level of the students, higher average of Metacognitive Strategies would be used, and based on decreasing of the Openness to Experiences trait level, lower average of Metacognitive Strategies would be used. In such way, Table 3 showed that there was a meaningful significant positive relationship between the overall Metacognitive strategy use and the Openness to Experiences trait (r=.265, p<.01). The positive relationship implies that the students with higher level of Openness to Experiences trait use Metacognitive Strategies more.

Table 3 indicated that there was not a meaningful significant relationship between the overall Metacognitive strategy use and the Agreeableness trait.

Table indicated that based on increasing of the Conscientiousness trait level of the students, higher average of Metacognitive Strategies would be used, and based on decreasing of the Conscientiousness trait level, lower average of Metacognitive Strategies would be used. In such way, Table 3 showed that there was a meaningful significant positive relationship between the overall Metacognitive strategy use and the Conscientiousness trait (r=.372, p<.01). The positive relationship implies that the more Conscious students use Metacognitive Strategies more.

Table 3 indicated that based on increasing of the Neuroticism trait level of the students, lower average of Metacognitive Strategies would be used. In such way, Table 3 showed that there was a meaningful significant negative

relationship between the overall Metacognitive strategy use and the Neuroticism trait (r=-.182, p<.01). The negative relationship implies that the more Neurotic students use Metacognitive Strategies less.

The multiple regression analysis, for all the five traits of personality (as independent variables) and the overall use of Metacognitive Strategies (as a dependent variable) were analyzed through the stepwise method. Out of the five traits of personality, only two variables entered the equation (Table 4).

TABLE 4:
THE MODEL SUMMARY OF THE EQUATION

Model	Variables Entered	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	Conscientiousness	.372[a]	.138	.134	.59207
2	Openness to Experiences	.430[b]	.185	.177	.57720

Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
Dependent Variable: Metacognitive Strategies
a. Predictors: (Constant), Conscientiousness
b. Predictors: (Constant), Conscientiousness, Openness to Experiences

According to Table 4, regression analysis has run up to two steps. In the first step, the Conscientiousness trait entered the equation that the Adjusted R-Square became .134. In the second step, when the Openness to Experiences trait entered the equation, the Adjusted R-Square increased up to .177. In other words, based on the Adjusted R-Square, the emerged model for the two independent variables with the Adjusted R-Square of .177, accounted for explaining about 17.7% of the variance of the students' overall Metacognitive strategy use.

TABLE 5:
THE RESULTS OF REGRESSIONAL ANOVAC OF THE EQUATION

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1Regression	11.852	1	11.852	33.810	.000[a]
Residual	73.966	211	.351		
Total	85.819	212			
2Regression	15.854	2	7.927	23.793	.000[b]
Residual	69.964	210	.333		
Total	85.819	212			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Conscientiousness
b. Predictors: (Constant), Conscientiousness, Openness to Experiences
c. Dependent Variable: Metacognitive Strategies

Further, Table 5 (regressional ANOVA) showed that the effect was significant, and all the models had high F values (F=33.810, F=23.793, P< .01). Therefore, it could be concluded that about 17.7% of changes in the students' overall Metacognitive strategy use was accounted for by the Conscientiousness and Openness to Experiences traits.

Table 5 indicated that the effect of the Conscientiousness and Openness to Experiences traits was significant at the p<.01 level. Remaining the three traits of personality did not enter the regression equation because of level of their errors were greater than .05, and they had very weak effect in the prediction of the overall Metacognitive strategy use. In such way, rest of the contribution for the overall Metacognitive strategy use was unaccounted for.

TABLE 6:
THE UNSATNDERDISED COEFFICIENTSA, T TESTS AND SIGNIFICANCES FOR DIFFERENT MODELS PREDICTED OF THE EQUATION

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.369	.229		10.364	.000
Conscientiousness	.452	.078	.372	5.815	.000
2 (Constant)	1.656	.303		5.459	.000
Conscientiousness	.416	.077	.342	5.434	.000
Openness to Experiences	.352	.101	.218	3.466	.001

a. Dependent Variable: Metacognitive Strategies

According to Table 6, the effect of the Conscientiousness trait was greater than the effect of the Openness to Experiences trait to change the overall Metacognitive strategy use, because of the obtained Beta for the Conscientiousness trait showed that for each of one unit of value of change in the Standard Deviation of the Conscientiousness trait, the amount of change .342 occurred in the Standard Deviation of the overall Metacognitive strategy use. However, for the Openness to Experiences trait, for each of one unit of value of change in its Standard Deviation, the amount of change .218 occurred in the Standard Deviation of the overall Metacognitive strategy use. From the above table, it was further evident that for all the predicted models and constants, the t values ranged from 3.466 to 10.364, which were all found to be significant, and significance levels ranged from .001 to .000 level.

TABLE 7:
THE EXCLUDED VARIABLESC OF THE EQUATION

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	Extraversion	.057[a]	.845	.399	.058	.905
	Openness to Experiences	.218[a]	3.466	.001	.233	.981
	Agreeableness	.027[a]	.413	.680	.028	.934
	Neuroticism	-.065[a]	-.965	.336	-.066	.888
2	Extraversion	.026[b]	.399	.690	.028	.888
	Agreeableness	.010[b]	.149	.881	.010	.928
	Neuroticism	-.039[b]	-.578	.564	-.040	.876

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Conscientiousness
b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Conscientiousness, Openness to Experiences
a. Dependent Variable: Metacognitive Strategies

Table 7 showed the excluded variables in this equation. The excluded variables in the first step were Extraversion, Openness to Experiences, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism. In the second step, the excluded variables were Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism.

In summary, one can conclude that the traits like the Conscientiousness trait, and the Openness to Experiences trait best predicted the overall use of Metacognitive Strategies of the students.

V. LIMITATIONS OF THE CURRENT STUDY

Generally speaking, there are some difficulties inherent in endeavor to conduct any research work on the learners of second/foreign language. Such difficulties are as the results of methods(e.g. measurement issues, sampling issues), type of instrumentations (e.g. exclusive reliance on self-report responses to the questionnaires, ambiguity in the questionnaire item wording, response style bias), and the other variables used in conducting this type of research (Ellis, 1985). Similarly, the present study due to using Ex Post facto type of research has certain limitations that must be taken in mind which interpretation of the results.

Moreover, since all the education quasi-research deals with living human beings are occur out of laboratory conditions have limitations (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003). Like any study, the current study has a number of limitations. The limitations in this study include limitations that are related to questionnaires, English proficiency test, statistical method, large of sample, type of research, comprehensive operational definitions, environment, and culture.

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Study of the Fragmented Structure in *Oracle Night* as a Metafiction

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***Abstract*—Paul Auster is one of America's most inventive and original postmodernist writers, whose novels have received worldwide popularity. His new piece Oracle Night was written in 2003 when the literary postmodernism has become a prominent literary tendency and when metafiction has been a typically postmodernist writing model. This thesis aims to study metafictional structural features of Paul Auster's Oracle Night, which has not been given due critical attention to both in China and in foreign countries. Based on detailed textual analysis, the study contends that Oracle Night holds the structural feature as a metafiction by attempting to explore the representative one, namely, the Fragmented Structure exploited in this novel. The author of the thesis illustrates fragmented structure in the following aspects, that is, Fragmentation of Plots, Fragmentation of time and space, Fragmentation of characters, etc. Lastly, she analyzes the function of Fragmented structure.**

***Index Terms*— Paul Auster, Metafiction, fragmentation, functions**

I. Introduction

The author of the thesis has found that *Oracle Night* should be a better work to reveal Auster's talent as an experimental writer for his application of the metafictional technique. After researching intensively into *Oracle Night*, the author of the thesis sides with the conclusion that *Oracle Night* is a metafiction, needing more profound, academic and detailed study and analysis. The present thesis aims to illustrate the novel from the aspect of narrative pattern of metafiction.

First of all, *Oracle Night* moulds a protagonist as a writer who creates stories. The writer is Sidney Orr, 34 years old, semi-recovered from a never-quite-specified, nearly-fatal illness, whose will to write has gone watery until he buys an exotic notebook in a stationery store in his Brooklyn neighborhood. The instant this notebook is purchased, stories begin to proliferate, many of which in the footnotes crop up from the bottom of the pages with still more stories, an entire luxuriant jungle of narratives. Orr starts writing a novel in the notebook about an editor with a resemblance to Orr himself who discovers a long-lost novel. Orr's own story unfurls in various complicated ways. There is a screenplay about time travel. There is another older writer, a mentor of Orr's, with stories of his own. Orr is endlessly dissolving into other characters and other stories, not sure whether he is writing a book already written.

In the second place, other stories happening at different levels are within the basic story. As the novel indicates, it consists of several stories. In a novel of just over 200 pages, we read such a great pile of stories, detailedly, stories about Sidney Orr, Nick, Flagg, Eva, Grace, John Trause, Jacob, Edward, and the time machine. *Oracle Night* is multi-layered, with story wrapped within story, each story somehow interlinked with the next so that the multitude of fictions chime together in unexpected ways, investing the whole with an almost choral quality, even if that quality can be cacophonous and disturbing. All the stories actually happen at the same time. Voice competes with voice, character with character, and all is so tightly controlled and so technically accomplished that the reader, taken deeply within the fiction, cannot discern which part of the novel is fictional and which part is of reality. Finally, the reader loses the sense that it is indeed just a fiction.

From the perspective of structure, *Oracle Night* consists of many stories, and the relationship between the seven stories is not necessarily connected with each other. Though they only work as fragments, they help to integrate the whole story with certain techniques. And from the perspective of structure, it is called Fragmented Structure of metafiction.

Metafiction is a mode of writing within a broader cultural movement often referred to as postmodernism. As Patricia Waugh puts it,

Metafiction is a term given to fictional writing which self-consciously and systematically draws attention to its status as an artifact in order to pose questions about the relationship between fiction and reality. In providing a critique of their own methods of construction, such writings not only examine the fundamental structures of narrative fiction, they also

explore the possible fictionality of the world outside the literary fictional text.

If a metafiction contains commentary discourses, fragmented collage and random sequences of time and place, the overall structure must be broken, so fragmented structure comes into being. Metafictional writers, quite concerned with the discontinuity of the process of narration, often break the convention of narrative continuity, linearity, or the traditional ordering of discourses by writing their novels in short sections, by suspending tradition, and by using short paragraphs, capitalized headings, diagrams, numerals, mathematical signs and peculiar drawings, epigraphs, and footnotes.

In metafiction, the concept of story, plot and character becomes vaguer and vaguer, and the form seems to become the most important thing. Thus, content is made inferior to its form. As a result, what the reader can anticipate from metafictional writing is nothing but the lack of a unifying theme, structural collapse, scattered segments, and fragmented characters.

"Fragmented" narration is a kind of narrative mode, which indicates that this kind of narration is made up by several minor narrative fragments. It can be traced back to John Dos Passos' fiction in the 1930s. The term "fragment" is borrowed from the work of Jacob Korg's *Language in Modern Literature*. The nature of "fragmented" narration is incoherent and eccentric, which breaks the structure of continuity, linearity, or the traditional ordering of discourses. To put it more concretely, "fragments" here refer to several irrelevant short plots belonging to different literary genres. And within one novel, these plots are patched together just like a hodgepodge. Metafictionalists often break the convention of narrative by writing their novels in short sections and by using short paragraphs, capitalized headings, diagrams, numerals, mathematical signs and peculiar drawings, epigraphs and footnotes. Such seemingly disconnected fragments as everyday scene, newspaper articles and characters are combined together, constructing an interconnected unity aesthetically impressive to the reader. "No story is related in them. The content of a fragmented text may be anything: assertions about things in general, discussions between actors, descriptions, etc." (Bal, 1986, p60) So, fragmented narratives usually produce an unstable and disintegrated image in the reader's mind, which indicates that the postmodern world is also in disorder.

In order to highlight the metafictional features of a novel, the creator deliberately applies Fragmented Structure to disclose the fragmentation of the contents and the story structure and characters of the novel. Paul Auster exploits fragmented narrative to deconstruct the traditional meaning and to overthrow the traditional literary mode. This chapter emphasizes such aspects as the text expression of fragments, and the internal relations behind these fragments to uncover the special charm of the art in *Oracle Night*. With no principle of central organization or authorial voice to give meaning to events, the narrative's logical sequence is disrupted. In the disjointed world of Paul Auster, each fragment exists as a separate unit. With no causal order to link them together, the fragments are ruled by laws of random nature and unpredictable chance.

II. Embodiment of Fragmented Structure

Metafiction differs from traditional novels in that the latter is usually delivered in a logical and orderly way. The narrator often offers comments on character and events, and reflects upon the significance of the story.[1] So readers can easily follow what the narrator is narrating. However, in metafiction, whether the narrator is omniscient or not, readers cannot be sure whether the narrator is reliable or unreliable. Sometimes, he allows some brief digressive essays interrupting the narrative, and produces fragments of several kinds. Therefore, the plotting process of the novel could be disturbed intentionally to distract readers' attention and judgment; characters within can be blurred deliberately and finally turn out to be totally abstract and flat; the temporal distortion and spatial form would be applied to associated their unique experiences of their own world in that time and space in worldly reality is smashed to pieces. Main features of metafictionality in this respect are exploited to express the dissociated reality of the world.

A. Fragmentation of Plots

Plot has been defined as the sequence of incidents or events, of which a story is composed, and some of which can be described as being key moments in the narrative as an array of events. Clearly, plot is not merely a stringing of events, but these events must be of some significance. Also, the events must have a connection to each other, and as a whole, should be relatively coherent.

To Leitch, there can be stories without plots. A story may be there even if there is no causal or successive sequence of events. The claim that a story can exist without plot depends, of course, on one's definition of plot. Leitch (1986) has a problem-solving definition: plot is the series of actions which lead to an end, or more elegantly, it is the "image of human experience as a series of rational actions with a necessitous end" (p. 130). Leitch's definition thus regards plots as not existing in stories with irrational actions, or those which contain little or no action. Thus, plots do not exist in some modern or post-modern narratives for him. *Oracle Night*, as a metafiction that belongs to postmodern narratives, contains a series of irrational, incompact and irrelevant plots. We can hardly feel its integrity and continuity, and sometimes the plots may be absent in the whole story. The so-called "story" is just a very general skeleton of the simple

[1] Zhang Yuanyuan mentions three main narrative features of metafictionality, that is, narrative uncertainty in characters, narrative uncertainty in plot, and narrative uncertainty in theme (Zhang Yuanyuan, "Analysis of the Metafictionality in *Lolita*", 2008).

figures or the combination of several unattached scenes. The whole narration is just free-flowing and discretionarily pasting of some slices of life. In this respect, we can say that there is no integrated story in a novel, and the development of the plots is becoming blurred. The manifestation of the novel comprises only some detailed information and some narrative segments.

We may note here that although in real life, events may follow one another in a haphazard or incoherent sequence; writers of traditional writing demand some kind of probable sequence when it comes to stories. The metafictionalists hold that the coherent plots that are found in traditional novels are not the true features of the "reality." As Patricia Waugh(1984) states, "In showing us how literary fiction creates its imaginary worlds, metafiction helps us to understand how the reality we live day by day is similarly constructed, similarly written."(p. 18) The worldly reality is not an orderly whole but fragments of mess; in other words, the fictional world in a novel is just as fragmented as the reality and the author should not bother to apply logical construction and art layouts to it. Therefore, we cannot find integrated storyline in a metafiction, with several parts of the novel present arbitrarily with intermittent contents and stories of different literary styles at different length.

In *Oracle Night*, fragments pervade the whole novel, to name a few, Sidney's falling ill and becoming handicapped, his going into a paper palace whose manager is a Chinese named M. R. Chang, whose behavior is irrelevant to the development of the story; the story of Bowen's elopement and silent death without notice; the story of 3-D viewer with Richard; the story of John's son; the story about Sara and her grandma's novel—*Oracle Night*, the story of the Time Machine, and so on. Among these narratives, only a few of them are connected together by the writer in the novel. Most of these stories are just like unmindful talks and the author piles the irrelevant things together without telling the intrinsic relationships between and among. All these accomplish the fragmented structure in general. Among them, the story of the 3-D viewer in Chapter 3 just makes the point and the 3-D pictures within are so vivid that when Richard appreciates the pictures, he feels that "thirty years of his life were erased." When he sees the figures that have passed away, he feels as if they were still alive. The 3-D viewer may be that kind of holographic imaging that we once learnt from physics. No matter how fragmentary the photographic plates may become, we can obtain an overall panorama, which is among Auster's features of fragmented notion.

Story line, or story structure, is the skeleton of a novel, which, as an important factor, plays a decisive role in the outcome of a novel. Different structures may determine different story patterns. In traditional writing, the structure often applies linear time sequence and strong causality relations to organize an integrated plot. On the basis of plots, the creator decides the structure of the novel. Along with the change of conception of novel creation, the structure of novels changes dramatically, especially metafictions.

Fragmented narrative causes the deformity of structure, which makes the novel lack integrated plots and a constant character. What's more, readers cannot find an integrated structure often seen in traditional writing. Metafictionalists hold that reality needs to be recreated out of fragments, and readers are asked to resist authoritarian power of the work and to participate in reconstructing a complete story actively from fragmented texts in presence of them. In *Oracle Night*, some of the important plots are omitted, so readers are compelled to compose the process of the novel themselves to build a coherent world.

Auster often puts some irrelevant plots together, which makes the reader's thought blocked up. That is to say, when the reader falls deep into the narration, the narration suddenly breaks off. Another plot which intrudes in is often irrelevant to the previous one, without any links between the plots, so the reader's thought chain of the former reading is interrupted suddenly.

In regard to the integral structure designation, Auster removes the title of each chapter. There is no sequence number or heading, and each chapter is divided only with one line separated from the other. All these make the novel an integration of piled fragments together.

In terms of literary style, we may say that Auster has blurred the boundary of different literary styles and made *Oracle Night* an art of multi-style, or we can say it is "genre hybridization." In *Oracle Night*, Auster constantly inserts some historical facts, reports, fictions, footnotes, letter, and the like, into the process of narration. Such reports, stories from a contemporary writer or a poet, or citations from historical documents and newspapers at that time provide first-hand information about science, literature, philosophy or social conditions of that period. They offer a commentary on the age from within its own perspective. In *Oracle Night*, the author inserts into the novel a science fiction about Time Machine, a picture of telephone number list of 1937/38, a news report "BORN IN A TOILET, BABY DISCARDED", and a letter to Sidney from John Trause.

Take the picture of telephone number list of 1937/38 for an example, the insertion of which is to help with the accomplishment of fragmented narration. By applying the telephone number list of 1937/38, the continuity of the novel is broken up. Its sudden appearance in the novel receives nicer visual effect. Additionally, the telephone number list of 1937/38 makes the fiction a "real" one. The reader may reckon where these numbers come from. Therefore, the intuitionistic fragmentation of picture helps to polish the narration in a vivid way; meanwhile, it breaks up the narration thoroughly.

What's more, several unnecessarily related stories are often pasted in the same novel, and there are no necessary logical connections within. In *Oracle Night*, there are altogether seven stories pasted together, some of which are real, while others are fictional. All the stories just happen in relatively different time and space, which, however, are

connected and related to each other by characters' behaviors. Fragments in narrative are carried out on the basis of different purpose and utility, though they seem disorganized and unsystematic. Actually, they are not so elusory as they seem to be. At the superficial level, they seem to be scattered pell-mell over the whole novel, but in fact, they are serialized with a storyline to work as a whole.

B. Fragmentation of Time and Space

Indisputably, the postmodernist city life is an aimless, disorderly one in which people are besieged by a great sense of confusion, despair, losing control of everything, both physically and spiritually. In order to reify the social reality, Auster creatively takes advantage of metafictional techniques by breaking sequential order of time and space to achieve unusual aesthetic effects.

"To study the temporal order of a narrative is to compare the order in which events or temporal sections are arranged in narrative discourse with the order of succession these same events or temporal segments have in the story." (Genette, 1980, p. 35) Temporal order can be divided into two kinds, that is, anachrony order and achrony order.

In traditional narrative, the stories are developed in time sequence, which is called anachrony order. Stories of the same level happening at different time and space are placed in the narrating process linearly. As a result, the flexibility of narration is limited to a large extent. Though such narrative strokes as flashback, interposed narration, and supplementary narration are often adopted in traditional narrative to demonstrate its multi-colored text, the linear narrative chain remains unchanged as a whole, for readers can find out the development of the story through the time clues.

In *Oracle Night*, the main temporal order is the achrony order, which means "A sequence of temporally unordered events" (Genette, 1980, p. 84). The novelist combines stories happening at different time and in different places into the same novel, creating a temporal fragmented structure. The traditional temporal connection between chapters is broken up, so is the temporal order within a chapter. Not only within the major narrative loop, but also the minor narrative loop as well, past and present have been melted together. The narrative whole intends not to depict how the attempted bombing attack is prepared and executed. Instead, it manages to elaborate on revealing latent relations between those characters involved and how these relations activate the story. Metafictional writing reframes the narrative strategy, subverting the linear narrative chain and leading the narrative to a domain where narrative elements assemble and are pasted arbitrarily.

Auster's *Oracle Night* employs the distorted time concept to break the linear development of time and build a narrative figure based on the fragmentation of temporal order. Auster wants to lay out the background information of the writing, but he deliberately reverses the time order. If we read the novel in a leaping way, we can still grasp the plot of the novel, for the novel provides no real beginning or ending. And any stories of mental involvement can happen either beforehand or afterwards. *Oracle Night* begins with buying a blue Portuguese notebook on the "morning of September 18, 1982". (p. 2) But in Footnote 1, Auster states that "twenty years have elapsed since that morning, and a fair amount of what we said to each other (M. R. Chang) has been lost". (p. 8) When creating a protagonist according to his wife Grace within the first-degree narrative, he points out in Footnote 3 that "I happened to meet Grace in a publisher's office as well, which might explain why I choose to give Bowen the job I did. It was January 1979, not long after I had finished my second novel […]" (p. 15) Then the author turns back to the night of "September 18, 1982". Still other clues are as follows: "on the following Monday, seven days after Bowen's disappearance". (p. 71) More examples following up,

In Chapter 7, "Backing up to the previous Wednesday, to the afternoon when Bowen climbed the steps of Ed's boardinghouse […]" (p. 78). Evidently, the disturbed time order gives the reader a sense of chrono-displacement. The reader may find it hard to distinguish events happened at different times, and thus reckon the authenticity of the narration, in the meantime, the continuity and the discrepancy of different narrative degrees are destroyed. In Chapter 8, and in the same chapter, the author mentions the life of Edward in April, 1945:

April 1945. My unit was in Germany, and we were the ones who liberated Dachau […] Two months in the camp. I was a cook, so I worked kitchen detail. On the second day, a woman came up to me with a baby in her arms. (p. 82)

And then Auster tells the reader about Ed's wives of 1953 and 1969. Next, Auster leads his narrator in the novel back to the narrative time in Chapter 9, that is, "the morning of September 20, two days after the day in question […]" (p. 96) And in the footnote of Chapter 9, Auster goes into the novel to narrate something happening "four years earlier", 1978. The narrator Sidney Orr again in Chapter 10 leads us back to a time in the 1960s. The writer, in Footnote 11 tells the reader what Chang narrates the story about China's Cultural Revolution, which takes the reader back to the period beforehand. So, from the above lay-outs of events occurring in an achrony order, it can be concluded that the temporal order of *Oracle Night* is fragmented.

Different time arrangements in *Oracle Night* create a trans-placement of time between reality and fictionality, which is another important factor to accomplish the fragmentation of the contents. Besides, Auster often converts the narrative space to make the novel fragmented.

When it comes to space fragments, the random and fragmented combination of time and space in *Oracle Night* should be given due attention to since it is reflected between lines.

The relationship between time and space is of importance for the rhythm. When a space is presented extensively, an interruption of the time sequence is unavoidable, unless the perception of the space takes place gradually and can

therefore be regarded as an event. Moreover, information concerning space is often repeated, to stress the stability of the frame, as opposed to the rensitory nature of the events that occur within it.

Compared with space, time enjoys higher flexibility and variety in the text. Time can move in different ways, "[…] either linear, cyclical, or circular fashion, as being inherently dynamic, static, or recurrent […]" (Danow 1997, p.18). So when composing the novel, Auster, as well as Sidney Orr, frequently juxtaposes his past experiences with his imaginary world, hence leading readers to the blurred boundary of fact and fiction.

C. Fragmentation of Characters

Characterization is one of the indispensable and vital ingredients in traditional literary works. While not every character has a prototype reality and most characters have a certain degree of discrepancy to reality, but at least the traditional writers model characters on certain types of characters in the real world and keep the similar identity of the real characters. In this way, writers manage to create lifelike characters that are close to readers and make the character images easily touch the heart of readers and easier for readers to accept and generate a wide range of resonance.

If we apply the traditional theory concerning characterization to *Oracle Night*, the conclusion would be that there is no central character in this novel. In Auster's fiction, language is unstable and nothing is definite except chance, his characters are not the central point around which the text revolves. The emergence of characters appears to be random, and thus fragmented, and there is no rule of coming on the scene. In this way, characters in the novel can be blurred deliberately by the writer and finally turn out to be totally unbelievable. Characters' personalities become incomplete, confusing, vague, and pale. Here, characters become wholly imaginary and man-made things, and the relationship between characters in the novel and figures of the reality has been broken up. Therefore, we can say that rather than creating a series of characters, Auster is just describing characters as symbols or ciphers scattered in the work which do not help with the accomplishment of the continuity of the work. To metafictionalists, characters are decentralized subjects, never depicted as full-dimensional or round ones. Regardless of characters' gender, age and professions, they would lose their individuality to some extent. However, this "flat" nature is not of the simple kind. The character is a figure that is made up with several "flat" sides. Each side reflects its own meaning and their meanings generally contradict with each other, thus forming the multiple facets of a person and providing the multiple possibilities of the quality one person may possess.

Metafiction never gives a fixed definition of anything. In a metafiction, readers cannot see normal human desires or sensitive passions of characters created in traditional realistic works where characters have an integrating and consistent quality. The individuals under the pen of metafictionalists are no longer those who are the undertakers of social behaviors or some certain historic missions. They are those who are put on the edge of the social life, not bearing any moral responsibilities or political duties. None of Auster's characters is a big shot, without vivid appearance or explicit family background, and even without names.

In metafiction, the feature of characterization can be generalized as "fragmented." According to Frederic Jameson, the disappearance of personality in postmodern society, as well as the changes along with it, evokes the prevalence of the fragmented characters all over the world in many areas. The disappearance of personality here refers to the fact that the behavior of the individuals is hard to apprehend.

Paul Auster applies the artifice to the creation of his works. His characters by and large reveal multiple identities and characters in *Oracle Night* who have lost their personal traits as an individual and are almost all patched up under various situations. Characters are displayed and exemplified in various ways, leaving to the reader the task of inferring the quality they imply.

A single person can not possess two extreme personalities at the same time. So when the character just has one-dimensional property, the novelist has to give several possibilities of this one-dimensional property which the character may have. So the fragmentation of characters is applied in *Oracle Night*, corresponding to the increasing fragmented modern personality. Otherwise, the writing would remain at an excessively simple level. In the process of characterization, Auster does not focus his attention on the character depiction. All characters in the novel can be analyzed via several ways, and they are hard to ascertain.

In modeling characters, Paul Auster makes each character a "figure" or a "cipher", because in postmodernist writing, characters are said to be modeled and merely fictional. So there is no direct connection between characters in the novel and people in the real world. Characters are "being-there," but not "being-in-the-world." Auster plays this out in a number of ways as several characters in Sidney's novel mirror those in his real life and Auster drops hints connecting Sidney's reality and his fiction throughout *Oracle Night*. For example, when Sidney describes the relationship between Bowen and Sylvia Maxwell, it simultaneously describes the author's own connection with his characters:

Little by little, by force of the attention Bowen brings to Sylvia Maxwell's words, he begins to see a connection between himself and the story in the novel, as if in some oblique, highly metaphorical way, the book were speaking intimately to him about his own present circumstances.

But with all of this fraternization going on between the author and his characters, and between inner characters and other characters, the line starts to be blurred about who it is that is actually doing the talk. Trause, whom Sidney consults throughout the novel, offers this advice:

Everything human is real, and sometimes we know things before they happen even if we aren't aware of it. We live in the present, but the future is inside us at every moment. Maybe that's what writing is all about, Sidney. Not recording

events from the past, but making things happen in the future. (p. 12)

While this is true in parts, the relationship Sidney has with his writing seems more malleable. While he may have predicted the future (in his wife), he has also played out the past by rehashing an already-created character in Flitcraft/Bowen, and placing characters familiar to people he knows in his life within the story.

The inexplicability of characters is another point in Paul Auster's *Oracle Night*. In traditional novel, we can get a portrait of characters after reading the novel. However, after reading *Oracle Night*, the reader still cannot figure out the appearance and behavior of the characters. The narrator Sidney Orr tells the reader about his wife Grace and John Trause in massive depth, but nothing about the characteristics of the figure himself. And most of the introductory words about characters are in the footnotes.

For example, Sidney Orr states in Footnote 2:

John was fifty-six. Not young, perhaps, but not old enough to think of himself as old, especially since he was aging and still looked like a man in his mid-to late forties. I had known him for three years by then, and our friendship was a direct result of my marriage to Grace. Her father had been at Princeton with John in the years immediately following the Second World War and […] I therefore met him as a family friend, not as the well-known novelist I had been reading since high school--and whom I still consider to be one of the best writers we had. (p. 11)

This footnote informs the reader of something about John's career and his son. After that, the narrator states on Page 27 that "his hair was mussed, and the back strands had been flattened and stiffened and stiffened after lying on the sofa for so many hours in the past week" because of "phlebitis, an inflammation of the vein brought on by the presence of a blood clot", apart from which we know nothing in detail. The reader can only imagine his image. Also there is no description about Grace's appearance and characteristics. If we follow the usual pattern, a female character will be described detailedly about her appearance, and with large amount of adjectives. However, Auster simply tells the reader about Grace in a different way in the longest footnote on Page 15 to Page 18:

Grace was a good-looking woman, but even in those first tumultuous seconds of our first encounter, as I shook her hand and watched her settle into a chair by Betty's desk, I could see that she was not inordinately beautiful, not one of those movie star goddesses who overpower you with the dazzle of their perfection.

Judging from these sentences, it can be found that there is no direct description of her face, stature or any other factors which can intuitionally present one's appearance. However, the author leaves much space for her temperament and self-restraint, for instance, "why don't we get Grace in here and see what she thinks?", "Grace struck me as intelligent", "what I fell in love with: the sense of calm that enveloped her, the radiant silence burning within." Only these words cannot help mold a round person, and characters in the novel turn out to be fragmented.

In *Oracle Night*, a variety of characters that belong to different historical stages hop arbitrarily. Sometimes, the author even participates in the creation suddenly, and helps to shape behaviors of characters together. He often adds his own comment or exposes his composing process of characterization, which makes the characterization vaguer. The author then further studies the illegibility of postmodernist man's identity. Many people in the novel lead a kind of multi-existence and paradoxical life, which suggests the alternating and complicated personality of the people in modern society.

Their fragmented and miscellaneous identities give readers a big surprise and make them out of their wits in respect that they cannot generalize a stable figure image. Characters under Auster's pen lack the trust on themselves and others. And even at last they cannot apprehend themselves at all. So the protagonist, who is also a writer as is the case generally, does not know whether the book he has written is logical or not. So it is no wonder that the destiny of Nick Bowen in the underground room is left unsolved. Metafictionalists thus believe that the essence of human being is hard to know. So it is impossible to explain or convince its reliability to the readers. Man is a hypocrite under his noble moral appearance. Thus, the theme of the novel is to show Auster's particular feeling, view and literary intention. The protagonist "I" and the protagonist in the second-degree, Nick Bowen, all undergo the experiences of innumerable counterchanges of multi-identities: good husbands, sexual metamorphosis, writers, and so on.

III. Functions of Fragmented Structure

Fragmented narration at least has the following functions in Oracle Night. In the first place, fragmented narration provides infinite space for the writer's imagination. As Tony Tanner (1971) remarks, "the fragment form caters to a kind of disordered and rescheduled imagination."(p. 221) And the narration is either real or false in which truth and falsity are difficult to tell. In this kind of writing, we would have difficulty assuring ourselves whether the writer is narrating a story of his real experience or he is just simply creating a fiction. Both the author and the reader play their roles in the coding and decoding process of the novel. As a result, both the continuity of narration and acceptance from the aspect of the reader appear to be fragmented.

Second, fragmented narration negates the affirmation of reality. The intersection of truth and falsity not only provides us an infinite imagination space, but also betrays and negates the affirmation of reality. After reading a section of "traditional realistic world" that is well-arranged in the former narration of *Oracle Night*, readers are suddenly pulled into the imaginary world of Sidney. It has no chain to connect the former and latter parts. So readers are left in the dark where this length narration comes from. Consequently, the "actual" world in the fiction is disrupted arbitrarily by the imaginary world in the novel. Thus the reader's understanding of the "actuality" is always incomplete and indeterminate.

Reading *Oracle Night* becomes another creation process. In this sense, *Oracle Night*, by means of its fragmented narration in which the truth is mixed with falsity, embodies the typical characteristic of metafiction.

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Grice's Cooperative Maxims as Linguistic Criteria for News Selectivity

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***Abstract*—The language of the news has been in the center of attention of both media researchers and linguists for decades and the criteria by which the news editors and journalists decide about newsworthiness of an event or story, widely known as news values, have been one interesting aspect of news production process especially for critical discourse analysts. In this paper, we review the wide range of news values lists proposed by media scholars and linguists since the publication of Galtung and Rouge's leading article (1965) and suggest Grice's cooperative maxims as linguistic set of news values. The purpose of this study is to show that news can be considered as a mutual conversational activity between the media and its audiences, as a result the maxims ruling the conversation process are respected in news production process too. In other words, in this article we show that an indispensible number of criteria or news values, pinned down by media researchers in recent decades are actually rewording of these maxims and journalists are actually aware of these pragmatic maxims while composing their news stories. we can trace the related evidence of respecting these four maxims(Quality, Quantity, Manner and Relevance) in the news in the way they are observable as hedges in conversational activities, showing that they have in- action linguistic equivalences . However, as Grice himself noticed, the maxims may be violated (flouted) in different situations and maxim flouting leads to implicature.**

***Index Terms*—language of the news, news values, Cooperative Principle, Paul Herbert Grice**

I. Introduction

Every day many different events happen all around the world but very few number of them, after passing through a so called "gate keeping'' process are published and broadcasted as news.

"Since1950s, both scholars and practitioners examining the gatekeeper function of the news media have sought to explain why some issues and events become newsworthy while others remain obscure." (Albert Braun, 2009, p.1)

According to some media researchers, they refer to a set of so-called "News Values" which enables them to make decision whether a news story has enough technical and professional potentiality (values) to be reported in competing with other potential possibilities.

The study of news values has been considered as an important field of exploration within journalism researches because it is a way of making more transparent a set of practices and judgments which are otherwise shrouded in opacity, as Stuart Hall (1973, p.181cited in O'Neill and Harcup , 2009, p.163) argues:

"News values" are one of the most opaque structures of meaning in modern society […] Journalists speak of "the news" as if events select themselves. Further, they speak as if which is the "most significant" news story, and which "news angles" are most salient are divinely inspired. Yet of the millions of events which occur daily in the world, only a tiny proportion ever become visible as "potential news stories" and of this proportion, only a small fraction are actually produced as the day's news in the news media. We appear to be dealing, then, with a "deep structure" whose function as a selective device is un-transparent even to those who professionally most know how to operate it."

The starting point of news values analysis goes back to 1965 when Galtung and Rouge published their widely known and referred to article in which they studied the coverage of three major international crises (Congo, Cyprus and Cuba) in four Norwegian newspapers and proposed some alternative approaches to reporting the foreign news in the press. Galtung and Ruge in their attempt to answer the question of "How do events become news?" presented the following list of newsworthiness elements consisting of 12 factors also known as Galtung and Ruge's news values list:

1- Frequency: An event that unfolds within a publication cycle of the news medium is more likely to be selected than a one that takes place over a long period of time.

2- Threshold: Events have to pass a threshold before being recorded at all; the greater the intensity (the more gruesome the murder or the more casualties in an accident), the greater the impact and the more likely it is to be selected.

3- Unambiguity: The more clearly an event can be understood and interpreted without multiple meanings, the more likely it is to be selected.

4- Meaningfulness: The culturally familiar is more likely to be selected.

5- Consonance: The news selector may be able to predict (due to experience) events that will be newsworthy, thus forming a "pre-image" of an event, which in turn increases its chances of becoming news.

6- Unexpectedness: Among events meaningful and/or consonant, the unexpected or rare event is more likely to be selected.

7- Continuity: An event already in the news has a good chance of remaining in the news (even if its impact has been reduced) because it has become familiar and easier to interpret.

8- Composition: An event may be included as news less because of its intrinsic news value than because it fits into the overall composition or balance of a newspaper or news broadcast.

9- Reference to elite nations: The actions of elite nations are seen as more consequential than the actions of other nations.

10- Reference to elite people: Again, the actions of elite people, likely to be famous, may be seen by news selectors as having more consequence than others, and news audiences may identify with them.

11- Reference to persons: News that can be presented in terms of individual people rather than abstractions is likely to be selected.

12- Reference to something negative: Bad events are generally unambiguous and newsworthy. (Galtung and Rouge 1965 cited in O'Neill and Harcup , 2009, p.164-165)

Since the publication of this seminal article, many linguists and media researchers have been studying about and criticizing on the notion of news value(s) and some various lists of so called news factors have been proposed by them. O'Nail and Harcup (2009) mention and review only some of the most probably well known ones such as Golding and Elliott (1979), Gans (1980), Bell (1991), Allern (2002) and finally they open the discussion to further exploration and write*:"All such taxonomies of news values must "remain open to inquiry rather than be seen as a closed set of values for journalism in all times and places" (Zelizer, 2004, p. 55); and further research is needed to measure the extent to which the above news values apply to other forms of media, in different societies, and how they may change over time." (ibid, p.168)*

As mentioned in citation above, many attempts were done to identify news values in different means of communication (News values in Radio, Television and Internet websites), different societies (Asian news values for examples!) and various cultural, social, economic and experimental backgrounds. The most recent development in the news production analysis is the ethnographic approach in which researchers with training in linguistics go into the newsrooms and observe the daily routines of making news.(See especial edition of journal of pragmatics, vol.43, Issue 7(May 2011) for discursive perspectives on news production.)

The study of news values was not limited to the Western researchers only, Aghagolzade and Kheirabadi (2008) is one of the researches done in a non-western press atmosphere in which the authors studied a corpus of hard news published in four Iran newspapers to testify the conclusions and see which factors mentioned by Galtung and Ruge are playing the major role in news selection process.

They conclude their paper as: *"In this research, 303 headlines were chosen from the front pages of four Iranian newspapers in which 426 news values distinguished, considered and analysed. This study showed that in Iranian newspapers, "Reference to elite people" and "Consonance" play the main role as news values.* (Aghagolzade and Kheirabadi, 2008, p.7)

They also pay attention to the role of Ideology or specific group attitude, social identity and the interest of social groups, religious belief, patriotism and sentiment in selection process of Iranian newspapers.

As time went by, more recent approaches to news and media study emerged and the result (besides the seemingly endless new lists of news values) was the ethnographical and in-action approach to study the news production process and linguists, especially (Critical) Discourse Analysts, have shown a powerful interest to news analysis from different perspectives and within different theoretical frameworks a. For them, news as a type of discourse has been considered as a very interesting topic of linguistic analysis and pioneering works such as van Dijk (1988), Fairclough (1989), Fowler (1991) and Bell(1991), are few examples of linguistic studies which have been done in field of news and media analysis both in theory and practice.

In this paper we focus on the idea of suggesting a linguistic set of news values and our purpose is to show that Paul Grice's Cooperative Principle maxims (Quality, Quantity, Manner and Relevance) can be introduced as the linguistic criteria or values of news production. In other words many of the so-called items, mentioned in various news values lists so far can be regarded as rewording of these four maxims. One of the benefits is showing the competency of Cooperative Principle (CP) in written texts such as news and shortening the long confusing endless lists of news values to a solid pragmatic set of linguistic criteria. In the following, first we go through some of the most well known lists of news values proposed by media researchers since 1965 and then try to summarize a considerable number of them under the CP maxims.

II. News Values in Post-Galtung Era

As we mentioned above, after Galtung and Ruge's leading article was published in 1965, other media academics have revisited, Criticized and upgraded their conclusions. It is beyond the scope of this article to name all news values lists but in the following we mention only some of the most well-known lists of news values presented by different scholars in recent decades just to present a snapshot of how vast the subject of study in this field is:

In their research which was a critical study of Galtung and Rouge paper, Golding and Elliott (1979) considered "entertainment, drama, visual attractiveness, importance, size, negativity brevity, recency, personalities and elites" as the selection criteria in news production process.

Denis MacShane(1979, p. 46) subdivided newsworthy events into the following categories:

Conflict, Hardship and danger to the community, Unusualness, Scandal and Individualism.

Harcup and O'Neill's (2001 cited in Brighton and Foy,2007) study of the printed press resulted in their attempt to revise and update Galtung and Ruge's list as the following:

"Power élite, Celebrity, Entertainment, Surprise, Bad news, Good news, Magnitude, Relevance, Follow-ups And Media agenda."

Harrison (2006, p. 137) also lists a number of criteria by which news stories can be judged and listed:

"Availability of pictures or film (for TV), Short, dramatic occurrences, Novelty, Grand scale, Negative (violence, crime, confrontation, catastrophe), Unexpected Or expected, Relevance/meaning, Similar events already in the news Balanced programme, Élite people/nations, and Personal or human interest framing."

Allern (2002 cited in O'Nile and Harcup, 2009, p.167) put the role of economy into the center of his attention and suggested the following selection principles:

-The more resources it costs to follow up a story or expose an event/issue, the less likely it will become a news story.

- The more journalistically a potential news item is prepared/formatted by the source or sender, the greater the likelihood that it will become news.

- The more selectively a story is distributed to news organizations, the more likely it will become news.

-The more a news medium's strategy is based on sensationalist reporting in order to attract public attention and the greater the opportunity for accentuating these elements in a potential story, the more likely a story is to be used.

The number of news values and selection criteria has been always increasing during recent years like a leafing tree growing both from bottom and top! Although these seemingly endless lists have also encountered many strong and/or devastating criticisms mostly by those people who actually used to work as journalists (see O'Nile and Harcup (2009) and Brighton and Foy(2007) for some examples of these criticisms), the concept of news values as the criteria of deciding on newsworthiness is still widely studied, discussed and referred to. In the following section we will show how Grice maxims can be extended to the news texts and many of the news values especially in composition level (the level during which the news is written and then passes through gate keeping process) can be summarized under the terms of these maxims. However, we should keep in mind that the news production is a multilevel process and those criteria related to other stages such as publication level are not necessarily a part of this new inventory set of linguistic news values. In other words we try to show that news as a text is a mutual interaction between media and audiences, as a result Grice maxims are indispensible characteristics of news and can be introduced as a set of criteria covering a wide range of values suggested so far.

III. Linguistics Approach to News Values

Language, as the major material of producing the news is the main subject of study in linguistics; as a result it is not strange to see many linguists working on the mutual interaction of media and language. Linguists such as Noam Chomsky (1988), Roger Fowler (1991), van Dijk (1998), Norman Fairclough (1992,1995,2003) Guy Cook (1992), and Michael Hoey(2001) have been working on this subject but publication of "News as Discourse" (1988) by van Dijk is regarded as the starting point of discoursive studies of the news. He categorizes the news values into various groups: *"In general, different types of news values may be distinguished. First, are those news values formulated in the economic terms of news production in different market systems and within profit-oriented organizations."*

... The second category of news values is more closely tied to the social routines of newsgathering and organizational production, which in turn are partly linked with the economic constraints (such as those of competition, leading to the professional aim to bring news as quickly and as reliably as possible, or to beat other media with a scoop).(van Dijk, 1988, p.120-121)

Here in the following we are to introduce a new set of news values which originally rooted in linguistics and definitely pragmatic concepts. In fact we aim to suggest that the very long list of news values can be reordered by considering four essential elements of communication as news values in composition level:

Grice (1989) proposed a principle with four maxims to formulate the ordinary human communication mostly known as Cooperative Principle (CP) which is summarized by him as: "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged." (Grice, 1989, p. 26).

He also defines the four maxims of CP as bellow:

1. Quantity (give as much information as is required, and no more than is required)
2. Quality (do not say what is false or that for which you lack adequate evidence)

3. Relation (be relevant)
4. Manner (be clear, be orderly, and avoid ambiguity) (Ibid, p. 28).

In this paper we suggest the idea of expanding this principle and its maxims to the news discourse and show that a considerable set of news values are essentially rewording and paraphrasing these maxims. It is good to mention that the influence of Grice's ideas and especially CP on many scholars and scientific fields is not limited to this paper (See Lindblom in Mey,2009 for further discussion.)

IV. Linguistic Set of News Values

The aim of this research is to introduce Grice cooperative principle and its relevant maxims as the linguistic criteria of news composition which is and should be regarded by journalists and news editors while making decision on newsworthiness on composition level. As we reviewed up to this part of article, there are various lists of news values proposed from 1960s on and we named only some of them in brief. In this stage we widely referred to Albert Braun(2009) who summarized various news values lists in his thesis; however, we refer to other lists whenever necessary. After categorizing the news values by their common features, we try to show that a considerable number of the elements (those criteria related to the composition of the news) are basically the same as Grice's CP maxims and then we will present some evidence from newspapers to prove this hypothesis in action. Let us focus on each Maxim and some relative news values to show the main idea of this research more in detail:

Maxim of Quality:

In some news values lists, we encounter the notion of numbers and statistics as the element which makes the news valuable to be reported. Here are some examples: Facility (Bell, 1991; Gregory & Miller, 1998); Numbers (Hetherington, 1985); Voters, Survey Respondent, and other agreements (Gans, 1979) but the question is why referring to numbers and surveys can do it? Our answer is that because a number survey is a proof to observing the quality maxim and it tries to convince audiences about the truth of the news.

When journalists refer to numbers, statistics and facts and figures, they are indirectly trying to show the audience that their news is respecting the maxim of quality.

Maxim of quantity:

This maxim is also observable in the following news values:

Brevity (Bell,1991) ;Follow-Up (Harcup & O'Neill, 2001);CO-Option (Bell, 1991; Gregory & Miller, 1998), Meaningless (Galtung & Ruge, 1965) Impact and Consequences (Herbert, 2000); Significance (Hetherington, 1985); Magnitude (Harcup & O'Neill, 2001); Thershold (Galtung & Ruge, 1965)

A news should be informative enough not too long and not too short and it is an accepted rule in news rooms that too long stories are edited because they are considered as boring and too short stories should be completed as soon as possible because they may seem meaningless to the audiences.

Maxim of relation:

This maxim may seem clear in the first look but as Grice himself mentioned it is very difficult to define it exactly: "Though the maxim itself is terse, its formulation conceals a number of problems that exercise me a good deal: questions about what different kinds and focuses of relevance there may be, how these shift in the course of a talk exchange, how to allow for the fact that subjects of conversations are legitimately changed, and so on. I find the treatment of such questions exceedingly difficult, and I hope to revert to them in later work." (Grice 1989, p.27)

A relevant news is a news which is relevant to the needs and interests of its audiences and the prestige of the media at the same time. This maxim is indirectly mentioned under other names and titles in various news values lists:

Relevance (O'Sullivan et al., 1983; Bell, 1991; Gregory & Miller, 1998;McQuail, 2000; Harcup & O'Neill, 2001)

Composition (Galtung & Ruge, 1965); Political Balance (Warner, 1970), Cultural Response (Ryan, 1991); National Ceremonies (Gans, 1979); Consensus(O'Sullivan et al., 1983) Predictability And Routine (McQuail, 2000) Elite People (Galtung & Ruge, 1965);, 1979); Elitism (Gregory & Miller, 1998); Proximity(Ruehlmann, 1979; Hetherington, 1985; Ryan, 1991; MacDougall in Palmer, 1998; Herbert, 2000); Closeness (O'Sullivan et al., 1983; McQuail,2000); Domestic Affairs (O'Sullivan et al., 1983); Location Of Events (McQuail, 2000); Proximity To The Audience Of People And Events In The News (McQuail,2000).

As we see, the factor of relevance and to speak and write relatively is mentioned in many lists of news values under various titles even the relevance itself. In other words, the more relevant the news is to the needs of audiences, the more probable the selection is.

Maxim of manner:

The followings are only some of the news criteria in which the content of the manner maxim is in the center of attention: Unambiguity (Galtung & Ruge, 1965) and Clarity (Bell, 1991 and McQuail, 2000).

A news should be unambiguous in composition level because it is not generally a highly scientific and academic writing which needs much background information to be understood.

As it is clear, journalists are aware of the importance of these maxims and while writing the news yhey try to observe them as much as possible. These criteria are also reflected in the news values lists suggested by different media researchers and it can be inferred that these maxims are checked by the editors as a set of newsworthiness criteria

during the so called gate keeping process. In the following section, some evidences chosen from daily newspapers and news agencies reflecting the maxims are presented.

V. Some Evidence of Grice Maxims in the News

There are certain kinds of expressions speakers use to mark that they may be in danger of not fully adhering to the principles, these kinds of expressions are called "hedges". (Yule, 2000, p.38) for example we may say: *"I am not sure if this is right…"* or "*As far as I know..."* to show that we respect the maxim of quality and many of us may use this cliché expression" *So, to cut a long story short,…"* to emphasize that we observe the quality maxim in communication process. We can observe many of such phrases and sentences in news stories also:

To sum up the story…

There are no more details about this news…(Quantity maxim)

The official sources announced that…

No one takes the responsibility of this report …

It is heard that…(Quality maxim)

On this subject, we interview…(Relation maxim)

To clarify the news I talk to…(manner maxim)

In the following we mention some of such evidence chosen from articles and news published in international newspapers and news agencies :

1)… Field Marshal Hussein Tantawi, in comments **carried by the nation's official news agency**, also urged voters to turn out for the parliamentary elections starting on Monday…(maxim of quality is reinforced by mentioning the exact source of the news.)

(source:http://hosted.ap.org/dynamic/stories/M/ML_EGYPT?SITE=FLDAY&SECTION=HOME&TEMPLATE=DEFAULT)

2)…The White House spokesman, Jay Carney, **refused to provide further details**. Asked whether the team that killed Osama bin Laden had come under fire, Carney said the White House had gone to **the limit in providing details** and that any more would risk future operations. "I am not going to get into **operational details**," he said… (not enough details may lead to quantity maxim flouting)

(Source::www.guardian.co.uk/world/2011/may/04/osama-bin-laden-photos raid+%22there+is+no+further+details+bin+laden+death%22&cd=3&hl=fa&ct=clnk)

3) **Official sources** said that both sides will 'explore ways' to reduce tension and to revive the peace efforts in Afghanistan. (observing the quality maxim)

(Source: http://www.irna.ir/ENNewsShow.aspx?NID=30609832&SRCH=1)

4) …**The officials said** the DNA testing alone offered a "**99.9 percent" certainty** that bin Laden was shot dead in a daring U.S. military operation. **Detailed photo analysis** by the CIA, **confirmation by other people** at the raid site and matching physical features like bin Laden's height all helped **confirmed the identification**… (various tactics to strengthen the observation of the quality maxim).

(Source: http://www.dispatch.com/content/stories/national_world/2011/05/02/dna-identifies-bin-laden.html)

These are only a few examples of the application of Grice maxims in routine news production process and further researches should be done to explore its different aspects such as linguistic role and structure of maxims in various (meta) lingual levels, their influence on transferring meaning to the audience,(social and professional) causes and effects of maxim flouting, and so on so forth. Quantitative researches on newspaper archives and doing systematic and ethnographic interviews with journalists and news editors can also shed further light on other sides of the mechanisms of applying these maxims by journalists and the way the maxims are checked by editors in so called gatekeeping stage.

VI. Conclusion

In this article, we went through the news selection process, mainly focused on the theoretical concept of "news value" as the most widely known aspect of selection process and also discussed the post-Galtung achievements in this field in brief. The lists of news values posited by various media and social science scholars seem endless and almost all researchers who have studied this concept may suggest a new set of news values based on the data and methodology chosen.

In this paper we hypothesized that the four maxims of Grice can be considered as a set of (universal?) news values which potentially can summarize many news criteria of different lists. However, we are aware of this fact that news selection is a multi level process in which many cultural, social, professional and cognitive factors are playing role and suggestion of Grice maxims as linguistic criteria of news selection is limited only to composition level (not publication or post publication stage.)

Regarding Grice maxims as linguistic set of news values not only shows the potentiality of expanding the Maxims to non conversational contexts but also makes a set of brief and rather concrete criteria available for the journalists and editors to evaluate the outcome of their production process.

In this article only few instances of the application of maxims in the news were exemplified and more complementary researches and case studies are necessary to explore various aspects of this suggestion (especially the maxim flouting) profoundly.

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How Peer Review Affects Chinese College Students' English Writing Abilities

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***Abstract*—The quantitative study investigates whether the method peer review can improve Chinese college students' English writing abilities. The subjects are 64 students from Minzu University of China. The research finds that the method peer review can improve the students' writing level and be appreciated by most students because it has many advantages. For example, peer review helps students to revise their papers, to improve the content and organization of their writing and to build interest and confidence in English writing. On the other side, a few students regret it, as they feel instinctively that only a better writer (or a native speaker) is qualified to judge or comment on their written work, or they think that peer review consumes time. The author believes that systematic training can help Chinese college students review their peers' paper better.**

***Index Terms*—peer review, Chinese college students, English writing**

I. Why Chinese College Students are Afraid of English Writing

Almost all students in china student English from elementary school to college. That is to say, Chinese college students have studied English for more than ten years. But some students can not write an English paper well. More badly, some students are afraid of English writing. What's the reason for that? In my opinion, the English language abilities and the psychological Obstacles affect their English writing.

Generally speaking, writing in English is a complex, recursive and problem-solving process, which involves thinking in conscious and goal-directed episodes. In the composing process, the writers need to demonstrate the control of a number of variables simultaneously, including the control of content, format, sentence structure, vocabulary and punctuation, spelling and letter formation at the sentence level. Beyond the sentence, the writer must be able to structure and integrate information into cohesive and coherent paragraphs and texts. All this cause the writers a great many difficulties.

Usually, Chinese students are not good at grammar and English writing styles, so it is difficult for them to make up sentences and as a result, Chinglish (Chinese English) can be seen in the students' writing. Due to a small vocabulary, they can't think of the proper words that they have learned to express themselves and spell them correctly. Besides, they cannot use proper conjunctions and transitional words, and have difficulty in thinking of varied words, expressions or sentence structures.

A. The Limitation of English Vocabulary

Some students report that they cannot think of the related words to express ideas in English for the lack of vocabulary. Most students find that deficient vocabulary is the main reason for their frustration in expressing ideas. They find it difficult to convey what they have known and want to say due to the limitation of vocabulary. They often have to give up some good ideas because they can not find appropriate words to express them. Instead, they write down simple ideas by using those easy and simple words that they have known. Appropriate use of vocabulary and expressions is a mark for one's maturity in language use. Repetitive and monotonous use of vocabulary and sentence structures makes the readers dull. Most students know this clearly, but they still stick to the simple and monotonous vocabulary. They explain that they practice writing only to pass a lot of exams. In order to get higher scores, they prefer to use the familiar and simple words to avoid making mistakes. Thus, the students' compositions appear to be monotonous, repetitive and boring.

Most students report that they translate their thoughts from Chinese into English when they are writing. When they are translating, they always try to find the word-to-word equivalents. Some students say that they cannot use words to express meaning precisely or appropriately. They fail to choose precise words in English to convey the exact meaning. They tend to put words in the wrong places or they do not know what words to use to express their ideas. It is also difficult for them to distinguish between formal words and informal words. When learning new words by heart, many students just remember the Chinese meaning, ignoring the using conditions such as the formal and informal context. They are uncertain about the usage of words. They are confused by words of similar meanings and do not know which

ones to choose in order to be exact. Due to confusion about word choice, they tend to use words repeatedly. But in fact, no two words are quite alike. Few words in context can be fully defined in terms of their denotations or their explicit dictionary meanings alone. Almost all words carry connotations, or implicit meanings, as well. They suggest or call to mind associations beyond their literal meaning.

B. Be Poor in English Grammar

Some students announce that they are poor in English grammar. Grammar is a very complicated problem for the students. They make a lot of grammatical errors in tense, singular/plural form, punctuation, and so on. That is probably due to the differences between English and Chinese grammatical rules, since the two languages belong to different language families, with one in the Indo- European language family and the other in the Sino-Tibetan language family. Most students argues that tense is the most troublesome. There are sixteen tenses in English. Students are confused with which tense is the correct one. The same verb, with different tenses, conveys different meanings. Influenced by their knowledge of Chinese, many students are often puzzled by the various English tenses. Making grammatical errors seem inevitable for most of them and the most common errors are the disagreement of subject and verb, the negative expression, the disagreement of tense, the misusing of mood and clauses, etc.

Another problem that the students are confused with is the singular/plural form of nouns. In English, some nouns have plural number and singular number while some do not. Because some nouns do, there is the problem of agreement between some parts in a sentence such as the agreement between the subject and the predicate, nouns and their pronouns, nouns and their possessive forms, etc.

Besides, students also have difficulties in articles and prepositions. Articles in English are too difficult for Chinese college students. It is not only because there are no articles at all in Chinese but also because there are many exceptions in the English grammar about articles (Zhang, 1995). Prepositions are also very troublesome. Modern English belongs to the analytic languages in which the relationships between the words in a sentence are not indicated by the changes of the word forms but by the word order and collocation between words. To show the collocation relationship, prepositions play a very important role. That is why there are often many more prepositions used in a sentence in English than in Chinese. Influenced by Chinese, students often make mistakes in whether or not to use a preposition and in choosing an appropriate one.

C. Difficulty in Generating Ideas

Some students say their mind seem to go blank when they start to work on an English composition. Having nothing to write is their main problem. They say sometimes they do not have any experience with the topic, or have few feelings to share with others. Therefore, they tend to write around few points repeatedly, which makes the article monotonous. Their limited life experience and lack of independent thinking make their writing short of content. It seems that facing an empty paper, the students are also struggling with an empty mind.

D. Unfamiliarity with English Organization

Some students admit that they have great difficulty in organizing their ideas in an English writing class. Some students admit that their biggest problem is the unfamiliarity with English discourse pattern. They say that they do not have a clear idea about how to organize writing well, and do not know how to combine sentences together in a paragraph. Usually their compositions lack topic sentences, unity or coherence, and lost the connection with the topic of the paragraphs. Sometimes, they often follow a Chinese way of composing an English composition. They believe that it is not the best way to write, but they think it is the easiest and fastest way. When other students are asked whether the unfamiliarity with English organization is a big obstacle to their writing, most of them reported that they do not notice it. Some of them even say that they do not think there are differences between Chinese and English discourse patterns. This may be due to their low proficiency. In the writing process, students are so busy in struggling with the vocabulary and grammar problems and they spare little time or attention to the discourse patterns. Besides, in the teachers' feedback to students' compositions, they lay great emphasis on the students' grammatical and vocabulary mistakes. Accuracy and correctness are emphasized in writing class while little attention is paid to the differences between Chinese and English discourse patterns.

E. Psychological Obstacles of English Writing

"From the aspect of educational psychology, the main factor which affects the students during the process of study is the control of their emotions (Shu & Zhuang, 1996, p.46)." The emotional factor referred to the block to study a certain foreign language caused by the psychological factors of the learners. When a student is exposed to a new language, the psychological obstacles are the emotional state and motivation. It is one of the main effects on the learners' studies and the first block of the effect of foreign language study.

According to Krashen (1985), motivation, self-confidence and anxiety are the three main emotional factors which cause the psychological obstacles. Practice proves that the students' learning motivation and attitudes are directly connected with their aims. Chinese students' learning aims and motivations may be for passing the exams in the college or finding a good job in some foreign companies. Their attitudes towards writing are negative. Psychologically, the students regard writing as a headache task and make it the last thing to be practiced. They lose confidence in writing and

feel nervous about it. In their opinion, they cannot make much progress in writing even if they work hard and write once or twice a week; writing a composition will cost them too much time and it is no use. The following is the analysis of their psychological obstacles.

First, their psychological obstacles come from the students' characters. According to psychology, some people are extroverted while others are introverted. The extroverted students are quick in mind. They are active in class and brave to speak. Besides, their activities are easy to arouse. However, the introverted students are not confident enough to take part in the activities on class. Usually they are too quiet in class and their activities are difficult to arouse. However, only a small number of the students are completely extroverted or introverted in a class. The majorities of the students are neither extroverted nor introverted. Their enthusiasm must be stimulated by the interestingly designed teaching.

Besides, most of Chinese students are the only child in their families. They are dependent on others not only in their lives but also in their studies and are easy to be discouraged. As a result, the anxiety caused by the failure in their studies will make them lose confidence. In fact, no matter what kind of students they are, repeated failure is likely to bring them pressure, which may affect them positively or negatively. The positive effect does well to their studies while the negative effect is sure to hinder their studies. Such conditions are more likely happen to freshmen, who haven't got used to the new study life in the college.

Second, psychological obstacles come from teachers' and parents' attitude and evaluation. Teachers' attitude and evaluation have a direct effect on students' confidence. Scientific, objective and positive evaluation from teachers is the main factor to help students to build up their confidence. Unfortunately, a lot of teachers think it is not necessary to praise the students for their advantages for fear that they may become too proud. On the contrary, they criticize the students for their mistakes, and teachers think only in this way can they correct their mistakes. So the teachers keep criticizing, blaming and denying the students instead of encouraging, praising and affirming them. If the teachers always doubt the students' attitudes to their studies and their ability to study, the students will act recklessly because they think they can never do well no matter how hard they work.

Similarly, if the parents expect too much of their children, complain too much of the failure in their studies, are too strict with them or just let them alone, the children will also feel discouraged and lose confidence. Thus, to prevent their shortcomings from being found, they seldom speak to others and seldom take part in the activities in class. As time goes on, they become introverted, self-abased, and inactive. Worse still, they may become afraid of difficulty in their studies. Once this kind of attitude is formed, its bad effect will be prefunded and lasted.

Finally, the management of class can cause psychological obstacles. In a traditional class, the teachers are the authority and the students must absolutely obey their teachers' orders. Usually, the students just sit there and listen to their teachers, taking notes of what the teachers have said. They are not supposed to have their own opinions. Instead, they are just like "containers" used to contain what the teachers have taught. This class atmosphere make the students lose the sense of safety and become anxious. Under these conditions, the students are slow in thinking and can not express themselves very well. If things continue in this way, the students will lose interest in thinking by themselves, and will not get to the bottom of things that they have learned. As a result, they lose the interest of studying. Of course the same things happen in English writing teaching. Traditionally, teachers only give the students a writing topic and order them to finish it in the set time, without instruction or discussions. After being finished, the compositions are collected and evaluated in the traditional way, that is, every mistake is pointed out and corrected and then all the compositions are covered with red marks.

II. How to Improve Chinese College Students' Writing Skills

In order to improve the students' English writing ability, a lot of educators devote themselves to the research of English writing teaching in Chinese context and a lot of methods come into being. Among them, the peer review method is especially attractive.

Many researchers have studied peer review in second language (L2) writing (Mangelsdorf, 1992; Sengupta, 1998; Cosh, 1999; Spratt & Leung, 2000; DiGiovanni & Nagaswami, 2001; Rollinson, 2005). In the process of second language writing, peer review means "students read each other's drafts and make suggestions for revision." (Mangelsdorf, 1992, p.274) All the researchers suggested teachers in second language writing to use the method of peer review, even in online learning. DiGiovanni and Nagaswami (2001) believe "ONPR (online peer review, the author explained) could become an exciting new teaching/learning tool available to both L2 teachers and students in today's networked or virtual classrooms" (p. 269).

Peer review has at least two characters.

Firstly, peer review operates on a more informal level than the teacher-centered review, where one teacher provides all students feedback. It gives the students the opportunity to communicate with each other, and meaning is negotiated between the two parties. That is to say, peer review changes the one-way interaction between the teacher and students, where students may disagree with or even understand the teacher's authority comment to the two-way interaction between students, where students can exchange their opinions well. "In any case, teacher feedback may not be nearly as effective as has been believed. There may in fact be many deficiencies in the written comments of teachers: they have been criticized as being unspecific, incomprehensible, contradictory, inconsistent, inaccurate, meaningless to the students, ague, over-general, abstract, formulaic and idiosyncratic." (Zaml, as cited in Rollinson, 2005, p.25)

Secondly, peer review is that peers can spend much more time providing feedback on an individual draft than the teacher-centered review. It is an immediate process between writing and receiving feedback. Thus there is a more immediate interaction between writer and reader.

Some researches in Europe or America have shown that the method of peer review can improve students' second language writing ability (Mangelsdorf, 1992; DiGiovanni, E. & G. Nagaswami, 2001). As we know, in China the English class is usually a teacher-centered class. Students prefer their teacher to guide their learning. Whether peer review can benefit Chinese college students in English writing? What do students gain from this teaching method? What are its limitations? How should we improve this method so that students from various backgrounds and ability levels can benefit from it? This paper presents tentative answers to these questions based on a case study.

III. A Case Study: Did Peer Review can Help Chinese College Students Improve Their Writing Abilities

I taught two classes (32 students in each class) in Minzu University of China in the first semester of 2010-2011. At the beginning of the semester, I asked the students to write two papers in two hours and invited three teachers (Professor Cao, Professor Qiao, Professor Hou) to check the students' English writing level. T-test examination proclaimed the students in different class are at the same level in English writing. The mean score was 77.9 VS. 78.4 (see table 1).

TABLE 1:
STATISTICS OF THE WRITING SCORES FOR THE PRE-TEST

	Group	*N*	*Mean*	*Std. Deviation*	*Std. Error Mean*	*Sig.*
Score	EG	32	77.94	5.775	1.491	0.615
	CG	32	78.44	6.770	1.748	

In the next semester, all the students were required to write eight papers (two papers per week) and one class is regarded as a controlled class, the other class as an experimental class. In the controlled class, the teacher reviewed students' paper. In the experimental class, the students were formed as eight groups at random (four students for each group). One group reviewed other group's paper. That is, the first group reviewed the second group's paper, the second group reviewed the third group's paper…….and the eighth group reviewed the first group's paper at their first paper; while for the second paper, the first group reviewed the third group's paper, the second group reviewed the fourth group's paper…….and the seventh group reviewed the first group's paper, and the eighth group reviewed the second group's paper, and so forth. The group worked together for one paper. If they had different views on the same paper, they could ask me for help and I was the final judge.

At the end of the semester, all the students were required to write two papers in two hours and I invited those three teachers (Professor Cao, Professor Qiao, Professor Hou) again to check the students' English writing level. T-test examination proclaimed the students who were in the experimental class got the higher mean score than those in the controlled class (87.6 VS. 81.2) and the differences was significantly (P = 0.000) (see table 2).

TABLE 2:
STATISTICS OF THE WRITING SCORES FOR THE POST-TEST

	Group	*N*	*Mean*	*Std. Deviation*	*Std. Error Mean*	*Sig.*
Score	EG	32	87.64	5.106	1.318	0.000
	CG	32	81.23	5.317	1.373	

After the examination, I asked the monitor to review the students in the experimental class about their view about peer review in English writing and the monitor must write down all the views anonymously (usually Chinese student don't criticize their teacher's teaching method, but they often comment on their teacher' teaching method among themselves).

IV. Discussion

A. The Advantages of Peer Review

Firstly, Peer review helps students to improve the content and organization of their writing. It leads students to consider different ideas about their topics and helps them to develop and clarify these ideas.

Secondly, peer review helps students learn from their audience responses. That is to say, peer review is a process of moving away from writer-to-reader based prose. When students review a paper, at the same time, they learn how to write a paper well from the reader's aspect. As Mangelsdorf (1992) pointed out that peer review helps "reinforce the idea that the purpose of writing is communication…real audience, real purpose" (p.279).

Thirdly and most importantly, peer review helps students not only build interest and confidence in their abilities to write a text but also evaluate it. In the process of peer review, students actively participated in learning. They were not passive sponges. As Rollinson (2005) pointed out: "By giving the students practice in becoming critical readers, we are at the same time helping them towards more self-reliant writers, who are both self-critical and who have the skills to self-edit and revise their writing" (p.29) .

B. The Limitations of Peer Review

Just as everything has two sides, some students believe that peer review also has its limitations.

Firstly, some students rejected peer review because they feel instinctively that only a better writer—or a native speaker—is qualified to judge or comment on their written work. They don't think that they, or their peers, could be good critics. The idea that learning is only possible from an authority figure who knows "correct" English makes students against peer review.

Secondly, some students rejected peer review because they think that peer review consumes time. Whether feedback is given in the means of speaking or writing, the peer review itself is a lengthy one. Reading a draft (probably more than once), making notes, then writing the comments, or engaging orally with the writer in a feedback circle, will consume a significant amount of time.

C. Solutions to the Limitations of Peer Review

Most of the potential problems above, including both practical and pedagogical issues can be alleviated by: properly establishing effective procedures and adequate training. The training includes coaching students in the principles and practices of effective peer group interaction and response. Without such training, it is more likely that peer review will be destructive and tactless. It may also tend towards dealing with surface matters rather than issues of meaning, content and organization. In one word, "it is not fair to expect that students will be able to perform these demanding tasks without first having been offered organized practice with and discussion of the skills involved" (Stanley, as cited in Rollinson, 2005, p.26).

In the training teachers should alter students' traditional attitudes against peer review. At the beginning, students may be against peer review, especially the students who are from teacher-centered culture. It is better for teacher to teach students how to do peer review, and to check the peer review, and appropriate the students who do a better peer review. After a short period, students may establish trust between each other, and they may found peer review is beneficial to them.

In the training teachers also should make students know that peer review is a time consuming but not time wasting activity. Peer review helps the students to get a better overlook on how to write successfully—in organization and content. The process for students revising other's drafts is a process of learning how to write well also. So, peer review is beneficial to students thought it consumes more time.

At last, the students will undoubtedly do peer review well if they have a positive attitude toward peer review. Then, it is unnecessary for the teacher interferes with peer review.

V. Conclusion

Peer review has its advantages and disadvantages. It helps students to improve their writing skills, to built interests and confidence in writing. Though a few students may reject it for some reasons, they would like it after improving its limitations. It is a beneficial practice to both students and teachers in second language writing if the class is adequately set-up and the students are trained before peer review. It is a potentially rewarding option.

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Teaching English as a Second Language: The Role of Noticing the Gap

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***Abstract*—The role of consciousness in learning has dominated current debate on second language learning. This is now the focal point of recent research by philosophers, psychologists, language theorists, linguists and especially language teachers who carry the burden of pedagogical consequences. The singular question is – how can successful language learning be achieved? In this paper, attempt at answer is made through the appraisal of the effect of consciousness, awareness or noticing on learning. It is argued that an effective way of learning is to raise the awareness of a learner on a language item to cause him to notice it and subsequently learn or internalize its use. A number of factors influence noticing but this paper focuses on the gap between the observed input and the learners typical output. The aim is to provide remedy to performance errors via positive feedback. In the paper, 'learner' is used to refer to every second language user but immediate attention is paid to the teacher at the intermediate level of education. The aim of the study is to enhance the communicative ability of the teacher by highlighting his performance errors, raising his awareness of them through the concept of noticing and subsequently providing him with positive feedback. Ultimately, the study hopes to invigorate the teacher towards self development and thus position him to effectively create linguistic appetite in other learners rather than linguistic apathy. The study used selected secondary school teachers in Maiduguri and Benin, as case study. The study submits that noticing, raising the consciousness of learners on what is right or wrong usage is a useful way to enhance the learning of English as a second language in our schools in Nigeria.**

***Index Terms*—second language learning, performance errors, noticing, gap, learning consciousness, successful learning, English and Nigeria**

I. Introduction

A. The Concept of Noticing

The concept of noticing is an innovation in language teaching which is a major step in the implementation of Lewis' (1993, 1997) Lexical Approach. Speaking on the major contribution of the Lexical Approach to linguistic theory, Lewis (1997, p. 7) says;

The most fundamental linguistic insight of the Lexical Approach is that much of the lexicon consists of multi word items of different kinds…. It is a significant improvement to direct learners' attention to larger chunks (since) we store much of our mental lexicon in complete, fully contextualised phrases.

The lexical Approach emphasizes conscious learning for acquisition to occur, that is, encouraging "transition from input to intake through exercises and activities which help the learner observe or notice the L2 more accurately, ensure quicker and more carefully formulated hypotheses about the L2, and so aid acquisition" (Lewis, 1997, p.52). Noticing therefore is prerequisite to internalisation. He goes further to talk about the importance of negative evidence in teaching-learning; this points to the occurrence of potential mistakes in language use, noting that the teacher is an important source of feedback on what is not sanctioned.

Lewis (1997, 2000) defines noticing as a teaching strategy in which a teacher draws the learner's attention to the lexical features of the input to which they are exposed. This he argues raises the consciousness of the learner which in turn helps him to turn the input to intake. Although Lewis (2000) notes that noticing is a necessary but not sufficient condition for input to become intake, he argues that if learners are not directed to notice language in a text there exists a danger that they will 'see through the text' and therefore fail to achieve intake. He proposes a sequence of observe-hypothesize – experiment cycle rather than the erstwhile present–practice–produce paradigm. Ivor and Carlos (2003b.) believe, like Lewis, that encouraging learners to notice language, specifically lexical chunks and collocations, is central to any methodology connected to a lexical view of language. Kryszewska (2003) also points out the importance of 'conscious acquisition' in the language learning process and believes that modelling teaching on the basis of real English, that is corpus of real English, will enhance the communicative power of second language learners.

Noticing is a complex process: it involves the intake both of meaning and form, and it takes time for learners to progress from initial recognition to the point where they can internalize the underlying rule (Batstone, 1996). According to Ivor and Carlos (2003a.), noticing can take a number of forms; guided by the teacher i.e. the teacher directs the students' attention to lexical features thought to be useful; 'self-directed', i.e. the students themselves select features they think will be useful for them; noticing is explicit, e.g. when items in a text are highlighted; implicit e.g. when the

teacher reformulates a student's text. In all, noticing enables teachers to raise awareness of the language in their learners. According to Tomlinson (2003) and Ivor and Carlos (2003 a.), noticing entails;

1. Paying deliberate attention to features of language in use to help learners notice the gap between their own performance in the target language and the performance of proficient users of the language.
2. Noticing gives salience to a feature, so that it becomes more noticeable in future input, so contributing to the learner's psychological readiness to acquire that feature.
3. The main objective is to help learners to notice for themselves how language is typically used so that they will note the gaps and achieve learning readiness and independence from the teacher and teaching materials.
4. The first procedures are usually experiential rather than analytical and aim to involve the learners in affective interaction with a potentially engaging text. [That is, learners read a text, and respond with their own views and opinions before studying the language in the text or answering comprehension type questions.]
5. Learners are later encouraged to focus on a particular feature of the text, identify instances of the feature, make discoveries and articulate generalizations about its use.'

Beyond the lexical approach, this learning theory has attracted quite a lot of comments. For instance, Cross (2002. p.1) asks if noticing is a valid concept for second language acquisition. He argues that "this notion has gained wide support on the basis of intuition and assumption rather than on the findings of appropriate and exhaustive empirical research". Therefore he suggests practical assessment of it in L2 situations. He examined the assumed interface in second language acquisition and notes that raising the consciousness of learners on language items is preliminary to actual noticing. This term, consciousness raising means the drawing of learners' attention to the formal properties of language. He stresses that "following formal instruction as consciousness raising, learners may then notice a particular linguistic feature in subsequent input and observes that a key difference between noticing and consciousness raising is that noticing has supposed implications for language processing and the actual acquisition of linguistic features. However, not everyone agrees with this distinction. Schmidt (1990) who is one of the earliest proponents of noticing is of the view that attention, consciousness, noticing and awareness are synonymous terms. And we agree. In assessing the validity of this concept, Cross (2002) points to contrasting views on the soundness of the theoretical basis of the method but argues that only empirical research can adequately attest to its usefulness in language learning. But again, he notes that such researches are, at the moment, largely far and between.

Earlier, Schmidt (1990, 1995) discussed the three significant stages in language learning; awareness, intention and knowledge. The first step involves the act of noticing. He explains that what learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning and asserts that whether noticing is deliberate or purely unintentionally (that is a learner attends to a linguistic form in the input), if language is noticed it becomes intake; and that noticing is a necessary condition for L2 acquisition. According to Schmidt, a number of factors cause noticing in the input. For example, instruction; formal direction of learners attention to language features; frequency, repeated instruction or frequent use of a language items; perceptual salience; prominence or salience of a language item at input; skill level, ability of people to recognize and process previously met language items; task demands; ability of the teacher to structure a teaching in such a way to enable noticing of features necessary to perform the task and comparing; leading the learner to observe the contrasts between the new knowledge and his current interlanguage. This implies a comparison between the observed input and the typical output of the learner and thus focuses on the gap between the two to create insight and eventual intake. Schmidt (1995, pp.27-28 concludes his impression of noticing in the following words;

there is no compelling evidence of any learning without awareness…. I am not so sanguine that noticing hypothesis can either be proved or disproved because subjective awareness is fleeting and cannot be completely recorded (and) it cannot be falsified for the same reason. I would argue that the correlation between information processing and subjective experience is too high to be coincidental.

Lowe (2003, pp. 4, 6) with regard to the relevance of noticing points out that traditional models of teaching e.g. classical grammar, transformational grammar, functional grammar and even the process grammars were not designed for language learning. He argues that they were meant only as a way of describing language as a phenomenon and thus "teachers and applied linguists have had to extrapolate language descriptions, over the years, for our own purposes". Although he agrees that each of these models is qualitative and valid, he believes that what we needed was a theoretical base for the second language classroom. This he says, is in recognition that teaching is not learning, and that what is taught is not necessarily what is learnt. But such basis will still allow us to talk about learning and teaching at the same time. He finds this model in "noticing"; as a valid starting point in discussing second language learning. According to him a clear difference between this model and the other older conventional models of teaching is that while the teacher controls teaching, he is no longer in control of learning. Rather, he says, learning is now a cyclical, organic, and invisible process, which the teacher can only marginally influence. Therefore, whatever a teacher does, his sole aim is to assist a learner focus on some aspect of language so that in the process, he may notice it. He concludes that i) noticing is a psychological process which takes time to complete, ii) the teacher can point a learner toward it but cannot definitely make him achieve it and iii) the classroom period is the moment of teaching, not necessarily learning. He however, cautions that we need not throw away the old models because of the new ones; rather we should integrate the new into the old or use the old with new awareness. It becomes evident that this approach relies on education administrators and teachers for implementation. This role of the teacher is discussed in the next section.

B. The Role of the Teacher

The teacher is the linchpin of education and is therefore pivotal to learning. As the custodian of knowledge, learners depend on him or her for transfer. He occupies a critical position which determines the nature of knowledge obtained by the students. Whatever he knows or does not know gets transferred. Abutting this point is the statement credited to John Woods in Kotelnicov (2009, p.2) "You can't not communicate. Everything you say or do or don't say and don't do sends a message to others." The teacher is evidently in the eye of the educational storm in the country today.

Because the traditional approaches to teaching have not adequately resulted in successful acquisition of language, contemporary methods of teaching such as noticing has been proposed. It is incumbent on the teacher therefore to incorporate the new insights into his teaching; to expose learners sufficiently to language, direct them to real English by exposing errors in performance. The difficulty which arises here, however, is that the teacher was not himself trained in this mode and in many cases is resistant to change.

Commenting on the need for change of the teachers' mindset, Lewis (1993, p. viii) observes that many a language teacher is antithetical to any change that challenges the established traditions in linguistic description. He warns that the teaching profession cannot rely simply on recipes and challenges teachers to "exhibit sufficient intellectual curiosity and readiness to change which is normally associated with professional status".

Affirming the significant role of the teacher in the learning process, Eyisi (2003, p.103) contends that "the teacher is a beacon, a model, an example and a standard bearer of English usage in our schools. He must possess some degree of expertise and proficiency in the use of English, otherwise he is a veritable generator and perpetrator of errors; he fertilizes errors that are on the verge of extinction".

Williams (2003) has also argued that the most useful role of the teacher is in consciousness-raising, in encouraging noticing on the part of the learners. In other words, the teacher becomes more of a learning manager, giving students strategies to use outside the classroom while at the same time providing exposure to as much appropriate, quality language as possible. The implication, according to Thornbury (1997) is "No noticing, no acquisition."

Although Williams applied 'noticing' to teaching collocational strings, the same method can be successfully applied to teaching other aspects of language use; grammar, pronunciation as well as lexis. What is important is giving the learner sufficient exposure to correct uses of the language. It is in recognition of its value for learning that the present study applies noticing to negative evidence; directing learners to or raising their awareness of the wrong usages to avoid.

It is hoped that this will enable them produce as limpid a communication as possible because repeated errors become confirmed if not corrected and unless the learner is made aware of them he cannot learn from them (Eyisi, 2003). The place of the teacher in effective communication in education is encapsulated in Kotelnikov's contention that the meaning of communication is the response it elicits. This underlines the fact that students' performance is more or less a reflection of the performance of the teacher. The performance of the teacher forms the subject of the following section.

II. Data Presentation and Analysis

In this section the test sentences administered to the teachers and the results obtained are presented, analysed and inferences drawn. The teachers were exposed to one hundred grammatically wrong usages in English, especially those relating to the language of teaching and of teachers. The aim was to raise their awareness of them, to analyse the errors and to guide them towards internalisation of their correct usages. The research subjects were drawn from eight secondary schools each from Maiduguri and Benin metropolis; five teachers from each. The research subjects were grouped into four; each consisting ten teachers. Each group was exposed to a set of twenty five expressions; five expressions from each of the five groups of errors categorised below. They were asked to assess the sentences for grammaticality by ticking the correct ones and crossing the incorrect ones and then, to indicate the fault by circling the faulty part.

The teachers, eighty in number, worked in groups to enable consultation and the application of wider spectrum of knowledge. The teachers of English constituted a separate group; this was necessary to determine the real value of English as an access subject through the performance rating of its teachers. The errors were systematically classified into five groups, each group consisting twenty expressions; errors in the uses of determiners, nouns, verbs, prepositions and idiomatic expressions. The errors were carefully selected to reflect very common wrong usages that have defied indirect teaching.

It was necessary to also select research objects from two totally different settings so as to 1) rule out the factor of localization of errors and rather zero in on the global issues attending the learning of English in a second language milieu and 2) to achieve good representativeness of the research population. Therefore, teachers were taken from the northern and southern parts of the country for the experimentation. Other characteristics of the test subjects are that they consist of both male and female and were drawn from both private and public schools. It is prudent to mention that a further reason for combining teachers from private and public school, beyond the cross fertilization of ideas, is to establish the content knowledge of the teacher as crucial for teaching irrespective of physical domain. Because these differences did not show significant impact on the general performance of the subjects, analysis of the results was treated unitarily. The first ten expressions in each group are shown below as a sample of the entire data set.

TABLE 1:
DATA: TEST SENTENCES

S/n	Errors involving determiners	Errors involving nouns	Errors involving verbs	Errors involving prepositions	Errors involving idiomatic expressions
1	English language is a very difficult subject.	The whereabout of the student is still unknown.	Sarah, are you with my notebook?	He made the comments to my hearing.	We should go into the office turn by turn.
2	Majority of the students failed the examination.	The students were told to cut all the grasses around the classrooms.	The minutes of the last meeting was read by the secretary.	The teacher gave us a test on mathematics.	Lady and gentlemen, I have come to the end of my speech.
3	That your sister is very intelligent.	Heads of department are in a meeting.	Prof. Iyamu was the former head of academics.	You should not write anything on the margin.	My house is a stone throw from here.
4	I attended university of Benin.	The way and manner the report was given is suspect.	Hauwa got a grade B in English, she tried.	We condoled them on the death of their mother.	There are kings and there are kings.
5	The principal is fond of accepting bribe.	The deep freezer in the dinning hall is very big.	The headmaster requested for the boy's result.	Musa and Mairo are in good terms with each other.	I know fully well that she loves me.
6	The Nigerian society prizes men more highly than women.	Mary is an alumnus of this institution.	I was beaten by the rain on my way to school.	I came to you with the belief that you'll help me.	A beggar has no choice.
7	Gaza town is in shambles.	Mr. Sule, I have a good news for you.	How much did you buy those beautiful shoes?	Please sleep over the issue and give me your reply tomorrow.	Don't worry, with time they will face the music.
8	John is our most trusted staff	I saw the teacher at the airport, he had so many luggages.	Ade, your uniform is torn, tell your father to sew a new one for you.	On the long run the man died of heart attack.	The taste of the pudding is in the eating.
9	That child has cough.	My mother is an academician in university of Maiduguri.	The prefect raised up the key and asked, who has this key?	The vendor supplies us newspapers daily.	I completed the assignment in the twinkle of an eye.
10	My son got admission to the faculty of Arts.	The use of slangs is prohibited in this school.	Miriam, are you with my notebook?	Who did you give the book?	Birds of the same feather flock together.

III. Discussion of Results

The results of the language assessment test administered to the research subjects are presented in the Table below.

TABLE 2:
TEST RESULTS

PERFORMANCE	GROUP A	GROUP B	GROUP C	GROUP D	TOTAL
Number of sentences marked correct	19	15	14	15	63
Number of sentences marked wrong	6	10	11	10	37
Percentage performance	24%	40%	44%	40%	37%

The Table shows the percentage passes of the groups (A – D) as 24, 40, 44, and 40 respectively. These scores represent the number of sentences (6, 10, 11, 10) they were able to identify as wrong out of the twenty five wrong sentences presented to them. The performance rating for each group as shown in the Table fell below 50%; whereas the average percentage came to 37%. Obviously, in all cases, the teachers found more 'correct' expressions than incorrect ones. Group B is the English teachers group; their performance is identical to that of group D, and lower than that of group C although marginally.

The implication of these findings are of grave consequences; all the teachers, including those trained to teach English, exhibited less than 50% proficiency in English. This level of mastery of English; 37% on the average, is obviously too low for teachers in the 21st century. This calls for worry especially because those entrusted to teach the subject seem not to be better the others. And where the teachers themselves are unable to recognize errors they become the very organs of their propagation in our school system.

IV. Conclusion

The finding of this research corroborates the existence of a gap between input and the metalanguage of the L2 user of any language and shows that noticing this gap is a possible way of bridging it. It demonstrates therefore that drawing the attention of a language user especially to those properties of language wrongly perceived by the user causes him to be aware of them and may enable him in the long run to learn correct uses of them. It must be pointed out that this study has experimented only with one aspect of noticing and therefore cannot claim that noticing the gap or negative evidence alone is adequate for input to become intake. Rather, it recognizes that internalisation of language is a process which calls for both time and effort on the part of learner and teacher and as such, at best, we can say that raising the awareness of these selected teachers is, for them, just a step toward learning.

As pointed out earlier, noticing gives the teacher control over teaching and not learning while the teaching time is exclusively for teaching and not necessarily for learning. Although learning may occur, the teacher's primary objective is to guide the learner toward it. What do we say then? Noticing puts the pressure of learning off the teacher yet we say that the teacher remains nonetheless accountable because his teaching must be not only structured but properly goal directed. This calls for development and creativity on the part of the teacher.

Therefore the need to shift focus from students to teachers themselves is pertinent. This is validated by the Federal Government's initiative in its millennium goals, to retrain primary teachers in the country; an initiative which should be extended to secondary school teachers as well. The teacher must position himself to model the language of classroom communication no matter his discipline in order to enable the transference and accessibility of the knowledge which he possesses and in turn has intended to pass onto his students. It is only when that which was intended reaches those it was intended for that meaningful communication can be said to have taken place. To attain this position demands from the teacher, among other things, the zeal for self development, professional curiosity and the readiness to change both in mindset and method.

The study has brought to the fore the value of noticing in second language acquisition. It now behoves the teacher to take due advantage of this method if only for the sake of intellectual curiosity; by exposing his students to correct usages in English and wrong usages to avoid. This is in recognition of the role of the teacher as the provider of positive feedback to the students. It is our submission that noticing, raising the consciousness of learners on what is right or wrong usage is profitable for learning.

However, wider research into the validity of this method is still advocated before its total adoption in schools and incorporation into approved teaching materials in Nigeria. For example, all aspects of noticing should be experimented over long periods of time in the classroom to ascertain their correlation to learning. It seems prudent to reiterate these identified influences on noticing which we propose for further experimentation. There are instruction; formal direction of learners attention to language features, frequency; repeated instruction or frequent use of language items, perceptual salience; prominence or salience of a language item at input, skill level; ability of people to recognize and process previously met language items, task demands; ability of the teacher to structure a teaching in such a way to enable noticing of features necessary to perform the task and comparing; leading the learner to observe the contrasts between the new knowledge and his current interlanguage (Schmidt, 1990, 1995). When these steps are duly followed in language teaching, it may indeed become easier for learning to occur because only then will input turn out to be intake.

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Hokkien Chinese Borrowings on Cookery in Tagalog

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***Abstract*—This paper attempts to examine the Tagalog loanwords of Hokkien origin in the domain of cookery through the semantic analyses. Taxonomic analysis to the Hokkien loanwords on cookery provided superordinate and subordinate levels which showed the hierarchical relationships of the lowest-level categories to the highest-level ones. Percentages of loanwords under each category on three different levels were taken into consideration. Based on the analysis, generalization on the nature of loanwords in the domains was made. The findings reveal the fact that these terms of food and ways of cooking which were commonly identified with the Hokkien Chinese were readily accepted by the Tagalog speakers.**

***Index Terms*—Min Nan Chinese, Hokkien, tagalog, loanwords, cookery, taxonomic analysis**

I. Introduction

The practice of taking a word from a foreign language and introducing it into another is called 'borrowing' and the words thus 'borrowed' are known as loan words. It is worth mentioning from the outset that, as Crystal (1997, p.332) observed, since no language ever took a word from another language with the intention of one day returning it, and since such words are never returned, even once they have outstayed their welcome in the borrowing language, both of these terms are misnomers. It is more accurate to speak of one language copying words from another language (Crowley, 1997, p.155). It is also important to understand that this is not a modern phenomenon brought about by globalization but has always taken place whenever different language communities come into contact with each other.

The Tagalog language is an Austronesian language spoken as a first language by a third of the population of the Philippines and as a second language by most of the rest (Philippine Census, 2000). It is the first language of the Philippine region IV (CALABARZON and MIMAROPA) and of Metro Manila. Its standardized form, commonly called Filipino, is the national language and one of two official languages of the Philippines. It is related to—though not readily intelligible with—other Austronesian languages such as Malay, Javanese, and Hawaiian.

Tagalog, due to its history of connections with the rest of Asia, and the influence of European colonization, has developed a unique vocabulary since its inception from its Austronesian roots. Tagalog vocabulary is composed mostly of words of Austronesian origin with borrowings from Spanish, Hokkien Chinese, English, Malay, Sanskrit, Arabic, Tamil, Persian, Kapampangan, languages spoken on Luzon, and others, especially other Austronesian languages. Thorp (1972) reveals that fourty-two percent of Tagalog lexical entries are of foreign origin and the remaining fifty-eight percent are Tagalog in origin. Among the fourty-two percent of foreign words, thirty-three percent are Spanish words, three percent are Min Nan Chinese (Hokkien), and four percent are Malay. The rest two percent are English, Sanskrit and Arabic origin.

Hokkien is a group of mutually intelligible Min Nan Chinese dialects spoken by many overseas Chinese throughout Southeast Asia. It is originated from the same dialect in southern Fujian and is mutually intelligible with the Hokkien in Taiwan. It is closely related to Teochew, though mutual comprehension is difficult, and somewhat more distantly related to Hainanese. The Amoy and Taiwanese prestige dialect are considered standards (Kane, 2006).

Beyer (1948) states the possibility of a racial link between the people of the Philippines and the ancestors of the Chinese by tracing the major migratory waves that occurred in the Philippines back to the Chinese mainland and Indo-China. The first wave of immigrants which came about 3000 B.C. or 5000 to 6000 years ago introduced a much advanced culture and craftsmanship. The second wave came during 1500 B.C., which brought practiced extensive dry agriculture and cultivated upland rice, taro, yams and other food crops. The third wave which took place between 800 and 500 B.C. was ascribed the construction of the rice terraces (Beyer, 1947, as cited in Yap, 1974, p.2). The latter wave of immigrants from mainland China which came at about 300 to 500 A.D. brought the Jar-Burial culture. The use of jars for burying the bones of ancestors was particularly identified with migrations from the province of Fukien. It is believed that the waves of migrations constitute the beginning of relationships between the ancestors of the Filipinos and of the Chinese which were mainly commercial. Heavy trading between the Chinese and the Filipino trader continued until the arrival of the Spaniards in 1521.

It is apparent that the single largest group of Chinese which has trade relations with Filipinos came from the province of Fukien. As a result, many Chinese loanwords, especially Hokkien were gained, some examples are as in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
LIST OF TAGALOG LOANWORDS FROM HOKKIEN

Tagalog	Hokkien	Meaning
apo	a–kong	grandchild/ren in Tagalog; Grandfather in Kokkien
ate	a–ch í	eldest sister
bakya	ba□k-kia□h	wooden sandals
batchoy	bah-ch úi	pork in soup
bihon	b í-h ún	rice vermicelli
bitsin	bī-cheng	monosodium glutamate
daw	tao	He said/she said/they said/it was said/reportedly/supposedly
ditse	dī–ch í	second eldest sister
hikaw	hī–kau	earrings
jusi	h ù-si	cloth made from pineapple fibers
ingkong	a–kong	grandfather
kuya	keh–ya	eldest brother
lumpia	jūn-pi á	spring rolls
mami	bah-mī	meat and noodles in soup
pancit	piān-ê-si□t	noodles with sauce
petsay	pe□h-chh ài	Chinese cabbage
pesa	sa□h	plain boiled
santse	san–ch í	third eldest sister
siyansi	chian-s î	spoon-like kitchen turner/spatula
siyopaw/siopao	sio-pau	dough ball filled with pork/beef/carabao meat
sotanghon	so-tang-hun	cellophane noodles
tikoy	tih–ke	Chinese New Year's cake
tokwa	tāu-koa	soybean curd
totso	tāu–iû-chhò□-h î	sauteed fish
toyo	tāu–i û	soy sauce
tausi	tāu-si	fermented black beans

The present paper studies the Tagalog loanwords of Hokkien origin, especially those in the domains of cookery. Specifically, the study will concentrate on the semantic analysis of the Tagalog loanwords of Hokkien origin on cookery. The number of loanwords in the domain of cookery is rather large, and is the most homogeneous of the loanwords (Yap, 1974, p8). The study is important because of its relevance to Philippine culture and national development. In addition, the long influence of Chinese on Philippine life and culture can be revealed.

II. SEMANTIC ANALYSIS OF HOKKIEN LOANDS ON COOKERY

Preliminary research investigates that there are one hundred sixty three Hokkien Chinese loanwords in present Tagalog (Yap, 1974, p. v). There is considerable number of loanwords in the domain of cookery in Tagalog which includes items whose origins are unquestionably Hokkien.

Yap (1974) applied a kind of semantic analysis - a *taxonomic analysis* to analyze the Tagalog loanwords of Hokkien origin on cookery.

Taxonomic analysis is commonly used in zoology and botany for the classification of flora and fauna. It classifies sets of contrasting categories hierarchically into successive levels or taxa, with the categories at any one level being included in a category at the next higher level (Frake, 1946, p. 196). More than two lower levels or taxa can belong to the next highest level or taxon (Bendix, 1966, p. 5). Taxonomies are said to be bi-dimensional: a horizontal one of discrimination and a vertical one of generalization.

Yap reveals that a great number of the Hokkien Loanwords on cookery is concentrated on raw, although the loanwords under the category of cooked constitute also a high percentage; the category instruments has the smallest number of loanwords. On a lower level of taxonomic analysis, the following categories have a higher ranking than others: meat, vegetables and soy bean products, indicating that the Tagalog borrowed heavily in these areas. The category boiled and steamed ranked highest under the level manner of cooking. These finding confirms the general impression that such manner of cooking is very common among the Hokkien people.

A. Taxonomy of Hokkien Loanwords on Cookery

Table 2 shows the taxonomic structure of the Hokkien loanwords on cookery. It contains three superordinate categories, and nineteen subordinate categories which are presented in a manner that can best capture the structural relationship that exits between them.

TABLE 2:
TAXONOMY OF TAGALOG COOKERY TERMS OF HOKKIEN ORIGIN (YAP, 1974, P.144)

Food	Raw	Meat	Pork cuts	*tito*
			Beef cuts	*goto*
			Fish & seafood	*tuwabak*
			Fowls	*ulikba*
		Vegetable	*petsay*	
		Soybean prod.	*tokuwa*	
		Rice prod.	*bihon*	
		Flour prod.	*misuwa*	
	Cooked	Food preparation	*toyo*	
		Type of food	Meat	*goto*
			Vegetable	*petsay*
			Soy bean prod.	*taho*
			Rice prod.	*bihon*
			Flour prod.	*miswa*
		Manner of cooking	Fried	*ukoy*
			Boiled steamed	*siyopaw*
			Stewed	*humba*
			Soupy	*mami*
Instruments	*siyanse*			

Meat is a superordinate level that contains the loanwords on uncooked meat cuts coming from four categories: Pork cuts (eg. *tito* "pig's trip"), Beef cuts (eg. *goto* "ox trip"), Fowls (eg. *ulikba* "white-feathered or light-skinned fowls with dark meat"), and Fish and sea food (eg. *tuwabak* "big-eyed herring").

Vegetable covers all loanwords on uncooked vegetables. There is no further distinction made within this category, for example, *petsay* "Chinese cabbage" and *kintsay* "celery".

Soybean product is also a category by itself. It covers all loanwords on uncooked bean products. For example, *tokuwa* "soybean curd", *tahuri* "fermented salted soybean curd".

Rice constitutes a category by itself. It covers all loanwords on uncooked rice products, such as *bihon* "rice noodles".

Flour product also constitutes a category itself. It covers all loanwords on uncooked flour products. Examples are *miki* "thick flour noodles" and *misuwa* "thin flour noodles".

The above mentioned eight categories all fall under the level of Raw. There are three categories under the level of Cooked: Food preparation, Type of food, and Manner of cooking.

Food preparation is a whole category by itself. It contains all the loanwords which are used in the preparation of food, such as spices, seasoning and other food preservatives. For example, *angkak* "red-colored grains of rice used as coloring for food" and *kelwa* "powdered mustard".

Type of food, like the categories under Raw, includes five categories: Meat, Vegetables, Soybean products, Fish and sea food, Rice products and Flour products. The five categories which are directly superordinated by the level Raw, are under the level Type of food, which is the category directly superordinated by the level of Cooked. The categories that are included in Type of food can be further distinguished by the presence of certain modifiers such as *toge guisado* or *kintsay guisado*. The same thing will not happen in the categories under the level of Raw.

Manner of cooking is a superordinate level that includes four categories: Fried (eg. *ukoy* "fried flour cake consisting of grated squash, carrots or *toge* with shrimps"), Boiled and steamed (eg. *siyopaw* "steamed rice cake with meat and condiments inside"), Stewed (eg. *humba* "highly spiced dish of pork or chicken"), and Soupy (eg. *mami* "dish or noodles cooked in soup style").

Instruments constitutes only category by itself. It includes all the loanwords that refer to cooking utensils and other devices. There are only five loanwords belong to this category: *siyanes* "frying spoon", *lansong* "cooking apparatus make of bamboo split fixed in a tin ring used for steaming", *bithay* 'rice sifter", *pohiya* "ladle made of gourd or wood", and *bilao* "device for winnowing rice".

B. Lexical Content of Hokkien Loanwords on Cookery

As previously mentioned, Thorp (1972) made the lexical content of the lexical entries in Panganiban (1966). The finding shows the percentage of foreign origin and that of Tagalog in origin: 58 % Tagalog origin; 33% Spanish origin; 4% Malay origin; 3% Chinese origin; and the rest origin of English, Sanskrit and Arabic.

Yap (1974) used the technique to determine the lexical content of the Hokkien loanwords on cookery. The above mentioned taxonomic analysis of the Hokkien loanwords on cookery was made with the view of setting up the categories necessary for an in-depth analysis of loanwords in this domain resulting in a total of nineteen categories. Then, the Hokkien loanwords were classified properly.

In this section, the percentage of the total number of loanwords in each taxonomic category is determined. One thing that needs to be mentioned is that the five categories appearing under the higher categories of both Raw and Cooked only once, which meant cutting the total number down to fourteen. Table 3 shows the total percentage of loanwords within each culinary category.

TABLE 3:
PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL NUMBER OF HOKKIEN LOANWORDS IN EACH CULINARY CATEGORY (YAP, 1974, P. 148)

Culinary Category	Total No.	No. of loanwords	Percentage
1. Pork cuts	63	4	6.3%
2. Beef cuts	63	4	6.3%
3. Fowls	63	1	1.6%
4. Fish and sea food	63	4	6.3%
5. Vegetables	63	8	12.7%
6. Flour products	63	2	3.2%
7. Soy bean products	63	6	9.5%
8. Rice products	63	2	3.2%
9. Fried	63	3	4.8%
10. Boiled and steamed	63	8	12.7%
11. Stewed	63	6	9.5%
12. Soupy	63	3	4.8%
13. Food preparation	63	7	11.1%
14. Instrument	63	5	8%
Total		63	100%

The categories given below are in the order of their rank of percentage:
1. Vegetables (12,7%); Boiled and steamed (12.7%)
2. Food preparation (11.1%)
3. Soy bean products (9.5%); Stewed (9.5%)
4. Instruments (8%)
5. Pork cuts (6.3%); Beef cuts (6.3%); Fish and other sea food (6.3%)
6. Fried (4.8%); Soupy (4.8%)
7. Flour products (3.2%); Rice products (3.2%)
8. Fowls (1.6%)

On the basis of the analysis some conclusions can be suggested.

First, among the raw materials, the category of Vegetables was introduced at the highest percentage to Tagalog speakers. It suggests that these vegetables were either brought into the country by the Hokkiens or were found locally but the culinary potentialities were unknown to the Tagalog Speakers. Boiled and steamed method of cooking is common among Hokkien speakers, but previously uncommon among Tagalogs. Therefore, it is not surprising that Tagalog had borrowed heavily in this category.

Second, various ways of food preparation were introduced by the Hokkien people because the way of food preparation of the Tagalog speakers were probably less varied. Thorp (1972) also noted that "it is more likely for a group to accept new ways of preparing raw materials, rather than accept new raw materials or new names for things that have already been identified" (as cited in Yap, 1974, p. 149).

Third, next to boiled and steamed, as a manner of cooking, the use of soy bean for food production or stewed is very common to the Hokkien people. The loanwords under the categories of Rice products and Fowls are shown the lowest percentage. It conforms to the cultural facts that rice is the staple crop of the Tagalogs and that fowls had been a source of food among the Tagalogs for long time. Tagalog speakers might have already possessed the words appropriate for the referents under the categories. Table 4 shows the distribution of percentages on a higher level of categorization.

TABLE 4:
PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL NUMBER OF HOKKIEN LOANWORDS DISTRIBUTED AMONG THE MAJOR CATEGORIES OF RAW, COOKED AND INSTRUMENTS (YAP, 1974, P. 152)

Major Categories	Total No.	No. of loanwords	Percentage
1. Raw	63	31	49.2%
2. Cooked	63	27	42.8%
3. Instruments	63	5	8%
Total		63	100%

The analysis shows that the great number of Hokkien contribution to the domain of Tagalog cookery is in terms of the category Raw whose percentage is greater than the percentages of the rest of the categories. The finding suggests that the Tagalogs had a lot of untapped raw materials, on the other hand, the eating habit and food preparation of Hokkien speakers were more developed. The percentage of category Cooked is not much lower than the category Raw. The high percentage of loanword in the category Cooked implies the simple way of cooking and food preparation of Tagalog speakers, which may have made them easily accept new terms and modes of cooking and food preparation. Yap (1974, p. 153) conjectured the low percentage of loanwords under the category of Instruments: the Tagalog speakers' interest lay in newer ways of preparation, or they must have had utensils adequate for the preparation of the new kinds of cookery.

C. Semantic Shift of Hokkien Loanwords on Cookery

According to Bloomfield (1933, p. 425), semantic shift or semantic change refers to the process by which the meaning of a loanword is shifted from its original meaning to something that is similar or closely related to the original.

He attempted to make the classification of semantic shifts based on the "logical relations of successive meanings, such as narrowing, widening, metaphor, metonymy, synechdoche, hyperbole, degeneration, elevation.

Not many Hokkien loanwords on cookery have undergone semantic shift. Those that have undergone the shift can all be classified under widening, as shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5:
HOKKIEN LOANWORDS UNDERGONE SEMANTIC SHIFT (YAP, 1974, P159-161)

Present Tagalog words	Present meaning	Hokkien original words	Original meaning
pancit *pancit mami*	a frying noodle dish; a soupy noodle dish	*pianesit*	something that is conveniently cooked
huma	pork dish; chicken dish	*humba*	pork dish
pesa *pesang manok*	plain boiled (cooking of fish); chicken boiled in water	*peqsaqhi* *(-hi means "fish")*	plain boiled (cooking of fish)
lumpiya	Not only the original ingredient, but other kinds of ingredients like *ubod* "pith of coconut trunk" and *labong* "bamboo shoots"	*lumpiya*	a dish in which vegetables like carrots, cabbage, string beans, and *tokuwa* are sliced into thin pieces, mixed and stewed until cooked
ukoy	flour is used as a substitute for gabi, with the main ingredient being a species of small shrimps, and made by deep-frying the mixture of flour and shrimps	*okue*	Cake made from gabi; made by steaming the mixted ingredients, ehich can be eaten as is or after it has been deep-fried.
batsoy	The ingredients range from kidney, pancreas, liver and to loin of pork.	*batsoy*	A dish with loin of pork as its main ingredient
suam	A dish of either *sugpo* "prawns" as in *sugpo sinuam*, or *hipon* "shrimps" as in *hipon sinuam* cooked in a soupy style with rice added.	*suam* (*-am* means "the broth from rice porridge")	cook the broth from rice porridge
taho	soy bean curd that is cooked and is eaten with brown syrup	*tauhu*	Soy bean curd that is uncooked

III. CONCLUSION

This paper has attempted to examine the Tagalog loanwords of Hokkien origin in the domain of cookery through the semantic analyses. Taxonomic analysis to the Hokkien loanwords on cookery provided superordinate and subordinate levels which showed the hierarchical relationships of the lowest-level categories to the highest-level ones. Percentages of loanwords under each category on three different levels were taken into consideration. Based on the analysis, generalization on the nature of loanwords in the domains was made.

The study showed that on the highest superordinate level, the greatest number of Hokkien loanwords came from the category of Raw, followed by that of Cooked. The category of instruments had the lowest percentage. Under the level of Raw, the category meat had the highest percentage, followed closely by that of vegetables, and next, by that of Soy bean products. The percentage of Flour and rice products is significantly lower than those of the former three categories. Under the level of manner of cooking, the category Boiled and steamed had the highest percentage. All these findings revealed the fact that these terms of food and ways of cooking which were commonly identified with the Hokkien people were readily accepted by the Tagalog speakers.

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The Impact of Task Difficulty and Language Proficiency on Iranian EFL Learners' Code-switching in Writing

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***Abstract*—This study sought to investigate code-switching in the writing of Iranian EFL learners. Code switching can occur both in spoken and written discourse. In order to measure this behavior in the writing of Iranian EFL learners, a total of 30 participants (15 intermediate and 15 advanced learners) were randomly selected. An Oxford Placement Test was administered to determine their level of second language (L2) proficiency. For gathering the relevant data from the learners, two writing tasks with different levels of difficulty were employed. The participants were required to think aloud as they were engaged in the act of writing. The data gathered from the think-aloud protocols were then analyzed and used for further analysis. Several independent T-test were conducted to analyze the data collected from the think-aloud protocols. The results showed that level of proficiency on the one hand and task level of difficulty were influential factors in writers' rate of switching to their first language (L1).**

***Index Terms*—code-switching, think-aloud protocol, L2 proficiency, task difficulty**

I. Introduction

Communication strategies are important in helping L2 learners to communicate successfully when they are faced with a problem in speech production. Based on a research done at Mahidole University on the use of communication strategies of students engaging in interviews with native speakers, it was found that learners used strategies like modification devices, non-linguistic strategies, L1-based strategies, target language-based strategies and avoidance strategies. The results showed that students used different strategies with varying degrees according to their language levels. Bialystok (1990) referred to the lack of L2 knowledge as a 'gap'. Communication strategies generally have been defined as "devices employed by L2 learners when they encounter communication problems in L2 communication because their communication ends have outrun their communicative means"(Faerch & Kasper, 1983).

One of the strategies employed by students was L1- switching which was found the most in the group with low level of oral proficiency. However, the ways in which students switched to their L1 were different. Students with a low level of proficiency used L1 randomly and were unaware that they were using it. Students with high language proficiency usually switch to L1 for exclamation.

In another study conducted on the number of code-switching among Chinese teachers of English it was revealed that, in most cases, code-switching by teachers serves some kind of pedagogical purposes. Code-switching, which may be briefly defined as the alternate use of two or more languages in the same utterance or conversation (Grosjean, 1987; Milroy & Muysken, 1995) has attracted much scholarly attention in the last decades. As a common occurrence in ESL/EFL teaching/learning process, code-switching can be evidenced along the entire continuum of proficiency (Brice, 2000). Since the researcher intends to address this issue of bilingual performance not from a socio-linguistic or anthropological perspective but rather from a psycholinguistic perspective, the term 'code-switching' will be used to refer to a cognitive phenomenon that is distinct from the code-switching observed by sociolinguists (Woodall, 2000). As such, 'code-switching' here refers to the act of switching from second language (L2) to first language (L1) as the language of thinking in the cognitive process of a bilingual person engaged in an L2 composing task.

II. Review of Literature

The term 'code-switching' (C-S) refers to the phenomenon of using more than one language in a certain situation. (Grosjean, 1987). Code-switching as a term, however, has largely been used in the sociolinguistic domain to refer to the use of more than one language in the course of a single communicative episode (see, Heller, 1988). Code-switching is a phenomenon at the disposal of bilinguals or tri-linguals and this occurs when, in the act of speaking, a speaker switches from one language to the other for some communication reasons. This happens and it is nothing unique to speaking, but

we can see instances of L-S in L2 writing too. Of course the function may be different from that of in speaking (Qi, 1984).

Silva (1993) conducted empirical research to examine L1 and L2 writing. The subjects involved in his research came from a variety of backgrounds. At least 27 different L1 were represented. The subjects were undergraduate college students in US who were at the advanced levels of English proficiency and exhibited a wide range of levels of writing ability. Silva points out that his research showed that writers, who were asked to perform in L1 and L2, devoted more attention to generating material in L2 than in L1 and found content generation in L2 more difficult and less successful. Much of the materials generated in L2 were not used in the students' written text (Silva 1993). In addition, Silva found that writers did less planning at the global and local levels. Global level means the writer is dealing with the topic area from a variety of perspectives. Local level means the writer is dealing with her syntactic and lexical options in the context of her own written text. According to Silva (1993) L2 writers did less goal setting and had more difficulty organizing generated material (the same writers did not have this problem in L1). In general, adult L2 writing was less effective than L1 writing. In terms of lower level concerns, L2 writing was stylistically different and simpler in structure.

Berman (1994) found in researching 126 secondary school students in Iceland, who were studying English as a foreign language (EFL), that 'many learners transfer their writing skills between languages, and their success in doing so is assisted by the grammatical proficiency in the target language' (Berman p. 29). Berman used an experimental approach where the subjects were divided into three groups and each group either received L1 essay writing instruction or L2 essay writing instruction or no instruction. The pre- and post-test essay organization and grammatical proficiency scores were analyzed. Berman's results indicate learners' transfer of writing skills from their L1 (Icelandic) to L2 (English) and he noticed that the transfer depended on their English grammatical proficiency; Berman cautions that we must be careful not to generalize findings made in the second language context to the foreign language classroom, for example, expecting that transfer of academic skills 'to occur' (Berman p.39).

While writing in the L2, writers switch to their L1 from time to time because of, maybe, some deficiency in their L2 knowledge and proficiency to compensate for this gap in their knowledge. Sometimes this happens because of the cognitive demand of the task, the more demanding the task, the more writers make use of their L1 conversely, the more easier the task, the less the writers switch to their L1. Therefore, switching to one's native language is triggered by two factors: L2 writers' level of proficiency and task level of cognitive demand. All said and done, this is where the problem lies and this is what is going to be investigated in this research.

Evidence from research in this domain has suggested that L1 plays a positive role in almost all the subcategories of the field of L2 composing including L1 knowledge transfer (Edelsky, 1982; Friedlander, 1990); planning skills (Jones & Tetroe, 1987); heuristic searches in thinking for production (Cumming, 1989); revising (Hull, 1985); translation (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1992; Uzawa, 1996); problem-solving in math (Tamamaki, 1993); and the effects of L1 composing expertise on the quality of L2 texts (Cumming, 1989). The results of these studies have strongly indicated not only the effectiveness but also the necessity of language-switching in the thinking processes of L2 composing.

C-S in writing may be defined as spontaneous use of the first language during the L2 writing process. The switch occurs sub-vocally (talking to oneself) or what Vygotsky (1978) calls “private speech”, a mental operation used to control or regulate difficult mental processes (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998). According to Cumming, 1989 and Qi, 1998, L-S of the L2 writer is done intra-mentally to compensate for difficulties encountered in using the second language.

One such difficulty faced by EFL learners is the discrepancy between level of L2 proficiency and the difficulty level of writing tasks assigned to learners at different levels of proficiency. The studies mentioned before (Cumming, 1989, 1990; Friedlander, 1990; Johns & Tetroe, 1987; kobayashi & Rinnert, 1992; Whalen & Menard, 1995; Manchon et al., 2000; Zimmerman, 2000) have provided a valuable but partial look at C-S behavior. It is not clear what exactly contributes to C-S, of the many factors involved, two of them are investigated here:

The effect of L2 proficiency on code-switching,

The effect of task difficulty on code-switching,

III. Research Questions

Based on what was mentioned above this study therefore, seeks answers to the following questions:

Question 1: Does L2 proficiency level have any effect on the writers’ rate of switching to his/her L1?

Question 2: Does task level of difficulty have any effect on writers’ rate of switching to his/her L1?

IV. Method

A. Participants

The participants in this study were 15 intermediate and 15 advanced level EFL students. The students were selected from a language institute, namely, SADR Institute of Higher Education. The text-books which were used were New Interchange series, second edition. There were 12 levels and intermediate students were selected from levels 7&8, whereas advanced students were selected from level 12. Students were learning English as a foreign language and there was no control for their gender and age since they were of different age groups (mostly young adults). This sample

population was randomly selected out of a larger population of about 60 students. Students were grouped according to their L2 proficiency which was determined by students' enrollment in English classes, held in language institutes. Because the classification of L2 proficiency may differ from language program to language program and in order to reduce the threats to reliability a second proficiency test (Oxford Proficiency Test) was conducted on the sample group to make sure they are on the right level, namely, intermediate and advanced. According to the proficiency test, subjects scoring under 40 were considered as intermediate students and those scoring above 40 were taken as advanced students.

B. Materials

The materials for this research consisted of an oxford proficiency test. This test was made up of 50 multiple-choice questions. According to this rest, scores above 40 are considered as advanced level of proficiency and scores under 40 down to 30 are considered as intermediate level of proficiency.

Moreover, two writing tasks were provided, one as the easy task and the other as the difficult task. The tasks were used to elicit and collect the intended data. Two tasks were selected to represent two levels of difficulty to see to what extent the writers switched to their mother tongue whenever they came across any difficulty while writing in their L2 English. The easy task was a personal letter and the difficult task was writing an essay. The tasks proper are not supposed to measure anything but rather they are used as a means to measure the frequency of language switching. The relation between task and switching was that of a reciprocating and one-to-one relation, that is, as the tasks level of difficulty increase the writers were supposed to tend to side step the target language and resort to their L1 and switch more and more.

In addition to what was mentioned above, bilingual dictionaries were provided along with pen and paper. Dictionaries were provided to help the participants look up unknown words. In order to make the subjects relaxed and get them to write and do what they were supposed to do they were put in a conference room to avoid distracters and unwanted noise. As far as the recording was concerned, a Samsung voice recorder with a high quality was used throughout the whole procedure of data collection.

C. Procedure

In order to collect C-S data for the analysis, the participants were asked to think aloud while producing two writing samples, a personal letter and a persuasive essay. Although think-aloud protocols have been criticized for causing problems of validity (zamel, 1983) and reliability when carefully conducted they remain useful for obtaining data on writing processes like C-S. To minimize threats to validity, the participants were asked simply to report their thoughts. They were not asked to interpret or filter their thoughts through a secondary process such as "report only those thoughts that are related to the task. To minimize variability due to topic knowledge, the two writing tasks were chosen as texts not requiring any specific knowledge. Furthermore, the tasks were selected to represent two levels of difficulty: the letter being an easier task and the essay the more difficult one. To achieve these levels of difficulty, the writing prompts were created with Bereiter and scardamalia's (1987) dual writing model in mind. Bereiter and Scardamilia defined an easy writing task as one in which the writer was expected to engage in "knowledge telling," and the difficult task as one involving "knowledge transformation." To increase the difference in difficulty between the two tasks, the instructions for them differed in both detail and character. The instructions for the easier letter task included a list of specific, personal information to be included in the text, such as age, gender, hobbies, etc. it was assumed that this information was readily available to working memory, and therefore the task could be easily performed through the knowledge-telling process. Furthermore the instruction for the easier task provided an audience for the text.

The instruction and topic for the more difficult essay writing task were more abstract. The essay task was more likely to involve knowledge transforming because it required the writer to develop a problem space that creates the answer to the question, rather than a memory search that simply recalls the answer.

C-S data, the dependent variable, were defined as any use of the L1 while engaged in the L2 writing process. A switch started with an utterance in the L1 and ended with the next utterance in the L2. The frequency of switches was observed. The measure of frequency simply counted the number of switches. It should be noted that only the verbalized switches were observed and recorded. The measures of C-S data were recorded on forms. These forms were allowed to indicate the general writing activity at the time of the Code-switching.

V. Results and Discussion

For each participant two samples of writing was collected from the think-aloud protocols: One for the easy (letter) task and another one for the difficult (essay) task. In other words each participant in both advanced and intermediate groups had two results. After analyzing the protocols for the frequency of L1 switches, the following results were obtained:

As for the frequency of switches in both tasks in the intermediate and advanced groups, the number of switches were counted and then four T-tests were conducted as follows: two independent T-tests for both easy and difficult tasks to compute the frequency of switches in the difficult and easy tasks between groups, for instance, the frequency of switches in the difficult tasks between intermediate and advanced groups and the same measurement for the easy tasks between the same two groups.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the rate of switching in easy task between the intermediate and advanced groups. Table 1 shows the group statistics for the two groups. Table 2 shows the independent T-test for easy task switches. There was a significance difference for the intermediate group (M=12.13, SD=3.09) and the advanced group (M=2.27, SD=1.33). According table 2 the observed T here is 11.351 for the df of 28 corresponding the critical T value table, the observed T is significant at all levels. Tobs=11.351, df=28, p<0.001

TABLE 1.
GROUP STATISTICS

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Easy task switches	Intermediate	15	12.13	3.09	.80
	Advanced	15	2.27	1.33	.34

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT TEST FOR EASY TASK SWITCHES.

	t-test for Equality of Means						
Easy task switches	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
	11.351	28	.000	9.87	.87	8.09	11.65
	11.351	19.045	.000	9.87	.87	8.05	11.69

Another independent T-test was conducted for the switches in the difficult tasks between the two groups. Table 3 shows the group statistics for the rate of switching in difficult task between the intermediate (M=22.47, SD=4.17) and advanced group (M=5.80, SD=1.82). Table 4 shows the independent T-test for difficult task switches. According to table 4 the T observed is 14.179 for the df of 28 corresponding the critical T value table, the observed T is remarkably significant at all the levels. Tobs=14.179, df=28, p<0.001

TABLE 3.
GROUP STATISTICS

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Difficult task switches	Intermediate	15	22.47	4.17	1.08
	advanced	15	5.80	1.82	.47

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT TEST FOR DIFFICULT TASK SWITCHES.

	t-test for Equality of Means						
Difficult task switches	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
	14.179	28	.000	16.67	1.18	14.26	19.07
	14.179	19.144	.000	16.67	1.18	14.21	19.13

Table 5 shows the group statistics for the rate of switching in intermediate group for difficult task (M=22.47, SD=4.17) and in easy task (M= 12.13, SD=3.09). Table 6 shows the results of one-sample T-test for both groups. As table 6 shows the T observed for the intermediate difficult task switches is 20.854 and this number for the intermediate easy task switches is 15.204. corresponding the critical T value, the observed T in both tasks is significant at all the levels . Tobs = 20.854, 15.204, df = 14, P<0.001

TABLE 5.
GROUP STATISTICS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Intermediate difficult task switches	15	22.47	4.17	1.08
Intermediate easy task switches	15	12.13	3.09	.80

TABLE 6.
ONE-SAMPLE TEST FOR DIFFICULT AND EASY TASK SWITCHES IN INTERMEDIATE GROUP.

	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Intermediate difficult task switches	20.854	14	.000	22.47	20.16	24.78
Intermediate easy task switches	15.204	14	.000	12.13	10.42	13.84

Table 7 shows the group statistics for the rate of switching in advanced group for difficult task (M=5.80, SD=1.82) and in easy task (M= 2.27, SD=1.33). Table 6 shows the results of one-sample T-test for both groups.As for the switches in the advanced group another within group T-test was conducted. In table 8 the related data are presented. As the table 8 illustrates the T observed for the advanced difficult task switches is 12.339 and the same number for the

advanced easy task switches is 6.578. corresponding the critical T value table, the observed T in both difficult and easy tasks is significant at all levels. Tobs = 12.339, 6.578, df = 14, P< 0.001

TABLE 7.
GROUP STATISTICS.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Advanced difficult task	15	5.80	1.82	.47
Advanced easy task	15	2.27	1.33	.34

TABLE 8.
ONE-SAMPLE TEST FOR DIFFICULT AND EASY TASKS IN ADVANCED GROUP.

	Test Value = 0					
	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Advanced difficult task	12.339	14	.000	5.80	4.79	6.81
Advanced easy task	6.578	14	.000	2.27	1.53	3.01

The present study was an attempt to find an answer to the questions below. In the following, the findings of the study with regard to the research questions will be discussed.

Question 1: Does L2 proficiency level have any effect on the writer's rate of switching to his/her L1?

The statistical analysis of the data revealed that the students level of proficiency effects the number of times they switch to their L1. As far as switches in the easy tasks between intermediate and advanced groups were concerned, by what was gathered from data, one can see that there is a significant difference between the two groups. Intermediate group switched more than six times as much as did the advanced group in the easy task. The mean number of switches for the intermediate group was 12.13 and this number for the advanced group was 2.27.

For the number of switches between the two groups, intermediate and advanced, in the difficult task one can observe a significant difference between the two groups. Intermediate group switched more than five times as much as did the advanced group. The mean number of switches for the intermediate group was 22.47 and the mean for the advanced group was 5.80.

The results of the T-test within the groups also showed a significant difference. The mean difference between the easy task and difficult task within the advanced group was significant. The mean number of switches for the easy task within the advanced group was 2.27 and the mean number of switches for the difficult task within the advanced group was 5.80. The mean difference in the number of switches between the easy and difficult task in the intermediate group was also significant. The mean for the easy task was 12.13 and the mean for the difficult task in the intermediate group was 22.47. So we can state that there was difference between the two groups and learners' level of L2 proficiency had a remarkable effect on the number of times the L2 writers switched to their L1. Therefore, the hypothesis that states L2 proficiency is effective on writer's L1 switching was retained. This is corroborated with the findings of Cummings (1989), that learners with either high or low levels of proficiency used L1 for cross-linguistic comparisons and that of Zimmerman (2000), that reported minimal L1 use by advanced learners during L2 text formulating.

Question 2. Does task level of difficulty have any effect on writer's rate of switching to his/her L1?

As the results in chapter four revealed and by computing the number of switches in both tasks one can notice that there was a significant difference between the two groups. The mean difference between the easy task in the intermediate group and easy task in the advanced group was 12.13 and 2.27 respectively. The mean difference for the difficult task in the intermediate group and difficult task in the advanced group was 22.47 and 5.80 respectively. Also the mean difference for both easy and difficult tasks within both groups was significant. This number in the intermediate group for the easy task was 12.13 and for the difficult task was 22.47. The same measurement for the easy task in the advanced group was 2.27 and 5.80 for the difficult task. So we can see that both advanced and intermediate students switched to their L1, but with degrees of difference that was observed between the two groups. Therefore, the hypothesis that states task level of difficulty effects frequency of switching to L1 was retained. The findings match with that of Jones and Tetroe (1987). They found that there was much less L1 use for easier tasks. This suggested that L-S may have been affected by task difficulty.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The data suggest that language-switching in addition to the use of L2 makes it possible for a thought to be developed cross-linguistically without slowing down the pace of thinking. It also compensates for the possible failure to produce effective output in L2 only. In other words, code-switching enabled an initiated thought to continue to develop and helped generate content which the participant sometimes felt less competent to produce when they used L2 only. This phenomenon suggests that developing a thought in an L2 at a normal speed would also be cognitively demanding

Previous research on bilingual memory structures has suggested that L2 proficiency determines bilingual memory organization and is therefore able to predict in what language a concept might best be accessed by a bilingual person (de Groot & Hoeks, 1995). This case study suggests that the demands of a task may also be important in determining the choice of a concept access method and may help predict the language a bilingual person will use for cognitive

processing in the context of L2 composing. As shown in this study, the extent of language-switching varies between tasks with different levels of knowledge demands. The higher the general level of knowledge demands a task had the more language-switching the participant was inclined to use as an explicit or implicit problem-solving strategy in handling the task.

The examples in the previous section demonstrate that language-switching facilitates rather than inhibits L2 composing processes. The effectiveness of language-switching provides important evidence supporting the notion that conceptual knowledge is shared across L1 and L2 and may be accessed cross-linguistically without the risk of affecting the quality at a conceptual processing level. In other words, knowledge may well be tied to a shared rather than a separate conceptual store in a bilingual's memory. These findings also suggest that further research will be needed to investigate the claim of the factor of topic knowledge in L2 composing (Friedlander, 1990).

One implication gathered from this and used for language pedagogy is that teachers should encourage the use of more switching because it can increase the quality of texts especially for the intermediate students. One more point is to encourage the use of more rehearsal and editing strategies because in addition to the general switching behavior that was evident in this research, students used some other strategies, to name a few, editing and rehearsal. But because of the complexity and limitations these two factors were not given much credit.

In the literature on L2 writing processes, much has been made of the similarities between writing in one's native language and writing in a second language. The most salient qualitative difference is that in L2 writing, two languages can be work at the same time. This is not just a matter of more or less of something; it is a different experience altogether. Considering the amount of switches in this study, one might tend to dismiss L-S as incidental. Yet we should recognize that L1 use may not have always been vocalized. Furthermore, the effect of L-S may be disproportionate to the quantity of L-S. One brief switch to the L1, for example, may be sufficient for redirecting the writer's focus.

The results of this study suggest that C-S can be beneficial. Second language writing instructors may find ways to incorporate the strategic use of this behavior into the classroom, However, further experimental studies are needed to confirm the effects of strategic C-S on L2 text length and quality. In addition, studies that focus on actual classroom-based writing would be appropriate. Further studies using different language groups and different language contexts for C-S are also warranted.

Code-switching in L2 writing is probably influenced by individual factors not considered in this study, such as motivation and learning style differences. As suggested by Hayes (1996), these factors are important sources of variance in writing processes models, and future studies might address C-S in L2 writing with these factors in mind.

As for the wider implications of this study, it is possible that L-S itself, whatever its causes are, may be a kind of direct, on-line index to the developing L2 writer, in contrast to off-line and off-task measures like L2 proficiency and L1 writing skill. A developmental index measured by C-S would be consistent with socio-cultural models of language development, in which "private speech" is seen as a mental tool for difficult, non-automated tasks (Vygotsky, 1778). In this regard, L-S may be driven by the mental operations of private speech for solving L2 problems with L1 resources. This function of C-S is also compatible with a heuristic role, that of discovering and refining plans for the evolving L2 text, as suggested by Cumming (1989) and Manchon et al. (2000).

If C-S is useful for representing the development of L2 writing skills, as opposed to merely describing L2 writing processes, then one might envision C-S super-imposed on descriptive L1 (Hayes & Flower, 1981) or L2 (Matsuda, 1997) writing models. In such a developmental model of L2 writing, C-S would diminish for lower level operations (like editing and transcribing, including word generation) as L2 proficiency increases in the face of cognitive difficulty for higher-level operations (like planning and reviewing). Such a model would encourage teachers and learners alike to remember that the L1 is an important resource for L2 writer.

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Promoting Noticing in EFL Classroom

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***Abstract*—The notion of noticing and its role in SLA has gained increasing support. As an area of special interest and a common concern in EFL teaching process, the study of this will yield beneficial implications. The paper expounds its related termonology in order to shed more light on its concept, discusses the assumptions denying and advocating the role of noticing in SLA, and overviews the a few empirical studies. An attempt is also made in the paper to explore the theoretical justification underlying the role of noticing from the cognitive point of view as well as to better understand its pedagogical implications in language teaching process.**

***Index Terms*—noticing, acquisition, implication**

I. Introduction

As has been widely accepted by psychologists and linguists, language learning is a cognitive process in which learners are actively involved, which is quite different from Behaviorism that denied some fundamental elements in the learning process, such as the mental process learners bring to the task of learning. The importance of the role of conscious and unconscious processes and the notion of interface in second language (L2) development has been the focus of much debate in cognitive psychology. Some researchers (Krashen,1982) claimed that it plays no role and leaned knowledge is completely separate from and cannot be converted into acquired knowledge, while many other researches (eg. Long,1983; Fotos,1993) concluded that conscious learning seems to contribute to successful L2 development and an interface between what is "learnt" and what is "acquired" does exist. Due to unclear definition of consciousness, the researches on this respect seem more complicated.

The notion of noticing or consciousness and its role in SLA has gained increasing support on the basis of assumptions and intuition, as an area of special interest and a common concern in EFL teaching process, an attempt has been made in this paper to explore the theoretical justification underlying the role of noticing as well as to get a better understanding of its important pedagogical implications.

II. Definitions of Noticing

In the literature of second language acquisition, many similar terms such as noticing, awareness, consciousness, attention etc, are used. Due to their interface, they are sometimes used interchangeably. Therefore, it is necessary to review some influential definitions given by scholars.

A. Schmidt's Definition of Noticing

In Schmidt's view (1994), consciousness can be distinguished in different dimensions, such as awareness, intention and knowledge. However, In both common usage and theoretic treatment of the topic, consciousness is commonly equated with awareness (cited in Schmidt 1990). Schmidt (1990) further claims that awareness has different levels or degrees including noticing and understanding. Noticing, by which "stimuli are subjectively experienced," and which is defined as "availability for verbal report" (p.132), required focal attention. Understanding, which means we can "analyze", "compare", "reflect", "comprehend" (p.132) etc, is what we commonly refer to as thinking. Thus, understanding represents a deeper level of awareness than noticing which is limited to "elements of the surface structure of utterance of utterances in the input" instead of understanding rules(Schmidt,2001,p.5). Schmidt's (1990) claim about the necessity of noticing does not refer to higher level understanding or awareness of language.

Schmidt (1990, 2001) attaches great important to noticing and argues that noticing is necessary for learning and is a process of attending consciously to linguistic features in the input. Some scholars (eg. Sharwood-Smith, 1981; McLaughlin, 1987) also advocate that noticing a feature in the input is an essential first step in language processing whereas they differ from Schmidt in that they consider that noticing a feature in input may be a conscious or an unconscious process.

B. Tomlin & Villa's Understanding on Noticing

In preference to a single global construct, Tomlin and Villa (1994) argue for the greater explanatory power of three theoretically and empirically distinguishable components of attention: alterness, orientation, and detection. alertness, which refers to the learners' readiness to dealing with the incoming stimuli or data; orientation, which means the direction of attentional resources to certain type of stimuli of data; detection referring to the "cognitive registration of

sensory stimuli", " the process that selects, or engages a particular and specific bit of information".

In their view, detection is most closely associated with Schmidt's concept of noticing, but differs from it in that such detection does not require awareness. "Awareness plays a potential role for detection, helping set up the circumstances for detection but it does not directly lead to detection itself" (Tomlin and Villa, 1993, p.14).

C. Robinson's Idea on Noticing

Robinson (1995) gave a stricter definition of noticing, he compromised between these two mentioned above, claiming that noticing is what both detected by learners and further activated as a result of the allocation of attentional resources. That is, noticing means detection plus rehearsal. The concept of Rehearsal suggests that the learners must make some conscious effort to memorize the new forms they have noticed. It could be silently repeating a phases or sentence, reading the sentences a few times, or doing anything else that help commit the linguistic features to short-term memory.

The discussion indicates the distinction between conscious 'learning' and subconscious 'acquisition' is overly too simplistic. It is clear that 'acquisition' intended by Krashen involves some degree of consciousness, for the optimal input i+1, the learners must notice the "gap".

In brief, this paper asserts the higher level of awareness, that is, the level of understanding linguistic rules or metalinguistic awareness, is not required, however, awareness at the level of noticing, that is, the learner's subjective registration of the stimulus event, is necessary for second language learning, especially for adult learners. Schmidt (2000)defines noticing as the correlate to what psychologists call 'attention'. So noticing and attention are used interchangeably in this paper.

III. The Role of Noticing in SLA

A. Assumptions Denying the Role of Noticing in SLA

Researchers who see no role for consciousness in language acquisition generally argue that the acquisition of language is qualitatively different from other kinds of learning, they have tended to draw more heavily on linguistic theory, particularly UG, than on theories from cognitive psychology, and arguments that SLA occurs without consciousness generally draw a clear distinction between acquisition and learning and claim that acquisition of linguistic competence occurs in the absence of awareness.

1. Krashen's Monitor Model

Krashen (1981, 1994) makes a clear distinction between learning and acquisition. He defined acquisition as a subconscious process of language development much like the process by which children acquires their L1. Learning refers to a conscious knowledge of the rules of grammar. According to Krashen, there is no interface and no overlap between acquisition and learning. Acquisition occurs when learners are exposed to comprehensible input. If learners have access to an optimal amount of appropriate input, then acquisition should just happen naturally. Learning is only useful as a way of helping learners edit their speech when they have time to think about the grammar rules that they need to apply. Formal instruction, in Krashen's view, is unnecessary for acquisition. But in fact, second language learning clearly is a process depending on the learners' own style and strategies. A number of empirical research study shown that instruction in conscious rule learning can indeed aid in the attainment of successful communicative competence in a second language (Long, 1983,1988; Doughty, 1991; Buczowska and Weist 1991, cited in Brown, 2001).

2. Schwartz's Distinction Between Competence and Learned Linguistic Knowledge

Similarly, Schwartz (1986, 1993) draws a distinction between linguistic competence, which is based on UG and learned linguistic knowledge (LLK), which is learned explicitly using general learning mechanisms. And he claimed that awareness is only useful for the acquisition of linguistic but not the acquisition of LLK; and explicit instruction and error correction have no role for linguistic competence, which can only be acquired through language acquisition device(LAD).

3. Paradis' Distinction Between Implicit and Explicit Knowledge

Paradis (1994) also supports learning without awareness. In his view, only implicit linguistic competence can be used automatically, and the explicitly learned grammatical knowledge can only be used to check but not as part of automatic production process, and this metalinguistic knowledge cannot be eventually proceduralized linguistic competence. Developing linguistic competence means developing automaticity in the use of the language, and what becomes automatic is not what the learners focus their attention or are even aware of. To support his claims, Paradis drew evidence from neurolinguistics, which supposedly shows that different parts of the brain are responsible for the use of implicit linguistic competence and conscious grammatical knowledge of which learners are aware.

B. Assumptions Advocating the Role of Noticing

Researchers who have support the role of awareness or noticing mainly come from the field of cognitive psychology. They regard language learning is not different from other types of learning. From a psychological point of view, noticing works as the medium between input and memory system. Some advocate(Schmidt, 1990; Ellis, 1999;Swain,1985, 1995;Long; 1981, 1983, 1985; McLaughlin, 1987) that there is no acquisition without awareness or

noticing. While other (Truscott 1998)) point out a weak version of noticing by suggesting that noticing is only necessary for the acquisition of metalinguistic knowledge.

1. Noticing Hypothesis

Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt,1990, 1994) acknowledges that noticing is a necessary and sufficient condition for subsequent acquisition. Without noticing, it is impossible for the conversion of input to intake, which he defines as "that part of the input that the learners notices"(Schmidt,1990, p.139), and he argues that no matter a learner attends deliberately to a linguistic form in the input or it is noticed purely unintentionally, once it is noticed, it becomes intake. And he suggests that what is noticed can be any aspect of language: lexicon, grammatical form, pragmatics, etc (Schmidt, 1990). Furthermore, when there is a discrepancy between a TL form and an IT form, learners won't notice it until attention is drawn to it. It rules out the possibility of purely subliminal language learning; comprehensible input is a necessary but not sufficient condition for L2 development, which is certainly a heavy blow to Input Hypothesis and the Acculturation Model (Schumann, 1978), for both ignores the learner's effort to acquire target language and leave no room for formal teaching.

2. A Consensus Framework of the Cognitive Progress in SLA

In 1999, Ellis proposed a consensus model of the cognitive process in SLA where the role of noticing was given great importance. The cognitive approach attempts to investigate the cognitive progress, in other words, what a learner does with input.

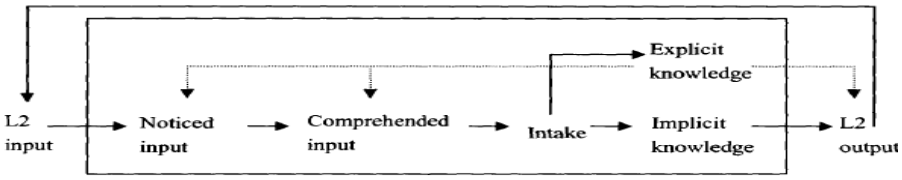

Figure 1 A framework for investigating L2 acquisition(Adapted from Ellis 1999: 349)

This theoretic framework, which diagrammatically explains the language learning from a cognitive perspective. is a development of Gass (1988). Gass (1988) asserts that noticing is the first stage of language acquisition. In this framework, the initial role is given to noticing. Noticed input is input that has been noticed in some way by the learners and functions as a primary device that prepares the input for further analysis. And if learners do not notice and comprehend the input, intake or form-meaning connections will not be created and input will have little use for acquisition. Similarly, Batstone takes about the importance of noticing as "the gateway to subsequent learning" (1994, p. 100).

3. Output Hypothesis

Based on her observation of the problems with the French immersion problem in Toronto in the 1980s, which programs were set up to help children meet the bilingual requirement for civil position in Canada, Swain (1985, 1995) advances her Comprehensible Output Hypothesis, which is not intend to deny the significance of input in language learning but to show that output has its particular role to play. Both of them are of great importance to successful language learning.

In addition to the traditional viewpoint that output can enhance fluency, Swain also put forward other three functions. One of them is the noticing/triggering functions. Swain argues that language production may trigger learners' noticing of problems existing in their interlanguage. That is, output will enables learners to "notice a gap between what they want to say and what they can say, leading them to recognize what they do not know, or only know partially" (Swain 1995: 125). In other words, under some circumstances, the activity of producing the target language may prompt second language learners to recognize consciously some of their linguistic problems: it may bring to their attention something they need to discover about their second language (possibly directing their attention to relevant input). Only the output practice forces learners to move from semantic to synthetic processing, paying attention to means of expression and the use of the formal features that may not be semantically meaningful and may not be noticed by the learners. This point echoes the Noticing Hypothesis. This conscious recognition of their linguistic deficit will make learners see their need to work on the aspects of language that do not match the language norms.

This hypothesis has been confirmed in a study by Swain and Lapkin (1995), the result indicated that students did notice the mismatch between the target language and their interlanguage system, which further involves learners in a deep-level cognitive processing which helps them to consolidation of the existing knowledge or the acquisition of new knowledge.

4. The Interaction Hypothesis

Based on the Krashen's Input Hypothesis, Long (1983, 1985) proposed Interaction Hypothesis. Both hold that SLA depends on the availability of comprehensible input before the learner's internal processing mechanism can work, but differ in that Krashen believes that comprehensible input will happen by itself, Long holds that input is made comprehensible as a result of interaction modification, which is refered to as negotiated interaction. Negotiated interaction has been agreed to be one of the particularly useful ways to draw learners' attention or noticing to form. As

Gass and Varonis (1994) explained, negotiated interaction could "crucially focus the learner's attention on the parts of the discourse that are problematic, either from a receptive or productive point of view" (299). Kuiken and Vedder (2002) have investigated the effect of interaction between ESL learners during a dictogloss task on the acquisition of the passive form. Although the quantitative analysis of their data could not demonstrate that recognition and frequency of use of the passive differ depending on the degree in which learners are encouraged to interact with each other, the qualitative analysis revealed that interaction often stimulated noticing.

5. Attention-Processing Model

The conceptualization of SLA in terms of conscious and subconscious is quite confusing, a sounder heuristic way for conceptualizing the language acquisition process was proposed by McLaughlin and his colleagues (McLaughlin, Rossman, and McLeod, 1982; McLaughlin 1987, 1990b, cited from Brown, 2001), which avoided any direct appeal to a consciousness continuum. Their model juxtaposes processing mechanism (controlled and automatic) and categories of attention to form four cells. Controlled processes are "capacity limited and temporary" and automatic processes are "relatively permanent" (McLaughlin el al. 1982:142, cited from Brown, 2001), and automatic processes are accomplished by processes of restructuring (McLeod and McLaughlin, 1986). Both ends of this continuum of processing can occur with either focal or peripheral attention on the task at hand, here, focal attention shouldn't be equated with "conscious" attention and peripheral attention with "subconscious" attention, for both focal and peripheral attention can be quite conscious (Hulstijn 1990). Thus, L2 learning involves a movement from a controlled process with focal attention to an automatic process with peripheral attention. Attention is an indispensable factor in language learning.

IV. Empirical Researches on the Role of Noticing

In brief, researchers have taken three approaches to assess the role of noticing.

On method is to construct conditions for noticing in instructional materials by highlighting particular linguistic features, that is to investigate the effect of noticing through input enhancement conditions (Sharwood Smith, 1993). Learners who are exposed to these materials are assumed to have noticed the target points. Doughty (1991) found that learners who used the materials with relative clauses highlighted in the texts outperformed another group receiving no highlighting when tested on their comprehension of the texts and their knowledge of relative clauses. Alanen (1992) investigated the effect of different conditions on noticing, namely: explicit teaching, input enhancement and control condition. But, the result showed there was no significant difference between enhanced input condition group and control group. Fotos (1993) postulated that both task and formal instruction were equally effective in promoting noticing.

The second method asks learners to retrospectively report what they had noticed during task completion. Researches have attempted to assess the extent to which learners have noticed highlighted input by examining retrospective think-aloud. A study aiming at investigating effects of input enhancements of preterit and imperfect verb forms in Spanish found that 14 L2 adults receiving enhanced input made more reference to these forms during think-aloud on a subsequent production task than on learners who had not received input enhancement (Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson, & Doughty, 1995).

The third method is to infer noticing from observable interactions such as negotiation of meaning during task completion. Many studies have investigated noticing in oral discourse by observing learners' conversational adjustments (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991), request for modified input (Ellis, 1995), and language related episodes (Swain, 1998). Researchers believe that conversational adjustments signal miscommunication which draws learners' attention to the language during otherwise meaning-focused activity (e.g., Gass & Madden, 1985).

In none of these cases is noticing observed directly; each requires an inference, Schmidt refers to the input enhancement approach as an external approach to noticing, which is incomplete for the investigation of noticing. For the second approach, because the think-aloud was conducted after learners had received the input, thus this method requires a large inference to be made from learners' retrospective reports to their noticing during task completion. The third approach is a more desirable way to investigate noticing, as Swain (1998,) argued that: "it seems essential in research to test what learners actually do, not what the research assumes instructions and task demands will lead learners to focus on."

V. Theoretical Justification for the Role of Noticing

From a cognitive perspective, linguistic language has no difference in kind from other type of knowledge; language learning is viewed as the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill, to learn a language is to learn a skill. Information processing model holds that human learning is a course of information processing which involving human being's limited capacity system and the multistory of memory system, naming short-term memory and long-term memory.

In the model given by Ellis, two stages are involved in the process of implicit knowledge. The first stage, in which input becomes intake, involves that learners must notices language features in the input, absorbing them into their long-term memories and comparing them to features produced as output. Kihlstrom (1984) proposed that consciousness and short-term memory are essentially the same; that language items must be processed in short-term memory as to be

stored in long-term memory; and that items not processed into short-term memory or not further encoded into long-term memory from short-term memory will be lost. Schmidt concludes, "if consciousness is indeed equivalent to the short term store, this amounts to a claim that storage without conscious awareness is impossible" (1990, p. 136). This second stage is not what we are concerned with here.

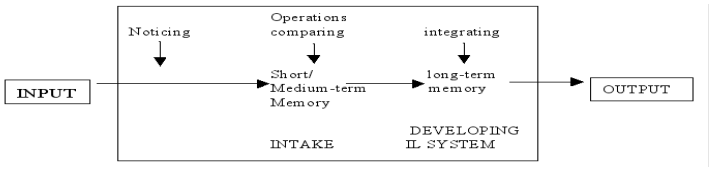

Figure 2. Ellis Model of the Process of Learning Implicit Knowledge
(Adapted from Ellis 1997: 119)

VI. Pedagogical Implications

There is no consensus agreement concerning the role of noticing in SLA due to the directly unobservable nature of noticing as well as that the level of noticing may be affected by variables including attention being directed elsewhere, the level of language ability of learners, the complexity of information being processed and the speed or audibility of presentation (Schmidt, 1993). But it has rich pedagogical implications for teaching, especially in China. The reasons are as follows:

First, second language learning in China generally takes place in classroom, where teachers play the dominant role and learners learning is largely influenced by the teaching practice, it is necessary for any language teacher to pursue effective ways to promote more 'input' into 'intake' by raising students consciousness, such as input enhancements techniques: input flood, textual enhancement, structured input activity, explicit teaching etc. (Wong, 2005). For explicit knowledge can facilitate the learners comparing what is present in the input with what is the learners' current interlanguage rule; and can make learners be more likely to notice these features in the natural input; as well as can as 'monitor' to improve the accuracy of output (Ellis, 1999).

Second, due to the advocate of communicative teaching method that gives prominence to learner's fluency, the general teaching practice that exclusively concerns the learners' use of language understates the importance of learners' analysis and understanding of the forms. In China, where students are expected to take part in all kinds of exams, there are many advantages by raising learner's habit of observation and noticing the forms.

Last but not the least, since there are many factors influencing noticing, such as instruction, perceptual salience, frequency, task demands (Schmidt, 1990, Skehan, 1998). Thus, not only teachers who try every effort to draw students' attention by various ways in class but also textbook compilers and people concerned should takes all those factors into consideration and provide teachers with good "hardware". The joint efforts will yield a more desirable result--cultivating more competent students.

VII. Conclusion

Regardless of the different positions researchers may take regarding the issue of awareness, there is a general consensus along with support from SLA research that noticing or some form of attention to input is necessary for SLA. As for EFL, many empirical studies concerning role of noticing in foreign language teaching have been made abroad, especially focusing on the grammatical forms, while little have been done at home. Explicit instruction, which can facilitate learners' awareness of the surface features of a language and as the most common teaching practice in China, should be given due attention, more effort should be made to find out explicit instruction under which condition should benefit Chinese students best, thus to improve teaching effectiveness in China.

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Validity and Tests Developed on Reduced Redundancy, Language Components and Schema Theory

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Abstract—**This study reports the performance of 430 undergraduate and graduate students of English on standard C-Tests, the disclosed TOEFL, lexical knowledge test (LKT) and semantic schema-based cloze multiple choice item test (S-Test). Among the four tests, the first has been shown to be affected by their context. Two other versions were, therefore, developed on the standard C-Tests, i.e., Context Independent (CI)C-Test, and Context Dependent (CD)C-Tests from which the CIC-Test items were removed. Inspired by Kamimoto (1993), the well functioning items of standard C-Tests developed by Klein-Braley (1997) and their CD and CI versions were employed to study their underlying factors. The factorial analysis of the three C-Tests revealed two latent variables representing reduced redundancy and another unknown construct. The inclusion of the TOEFL, LKT and S-Test in the analysis to illuminate the nature of the second factor, however, resulted in the extraction of three latent variables. Since the standard C-Tests and CDC-Tests loaded the highest on the first factor along with other tests, it represented reduced redundancy. However, since the S-Test had its highest loading on the second factor upon which the other two measures of language proficiency loaded as well, it represented schema theory. The vocabulary subtest of the TOEFL loaded the highest on the third factor upon which the TOEFL itself and its structure subtest loaded as well revealing the componential nature of the TOEFL. The results are discussed and suggestions are made for future research.**

Index Terms—**testing, language proficiency, language components, schema theory, reduced redundancy**

I. Introduction

The development and validity of written language proficiency measures such as the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) depends on the theory upon which proficiency is defined. This study divides them into three distinct categories, i.e., componential, reduced redundancy and schema and addresses their underlying rationale empirically and factorially by administering their representative measures to 430 learners of English in Iran. While the first category is best represented by the TOEFL accommodating the structure, written expressions, vocabulary and reading components of language, the second and third are claimed to be materialized in standard C-Tests and schema-based cloze multiple choice item tests (henceforth S-Tests), respectively.

Upon reviewing the literature related to the theories of language testing, the present author developed context independent (CI) C-Tests by removing the items of standard C-Tests from their context and administering it as a single test. The participants' responses on the CIC-Test were then *tailored* by keeping the items which had functioned well, i.e., had acceptable item facility and discrimination indices. Since the standard C-Tests shared some well functioning items with the CIC-Test, these items were removed from the standard C-Tests to develop the context dependent (CD) C-Tests.

The scores on the tailored standard C-Test, the CIC-Test and CDC-Tests were then subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) to determine what constructs underlie C-Tests as measures of reduced redundancy in language proficiency. To further illuminate the nature of latent variables extracted from the three versions of C-Tests, the tailored TOEFL, S-Test as well as the LKT were added to the PCA analysis to find out whether their addition would result in the extraction of two other latent variables representing language components and schema theory. The measures were also correlated with each other to have a better understanding of the three latent variables extracted in the study.

A. Proficiency Tests Based on Language Components

Internationally recognized language tests such as the TOEFL treat written proficiency as a psychological construct consisting of four components or abilities, i.e., structure, written expressions, vocabulary and reading comprehension (Khodadady, 1997, 1999). The more recent versions of the TOEFL, however, have reduced the components to two, i.e., 1) structure which includes the written expressions and 2) reading comprehension which includes some items developed on short passages as wholes and some vocabulary items constructed on the words constituting the same passages (see ETS, 2003). It is assumed that the proficiency of English language learners can best be measured by the responses they give to traditionally designed multiple choice items addressing each of these four components separately. An earlier and

disclosed TOEFL test along with its subtests measuring the four components have, therefore, been used in the present study as a representative measure of language components.

B. Proficiency Tests Based on Reduced Redundancy

Reduced redundancy measures of language proficiency derive their theory from closure in Gestalt psychology highlighting the tendency of the human brain to complete figures even when *part of* the information is *missing*. Taylor (1953) employed the psychology to develop *cloze tests* by deleting a number of words in given texts in order to estimate the readability level of the texts. He hypothesized that if readers have achieved reading comprehension ability at a given grade, they must be able to activate their acquired ability successfully to restore the words deleted from the texts taught at that grade. Cloze tests were thus employed originally as measures of readability.

Spolsky (1973), however, resorted to closure to formulate his reduced redundancy theory of language proficiency. He seems to have argued that since a given function such as *past tense* may be brought up in *various* linguistic devices, i.e., "words," (Bardovi-Harlig & Comajoan, 2008, p. 391) such as verbs and adverbs within a given text, proficient language users can restore a missing past tense verb or adverb by focusing on other verbs or adverbs which carry the same function in the same text. The very materialization of the same function in *various* words comprising texts establishes the link between cloze tests and reduced redundancy theory. According to Bardovi-Harlig and Comajoan (2008), however, the linguistic devices have varying *functional loads.*

For example, if an adverb such as *yesterday* is the only indicator that an event happened in the past (*yesterday I go*), then it has high functional load. If the past tense also indicates the time frame (*yesterday I went*), the functional load of both the adverb and the verbal morphology is less than for either one occurring alone (p. 391)

Although the alleged theoretical foundation of cloze tests on reduced redundancy theory brought about their widespread application in testing as integrative measures of language proficiency, *the varying degrees of words' functional loads were not taken into account* in their development. Standard cloze tests, for instance, depend on deleting every nth word, e.g., 7^{th}, of text regardless of the deleted words' functional load. For this very reason, research findings showed that they are extremely difficult and therefore suffer from low reliability. Along with several tests, Khodadady (2004), for example, administered the 35-item close test developed by Farhady and Keramati (1994) on the verb phrases of a university text to 34 senior undergraduate students of English and found it the least reliable, i.e., alpha = .55, and the most difficult test among others in terms of its mean IF, i.e. .45.

In order to remedy the "technical defects" of cloze tests Klein-Braley (1997, p.63) developed C-tests. After employing the Duisburg placement test DELTA as a validation criterion, Klein-Braley administered the C-tests consisting of four short texts along with two cloze tests, two multiple choice cloze tests, two cloze-elide tests requiring test takers to find some randomly added words in a text and cross them out (Manning, 1986), and a dictation test as measures of reduced redundancy to 81 university students. Since the C-tests had the highest loadings on the first *unrotated* factor, Klein-Braley concluded: "The best test to select to represent general language proficiency as assessed by reduced redundancy testing would be the C-Test" (p. 71).

Khodadady (2007), however, took the 99 C-test items developed by Klein-Braley (1997) out of their context and presented them as single words to 63 university students majoring in English and asked them to restore the second mutilated half by adding the same number of letters given, i.e., words consisting of even number of letters, or one more, i.e., words comprising odd number of letters. He scored the restored words in two manners. First, the words meeting the direction requirement were scored correct and the resulting score was considered as an index of spelling ability. In the second scoring, only the exactly restored C-Test items were scored correct. Since the restoration of these exact items is independent of the contexts in which they appeared, the second procedure is also adopted in the present study and named CIC-Test.

When the scores of the participants on the standard C-tests, spelling test, CIC-Test, TOEFL, matching vocabulary test or lexical Knowledge test (LKT) were analysed via PCA method and the extracted factors were rotated, the standard C-Tests loaded the highest on the second factor whereas the TOEFL and the LKT loaded on the first and the spelling and CIC-Test on the third. Based on these results Khodadady (2007) concluded that standard C-Tests are method specific measures of language proficiency whose results depend on the way they are constructed.

C. Proficiency Tests Based on Schema Theory

While proficiency tests developed on language components do discretely specify what abilities in language should be measured one at a time, they fail to address the choices with which most of their representative items are designed (Khodadady, 1997, 1999, Khodadady & Herriman, 2000). They depend on experts and specialized institutions such as Educational Testing Service (ETS) to design well functioning items and subject them to item analysis before they are administered to test takers. Moreover, tests designed on components suffer from not having a sound theory as regards their selection and utilization of authentic texts, i.e., passages written to be read rather than tested (Khodadady, 1995). In order to have well functioning items, the reading passages of the TOEFL are usually *written* by testing specialists.

Although cloze tests can be developed on authentic texts found in newspapers, magazines and books, they are too difficult to answer (Khodadady, 2004). C-tests do overcome the difficulty involved in taking cloze tests by providing the first half of the deleted words as the missing parts of some carefully chosen short texts (Klein-Braley, 1997); however, they fail to specify what they really measure. In other words, the very dependence of the C-test items on the

provision of the first part of the mutilated words, violates the theory behind closure, i.e., there are no *missing* parts but *mutilated* words whose constituting letters give away part of their missing information by specifying their number.

In contrast to two componential and reduced redundancy theories of language proficiency, schema theory views all the *words* constituting written texts as *schemata* which have syntactic, semantic, and discoursal relationships with each other. Since they have already been produced by writers under real conditions, in real places, at real times and for real purposes, i.e., being read or heard, the constituting schemata of authentic texts enjoy pragmatic relationships among themselves by their very being chosen to convey the message (Khodadady & Elahi, 2012). This microstructural approach towards viewing and accepting schemata as constituting units of texts differs sharply from its macrostructural perspective.

Macrostructurally, schema is defined as "a *conventional knowledge structure* that exists in memory" (Yule, 2006 p. 132). Since the presumed *conventional knowledge structure* [CKS] exists in isolation, i.e., dictionaries, and has little to do with any given text, it has failed to explain, as Grabe (2002) put it, "how it would work for reading comprehension" (p. 282). Similarly, Spiro, Vispoel, Schmitz, Samarapungavan, and Boerger (1987) emphasized the unproductive nature of detextuaslized macrostructural approach to schema theory by asserting that in spite of substantial agreement on the application of schema as pre-existing background knowledge, "we know very little about the organization of background knowledge and the method of its application to the understanding of new situations" (p. 177).

Microstructurally, a schema is, however, approached as any word which constitutes a text and is understood by its readers in terms of its syntactic, semantic, and discoursal relationships with the other schemata comprising the text. While macro structural schemata owe their existence to CKS given in dictionaries, they lack the potential to explain new situations brought up in various texts whereas the micro structural schemata are comprehended as a result of the readers' personal and background knowledge with each and all the schemata constituting those texts. In other words, *there is virtually no macro schema to explain what the whole text is about*. Rather, *these are the constituting words of a text or schemata and their relationships with each other which explain what it is composed to convey*.

Yule (2006), for example, offered the macro schema *classroom* as a CKS which explains Sanford and Garrod's (1981) interesting experiment. They presented the two sentences, "*John was on his way to school last Friday*. *He was really worried about the math lesson*," to some readers and asked them what they thought John did. As it can be read, there is nothing related to a *classroom* as Yule indirectly insists there is. While the *invisible* and *presumed* macro schema *classroom* provides no clues to the readers, the readers do have direct access to the 17 schemata comprising the two sentences in general and the schemata *school*, *math*, *lesson* and *worry* in particular to infer that John is *a school boy* because he is going to *school* and his teacher may ask him some *math* questions to which he might not have any answers for whatever reasons and he is therefore *worried*. Not surprisingly, they did say that they thought John was *a school boy*. In other words, the two sentences have nothing to do with *classroom* but *John* and his being understood in terms of the schemata with which he has been mentioned.

When Sanford and Garrod (1981) added the third sentence, "*Last week he had been unable to control the class*," the readers said that John was a school teacher. In other words, the schema related to John is discoursally related to new schemata given in the third sentence, the readers immediately modified their comprehension of John in terms of his job in order to accommodate the newly introduced schema *control*. Through personal experience, the readers have learned to assign the responsibility of controlling the *class* to teachers, not to students. They also modified their understanding of *worry* by changing its cause from facing possible math questions to controlling the *math class*. In other words, it is not the CKS of classroom which helps the readers change John's job from student to teacher, it is the juxtopositioning of the schemata forming the newly introduced sentence with the previous sentences which led the readers to change John's job.

Microstructural approach to schema theory not only explains the process of understanding written texts as establishing syntactic, semantic and discoursal relationships among the schemata comprising the texts but also specifies the type of alternatives with which the schemata deleted from the texts should be presented. In other words, instead of employing their intuition to develop traditional multiple choice items (see Khodadady, 1999), English language teachers and test designers alike can select certain schemata of given texts as keyed responses and present them with the choices which bear semantic, syntactic and disoursal relationships not only with the keyed responses but also other schemata comprising the whole texts. (Sample schema-based cloze multiple choice item will be given in the instrumentation section.)

If the componential tests, i.e., TOEFL, reduced redundancy tests, i.e., C-Tests, CIC-Test and CDC-Test, and schema-based tests, i.e., S-Tests, do measure language proficiency as common to all theories, the tests developed on these theories must all load *highly* on a single factor after *they have all been administered to the same sample* and their malfunctioning items have been removed, i.e., the tests have been tailored. However, if the TOEFL and its subtests, the standard C-tests along with its versions, and S-Test employed in this study derive their rationale from different theories, they must load on three distinct latent variables after they have been tailored and subjected to the PCA analysis.

II. Methodology

A. Participants

Four hundred thirty university students, 323 female and 107 male, took part in the study. Their age ranged between 18 and 45 (Mean = 22.95, SD = 3.18) and were majoring in English language and literature (N=352, 81.9%), teaching English as a foreign language (N=69, 16.0%), and English translation (N=9, 2.1%) for a bachelor (N=352, 81.9%), master (N=74, 17.2%) and PhD (N=4, 0.9%) degree. One hundred fifty seven (36.5%), 49 (11.4%), 97 (22.6%), and 127 (29.5%) were freshman, sophomore, junior and senior students at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran, respectively. While the majority spoke Persian (N=424, %=98.6), only six (1.4%) conversed in Turkish as their mother languages. They all participated in the project voluntarily. Since 16 participants did not take one of the tests, they were excluded from study. In order to compensate for their time and externally motivate the participants, it was announced that whoever took a course with the researcher; he would add an extra 10% to their final score and consider their participation as a part of their class activity.

B. Instruments

Three English language proficiency tests were employed in this study, i.e., disclosed Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), standard C-Tests and their context dependent and independent versions, and schema-based cloze multiple choice item test (S-Test). Since the vocabulary was also measured by the three proficiency tests, the Lexical Knowledge Test (LKT) was employed to explore its effect on the componential structure of tests.

1. Test of English as a Foreign Language

The disclosed TOEFL consisting of structure, written expressions, sentential vocabulary, and reading comprehension subtests was used as a representative test of the componential theory of language testing. The structure subtest consisted of 30 cloze multiple choice items which addressed discrete grammatical points in isolated sentences. The test takers' knowledge of the conjunction *because* is, for example, assessed in the example sentence below.

Geysers have often been compared to volcanoes … they both emit hot liquids from below the Earth's surface (ETS, 2003, p. 45).

A due to **B** because **C** in spite of **D** regardless of

The twenty five isolated and unrelated sentences of the written expressions subtest are divided into four underlined parts. The test takers were required to choose the erroneous part as the correct answer. In the example below, for instance, the test takers must choose B as the correct answer because after the preposition *for*, the verb of the sentence shows a process, i.e., *creating*, rather than a trait, i.e., creativity.

Animation is a technique for creativity the illusion of life in inanimate things (ETS, 2003, p. 49).

A B C D

The third subtest contained 30 isolated sentences in which some words and phrases had been underlined and their synonyms had to be found among the four choices offered below the sentences. The phrase *arrive at*, for example, is underlined in the sentence below so that the test takers can choose "its closest in meaning to the original sentence" (ETS, 1987, p. 13).

Most sound vibrations arrive at the eardrum by way of the auditory canal.

A search for **B** reach **C** tickle **D** whisper to

And finally 30 traditional multiple choice items addressing referential, factional and inferential points brought up in five short passages formed the reading comprehension subtest. The alpha reliability coefficients reported by Khodadady (2012) were .91, .79, .82, .82, and .86 for the total TOEFL, the structure, written expressions, sentential vocabulary, and reading comprehension sections, respectively.

2. Standard C-Tests

After careful selection of four short and separate passages, Klein-Braley (1997, pp. 79-80) left their first sentences intact and removed the second half of the second word to develop four C-Tests. With the exception of the C-Test 2 comprising 24 items, the other three C-Tests consisted of 24 items and thus formed the 99-item C-Tests employed in this study. The sixteen out of 25 items below, for example, form the standard C-Test 1.

Within the last twenty years the blood group of peoples in all parts of the world have been studied. The mo_____ (1) interesting res_____ (2) of th_____ (3) studies h_____ (4) been th_____ (5), with f_____ (6) exceptions, nea_____ (7) every hu_____ (8) group exam_____ (9) has be_____ (10) found t_____ (11) consist o_____ (12) a mix_____ (13) of t_____ (14) same fo_____ (15) blood gro_____ (16); …

Following Khodadady and Hashemi (2011) the C-Test 1, a part of which was given above, along with the three other C-Tests developed by Klein-Braely (1997) and piloted on either native speakers or second language teachers are referred to as standard C-Tests in this study. Khodadady (2012) reported the alpha reliability coefficients of .91, .77, .72, .78, and .70, for the total standard C-Tests and C-Test 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively.

The 16 mutilated items comprising the standard C-Test 1, i.e., Mo ..., res..., th..., h..., th..., f..., nea..., hu..., exam.., be..., t..., o..., mix..., t..., fo..., gro..., along with the other items totaling 99 were taken out of their context and administered as a list of mutilated words to be restored by the participants. By receiving the same directions given for the standard C-Tests, they had to restore the *exact* mutilated words, e.g., *most*, *result*, *these*, *has*, *this*, *few*, *nearly*,

human, *examined*, *been*, *to*, *of*, *mixture*, *the*, *four*, and *groups*, by restoring to their background knowledge. The exactly restored words were then treated as the constituents of CIC-Test.

Among the tailored CIC-Test items, some had acceptable facility and discrimination indices on the standard C-Tests as well. These well-functioning items were, therefore, removed from the tailored Standard C-Tests to form the third version of the C-Tests. Since this version did not include the items whose mutilated parts could be restored without having any context, they were treated as constituents of context-dependent (CD) C-Test.

3. S-Test

The articles published in *NewScientist* seem to be "more academic than … articles in quality newspapers" (Clapham, 1996, p. 145), Gholami (2006), therefore, chose "why don't we just kiss and make up" (Dugatkin, 2005) from this magazine and developed four versions (V) of S-Test on its 60 adjectives (V1), 60 adverbs (V2), 60 nouns (V3), and 60 verbs (V4). She also developed the fifth version on the schemata comprising the semantic domain, i.e., 14 adjectives, seven adverbs, 24 nouns and 15 verbs of the same text and administered them to 92 undergraduate students of English language and literature at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad.

The first item of the semantic domain S-Test is given below. As can be seen, the schema ***attacks*** has been deleted and presented as choice A along with the three schemata *inroads*, *raids* and *ambushes* which share the syntactic feature of being nouns with each other. Since the choices B, C and D share the semantic feature of *trying to destroy* with the keyed response and thus compete with it in being selected, they are called *competitives* in order to differentiate them from their traditional counterparts, i.e., distracters (Khodadady, 1997). The readers must read all the choices and relate them to other schemata comprising the text in order to select the keyed response.

Why don't we just kiss and make up?

LOOK at the world's worst trouble spots and you can't fail to notice they have one thing in common: tit-for-tat … (1) between warring parties. …

1 **A**. attacks **B**. inroads **C**. raids **D**. ambushes

Table 1 presents the results obtained by Gholami (2006). As can be seen, V5, i.e., semantic domain S-Test proved to be the most challenging because the mean score (20.3) obtained on this version was the lowest as was the alpha reliability coefficient, i.e., .64. However, it showed the highest correlation coefficients with the TOEFL (r = .84, p <.01), its written expressions (r = .77, p <.01) and reading comprehension subtests (r = .74, p <.01), respectively. It also correlated significantly with the structure subtest of the TOEFL (r = .56, p <.05) and thus established itself as a valid measure of language proficiency. Based on these results, this version was taken as a representative S-Test and employed in this study.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND CORRELATIONS AMONG THE FIVE VERSIONS OF THE S-TEST

S-Test	# of items	Mean	SD	Alpha	Correlation Coefficients			
					TOEFL	Structure	Written expressions	Reading
Adjectives	60	21.2	9.1	.87	.55*	.57*	.27	.61*
Adverbs	60	24.7	10.7	.90	.70**	.50*	.63**	.63**
Nouns	60	24.2	9.6	.87	.19	.13	.05	.26
Verbs	60	22.0	12.1	.92	.19	-.13	.28	.21
Semantic domain	60	20.3	5.8	.64	.84**	.56*	.77**	.74**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4. Lexical Knowledge Test

Nation (see Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham, 2001) developed a vocabulary test consisting of 60 items presented in 20 groups of three numbered words/phrases. For the three items in each group, six words are offered from which the test takers have to choose their synonyms by writing the number of the synonymous item in their front. Since this test reflected mental lexicon defined as "the collection of words one speaker knows and the relationships between them" (Mir đis, 2004, p. 2), it was named Lexical Knowledge Test (LKT) in this study. In order to save space and dispense with writing, the format of the test was also changed into six choices to be selected as the synonyms of the three numbered groups of words/phrases as shown below. The LKT is a highly reliable and valid measure of lexical knowledge because its alpha reliability coefficient was .89 in Khodadady's (2007) study and it correlated significantly with the C-Tests, i.e., r = .42, p < .01.

Example

1. Assert	**A**	cast	**D**	detest
2. Ban	**B**	confide	**E**	falter
3. Throw away	**C**	state	**F**	forbid

C. Procedure

Following Khodadady (2007), CIC-Test was administered first because the administration of the standard C-Test would have given its items away. The standard C-Test was administered to the participants along with the TOEFL, S-

Test and the LKT in a counterbalanced manner in several testing sessions. Since the participants were known to the researcher, they were divided into four groups every session of test administration. For example, the first group took the standard C-Tests while the other three answered the TOEFL, S-Test and LKT. In the second session, the first group took the S-Test whereas the other three answered the standard C-Test, LKT and the TOEFL. Similarly, in the third session, the first, second, third and fourth groups of participants answered the LKT, S-Test, TOEFL and the C-Tests, respectively.

After all the tests were administered under standard conditions, the CIC-Test was tailored by keeping its well functioning items. The same procedure was followed for the standard C-Test. For developing the context dependent (CD) C-Tests, the items which had functioned well on the CIC-Test, were specified among the well functioning items on the standard C-Tests and removed. The fulfillment of these procedures resulted in the inclusion of three versions of C-Tests in statistical analyses, i.e., 1) Standard C-Tests, 2) CIC-Test, and 3) CDC-Test. The tailoring procedure was also followed for the TOEFL, its subtests, S-Test and LKT.

D. Data Analysis

Point biserial correlation coefficients were estimated as the item discrimination (ID) indices by correlating each individual item with the total score obtained on a given test. Following Thorndike (2005), items whose IDs fell below 0.20 were considered as malfunctioning and removed from validity analyses. The number of correct responses given to each item was also divided by the total number of answers to obtain facility (IF) indices. The FIs falling below 0.25 and above 0.75 were also excluded from validity analyses (Baker, 1989). Cronbach's Alpha was also estimated to determine the internal consistency of the tests containing well functioning items only. Furthermore, Kuder-Richardson Formula 21 (KR21) was employed to estimate the reliability of all tests and to compare them with the Alpha. Principal Component Analysis along with Varimax with Kaiser Normalization were utilized to extract rotated factors. All statistical analyses were performed by using IBM SPSS statistics 19.0 to address the questions below:

1. How reliable are the standard C-Tests, CIC-Test, CDC-Test, TOEFL, S-Test and LKT when they are tailored?
2. What is the factor structure when the tailored standard C-Tests, CDC-Tests and CIC-Test are studied? Will they load on a single factor representing reduced redundancy?
3. What is the factor structure when the tailored standard C-Tests, CDC-Tests and CIC-Test are studied with the tailored TOEFL, S-Test and LKT? Will they load on three factors representing reduced redundancy, schema and componential theories of language testing?

III. Results and Discussion

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics as well as the reliability estimates of the proficiency tests administered in the study. As can be seen, the LKT is the most reliable test administered in the study (α =.93). The Standard C-Tests (α =.88) measuring reduced redundancy enjoy the same level of reliability as does the TOEFL (α =.88) as a measure of componential theory. The reliability of the S-Test (α =.85) is, however, slightly lower than the standard C-Tests and the TOEFL because of two reasons. First, it was relatively more difficult (mean IF = .47) than the standard C-Tests (mean IF = .51) and the TOEFL (mean IF = .59). Secondly, its well functioning items were fewer than the two tests. These results not only establish tailored tests as reliable measures and thus answer the first research question but also show that the fewness of well functioning items on a language proficiency test and its higher difficulty level lower its reliability.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE TESTS AND THEIR SUBTEST CONSISTING OF WELL FUNCTIONING ITEMS

	# of items	Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	Mean IF	Mean ID	KR21	Alpha
Standard C-Tests	47	23.1	73.941	8.599	.51	.37	.86	.88
C-Test 1	15	7.9	10.350	3.217	.53	.36	.68	.71
C-Test 2	13	6.7	7.737	2.782	.48	.37	.63	.67
C-Test 3	13	6.7	8.857	2.976	.51	.39	.69	.73
C-Test 4	6	2.3	2.140	1.463	.48	.41	.41	.51
CDC-Tests	41	19.9	57.533	7.585	.50	.38	.84	.86
CDC-Test 1	14	7.3	9.156	3.026	.52	.36	.67	.70
CDC-Test 2	12	5.7	7.070	2.659	.48	.38	.63	.68
CDC-Test 3	11	5.5	6.546	2.558	.50	.40	.64	.69
CDC-Test 4	4	1.4	1.183	1.088	.50	.52	.32	.45
CIC-Test	13	7.1	4.679	2.163	.45	.27	.34	.52
TOEFL	47	27.6	78.330	8.850	.59	.37	.87	.88
Structure	10	6.5	5.194	2.279	.65	.39	.63	.66
Written Expressions	13	7.6	9.845	3.138	.59	.39	.74	.76
Sentential Voc.	4	2.6	1.301	1.141	.66	.25	.41	.44
Reading	20	10.8	19.476	4.413	.54	.37	.78	.81
S-Test	42	19.8	55.036	7.419	.47	.37	.83	.85
Lexical Knowledge Test	47	22.1	118.640	10.892	.47	.47	.92	.93

The second interesting finding of the present study is the closeness of alpha and KR21 coefficients and the relatively but consistently low magnitude of the latter to the former. As can be seen in Table 2, the alpha obtained on the standard C-Tests (.88), for example, is slightly higher than KR21 (.86). It is not, however, clear why some scholars studying C-Tests utilize either the KR21 (e.g., Babaii & Ansari, 2001) or KR20 (e.g., Jafarpur, 1999) when the alpha can easily be estimated by employing statistical packages such as the SPSS.

Table 3 presents the unrotated and rotated factors extracted via PCA and Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. As can be seen, standard C-Test 4 and CDC-test 4 both load on the unrotated factor two. However, when the two factors are rotated, not only Standard C-Tests but also CDC-Tests load acceptably on the second factor as well. If we assume the first factor to represent the reduced redundancy theory of language proficiency as measured by Standard C-Tests, what does the second factor represent? For finding the answer, the S-Test, LKT and the TOEFL with its subtests were included in the statistical analysis.

TABLE 3
FACTOR MATRIX OF THE STANDARD C-TESTS AND THEIR CONTEXT DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT VERSIONS

Tests	Unrotated Factors		Rotated Factors	
	1	2	1	2
Standard C-Tests	.997	*	.896	.440
C-Test 1	.844	*	.756	.378
C-Test 2	.846	*	.861	*
C-Test 3	.818	*	.810	*
C-Test 4	.740	.624	.332	.909
CDC-tests	.988	*	.900	.415
CDC-test 1	.832	*	.750	.365
CDC-test 2	.841	*	.859	*
CDC-test 3	.805	*	.808	*
CDC-test 4	.641	.704	*	.929
CIC-Test	.774	*	.608	.495
Eigenvalue:	7.671	1.140	6.060	2.750
% of Variance:	69.733	10.363	55.095	25.00

* Loadings less than .30

Table 4 presents the factors extracted from the three proficiency tests representing reduced redundancy, schema and componential theories of language testing. As can be seen, the Standard C-Tests have the highest loading on the first unrotated factor (.96) followed by CDC-Tests (.95). This factor provides further support for Khodadady (2007) labeling of C-Tests as method-specific measures of language proficiency because only its standard and content-dependent versions have the highest loading on the first factor even when the factors are rotated. As a matter of fact, rotating the factors emphasizes the method-specificity of C-Tests because both the standard C-Tests and CDC-Tests reveal almost the same loading on the first factor, i.e., .92, and thus highlight the distinct contribution of C-Tests to reduced redundancy testing in terms of their unique context.

TABLE 4
FACTOR MATRIX OF THE TESTS ADMINISTERED IN THE STUDY

Tests	Unrotated Factors			Rotated Factors		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
Standard C-Tests	.961	*	*	.911	.407	*
C-Test 1	.814	*	*	.775	.369	*
C-Test 2	.799	-.357	*	.840	*	*
C-Test 3	.783	*	*	.777	*	.305
C-Test 4	.757	*	-.394	.483	.664	*
CDC-Tests	.947	*	*	.917	.377	*
CDC-Test 1	.803	*	*	.766	.360	*
CDC-Test 2	.791	-.368	*	.841	*	*
CDC-Test 3	.764	-.315	*	.779	*	.315
CDC-Test 4	.656	*	-.445	.391	.626	-.349
CIC-Test	.776	*	*	.617	.477	*
S-Test	.678	.334	*	.308	.698	*
TOEFL	.825	.455	*	.333	.832	.383
Structure	.724	.363	*	.316	.704	.328
Written Expressions	.761	.366	*	.345	.745	*
Sentential Voc.	*	*	.572	*	*	.596
Reading	.682	.446	*	*	.747	*
LKT	.566	.448	*	*	.721	*
Eigenvalue:	10.266	1.765	1.078	6.760	5.148	1.200
% of Variance:	57.034	9.803	5.988	37.556	28.602	6.666

The second rotated factor extracted in this study represents schema theory because the S-Test has its highest loading (.70) on this latent variable as does the LKT, i.e., .72. Furthermore, not only the TOEFL itself but also its written expressions and reading comprehension ability subscales have the highest loading on this factor, i.e., .83, .75, and .75, respectively. The TOEFL does not, however, represent schema theory because it loads acceptably on the third factor as well (.38) as do its structure and sentential vocabulary subtests, i.e., .33 and .60, respectively. The reading comprehension subtest of the TOEFL as well as the LKT depend, nonetheless, on schema theory because they call for establishing discoursal and semantic relationships between the questions and the texts on the one hand and the words given as choices on the other.

Along with the first factor representing the reduced redundancy as measured by C-Tests, and the second factor representing schema theory as measured by S-Test, a third factor appears upon which the vocabulary subscale of the TOEFL has the highest loading, i.e., .60. Since the TOEFL itself and its structure subscale load acceptably on the third factor, i.e., .38 and .33, respectively, along with the CDC-Test 3 (.32) and standard C-Test 3 (.31), it represents the componential theory of language testing because answering both the TOEFL and some C-Tests depend *solely* on discrete rather than discoursal comprehension of words.

Among the three rotated factors extracted in this study, the second represents language proficiency in general due to the explanatory power of schema theory. It shows the test takers' ability to activate their syntactic knowledge of schemata to answer the structure subtest of the TOEFL, mobilize their semantic knowledge of schemata to select their synonyms from among the six offered in the LKT and establish syntactic, semantic and discoursal relationship among the schemata to choose the keyed responses on the S-Test and reading comprehension subtest of the TOEFL. These arguments are further supported when the correlations among these measures are taken into account.

Table 5 presents the correlation coefficients obtained among the English language proficiency tests and their subtests. As can be seen, the correlations among the Standard C-Tests, TOEFL and the S-Test do not reach .80 so that they can *replace* each other (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991, p. 442), indicating that the dependence of language proficiency tests on different theories bring about different indicators of test takers' proficiency. While the standard C-Tests explain 44 percent of variance in the TOEFL ($r = .66$, $p<.01$), for example, it drops to 41 and 37 percent for the CDC-Tests ($r = .64$, $p<.01$), and the S-Test ($r = .61$, $p<.01$), respectively.

TABLE 5
CORRELATIONS AMONG THE TESTS ADMINISTERED IN THE STUDY

Tests and Subtests	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1 TOEFL	1	.84**	.86**	.28**	.89**	.66**	.55**	.53**	.54**	.58**	.64**	.55**	.52**	.52**	.50**	.58**	.61**	.54**
2 Structure	.84**	1	.71**	.15**	.62**	.59**	.49**	.46**	.50**	.49**	.57**	.48**	.45**	.49**	.41**	.53**	.48**	.47**
3 Written Expressions	.86**	.71**	1	.16**	.60**	.63**	.55**	.49**	.49**	.55**	.61**	.55**	.48**	.47**	.47**	.54**	.58**	.50**
4 Sentential Voc.	.28**	.15**	.16**	1	.12*	.17**	.10	.17**	.17**	.13**	.18**	.10*	.17**	.18**	.13**	.13**	.12*	.11*
5 Reading	.89**	.62**	.60**	.12*	1	.53**	.44**	.43**	.43**	.49**	.52**	.43**	.42**	.41**	.42**	.48**	.53**	.45**
6 Standard (S) C-Tests	.66**	.59**	.63**	.17**	.53**	1	.85**	.85**	.83**	.70**	.99**	.84**	.84**	.81**	.59**	.75**	.56**	.43**
7 SC-Test 1	.55**	.49**	.55**	.10	.44**	.85**	1	.63**	.54**	.54**	.86**	.99**	.62**	.54**	.45**	.60**	.48**	.37**
8 SC-Test 2	.53**	.46**	.49**	.17**	.43**	.85**	.63**	1	.61**	.48**	.85**	.62**	.98**	.60**	.39**	.62**	.44**	.32**
9 SC-Test 3	.54**	.50**	.49**	.17**	.43**	.83**	.54**	.61**	1	.49**	.81**	.53**	.61**	.97**	.41**	.63**	.43**	.31**
10 SC-Test 4	.58**	.49**	.55**	.13**	.49**	.70**	.54**	.48**	.49**	1	.67**	.53**	.49**	.48**	.88**	.65**	.52**	.46**
11 CDC-Tests	.64**	.57**	.61**	.18**	.52**	.99**	.86**	.85**	.81**	.67**	1	.86**	.85**	.82**	.59**	.68**	.54**	.41**
12 CDC-Test 1	.55**	.48**	.55**	.10*	.43**	.84**	.99**	.62**	.53**	.53**	.86**	1	.61**	.52**	.44**	.56**	.47**	.36**
13 CDC-Test 2	.52**	.45**	.48**	.17**	.42**	.84**	.62**	.98**	.61**	.49**	.85**	.61**	1	.60**	.39**	.58**	.43**	.33**
14 CDC-Test 3	.52**	.49**	.47**	.18**	.41**	.81**	.54**	.60**	.97**	.48**	.82**	.53**	.60**	1	.40**	.55**	.40**	.28**
15 CDC-Test 4	.50**	.41**	.47**	.13**	.42**	.59**	.45**	.39**	.41**	.88**	.59**	.44**	.39**	.40**	1	.48**	.46**	.41**
16 CIC-Test	.58**	.53**	.54**	.13**	.48**	.75**	.60**	.62**	.63**	.65**	.68**	.56**	.58**	.55**	.48**	1	.50**	.42**
17 S-Test	.61**	.48**	.58**	.12*	.53**	.56**	.48**	.44**	.43**	.52**	.54**	.47**	.43**	.40**	.46**	.50**	1	.61**
18 LKT	.54**	.47**	.50**	.11*	.45**	.43**	.37**	.32**	.31**	.46**	.41**	.36**	.33**	.28**	.41**	.42**	.61**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The explanation of a larger variance in the TOEFL, i.e., 41%, by the Standard C-Tests, is the result of their inclusion of a noticeable number of items developed on syntactic schemata. (As can be seen in Table 5, the correlation of the standard C-Tests with the structure, i.e., r = .59, $p<.01$, is higher than its correlation with reading, i.e., r = .53, $p<.01$. If the English language proficiency is defined as an ability to "read and understand short passages … in North American colleges and universities" (ETS, 2003, p. 11), then the same amount of variance in the reading comprehension ability of participants, i.e., 28% is explained by both standard C-Tests and S-Tests (r = .53, $p<.01$), indicating that the selection of a single authentic text does away with choosing a number of texts by specialists and submitting them to pilot studies as suggested by designers not only of standard C-Tests but also of the TOEFL.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The mutilated words comprising the four texts of standard C-Tests were taken out of their context and presented as isolated items to 430 undergraduate and graduate students majoring in various fields related to English as a foreign language in order to establish two new versions of C-Tests. The exact and well functioning answers given to the decontexualized items were treated as Context Independent (CI) C-Test to establish the first version. The well functioning items of the CIC-Test were then removed from the standard C-Tests to establish the Context Dependent (CD) C-Tests as the second version. Following Brown (1984) and Kamimoto (1993) not only the standard C-Tests, CIC-Test and CDC-Tests but also other proficiency tests employed in this study were tailored on the basis of the argument that whatever constructs these tests measured were reflected in their items having acceptable IF and ID indices only.

When the standard C-Tests, CIC-Test and CDC-Tests were submitted to factor analysis two latent variables emerged. Since the three versions of C-Tests had the highest loading on the first factor, it was taken as the construct representing reduced redundancy theory of language proficiency measured by C-Tests. The rotation of the factors showed that both standard C-Tests and its CI and CD versions loaded acceptably on the second factor as well, indicating that they were measuring a construct other than reduced redundancy. When the tailored TOEFL, schema-based cloze multiple choice item test (S-Test) and the Lexical Knowledge Test (LKT) were included in the factorial analysis, three factors emerged.

With the exception of the sentential vocabulary subtest of the TOEFL, the three versions of C-Tests as well as the TOEFL, S-Test and the LKT loaded acceptably on the first factor. The loadings of the C-Tests were, however, much *higher* than not only the TOEFL and S-Test but also the LKT measuring lexical knowledge of participants. The noticeably *different* loadings on the part of the three proficiency tests and LKT thus necessitated the rotation of three extracted factors resulting in the highest loadings of the three versions of C-Tests on the first factor *only*. These findings provided further support for the method-specificity of C-Tests in measuring reduced redundancy.

In contrast to the standard C-Tests, CIC-Test and CDC-Tests, not only the S-Test but also the TOEFL and LKT loaded the highest on the *second* rotated factor. Since S-Test had its highest loading on this factor as did the written expressions and reading comprehension subtest of the TOEFL and the LKT, it represented schema theory of language proficiency. Although among the three proficiency tests the TOEFL had the highest loading on the second factor, it did not represent schema theory because its structure and sentential vocabulary subtests loaded on the third factor which represents the componential theory of language proficiency. Future research must, however, show whether the same three factors will be extracted if more representative measures of reduced redundancy, schema and componential theories of language testing are administered, tailored and analysed factorially.

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Should Grammar be Taught?

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***Abstract*—With the communicative methodology favored in the language teaching beginning in the late 1970s, the helpfulness of formal instruction to grammar teaching in the second or foreign language has been questioned. For instance, in China, many language experts advocate that grammar teaching should be excluded for the purpose of pursuing language learners' communicative competence. Others, however, suspect this statement and demonstrate the opposite point of view. Thus, it is necessary to pay special attention to and show the debated issue related to the explicit grammar teaching through focusing on forms and the implicit teaching through communicative focus. The illustrated discussions related to these issues about the language accuracy and language proficiency will be concerned to that extent.**

***Index Terms*—grammar, communicative competence, second language teaching, foreign language teaching**

I. Introduction

In the last couple of decades, developing foreign language learners' language proficiency and communicative competence has been demonstrated so that language teaching focuses on enhancing learners' speaking skills as well as communication skills. For instance, skill-based approaches to language teaching have also been highlighted in a sense. Thus, these assumptions have evoked communicative approach through communicative language teaching at the dominated area in the foreign language teaching since it helps language teachers make sense of the innovative techniques and appropriate materials for developing learners' communication skill. Nevertheless, in the late 1970s, with the communicative methodology favoring in the language teaching, the helpfulness of formal instruction to grammar teaching in the second or foreign language has been questioned.

Thus, this paper briefly reviews the concept of grammar and the major issues related to the communicative approach to grammar teaching. And then, the answer to the issued topic about whether grammar teaching can be approached in the communicative way will be directly illustrated. To this end, this paper will examine the implications for grammar teaching through the communicative approach based on the researched suggestion mentioned in the literature review. In brief, it will lie in the view that grammar can be taught through the communicative approach by integrating it with communicative activities depending on the teachers' teaching beliefs.

II. Literature Review

A. What is Grammar?

"What is grammar?" is issued by so many linguistics and foreign language learners. This question can be answered by starting with Ur's elaboration for the basic concept of grammar in 1988. She states that "grammar may be roughly defined as the way a language manipulates and combines words (or bits of words) in order to form longer units of meaning" (p.4). Clearly, it indicates how the acceptable meaning will be developed by the existing grammatical rules. Also, "syntax and morphology" are considered as the "two fundamental ingredients" in Grammar (Batstone, 1994, p.4). These two ingredients can be combined together as they determine how words can be organized to form a sentence in a grammatical way (ibid). Furthermore, Batstone (1994) also emphasizes that the two factors will help learners acknowledge the grammatical forms properly so that they are able to express their meaning in an accurate way. Hence, this perception reveals the fact that language structure is governed by the regular language forms, providing language learners with the instruction to identify how grammatical structure will be formed.

A similar understanding is put forward by Swan (2005). He points out that most dictionaries often present the definition of grammar as "the rules for combining words into sentences" (p.60). Moreover, he argues this statement is incomplete as it does not explicitly explain the functions of the rules in the sentence and the reasons for people to use the rule in the language. According to his argument, this definition will affect language learners' understanding on the natural grammar learning process as they might not have a good sense of what accurate grammar is. Therefore, he ascertains that "grammar is essentially a limited set of devices for expressing a few kinds of necessary meaning that can not be conveyed by referential vocabulary alone" (Swan, 2005, p.61). Accordingly, it implies the meaning of sentences is realized by the existing rules of grammar rather than mere interpretations of single words in the sentences.

Additionally, Roberts (1998) exerts the emphasis on the specific scope of grammar in the foreign language learning.

Traditional grammar has rarely, if ever, served as an object of study for its sake; rather, it has been used as tool intended to facilitate practical but accurate mastery of the mother tongue and of foreign language (p. 146).

It underlies the fact that the grammar plays the essential role in the language learning process, not only in the native language learning but also in the foreign language learning. Grammar learning will help language learners have a better understanding in the knowledge of language and then applying the language structure accurately in their language use. Thus, in a sense, the perceptions toward grammar can be described as an effective way through which learners can deepen their understanding of language. Also, they will know how to put words in a grammatically correct way. Thereby, a logical sentence with accurate linguistic rules will be generated and the acceptable meaning can be expressed ultimately. Hence, it can be concluded that grammar can be seen as the indispensable element in the language learning.

B. Issues in the Grammar Teaching in the Foreign Language Context

1. Grammar acquisition and noticing

As the Universal Grammar theory raised by Chomsky suggests, "learners are learning aspects of grammar that we are not teaching them", in addition, "learners have unconscious knowledge of grammar systems which we, as teachers, are often unaware of" (Shortall, 1996, p.38). Clearly, this hypothesis shows that learners' insight to acquire grammar through understanding the scope of language forms in an unconscious way rather than explicit learning process.

The similar belief has also been discussed by Richards (2002). He says some researchers claim that language learners have the 'innate ability' to understand the framework of 'grammatical variables', such as the grammatical structure, the tense, the gender, etc (p.42). However, based on these statements, he then attempts to show his own opposite attitude and states his own beliefs about grammar. It can be reported that language learners might have better understanding of the foreign language structure when they are taught with grammatical forms in an explicit way (ibid). Also, language learners have to be instructed for mastering the knowledge of grammatical structure when they attempt to acquire the formal foreign language (ibid).

It is worth noting there are four stages of grammar acquisition mentioned by Richards (2002), i.e "noticing, discovering rules, accommodation and restructuring, experimentation" (p.42-43). His perception is inspired by SLA researchers' declarations (e.g. Schmidt, 1990; DeKeyser, 1998; VanPatten, 1993; Skehan, 1996; Tarone & Liu, 1995 cited in Richards, 2002, p.42-43). These processes about the grammar acquisition shows that how learners acquire the grammar in the foreign language context. All these assumption indicate that language input and output should be involved to facilitate the grammar acquisition process (Richards, 2002). It assumes that the whole grammar acquisition process will help language learners develop their 'interlanguage' system in some way (Richards, 2002, p.42). Hence, under this ground it can be hypothesized that learners' interlanguage development will be facilitated by the receptive and productive approach, providing that grammatical rules will be instructed for them to apply it in their expression of meaning in appropriate way.

According to the acquisition process, Schmidt and Frota (1986 cited in Richards, 2002, p.42) point out learners can produce new forms that they have previously noticed in the language used by people talking to them. It indicates that language learners will identify the language forms instructed by people who make them notice the grammar in the language. However, Richards (2002) states that learners' acquisition of grammar can not only be approached in a conscious way. He, for instance, argues that it can also be processed by instructing language learners to discover the grammatical rules unconsciously. Therefore, in light of the grammar acquisition process, the major issue in grammar study is oriented on the debate about explicit or implicit grammar teaching. In other words, how grammar can be taught is one of the focuses in grammar research.

2. Explicit grammar teaching

With the formal instruction to language teaching highlighted by Ellis (1994), the distinction of explicit and implicit instruction to grammar teaching can be identified. It claims that language learners will be exposed to the implicit instruction in which learners are provided with the chances to induce the language forms from the certain example in the context (Ellis, 1994). In addition to the explicit instruction, learners will be provided with specific grammatical rules and then practice how to use it in some way (ibid). Similarly, the issues about whether grammar should be taught inductively and deductively are also related to Ellis's focus (Roberts, 1998).

According to these debated issues, a number of studies have been conducted to seek out which approach to grammar teaching is the most effective one. However, most comparative studies related to these issues in the 1960s and 1970s did not show considerable differences between the success of explicit and implicit approach to grammar teaching (Ellis, 1994). It is worth mentioning that one exception of the findings done by Von Elek and Oskarsson (1975) (ibid). They found that many explicit methods were better than implicit methods, but the study only showed the benefit of explicit methods was only for adults and very intelligent teenagers (ibid).

In addition, Seliger (1975) found that adult ESL learners who studied in the United States have deepened their knowledge of rules when they are involved in the explicit grammar instruction (ibid). Furthermore, some empirical studies provide the evidence to support the effects of grammatical instructions with specific target language forms (e.g. Cadierno, 1995; Doughty, 1991; Lightbown & Spada, 1990). These studies indicate that grammatical instruction will promote foreign language learners' achievements in accuracy. According to these empirical studies, hence, it shows the explicit grammar teaching would play an importance role in the foreign language classroom.

Considering the above issues, it is necessary to illustrate the supporting ideas about the implicit instruction. The assumptions are inspired by Chomskyan "internalize grammar", which advocates children can acquire grammar naturally with "random exposure" to the target environment, in some sense, like their acquisition process of mother

tongue (Krashen and Terrel 1988 cited in Roberts, 1998, p.147-149). Thus, it indicates that grammar teaching can be processed in an inductive way. Additionally, some researchers argued that grammar translation method through explicit instruction would not provide learners' opportunities to be exposed to the target language in the traditional classroom (Roberts, 1998). However, inspired from Newmark and Reibel (1969), Roberts (1998) demonstrates his opposite view about the implicit grammar teaching. He says these two researchers have put their own theory about deductive grammar teaching into practices through a 'minimal language-teaching programme' (p.149). The eventual finding places the plain view that grammar can be taught and learnt in a deductive way (Roberts, 1998). Language learners will have the conscious awareness of language forms and understand the relationship between the various grammatical structures (ibid).

To that extent, R. Ellis (1994) notes N. Ellis's finding (1991) and presents clear elaboration of these two instructions. He concludes that being taught explicitly, language learners can have better understanding of the scope of grammar rules, but unfortunately, they can not use the grammatical rules more accurately when they are allowed to identify the language forms. Yet, through implicit instruction, it reflects the risk that language learners are unsure about the certain rules in the language. Therefore, based on the mentioned constraints, we may not recently draw the conclusion about the supportive view on the explicit grammar teaching or implicit grammar teaching.

C. Discussions in Communicative Approach to Grammar Teaching in the Foreign Language Context

In the previous section, it takes the overview that formal grammar teaching seems to be an effective approach to help language learners develop their explicit knowledge of grammatical rules. However, there are still some controversies over the important role of explicit grammar teaching. Regarding the pedagogical purpose of foreign language teaching with the emphasis on the language use, Roberts (1998, p.150) noted Prabhu's view as 'teaching formal grammar or teaching grammar formally is neither necessary nor useful'. Other researchers (e.g. Cook, 1991; Dulay, et al, 1982; Schwartz, 1993) also argue that formal instruction does not play the indispensable role in the grammar teaching, which can be founded in Nassaji and Fotos (2004).

Additionally, Krashen (1993) argues that the grammar learning through the focus on explicit language forms can not develop language learners' competence in the manipulation of language. On the similar ground, Truscott (1998) also argues explicit grammar instruction only focuses on instructing the language rules so that learners' "genuine knowledge of language" may not be developed (p.120). For instance, he also claims that this kind of teaching method can not develop language learners' ability in dealing with the spontaneous communication in the certain context (ibid). Significantly, Lightbown and Spada (2006) illustrate that traditional grammar teaching through focusing on language forms fails to develop language learners' ability in using foreign language accurately and fluently.

All these studies show the arguments on the important values of traditional grammar teaching in an explicit way. Considering from this angle, while, researchers (e.g. Krashen, 1999; Truscott; 1998; Nassaji & Fotos, 2004) suggest that grammar teaching should be focused on the "form-based instruction" by presenting grammatical forms unconsciously, in which learners' skills in the mastery of foreign language will be promoted by grammar drills and practice. They also state language learners' needs for communicative purposes should be addressed through this kind of teaching method. In addition, inspired by Cook's (1991, p.28-29) discussion about the teaching learners formal grammar, 'input materials' and 'consciousness raising' activities should be taken into account in a direct way, in which learners will not only be instructed to focus on the form but also focus on the language content. Thus, on the basis of these assumptions, it leads to the reconsideration of the grammar teaching in the L2 classroom and rests in the fact that communicative approach involved with materials or certain activities to grammar teaching have been indirectly initiated.

In fact, over the centuries, second language educators have put forward the alternated teaching approaches to foreign language teaching. These approaches should emphasis on instructing language learners to analyze the element in the language and then have them acknowledge the knowledge of language by using it effectively. However, an anti-traditional approach to grammar teaching has been initiated. As Larsen-Freeman (1991, p.279) mentioned Widdowson's (1978) advocate, there is 'the rise in the popularity of more communicative approaches which emphasize language use over rules of language usage', but "loss of the popularity of the Chomsky-inspired cognitive code approach" which focuses on instructing language learners to have the language practice in "analyzing structures and applying rules".

Considering the basis of these assumptions, thus, communicative language teaching and communicative approach play dominated roles in stimulating foreign language learners' needs for communication (Larsen-Freeman, 1991). Also, Thompson (1996) points out foreign language learners who are involved in the communicative context will discover the grammar in the new language and understand its functions. Through the communicative language teaching, learners will be trained to talk about the aspects they have learned rather than merely notice it from teachers (Thompson, 1996). Therefore, the communicative language teaching occurred around 30 years until recent time, on the grounds that teaching grammar does not only have language learners' focus on acquiring the language forms, but also have them know how to apply it in their communication.

The declarations in communicative language teaching illustrate that this kind of new approach will enhance foreign language learners' competence in using the target language they have acquired effectively. However, learners' accurate mastery of foreign language has also been questioned by second language researchers. Accordingly, Ellis (1994) ascertains that language learners may not obtain the specific types of target language knowledge and skills (e.g.

speaking, writing) through communicative approach to grammar teaching. Also, Munby (1978) and Odlin (1994) concluded other researchers' discussions and point out the negative side of communicative language teaching as it often neglects the emphasis on the relevance and meaningfulness in the grammar structures. It can be seen that the values of communicative approach to grammar teaching have been identified, but the constraint in that area has also been overviewed in some sense.

D. Researched Suggestions for Communicative Approach to Grammar Teaching in the Foreign Language Context

The illustrated points on whether language forms and accuracy or meaning and fluency are concerned in the communicative approach to grammar teaching. In light of the goals of second language teaching, it aims to enable learners to use language for communicative purpose and develop language learners' communicative competence. Yet, it seems to be challenging for language teachers who are working in the foreign language context.

In countries like China, for example, the classroom size is so large, roughly ranged in 30-40 students, which it is impossible to provide each student a chance to perform communicatively in the target language classroom. That is to say, students have few opportunities to perform communicative activities and experience form-focused grammar teaching. Through reconsideration of education policy by Chinese Education Ministry, curriculum of English as a foreign language for the school has been changed from a traditional grammar focus to communication focus in 2002. Thus, teachers have changed their attitude from teach grammar on language forms to communicative purpose.

The evidence for these assumptions can be supported by the studies about the communicative language teaching done by Jin (2007), Liu and Shi (2007) in China. However, these studies reveal the facts that grammar teaching for communicative approach does not help to develop language learners' competence in acquiring grammar. In some other Asia countries, such as Japan, the studies done by (Browne & Wada, 1998; O'Donnell, 2005; Sakui, 2004 cited in Mochizuki, 2008, p.12) also show that communicative teaching does not have the actual benefits in the development of foreign language learners' grammar learning. Therefore, it seems that grammar teaching through communicative approach has been done unsuccessfully in the foreign language context, such as China and Japan.

However, regardless certain contexts, there are still some suggestions for applying communicative approach provided by many linguists to balance the grammar and communication. For example, Seedhouse (1997) suggests that combing form and meaning together through communicative approach would develop language learners' communicative competence and deepen their knowledge of foreign language. For instance, many researchers claim that integrating grammar and communication together would develop language learners' awareness of communication (e.g. Doughty & Varela, 1998; R. Ellis 1994, 2002a, 2002b, 2003; Robinson, 2001 cited in Nassaji & Fotos, 2004, p.131). Ellis (1994, p.639) put forward two possible approaches to deal with pedagogical purpose, firstly, communicative activities should be selected specifically, aiming at drawing foreign language learners' attention from language form to the formal grammatical structure; secondly, teachers should be aware of providing learners' with 'reactive feedback' simultaneously in order to deal with their errors which would occur during the communicative performance.

Additionally, as Widdowson's (1990, p.173) extra elaboration about the communicative activities suggested, 'linguistic repetition with its necessary focus on form, and non-linguistic purpose, with its necessary focus on meaning'. Also, the communicative approach through focus on form can also be achieved by designing the specific activities with the explicit concern on language forms (Nassaji & Fotos, 2004). These assumptions indicate that communicative approach to grammar teaching would provide the learners with a range of opportunities to focus on the accurate grammatical forms and transfer the acceptable meaning in the communication activities. Then, it also suggests that teachers should become aware of conducting appropriate ways to integrate grammar instruction with communicative input and output.

Though the communicative approach to grammar teaching with form focus has involved with some constraints to some extent, current researchers clearly have put forward constructive suggestions to deal with that problematic issues, i.e. appropriate communicative activities, teachers' reactive feedbacks, teachers' roles in the grammar teaching and so forth.

III. Implications for Communicative Approach to Grammar Teaching in the Foreign Language Context

A. Adjusting Teachers' Roles in the Grammar Teaching

According to the overview of the communicative approach to grammar teaching, it can be seen that both supportive and opposite views have been examined. Combining the communication with grammar focus seems to be challenging for many foreign teachers in the foreign language context (e.g. China, Japan). In light of the researched questions about the communicative approach to grammar teaching, the suggestions for integrating grammar with communicative activities to deal with the constraints existing in the communicative approach has been put forward by many researchers (e.g. Ellis, 1994; Nassaji & Fotos, 2004; Widdowson, 1990). Accordingly, it indicates that teacher should hold their own beliefs about grammar teaching through communicative approach.

Based on the considerations for communicative approach to grammar teaching raised in the literature review, thus, I can hypothesize some sort of principles to guide teachers who are working in the foreign language context to process the teaching of grammar in the communicative way. Additionally, it is worth to mention that some perceptions of the grammar teaching method are also inspired by Larsen-Freeman's recommendation in 2003.

1. Grammar teaching should be planned systematically on the grounds of learners' language level and individual differences in the specific context.

2. Grammar teaching should focus on the development of learners' ability to perform target language fluently and accurately.

3. Grammar teaching in the foreign language classroom should demand teachers' 'code switching' techniques and 'mother tongue use' considering the particular learners who are at the beginning level (e.g. Larsen-Freeman, 2003).

4. Grammar teaching can be involved with task-based and problem-solving activities, aiming at developing learners' articulated mastery of knowledge about grammar and accurate practice in the communication (e.g. Larsen-Freeman, 2003).

5. Grammar teaching should be advanced by teachers' feedback for learners' errors in the communication so that it will develop learners' ability at active mastery of grammar (e.g. Ellis, 1994).

6. Grammar teaching can also be processed by the meaning-based activities and tasks, in which learners will be provided with the immediate opportunities to apply grammatical forms in the communication activities (e.g. Larsen-Freeman, 2003).

7. Grammar teaching should be approached by providing learners with some examples of grammatical structures when teacher conduct the communicative information, aiming to make them notice the relationship of forms and meaning in the foreign language (e.g. Larsen-Freeman, 2003).

8. Grammar teaching can also be approached by switching the explicit instruction and implicit instruction effectively in the communicative practice.

9. Grammar teaching through communicative approach with communicative activities can also be done by implementing collaborative work (e.g. group work, pair works), in which learners will notice grammatical rules with the help of their counterparts.

10. Grammar teaching should take language learners' needs and interests as well.

Given by the principles mentioned above, learners' implicit and explicit foreign language knowledge will both be developed through teachers' significant roles in constructing the considerations of foreign language teaching as well as grammar teaching. Thus, the next section will specifically concern on incorporating communicative tasks and activities to process communicative approach.

B. Incorporating Communicative Activities in the Foreign Language Context

Integrating grammar teaching with communication might seem to be teachers' pedagogical perspective based on the literature discussion mentioned above. It rests in the view that teachers should be aware of the particular field of grammar pedagogy as students will be developed by applying grammar accurately in the communication. On the other hand, they also will be trained as the proficient foreign language speaker. Therefore, for the pedagogical purpose, teachers should bear in mind that selecting grammar rules to suite students' communicative needs should take the linguistic function into account. Accordingly, it reveals that how communicative activities should be implemented appropriately in the foreign language context. Thus, the perspective of incorporating communicative activities can be examined in the following part.

Activity 1

Accordingly, communicative activities related to grammar teaching have been suggested by Ellis in 1994. It can be assumed that this activity can be done by implementing games related to problem-solving activities and grammar drills (e.g. Larsen-Freeman, 2003) in a foreign language classroom. It can also be processed by pair works or group work, in which learners will learn to notice others' acknowledgement of grammar. Using games in a communicative classroom can be considered to be feasible for foreign language teachers. Processing activities with games will expose foreign language learners to a relaxed foreign language classroom environment. Thus, games can also be applied in the grammar teaching through communicative approach. It is worth mentioning that the activity showed in Appendix 1 in which teacher can emphasize on the teaching of both forms and meaning when they teach 'perfect tense'. This would be the proper way to conduct foreign language learners to practice forms unconsciously in a communication way. In short, in designing communicative activities that provide adequate grammar knowledge, teachers should bear in mind that simply generating target language unconsciously is not enough, what is more important is making learners enjoy the activity at the same time.

Activity 2

Incorporating activities in the communicative context plays a substantial role in foreign language teaching as it can make students be aware of both the meaning and the form of the target language (e.g. Nassaji & Fotos, 2004; Thompson, 1991). The meaning and forms will be informed by the authentic contexts with the materials. Thereby, not only can learners identify what the speakers' roles are but also infer the time and the place of communication. Then, it makes it possible for the teacher to teacher more advanced grammar knowledge, such as relative clauses. The example showed in appendix 2 is designed to help learners induce grammar rules based on the interactive conversation which happened in a specific context. Through looking at this activity, it can be concluded that contextualized information helps learners build a sense of the relative clauses and become aware of its usage within the accurate grammatical forms. Additionally, this simplified material written for EFL learners aims to provide examples of the variety of linguistic functions in the grammar points, which will be of value in the communication. Thus, it benefits for making students identify that

meaning can be expressed in a particular way with the help of various grammar forms. With teachers' explanation of the grammatical features by L1 (Appendix 2, e.g. Chinese), for instance, learners' foreign language accuracy will also be achieved eventually.

In brief, communicative activities designed for grammar teaching in the communicative way should take the meaning and communication focus into account. It can be hypothesized that the tailored communicative activities will provide learners with external guidance to acknowledge how grammar forms are illustrated in the language and then know how to form grammatical sentence. To that extent, it will draw learners' attention from grammatical forms to target form, in which their performance will be accessed by the identification of foreign language forms. These illustrations show that foreign language learners' focus will be moved towards the use of particular linguistic features during the communicative performance.

IV. Conclusion

As the framework of literature review has suggested, the communicative approach to grammar teaching seems to be an effective teaching method as it will not only develop foreign language learners' competence in the mastery of target language but also improve their communicative competence. Though the constraints of this approach have been examined by the linguists, the suggested grammar instructions to balance the usage of grammatical forms and communication has been initiated. All these assumptions attempt to provide the basis for promoting language learners' high level of proficiency and accurate mastery of the knowledge of grammar. It shows the facts that the traditional grammar teaching approach which merely focuses on the grammatical features might be replaced by the form-based instruction through communicative approach by integrating numerous communicative activities.

Admittedly, in the communicative context, learners' awareness of the meaning-form relationships will be promoted through teachers' appropriate grammar teaching plans. Nevertheless, it also needs to mention that the process of the grammar acquisition will be affected by the language input and output. Thus, it should note that the accurate grammar forms and meaning might not be achieved instantaneously and spontaneously because of the constraints, but for instance, it will be naturally advanced in a proper setting time where learners will move toward the mastery of the knowledge of grammar.

Appendix 1: An Example of Broad Game

<table>
<tr><td>11. BONUS! Get an extra turn!</td><td>10. Go Back Three Squares!</td><td>9. The proposal of using E-mails for submitting homework (worry) many teachers</td><td>8. Everybody (get) used to using textbooks for teaching English, but not computer</td><td>7. one of my teacher (object) to this idea since it has been introduced</td></tr>
<tr><td>12. I (never think) of learning how to use computer but now I (forced) to</td><td colspan="3" rowspan="2">Practising Now!</td><td>6. My friend (develop) her computer skills so far</td></tr>
<tr><td>13. My grandmother (never know) about CD-ROM before</td><td>5. I (learn) how to use CD-ROM now</td></tr>
<tr><td>Finish!
Start here!!!</td><td>1. Teaching how to use computers (start) in the 1990s</td><td>2. Our school (buy) 50 computers last semester</td><td>3. The government (provide) founds to our school</td><td>4. I (have)computer session each week</td></tr>
</table>

(Partly taken from http://www.melta.org.my/ET/2005/A%20COMMUNICATIVE%20APPROACH%20TO%20TEACHING%20GRAMMAR.pdf)

Appendix 2: Transcript of the L2 Taped Stimulus Seeded with Seven Relative Clauses

Kanako, her brother Ken, and their mother are at a pet shop. They are going to buy a dog today. Now they are looking at many kinds of dogs. The mother says, 'I like the dog which has long ears.' 'Which one?' Ken asks. 'I want the dog which the little girl has in her arms,' the mother answers. Ken says, 'I like the dog which has long hair.' 'Which one?' the mother asks. 'I want the dog which many people are watching,' Ken answers. The mother and Ken ask Kanako, 'What do you think, Kanako?' Kanako says, 'I can't decide! The dog which has long ears looks friendly. The dog which has long hair is beautiful.' Then Kanako looks around and finds another dog and shouts, 'I want the dog which has long ears and long hair!'

Context 1 (OS): I like the dog which has long ears
Context 2 (OO): I want the dog which the little girl has in her arms
Context 3 (OS): I like the dog which has long hair
Context 4 (OO): I want the dog which many people are watching
Context 5 (SS): The dog which has long ears looks friendly

Context 6 (SS): The dog which has long hair is beautiful
Context 7 (OO): I want the dog which has long ears and long hair
(in Mochizuki, 2008: 35)

Pictures for speakers

(in Mochizuki, 2008: 35)

Tasks:
Filling out the accurate forms in the blank based on grammatical forms presented above.
1. The doll is cute
   The doll__has long hair is cute
2. I want that doll.
   I want that doll__has long hair
3. I like that doll
   I like that doll__my Jack made

Example: explanation about the relative clause in Chinese context
(http://www.333en.com/html/yyyf/czyyyf/20071031/675.html)
一、在定语从句中， which 用来指物，可作主语和宾语。如：
The factory which produces cars is over there.
生产汽车的那家工厂就在那边。

The factory which I visited last year is very famous.
我去年参观的那家工厂很有名。
注意：关系代词 that 也可以指物，但下列情况中只能用 which，而不能用 that.
1. 当关系代词前有介词时。如：
The company in which he works is big. (= The company which / that the works in is big.)
他工作的那家公司很大。
2. 当先行词中有 that 时。如：
That cake which Mother made is for my birthday.
妈妈做的那块蛋糕是为我过生日用的。
3. 引导非限制性定语从句时。如：
The result of the experiment was very good， which pleased us.
实验结果很好，这令我们十分高兴。
二、 which 引导非限制性定语从句时，可以用来代表主句所说的整个情况或主句的某一部分内容。如：
The little monkeys wanted to catch the moon in the well， which， however， was found impossible.
那些小猴子想在井中捞月，但这是不可能的。
(which 代表句中不定式短语 to catch the moon in the well)
He passed the exam， which surprised us a lot.
他通过了考试，这使我们十分惊奇。
注意： as 引导非限制性定语从句时，常与 which 互换，但也有用法上的差别。
1. as 引导的非限制性定语从句可以放在主句前，而 which 不能。如：
As is known to everyone， the moon travels round the earth.
众所周知，月亮绕着地球转。
2. 当关系代词作非谓语动词的主语时，只能用 which .如：
She left without a word， which made her boss very angry.
她一句话也没说就走了，这使她的老板很生气。
三、 which 的所有格有 of which 和 whose 两种形式，两者使用时也有差别。
1. of which 修饰的名词需带定冠词 the ； whose 修饰的名词不带定冠词 the .
2. of which 的位置较灵活，可放在被修饰名词的前面或后面； whose 只能放在被修饰名词的前面。
3. of which 只能指物； whose 可指物，也可指人。如：
The desk whose legs are broken is mine. (= The desk the legs of which are broken is mine.)
断了脚的那张桌子是我的。

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A Study of the English Translations of the Qur'anic Verb Phrase: The Derivatives of the Triliteral

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***Abstract*—The present study is concerned with throwing light on the accuracy of the English translations of the Arabic triliteral verb derivatives as found in Qur'ãnic ayahs. The triliteral can be affixated with one radical, two radicals or three radicals to obtain such derivatives that have senses distinct from the base forms. This holds true of the derivatives of the quadrilateral. It is hypothesized that the English translations of such ayahs seem mainly inaccurate to convey the same senses from the source text into the target text. To validate this, ayahs containing such derivatives have been randomly chosen, and their renderings have been assessed. It has been found out that the senses of the derivatives of the triliteral were, generally, imprecisely translated. Moreover, some verb derivatives are alternatively used to express the same senses.**

***Index Terms*—affixes, derivatives, infixated, quadrilateral and triliteral, verb phrase**

I. The Verb Phrase in Arabic

The verb phrase [1](VP) is basically simple i.e. it consists of one lexical verb (e.g. جاء الولد *ja?a alwaladu. The boy came*).However, verbs of beginning and of **to be** (e.g,شرع , shara'a,,كان kãna) can co-occur with other lexical verbs to form compound VPs (*e.g*[2] صبره ثمار يقطف بدأ *bada?a yaqṭifu thimãra ṣabbrih .He started to obtain the fruits of his patience*).(Khalil,1999,p.232-3). The treatments of verbs by traditional and modern Arab grammarians prove that verbs have received a variety of classifications such as weak vs strong, transitive vs intransitive, base vs derivative etc. The latter categorization is of immediate relevance to the present work because it is morpho-semantic in the sense that the affixes attached to verbs give rise to various meanings that are absent in the base verb forms. Al-Nãila (1988, p.97) states that in attaching the affixes to the base verb forms, two points should be borne in mind; first, when the verb undergoes the change, this will result in altering meaning. This meaning is distinct from that of the base before the attachment of the affixes. Second, affixation[3] takes place inconsistently i.e. one verb can be affixated with hamza(glottal stop) while another verb cannot. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no study has yet been conducted to investigate the accuracy of the translations of such senses from Qur'anic ayahs into English.

II. Classes of Verbs

As mentioned in (1. Above) verbs were classed from different angles. The presence or absence of vowels led Arab grammarians to draw a distinction between strong and weak verbs where the former consists of consonants only and the latter involves vowels and consonants as well (Nãsir, 1967, P.47).

As in any other language, Arabic exhibits the transitive-intransitive distinction of verbs which is drawn to indicate whether objects follow verbs or not (e.g.زيد وصل *waṣala Zayd; Zayd reached* vs الباب زيد فتح *fataḥa Zayd albãb; Zayd opened the door*).

In dealing with the base-derivative categorization of verbs, Arab morphologists approximately hold a unanimous agreement that the base is of two types: triliteral and quadriliteral. These two subtypes can be affixated (i.e. prefixated, infixated and suffixated) to produce a lot of derivatives. Ibin Jinny (d.392 h,1999:41), among others, (e.g. al-Ḥamlawy, 1957, P.29, 36; al-Ḥadiithy,2003,P.253…), confirms that verbs in Arabic are divided into base and derivatives. The former is called so because its radicals are basic constituents of its building where the omission of one of such radicals results in spoiling the form and meaning of such verbs (e.g. كَتَبَ.kataba, wrote; سلسل,salsala, sequenced[4]). The attachment of affixes to the base forms leads to the formation of derivatives that are distinct in form and meaning from the triliteral and quadriliteral[5].

[1] The verb phrase is used in the present study in the traditional sense not in the transformational sense.
[2] 2All the Arabic examples, apart from Quranic ayahs, were translated into English by the researcher.
[3] Affixation is an umbrella term used in morphology to refer to prefixation, infixation and suffixation
4 Unlike in English, the base verb forms in Arabic are listed in the perfect forms in Arabic dictionaries.
[5] The triliteral consists of three radicals whereas the quadriliteral is of four radicals as the deletion of any of these radicals makes the verb meaningless.

III. The Base Verb Forms

Apart from the diacritics that the morphological patterns can receive, the base verbs have two morphological patterns فَعَلَ fa'ala,and فَعْلَلَ ,fa'lala for the triliteral and quadriliteral, respectively. Primarily,the value of these two morphological patterns are twofold:(1) to distinguish which radicals are basic and which are affixes, and (2) to recognize the possible positions that affixes can occupy. For instance,نَصَرَ ,nasara, supported,جَلَسَ ,jalasa, sat down,لَعِبَ,la'iba, played, are all triliterals, but they can be affixated where new meanings are produced(see 1.2.1 below). This holds true of the quadriliterals as well; e.g. بَعْثَرَ, ba'thara, scattered,حَرْجَمَ, ħarjama,gathered etc.(Shl ãsh,1972,p.21-47; see also Shl ãsh etal, 1989,p.56).

The Derivatives of the Triliteral

As referred to in (1.1 above), the triliteral can be prefixated, infixated and suffixated to produce the derivatives of the triliteral. The radicals attached to the base are grouped in a meaningless word"سألتمونيها", sa?ltumunyh ã. In this regard, Ibin Jinny(d.392 h,2005,p.13)notices that:

وينبغي أن تعلم أن قولنا"الحروف الزائده"إنما نريد به أنها هي التي يجوز أن تُزاد في بعض المواضع, فيُقطع عليها بالزياده أذا قامت عليها الدّلاله.

Waiinbaghy an ta'lama inna ma'na qawlanã alħuroof alzã?da innama nuriidu bihi ?annaha hiia ?laty yajoozu ?an twzãd fii bađi almawãđ' fayuqț'u 'alayhã bialzzyãdah idã qãmat 'alayhã alddalãlah[6]

One should recognize that the introduction of affixes is intended here to refer to some possible positions that these affixes can occupy. This can be settled by evidence where the affixated radicals can be omitted, and the base remains able to stand alone with a full sense.

Al-N ãila (1988,p.98), among others, emphasizes that the triliteral can be affixated with one radical (e.g.دَرَّسَ, darrasa, taught; derived by gemination from دَرَسَ ,darasa,أخاف,?kh ãfa, made someone afraid, derived from خاف,khafa by the glottal stop affix, got afraid of)two radicals(e.g. أعْتَبَرَ,?'tabara, took a lesson from; derived from عَبَرَ, 'abara, passed,أندَرَسَ,?ndarasa, vanished away, derived from دَرَسَ,darasa, studied) or three radicals(أستأذَنَ,?st?đana, took a permission from, derived from أذِنَ ?đana, gave a permission to) (see also Sh ãhiin,1980,p.71-3).

In looking at the above examples, one can easily recognize how far the derivatives are largely different in form and meaning from the trilateral base (for more details see below).

1). The Triliteral affixated with one radical: Its senses

The triliteral which is affixated with one radical has three morphological patterns: أفعل *?f 'ala*, such as أكرم ?krama, granted, فَعَّلَ, fa"ala, such as قَدَّمَ, qaddama, introduced and فَاعَلَ, f ãala, such as قَاتَلَ,q ãtala, got involved in fighting. These morphological patterns have some senses to exhibit as morphologists differ in introducing such senses to the extent that some say that they (the senses) are ten in number or more. Nevertheless, the most common senses will be discussed here. The affixation of the triliteral with the glottal stop (أ hamza) is basically meant to change the base from intransitivity into transitivity('đaimah ,1955,p.100-101).

1.وَقفَ علي عند الباب

Waqafa Aliun 'nda alb ãbii. Ali stopped near the door.

2.أوقفتُ علياً عند الباب

?wqaftu Alian 'nda alb ãbii. I stopped Ali near the door

Discussing the morphological structures in Sibbawayh 's book "Al-Kit ãb", al-Ħadiithy(2003,p.262), as some think so, speaks of the opinion that the glottal stop affixated to the triliteral has many senses; the most common of which are(1)possession,(2)exposure,(3)removal,(4) over-exaggeration and abundance etc. The examples below will be given according to the senses mentioned.

3.أتمَرَ الرَجلُ *?tmara alrajulu.*

The man had dates.

4.أقتَلَ سائقُ السيارةُ الرجُلَ بسرعته اللامعقوله

?qtala s ã?qu alsay ãrata alrajula bisir'atihii allama'qulah.

The car driver, due to his unreasonable speed, exposed the man to death.

5.أقذيتُ عين ولدي *aqżayitu 'aynu walady.*

I removed dust from my son's eye.

6.أشجَرَ البُستانُ *?shjara albust ãn.*

The orchard became greatly full of trees.

(See also Al-N ãila, 1988, p.99; al-Ħamlawy, 1957,P.39-40)

With regard to the morphological pattern فَعَّلَ *fa' 'ala*, it indicates that the trilateral is made a derivative by geminating the second radical. Sibbawayh[7] (d.180h.1982, p.63-64), as other morphologists do, (e.g.'đaimah (1955, p.107), holds the thesis that this derivative is used for indicating the high frequency of doing an action repeatedly e.g.

7.وَقَّرتُ أخي ألاكبر *waqqartu ?khya al-ãkbar.*

I over-dignified my eldest son many times.

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[6] Key of Transliteration Symbols of Arabic Letters(AlKhudary, 2004:13)

a :أ b:ب t:ت th:ث j:ج ħ:ح kh:خ d:د ż:ذ r:ر z:ز s:س sh:ش ş:ص dh:ض ț:ط đ:ظ 6:ع gh:غ f: ف q:ق k:ك l:ل m: م n: ن h: ه w: و y: ي

[7] It is a tradition in Arabic linguistics that the death dates of ancient Arab traditional grammarians are mentioned next to their names because such death dates enable readers (1) to know the school of grammar the scholar belongs to and (2) to familiarize them with the general trends of the school on the scholar's day.

The same morphological pattern can convey the sense of transference from one state to another.

8. عَجَّزَت زوجتي مبكراً *'ajjazat zawjaty mubakiran.*

My wife became old early.

In addition, that intransitive verbs could be changed into transitive ones is possible to carry out by the use of the same morphological pattern.eg

9. فَرَّحَت وَلَدَها بشراء لعبةً لهُ *farraħat waladaha bishrã? lu'batan lahu.*

She delighted her son by buying him a toy.

The morphological pattern فاعَلَ , f ãala conveys a variety of senses due to the infixation of the trilateral base. In this line, Sibbawayh (d.180h.1982,P.68) speaks of its main sense as follows:

"أعلم أنَّك أذا قلت :فاعَلتُه فقد كان من غيرك اليك مثلُ ماكان منك إليه "

? 'lam ?nnaka ?ž ãqulta fa'altuh, faqad ;kãna min ghayruka ?layka mithlu mãkãna minka ?layh

In uttering the morphological pattern f ãala, one should recognize that the speaker receives from the other party the same type of activity that the speaker does to the other party.

This signifies that the two parties are involved in doing an action to the same extent that they participate in fulfilling it. e.g.

10. شارك الطلاب في بناء قاعة الدرس *shãraka alţilãbu fii binã? Qã' ati ãldaris.*

Students took part in building the study room.

11. تَقاتَلَ الجنديان بشدةٍ *taqãtala aljundiyãnu bishdatin*

The two soldiers got involved in fighting each other fiercely.

Shl ãsh(1971,p.324-6) introduces an exhaustive treatment of the senses of such a derivative in that he lists eighteen senses. However, some of them are farfetched. For instance, he (ibid) says that the sense of having someone fallen into a trap is quite possible to express by such a derivative.

11. خازى سعدٌ غريمهِ *khãzãSa 'dun gharymihi.*

Saad has his opponent fallen in disgrace.

2). The Triliteral affixated with two radicals: Its senses

The present derivative has five morphological patterns: أنفَعَلَ ?nfa'ala(e.g.أنكَسَرَ ?nkasara; became broken) ,أفتَعَلَ ?fta'ala(e.g. أقتَتَلَ ?qtatala; got involved in fighting), تَفاعَلَ, taf ãala(e.g.تَغافَلَ,taghafala; pretended to ignore) تفعّلً tafa'alla(e.g. تَشَجَعً,tashajja 'a; faked to be brave) and أفعَلَّ ?f 'alla(e.g أحمَرَّ?ħmarra; became very red) (al-Ħadiithy,2003,p.264-267).

In introducing its main senes, Ibin Jinny(d.392 h,1999,p.95-96) proves that the first morphological pattern أنفَعَلَ ?nfa'ala signifies that the verb is always intransitive. The main, if not the only, sense that the derivatives coined on the basis of this pattern is to show that something or someone is influenced by an order or some force.

12. أنقَطَعَ الحَبلُ بصعوبةٍ *?nkaţa 'a alħablu biş 'wbatin*

The rope became cut with difficulty.

The above example indicates that someone cut the rope since the rope is unable to cut itself.

Sibbawayh(d.180h.1982,p.74) refers to the point that the morphological pattern أفتَعَلَ ?fta'ala has two basic meanings to convey: undertaking and assiduity.

13. أختَدَمَ مُحَمَدٌ صَديقَهِ *?khtadama Muhammedun Şadiiqihy.*

Mohmmed took his friend as a servant. (Undertaking)

14. أجتَهَدَ الباحثُ في طلب العلم *?jtahada albãħithu fii ţalabi al'ilmi.*

The researcher worked hard to gain knowledge.

Al-N ãila (1988, p.105) declares that the morphological pattern أفعَلَّ ?f 'alla denotes high density of colour, chronic bodily defects and exaggeration .e.g.

15. أحمرً لونُه *?ħmarra lawnuhi*(colour density)

His face- colour turned very red.

16. أسوَدَّ الليلُ *?swadda ãlaylu*

Night became very deeply dark.(exaggeration)

17. أحوَلَّ الفَتى منذ طُفولتِه *?ħwalla alfatã munž ţifulatihi*

The young boy became cross-eyed since his childhood.

'ðaimah (1955,p.113) explains that the morphological pattern تَفاعَلَ , taf ãala is either transitive or intransitive. The transitive has two main senses: the involvement of the subject and of the object (provided that they are human) in carrying out an action, and to show some sort of pretence.eg

18. تَناقَشَ الوزيرُ مع مستشاريه *tanãqasha alwaziir ma 'a mustashãryh.*

The minister got involved in discussion with his advisers.

19. تَمارَضَ الطفلُ *tamãradha alţiflu*

The child pretended to be sick.

Shl ãsh etal(1989,p.96) maintain that the morphological pattern تفعّلً *tafa'alla* is used for showing the following senses:(a) to oblige oneself to do an action that involves hardship and agony,(b) undertaking, and (c) gradual doing of an action.eg

20. تَصَبرً الرجلُ *taşabarra alrajulu.*

The man faked to be patient.

21.تَوَسَدَّ عمرُ يده *tawasadda 'Amru yadahu*

Amru took his hand as a pillow.

22.تَجَرَعَّ الماءَ *taja'a''a alma?a*

He gradually drank water dose by dose.

Al-Ħadiithy (2003, p.266) made a survey of senses of the present derivative as she mentioned that it can express the sense of making sure of something.e.g.

23.تَيَقَّنَّا من برائتِه tyaqann ãmin bara?tihi

We made sure of his innocence.

3). The Triliteral affixated with three radicals: Its senses

There are four morphological patterns of the triliteral when affixated with three radicals:أستَفعَلَ *?stf 'ala*(eg أستَطعَمَ *?staṭ 'ama*; asked someone for food),أفعوَعَلَ*?f 'aw'ala*(eg أخشَوشَنَ*?kh shawshana*; became taugher), إفعَوَّلَ *?if 'awwala*(eg إعلوَّط*,?'lawwaṭa*; rode a saddless horse),and افعالَّ, ?f ' ãlla(eg إحمارَّ, ?iħmãrra; turned too red). The first morphological pattern of the present derivative is more recurrent than other patterns. Therefore, it is the only pattern whose senses will be highlighted here.

Sibbawayh (d.180h.1982, p.70-71) holds the view that this derivative is usually basically used for asking something from someone .e.g.

24.إستَسمحتُهُ عما بدر مني *?istasmaħtahu 'ama badara miny*

I asked him to forgive me of what I did.

Ibin Jinny(d.392 h,1999,p.100) indicates the fact that such a derivative can be transitive or intransitive.eg

25.لايستأخرون ابداً *la yast?khirwna ?badan*

They did not utterly get late.

Moreover, he (p.101) says that one of its senses is to show change from one state to another.eg

26.أستَحالَ الثلجُ ماءً ?staħãla althalju m ãʔan

Ice turned into water.

'ɖaimah (1955,p.124) indicates that the morphological pattern in question can express the sense of discovering something or someone in its/his real essence.

27.أستكرمته *?stakramtahu*

I found him generous.

IV. Translations of the Triliteral's Derivatives as Found in Qurãnic Ayahs

The present section is devoted to the discussion and assessment of the translations of ayahs containing the derivatives introduced above. Instances of Qur'ãnic ayahs will be cited according to the senses of each derivative. The derivatives concerned will be underlined throughout all ayahs quoted, and item-analysis is followed in discussing ayahs linguistically and assessing the renditions one by one.

It is thought that the number of ayahs seems enough to pass judgments over whether the renditions are accurate or not. Alternative translations will be suggested to those ayahs that are inadequately rendered.

To serve this purpose, four published translations of the Qur ãn will be consulted, rendered by:

1. Ali, A. Y (1934)
2. Al-Hilali, M. and Khan, M. M. (1996)
3. Pickthall, M. M. (1930)
4. Shaker, M. H. (2003)

The above – mentioned translators' names are, respectively, abbreviated as follows: Ali, Hi. – Kh., Pick. and Sh.

A. Ayahs Containing Triliterals Affixated with One Radical

27."وَإِذْ نَجَّيْنَاكُم مِّنْ آلِ فِرْعَوْنَ يَسُومُونَكُمْ سُوءَ الْعَذَابِ **يُذَبِّحُونَ** أَبْنَاءكُمْ" Ibr ãhiim/6

W?ż najjaynãkum min ãl Fir'awn yaswumwnakum su? al-'ażãb yużabbiħuna ?bnã?kum

Ali (p.249) He delivered you from the people of Pharaoh: they set you hard tasks and punishments, slaughtered your sons.

Hi. – Kh(p.328) He delivered you from Fir'aun(Pharaoh) people who were afflicting you with horrible torment, and were slaughtering your sons.

Pick.(p.256)He delivered you from Pharaoh's folk who were afflicting you with dreadful torment, and were slaying your sons.

Sh.(p.306) He delivered you from Firon's people, who subjected you to severe torment and slew your sons.

The derivative verb يذ ّبحون *yużabbiħuna* is intended here to signify the sense of abundantly doing the act of slaughtering Jews' sons by Pharaoh's supporters. All the renditions above failed to convey the sense concerned. It is thought that the appropriate translation of this ayah is: He delivered you from Pharaoh's people who were afflicting you with horrible torment, and were abundantly slaughtering your sons.

28."قَالُوا **حَرِّقُوهُ** وَانصُرُوا آلِهَتَكُمْ" Al-Anbiy ã/68

Qãlw ħarriquhu w?nṣirw ãlihatukum

Ali (p.322) They said," Burn him and protect your gods"

Hi. – Kh(p.435) They said:" Burn him and help your ãliha(gods)"

Pick.(p.327) They cried: Burn and stand by your gods.

Sh.(p.386) They said: Burn him and help your gods.

All the translations were inaccurate to covey the exact sense of the geminated triliteral derivative due th the fact that the derivative is rendered "burn" where there is no indication to the sense of overdoing the act of burning. The ayah should be rendered as: They said" over-burn him and stand by your gods".

29."**وَقَطَّعْنَ** أَيْدِيَهُنَّ" فَلَمَّا رَأَيْنَهُ أَكْبَرْنَهُ " Y ûsuf/31

Falmma ra?ynahu waqṭṭa'na ?ydiyahunna

Ali (p.232)" When they saw him, they did extol him, and (in their amazement) cut their hands.

Hi. – Kh.(p.306) Then, when they saw him, they exalted him(at his beauty) and(in their astonishment) cut their hands.

Pick. (p.239)And when they saw him, they exalted him and cut their hands.

Sh. (p.288) So, when they saw him, they deemed him great, and cut their hands.

These three ayahs contain a derivative(**قَطَّعْ**) of the trilateral by means of gemination to reflect the sense of carrying out the act of cutting women's hands many times. Accordingly, the alternative translation is: Then, when they saw him, they exalted him (due to his handsomeness) and cut their hands many times.

30."وَقَاسَمَهُمَا إِنِّي لَكُمَا لَمِنَ النَّاصِحِينَ" Al-'r ãf/21

Waq ãsamahum ã ?nny lakum ã min al-nnaṣihyn

Ali (p.153) And he swore to them both that he was their sincere adviser.

Hi. – Kh.(p.202)And he[Shait ãn(Satan)] swore by All ãh to them both(saying):"Verily, I am one of the sincere well-wishers for you both.

Pick.(p.152) And he swore unto them(saying):Lo! I am a sincere adviser unto them.

Sh.(p.198) And he swore to them both: Most surely I am a sincere adviser to you.

The derivative in the above Qur'ãnic ayah"قَاسَمَ" is to signify the sense of participation in fulfilling an action. This means that Satan swore to Adam and Eve of his sincere advice; and they, in turn, did their best to make sure of his credibility. Due to their purity and innocence, Adam and Eve trusted the Satan as both expected that no creature, at their time, could dare to swear untruthfully (Mughnyyah, 1995:157).Therefore, both parties were involved in this action. As for the renditions, it seems that Hi. – Kh.'s translation is more accurate than others' in expressing the sense intended.

32."**تَنَاصَرُونَ** مَا لَكُمْ لَا " As-S ãff ãt/25

Mãlakum lãtanaṣaruwn

Ali (p.438)"What is the matter with you that ye help not each other?"

Hi. – Kh.(p.600) What is the matter with you? Why do you not help each other?"

Pick.(p.447) What aileth you that ye help not one another?

Sh.(P.515) What is the matter with you that you do not help each other.

Concerning the translations of the above ayah, all are accurate to convey the precise sense of it including the meaning of the derivative involved. This is due to the introduction of the pronoun "*one another or each other*" with the verb *help*. Semantically, this signals the sense of involvement in doing the act.

33."**بَاشِرُوهُنَّ** وَابْتَغُوا مَا كَتَبَ اللَّهُ " الآنَ Al-Baqarah /187

?l ãna b ãshruhinna wa?btaghw m ãkataba All ãh

Ali (p.30) so now associate with them, and seek what Allah hath ordained.

Hi. – Kh.(p.38)So now have sexual relations with them and seek that which All ãh has ordained for you.

Pick.(p.29)So hold intercourse with them and seek that which All ãh hath ordained for you.

Sh.(P.60) So now be in contact with them and seek what Allah has ordained for you.

All renditions above are imprecise owing to the absence of any lexical or grammatical indication that shows the sense of participation signified by the underlined derivative. Therefore, the following translation is thought more appropriate: So now get involved in sexual relations with them and seek what All ãh has ordained for you.

34."فَأَزَلَّهُمَا الشَّيْطَانُ عَنْهَا فَأَخْرَجَهُمَا مِمَّا كَانَا فِيهِ" Al-Baqarah /36

Fa?zalahum ã al-shshayṭãnu 'anhã fa?khrajahumã mimmã kãnã fyhi

Ali (p.6) Then did Satan make slip from the (Garden), and get them out of the state (of felicity) in which they had been.

Hi. – Kh.(p.9) Then the Shait ãn(Satan) made them slip therefrom (Paradise), and got them out from that in which they were.

Pick.(p.6)But Satan caused them to deflect therefrom and expelled them from the (happy) state in which they were.

Sh.(p.36) But the Shaitan made them both fall from it, and caused them to depart from that(state) in which they were.

The above ayah contains two derivatives which are underlined and they are transitive expressing the sense of removal (see1.2.1.1. above).Put differently, it means that the Satan removed the state of happiness from Adam and Eve and made them lose it.With regard to its renditions, the ayah is accurately translated by Ali since his lexical choices are more precise than others' in conveying the meaning concerned.

35."فَأَهْلَكْنَاهُم بِذُنُوبِهِمْ وَأَغْرَقْنَا آلَ فِرْعَونَ وَكُلٌّ كَانُوا ظَالِمِينَ" Al-Anf ãl/54

Fa?hlaknãhum biżunwbihim wa?ghraq ?la Fir'aun wakullun kãnw đãlimyn

Ali(p.182)so We destroyed them for their crimes, and We drowned the people of Pharaoh: for they were all oppressors and wrong-doers.

Hi. – Kh.(p. 239) so We destroyed them for their sins, and We drowned the people of Fir'aun(Pharaoh) for they were all Zãlimũn(polytheists and wrong-doers).

Pick.(p.184) so We destroyed them in their sins. And We drowned the folk of Pharaoh. All were evil-doers.

Sh.(p.233) therefore We destroyed them on the account of their faults and We drowned Firon's people, and they were all unjust.

The above ayah contains two derivatives which are underlined and they are transitive expressing the sense of exposure in that Pharaoh's followers were exposed to destruction and drowning due to their wrong deeds. The translation of the ayah by Hi. – Kh. is adequate enough to reflect the sense of the ayah including the two derivatives concerned.

B. Ayahs Containing Triliterals Affixated with Two Radicals

36."يَتَجَرَّعُهُ وَلاَ يَكَادُ يُسِيغُهُ وَيَأْتِيهِ الْمَوْتُ مِن كُلِّ مَكَانٍ" Abraham/17

Yatajarra'ahu walayakadu yastasyghahu way?tyhi almawtu min kulli makãn.

Ali(p.250) In gulps will he sip it, but never will he be near swallowing it down to his throat: death will come to him from every quarter.

Hi. – Kh.(p. 330) He will slip it unwillingly, and he will find a great difficulty to swallow it down his throat and death will come to him from every side.

Pick. (p.257) Which he sippeth but can hardly sallow, and death cometh unto him from every side.

Sh.(p.308)He will drink it little by little and will not be able to swallow it agreeably, and death will come to him from every quarter.

The above Qurãnic ayah contains the derivative"تَجَرَّعُ; tajarra'a: drank little by little with much difficulty" of whose senses is to show gradual doing of an action that involves hardship and agony. Sh.'s rendering is the most adequate one because it reveals how difficult and hard the act of drinking water little by little unwillingly.

37."فَانفَجَرَتْ مِنْهُ اثْنَتَا عَشْرَةَ عَيْناً قَدْ عَلِمَ كُلُّ أُنَاسٍ مَّشْرَبَهُمْ" Al-Baqarah /60

Fa?nfajarat minhu ?thnata 'asharata 'aynan qad 'alim kullu ?unãsin mmashrabuhim

38."إِذِ انبَعَثَ أَشْقَاهَا" Al-shams/12

?ż ?nba'atha ?shqãha

Ali (p.594) Behold, the wicked man among them deputed (for impiety).

Hi. – Kh.(p. 842) When the most wicked man among them went forth(to kill the she-camel).

Pick. (p.595)When the basest of them broke forth.

Sh.(694) when the most unfortunate of them broke forth with.

The derivative (أنبَعَثَ;?nba'atha)found in the above ayah is intended to express the sense of over-exaggeration in doing an act as the doer is motivated by some force or an order. The context of the ayah indicates that the most obstinate disbeliever (who saw tangible evidence i.e. the she-camel) of the people of the prophet, Salih, was motivated by his distrust of the prophet's message. The translations of the ayah were inaccurate due to the absence of lexically adequate equivalents to express the senses found in the original. As such, the ayah should be translated as follows: When the most wretched man among them went forth (to kill the she-camel).

39."وَإِذِ ابْتَلَى إِبْرَاهِيمَ رَبُّهُ بِكَلِمَاتٍ فَأَتَمَّهُنَّ" Al-Baqarah /124

wa?ż ?btalã ?Brahyma rabbuhu bikalimãtin

Ali(p.19)And remember that Abraham was tried by his Lord with certain commands, which he fulfilled.

Hi. – Kh. (p. 23) And remember when the Lord of Ibrãh îm(Abraham) (i.e,Allãh) tried him with (certain) commands, which he fulfilled.

Pick. (p.19)And (remember) when his Lord tried Abraham with (His) commands, and he fulfilled them.

Sh.(p.50) And when his Lord tried Ibrahim with certain words, he fulfilled.

The derivative ابْتَلَى *?btalã: tried* expresses the sense of undertaking (see1.2.1.2. above)i.e. the responsibility of fulfilling the Lord's commands. Regarding the renditions, it seems that Ali's translation is sounder to convey the senses present in the source text. This is attributed to the use of passive construction that shows the thematic focus intended.

40."إِنَّ الَّذِينَ قَالُوا رَبُّنَا اللَّهُ ثُمَّ اسْتَقَامُوا تَتَنَزَّلُ عَلَيْهِمُ الْمَلَائِكَةُ" Fuşilat/30

?nna all-żyna qãlw rabbunã Allãhu thumma ?staqãmu tatanazzalu 'alayhum al-mala?kat

Ali (p.471) In the case of those who say, "Our Lord is Allah", and further,

stand straight and steadfast, the angels descend on them(from time to time).

Hi. – Kh. (p. 648) Verily, those who say;"Our Lord is Allãh (Alone),"and then they stand firm, on them angels will descend (at the time of their death).

Pick. (p.480)Lo! Those who say: Our Lord is Allah, and afterward are upright, the angels descend upon them.

Sh.(p.552) As for those who say: Our Lord is Allah, then continue in the right way, the angels descend upon them.

The derivative in the above ayah is meant to show the gradual doing of an action. This is clearly seen in that the ayah indicates that angels' descending on the straight and steadfast people is from time to time. Ali's translation is more correct in referring to the gradual descending of angels on those believers (according to the Islamic commentaries).

41."وَابْيَضَّتْ عَيْنَاهُ مِنَ الْحُزْنِ فَهُوَ كَظِيمٌ " Yûsuf/84

Wa?byadhdhat 'aynãhu mina alĥuzni fahuwa kadhym

Ali (p.239) And his eyes became white with sorrow, he was suppressed with silent sorrow.

Hi. – Kh. (p. 314) And he lost his sight because of the sorrow that he was suppressing.

Pick. (p.245)And his eyes were whitened with the sorrow that he was suppressing.

Sh.(p.295) and his eyes became white on the account of the grief, and he was a suppressor(of the grief).

One of the senses of the derivative found in the Qur'ãnic ayah is to signify high density of colour and chronic bodily defects. The translations above lack the lexical item that indicates such a sense. Accordingly, the alternative translation is: and his eyes became highly whitened because of his grief that he was a suppressor of.

C. Ayahs Containing Triliterals Affixated with Three Radicals

42."وَيَا قَوْمِ اسْتَغْفِرُوا رَبَّكُمْ ثُمَّ تُوبُوا إِلَيْهُ " Hûd/52

Wayaqawm ?staghfiru rabbakum thuma twbu ?layhi

Ali (p.221)" And O my people! Ask forgiveness of your Lord, and turn to Him (in repentance).

Hi. – Kh. (p. 293)"And O my people! Ask forgiveness of your Lord and then repent to Him.

Pick. (p.227) And, O my people! Ask forgiveness of your Lord, then turn unto Him repentant.

Sh.(p.276) And, O my people! ask forgiveness of your Lord, then turn to Him.

Of the uses of this derivative is usually basically to ask something from someone. This holds true of example (43) .Three renderings of the ayah have remained imprecise due to either the absence of appropriate equivalents or the mischoice of structures. However, Hi. – Kh.'s translation is accurate in expressing the meaning of the ayah as a whole.

43."إِيَّاكَ نَعْبُدُ وإِيَّاكَ نَسْتَعِينُ" Al-Fatiĥah/5

?yyãka na'budu wa?yyãka nasta'yn

Ali(p.1)Thee do we worship, and Thine aid we seek.

Hi. – Kh. (p.1) You (Alone) we worship, and You (Alone) we ask for help (for each and everything).

Pick. (p.1)Thee (alone) we worship;Thee(alone) we ask for help.

Sh.(p.31)Thee do we serve and thee do we beseech for help.

Hi. – Kh.'s rendering is appropriate to highlight the sense of asking that the derivative exhibits.

44."وَالَّذِينَ كَذَّبُوا بِآيَاتِنَا سَنَسْتَدْرِجُهُم مِّنْ حَيْثُ لاَ يَعْلَمُونَ" Al-'rãf/182

Wallażyna każżabw bi?yãtina sanastadrijuhum mmin ĥaythu la'lamwn..

Ali(p.173) Those who reject Our signs, We will lead them step by step to ruin while they know not.

Hi. – Kh. (p. 227) Those who reject Our Ayãt(proof, evidences,verses, lessons, signs, revelations etc.), We shall gradually seize them with punishment in ways they perceive not.

Pick. (p.174)Those who deny Our revelations-step by step We lead them on from whence they know not.

Sh.(p.222) And(as to) those who reject our communications, we draw them near(destruction) by degrees from whence they know not.

The derivative in this ayah is used for showing gradual change from one state to another (see 1.2.1.3. above).This sense is not rendered accurately. It should have been translated as: As for those who did not believe Our revelations, We shall gradually lead them step by step from welfare to misery as they know not.

45."قَالَ ابْنَ أُمَّ إِنَّ الْقَوْمَ اسْتَضْعَفُونِي وَكَادُوا يَقْتُلُونَنِي " Al-'rãf/150

Qãla ?bin umm ?nna al-qawm ?stadh'afuny wakadu yaqtilwnany

Ali(p.169)To him Aaron said:"Son of my mother! The people did indeed reckon me as haughty, and went near slaying me!

Hi. – Kh. (p. 221) Aaron said:"O Son of my mother! Indeed the people judged me weak and were about to kill me.

Pick. (p.169)He said: Son of my mother! Lo! The folk did judge me weak and almost killed me.

Sh.(p.217) He said: Son of my mother! Surely the people reckoned me weak and had well-nigh slain me.

The verb derivative of this morphological pattern can express the sense of discovering something or someone in its/his real essence. This is what the verb derivative signifies here in that Moses' people found his brother Aaron weak when Moses went to receive the tablets of (al-Torah) the Old Testament from his Lord. It is Hi. – Kh.'s translation shows accuracy in conveying the sense of the ayah.

V. Conclusions

The theoretical discussion of the triliteral verb derivatives and assessment of the translations of the ayahs containing such derivatives have yielded some findings. First of all, Arab morphologists hold a high degree of unanimity as far as the senses that verb-derivatives express. It is possible for more than one morphological patterns (on the basis of which such derivatives are coined) to be used in conveying the same sense. Moreover, some derivatives are very rare to encounter in Qurãnic surahs.

As for translation assessment, generally, the translations of the ayahs containing the triliteral verb derivatives have been inadequate either due to the absence of appropriate grammatical structures or sound lexical choices. This is attributable to the fact that Qurãnic texts are pregnant with meanings to the extent that overtranslation becomes inescapable for translators to resort to in filling the syntactic and lexical gaps between both languages. In addition, some

verbs which are turned into derivatives by germination were not accurately rendered owing to the fact that germination in Arabic is functional but it is not so in English. However, this does not mean that such verbs are untranslatable. Finally, a separate study is worth conducting to investigate the translation accuracy of the quadriliteral derivatives in Qur ãnic surahs.

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The Formalization of English Structures with "on" and Their Chinese Translations*

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***Abstract*—One of the main problems that affect the quality of machine translation is how to express the knowledge of language in precision. Based on the theory of Semantic Element (SE) and Semantic Element Representations (SER) in Unified Linguistics, the classification of English structures with preposition "on" is proposed from the perspective of C-E and E-C translation. These English structures and their Chinese translations are further formalized into English and Chinese SER respectively.**

***Index Terms*—English preposition "on", Chinese translation, formalization, SE, SER**

I. Introduction

The history of machine translation is more than a half century long, but its quality is still poor and the machine translation systems still haven't reached the practical phase. The key lies in linguistics, that is, the knowledge of language cannot be expressed in precision, although many famous linguists have made many important achievements from different angles of study.

Prepositions are a class of active and commonly-used words in Chinese, which are seldom used alone, but with verbs, nouns and adjectives. Therefore we should set the study of prepositions into a dynamic context and analyze the relationships between prepositions and their collocated elements. Scholars at home or broad have studied on prepositions from various angles. In linguistics, prepositions have been studied in the aspects of syntax, pragmatics, cognition and second language teaching (Zhang, 2002; Yong, 2007; Cai, 1999). In MT field, prepositions have been studied in the aspects of PPA (prepositional phrase attachment) and WSD (word sense disambiguation) (Zhao, 2001; Feng, 2004; Guan, 2009).

In order to improve the quality of machine translation, we need to represent natural languages precisely. This paper offers an account of one problem of the precision of natural language: the formalization of English structures with preposition "on" and their Chinese translations. In section 2, we discuss the classification of English structures with preposition "on". Section 3 presents the formalization of English structures with preposition "on" and their Chinese translations based on the theory of SE and SER.

II. The Classification of English Structures with Preposition "on"

"COBUILD English-Chinese Dictionary" (Sinclair J., 2002), "Collins COBUILD Grammar Patterns 1: Verbs" (Sinclair J., 2002) and "Collins COBUILD Grammar Patterns 2: Nouns and Adjectives" (Sinclair J., 2002) give a comprehensive account of the verb, noun and adjective patterns of English, using COBUILD (The Bank of English) which now stands at 350 million words of current written and spoken English. Through the reliability and objectivity of the computer evidence, words can be subdivided according to patterns, and patterns can be seen to correlate with meaning.

In this paper, "N" denotes noun, "A" denotes adjective, "V" denotes verb, "P_{poss}" denotes possessive pronoun, "V_{ing}" denotes verb with progressive tense, "$W_{h\text{-}clause}$" denotes clause with relative adverb, "|" represents the relation "or", "[ ]" represents the words in it can appear in this structure.

A. The Structure "on N"

There are 30 types of the structure "on N" by the semantic meaning of collocated "N" in (Sinclair J., 2002). We can further divide them into the following types:

a) set phrase (e.g.: Troops stationed in the region have been put *on alert.* She was obviously worried and *on edge*. The deal has been put *on ice* because there appears to be a problem over the fee.)

b) "on [P_{poss} |the] N |V_{ing}" (e.g.: He was the best player *on the field*. She lives with her family *on the outskirts of Birmingham*.)

c) "on [the] N+ other preposition +N |V_{ing}" (e.g.: The lifebelts were *on top of the wardrobe*. I was *on the point of returning* to bed when a motor bus chugged into view.).

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B. The Structure "N on N"

There are 21 types of the structure "N on N" by the semantic meaning of collocated "N" before "on" in (Sinclair J., 2002). We can represent the structures by only one expression "[P_{poss} |the |a |an] N on N |V_{ing} |$W_{h\text{-}clause}$" (e.g.: I would welcome *any comments on the book. His views on maintaining the family as the bedrock of stability* were widely applauded. *The decision on what to do with the economy* has now been put off until Monday.).

C. The Structure "N be A on N"

There are 13 types of the structure "N be A on N" by the semantic meaning of collocated "A" before "on" in (Sinclair J., 2002). We can represent the structures by only one expression "N be A on N |V_{ing} " (e.g.: Tea-tree oil is gentle *on* the skin. He's always very intent *on* doing what he wants.)

D. The Structure "N V on N"

There are 3 types of the structure "N V on N" according to (Sinclair J., 2002). We can further divide them into the following types:

a) set phrase (e.g.: The dog insisted *on* coming with me into the room.)

b) "N V on N |V_{ing} |$W_{h\text{-}clause}$" (e.g.: I knocked *on* the door. Mr Waldegrave said British diplomats were working *on* solving these problems. Much will hinge *on* how well the Free Democrats do tonight.).

E. The Structure "N V N on N"

There are 2 types of the structure "N V N on N" according to (Sinclair J., 2002). We can represent the structures by only one expression "N V N on N |V_{ing} |$W_{h\text{-}clause}$" (e.g.: We will put pressure *on* the authorities. The prime minister complimented him *on* leading what she described as the only Conservative government in Eastern Europe. The debate is centered *on* whether the country's president should be elected directly by the people or by parliament.)

III. The Formalization of English Structures with "on" and Their Chinese Translations

A. The Theory of SE and SER

In 1980's, Institution of Computing Technology (ICT) of the Chinese Academy of Science (CAS) proposed a new concept (Gao, 1989), i.e., semantic element representation (SER) with variables and without variables. The concept of Semantic Element and Semantic Language was discussed in detail in the paper of Gao (2003; 2009). According to Unified Linguistics (Gao, 2009) , different language can be translated into each other and people speaking different language can communicate with each other because there are words, phrases and sentences with the same meaning. Natural languages need to be described in a unified way from the perspective of semantics. Semantic of a sentence is called SS. An element to express a semantic meaning in an SS is called Semantic Element (SE). Semantic language (SL) consists of all SEs, including all SSs. The representation of an SE in a natural language-I, such as English, Chinese…, is called the Representation of Semantic Element in Language-I (SERi). Semantic of SER is SE. Any natural language can be regarded as a representation of semantic language. The translation between two languages (I, J) is regarded as a transformation between two representations.

For example, the Chinese sentence is "李先生是教授 *Li xiansheng shi jiaoshou* (Mr. Li is a professor.)". The four SEs in this sentence are 李(Li)，先生($X_{surname}$) (Mr. (X))，教授 (professor)，是 $_{title}$(X_{people},Y_{title}) (Is_{title}(X_{people},Y_{title})). "X" and "Y" are two parameters. SE is an abstract concept and form. Actually, the above mentioned examples of SEs are only some remembrance forms to represent SE by using Chinese characters or English words. We can use "1" to substitute the SE "Li", or use "4(X_{people},Y_{title})" or "4(N_{people},N_{title})" to substitute "是 $_{title}$(X_{people},Y_{title})". The subscript denotes the semantic category of the word. An SER can reflect the semantics and syntax relations of the word in a phrase or a sentence.

The parameter is formed by two parts, in which one part is a symbol like "N, A, V, S" to represent noun, adjective, verb and sentence respectively, the other part is the subscript denoting the semantic category of the word. For example, "N_{person}" denotes nouns with the semantic category of person. Words with the same semantic category can be substituted by each other in an SER. Not only words but also phrases, clauses and sentences can be formalized into parameters.

The SE and SER theory has been applied into the formalization of Chinese classifier-noun phrases, English prepositional phrases and sentences (Guan, 2009). This theory has also been widely applied into other fields, such as machine translation, handwritten character recognition, Internet information monitoring and post-processing technique for speech and character recognition (Li, 2006; Gao, 2004; Gao, 2005).

B. The Formalization of English Structures with Preposition "on" and Their Chinese Translations

English structures with preposition "on" and their Chinese translations are formalized based on the theory of SE and SER. SERc denotes Chinese SER; SERe denotes English SER. In the phrase and sentence structure with "on", the meaning of the noun is defined as Thing Semantic, which is the Semantic meaning expressed by nouns representing things. The collocated nouns, especially in the phrase "on N" and "N on n", are described as "N_x", and "A" in the structure "N be A on N" are described as "A_x", which mainly determine the meaning of "on". Here, "x" denotes the semantic type of the noun or adjective or verb. Nouns or adjectives with the same semantic type can be substituted by

each other in a SER. In addition, we use "AD" to represent adverb, "$N_{pron\text{-}refl}$" to represent reflexive pronoun. The semantic types are summarized based on Sinclair J.(2002). The preposition "on" should be extracted as the fix structure in the SERe, and the corresponding Chinese translation part will also be extracted as the fix structure in the SERc. The other words in the phrase or sentence should be extracted as the parameters in both SERe and SERc.

C. The Formalization of the Structure "on N"

For the structure "on N", we should extract the semantic meaning of "N" and its Chinese translation as the parameters in both SERe and SERc. The semantic types of the parameter are determined according to the patterns classified in the book of Sinclair J. (2002).

TABLE I.
SERE AND SERC OF "ON N"

SERe	SERc	Example
on [the] N_{place}	在 N_{place} [上]	Everything on offer at this attractive tea house is made *on the premises.*
on [the] $N_{position}$ [of N]	在[N]的 $N_{position}$	Then he sat back and made some notes *on the back of an envelope.*
on P_{poss} $N_{position}$	在 P_{poss} $N_{position}$ 上	Sam was sitting *on my lap.*
on $N_{way\ of\ store\ or\ record}$	在 $N_{way\ of\ store\ or\ record}$ 上	Police believe Doyle carried out 104 raids over a four-year period - the longest string of robberies *on their records.*
on [the] $N_{form\ of\ transport}$	上 $N_{form\ of\ transport}$	But it's cheaper for me to go *on the bus.*
on [the] $N_{way\ of\ broadcast}$	在 $N_{way\ of\ broadcast}$ 上| 中	He also appeared *on TV programmes* such as Five Alive and the Ronn Lucas Show.
on [the] N_{list}	在 N_{list} 上	High *on the list of the most promising areas* for research are electronics, sensors, computers and software.
on N_{group}	在 N_{group} 中	There were three people *on the committee* at that stage.
on $N_{journey\ \|legal\ system\ \|display}$	$V_{journey\ \|legal\ system\ \|display}$	Glen Wilgrove was *on holiday* in Holland when he took this photo of a sea of tulips in the famous Keukenhof Gardens.
on [the] $N_{activity\ \|increase}$	$V_{activity\ \|increase}$	He's *on a course* this week at the Royal Military Academy at Sandhurst.
on the $N_{telephone}$ to N_{person}	给 N_{person} $V_{telephone}$	Mark is *on the phone to her* now.
on N_{basis} [of N]	以 N 为 N_{basis}	People have criticised this film *on the grounds* that it is "just another period drama".
on N_{action}	被 V_{action}	Nearly half of all death sentences are overturned *on appeal.*
on P_{poss} N_{action} | on the N_{action} of N_{person}	在 N_{person} V_{action} 时	*On his arrival,* he said Moscow wanted an honest dialogue with Lithuania.
on the $N_{point\ of\ time}$ of N_{event}|V_{ing}	在N_{event}|V 的 $N_{point\ of\ time}$	I was *on the point of returning to bed* when a motor bus chugged into view.
on $N_{payment}$	以 $N_{payment}$ 的方式	Parents think they can keep up with these demands by buying everything *on credit.*
on $N_{income\ \ source}$	依靠 $N_{income\ \ source}$	This would be a powerful encouragement to the unemployed to find a job instead of living *on benefit.*
on $N_{medicine}$	吃|服用 $N_{medicine}$	They probably think I'm *on drugs* or something.

D. The Formalization of the Structure "N on N"

In the structure "N on N", the "N" before "on" can mainly determine the meaning of the preposition "on". So we should extract the semantic meaning of this "N" and its Chinese translation as the parameters in both SERe and SERc, and the semantic types of the parameter are determined according to the patterns classified in the book of Sinclair J. (2002).

TABLEII.
SERE AND SERC OF "N ON N"

SERe	SERc	Example
$N_{speech\ \|inofrmation}$ on $N_{person\ \|thing}$ | V_{ing} |$W_{h\text{-}clause}$	针对|对 $N_{person\ \|thing}$ | V |$W_{h\text{-}clause}$ 的 $N_{speech\ \|inofrmation}$	*An announcement on a replacement for Mr O'Connell* is not expected before the end of the year.
$N_{writing\ \|broadcast}$ on N | V_{ing} |$W_{h\text{-}clause}$	有关|关于 N | V |$W_{h\text{-}clause}$ 的 $N_{writing\ \|broadcast}$	Currently, she is engaged in making *a documentary on the life and works* of one of the most prominent Indian artists, Jehangir Sabarwala.
$N_{meeting}$ on N_{event}	有关|关于 N_{event} 的 $N_{meeting}$	In Seoul he will attend *a regional conference on trade issues*.
$N_{thought\ \|opinion\ \|attitude}$ on N_{thing} | V_{ing} |$W_{h\text{-}clause}$	对|关于 N_{thing} | V |$W_{h\text{-}clause}$ 的 $N_{thought\ \|opinion\ \|attitude}$	There will have to be *agreement on that issue* if there is to be a successful outcome of these latest talks.
N_{person} on N_{thing} | V_{ing} |$W_{h\text{-}clause}$	[在] N_{thing} | V|$W_{h\text{-}clause}$$N_{person}$ 方面的 N_{person}	David Willis, *a specialist on US affairs*, looks at the implications for the President at home and abroad.
$N_{focus\ \|emphasis}$ on N | V_{ing}	N | V 的 $N_{focus\ \|emphasis}$	But he says *the emphasis on advanced technology* is misplaced.
$N_{attack\ \|action\ \|power\ \|influence\ \|effect\ \|dependence\ \|bet}$ on $N_{person\ \|thing}$	对 $N_{person\ \|thing}$ 的 $N_{attack\ \|action\ \|power\ \|influence\ \|effect\ \|dependence\ \|bet}$	The letter is *an attack on the Prime Minister* from start to finish, and not a particularly well disguised attack.
$N_{money\ \|burden}$ on $N_{person\ \|thing}$	$N_{person\ \|thing}$ 的 $N_{money\ \|burden}$	In-toto Kitchens is offering Club members *a 50 per cent discount on its Wellmann and Contessa ranges.*
$N_{hitting}$ on N_{thing}	$V_{hitting}$ N_{thing}	She may have been killed by *a blow on the head.*
$N_{work\ \|action}$ on N | V_{ing}	在 N | V 方面 的 $N_{work\ \|action}$	*Recent research on molecular genetics* supports this idea.
N_{mark} on N_{thing}	N_{thing} 上的 N_{mark}	*The only blemish on his record* was his dismissal for punching last year during France's 18-16 defeat by Canada in Ontario.

E. The Formalization of the Structure "N be A on N"

In the structure "N be A on N", the "A" before "on" can mainly determine the meaning of the preposition "on". We should extract "be" and "on" as the fix structure in the SERe, and the corresponding Chinese translation part will also be extracted as the fix structure in the SERc; the semantic types of "A" are determined according to the patterns classified in the book of Sinclair J. (2002).

TABLE III.
SERE AND SERC OF "N BE A ON N"

SERe	SERc	Example
N_{person} be A_{like} on $N_{person\ \|thing\ \|V_{ing}}$	N_{person} V_{like} $N_{person\ \|thing\ \|V}$	We would not *be fixated on* one person to the exclusion of the world. He's always very *intent on* doing what he wants.
$N_{person\ \|thing}$ be $A_{quantity\ \|sum\ of\ money}$ on N	$N_{person\ \|thing}$ $V_{quantity\ \ \|sum\ of\ money}$ N	Since 6 April 1990 a married woman has *been taxable on* any state retirement pension she receives.
N_{thing} be A_{depend} on N_{thing}	N_{thing} V_{depend} N_{thing}	The toy industry is heavily *reliant on* the whims of the pre-teen generation.
N_{person} be $A_{attitude\ \|view\ \|way\ of\ treat}$ on N	N_{person} 对 N $A_{attitude\ \ \|view\ \|way\ of\ treat}$	The government *was inflexible on* the need for industrial reform.
N_{person} be $A_{quality}$ on N	N_{person} 在 N 方面[很]$A_{quality}$	Malcolm may have *been weak on* theory, but with his dress, his behavior, and even his art, he laid claim to being the big revolutionary on campus.

F. The Formalization of the Structure "N V on N"

For the structure "N V on N", both "V" (verb) and "on" should be extracted as the fix parts in SERe based on the theory of SE and SER, i.e. the verb should be represented by the real word in SERe. But in order to clarify the semantic types of the verbs in such a structure, we mark the verb by "V_x". Other parts in this structure and the corresponding Chinese translation should be extracted as parameters in the SERe and SERc. The semantic types of "V" are determined according to the patterns classified in the book of Sinclair J. (2002).

TABLE IV.
SERE AND SERC OF "N V ON N"

SERe	SERc	Example
N_{person} $V_{speak\ \|write}$ on N | V_{ing} $\|W_{h\text{-}clause}$	N_{person} $V_{speak\ \|write}$ N | V $\|W_{h\text{-}clause}$ | N_{person} 针对 N | V $\|W_{h\text{-}clause}$ $V_{speak\ \|write}$	The government has not yet *commented on* his release. The Parliament is also due to *vote on* lowering the legal voting age from twenty-one to eighteen. Mr. Potter declined to *comment$ on* why he left the company and said he doesn't yet know what he will be doing.
N_{person} $V_{say\ more\ \|touch\ \|interrupt\ \|attact\ \|harm\ \|watch\ \|find\ out\ \|tell\ \|change\ attitude\ \|wild\ \|eat\ \|consume}$ on $N_{person\ \|thing}$	N_{person} $V_{say\ more\ \|touch\ \|interrupt\ \|attact\ \|harm\ \|watch\ \|find\ out\ \|tell\ \|change\ attitude\ \|wild\ \|eat\ \|consume}$ $N_{person\ \|thing}$	Mr Dienstbier *was enlarging on* proposals he made last night to members of the Royal Institute of International Affairs.
N_{person} V_{depend} on N | V_{ing} $\|W_{h\text{-}clause}$	N_{person} V_{depend} N | V $\|W_{h\text{-}clause}$	I hope we can *count on* your support. People can no longer *rely on* doing their chosen job for life. Much will *hinge on* how well the Free Democrats do tonight.
N_{person} V_{gamble} on N | V_{ing} $\|W_{h\text{-}clause}$	N_{person} 就 N | V$\|W_{h\text{-}clause}$ V_{gamble}	A greyhound trainer has won f200,000 from the bookies by *betting on* his own dog. Interest rates might go up again, so people $$_(are)_$$ sort of *gambling on* what's going to happen in the next five or ten years from now.
N_{person} V_{work} on N_{thing} | V_{ing}	N_{person} V_{work} N_{thing} | V	He *was operated on* immediately and the assailant's knife removed from his back. Mr Waldegrave said British diplomats *were working on* solving these problems.
N_{person} V_{live} on N_{thing} | V_{ing}	N_{person} 靠 N_{thing} | V V_{live}	They may not look for work once they are accustomed to *living on* benefit. Switzerland *has thrived on* being different from its neighbours.
N_{person} V_{use} on N_{thing}	N_{person} 在 N_{thing} 方面 V_{use}	I think I was too naive at the time. I didn't *capitalize on* opportunities.
N_{person} V_{think} on N $\|W_{h\text{-}clause}$	N_{person} V_{think} N $\|W_{h\text{-}clause}$	The student must carefully *meditate on* the symbols and concepts that relate to the element of Earth.
N_1 V_{focus} on N_2	N_1 V_{focus} 在 N_2 上	Chomsky tends to *focus on* well-studied languages like English rather than languages from far afield.
N_{person} $V_{attitude}$ on $N_{person\ \|thing}$	N_{person} 对|向 $N_{person\ \|thing}$ $V_{attitude}$	Last week he appeared to *back-pedal on* that statement, but it was too late.
N_{person} V_{affect} on $N_{person\ \|thing}$	N_{person} V_{affect} 到 $N_{person\ \|thing}$	Sometimes the thought of my husband's wartime ordeals *weighed on* me dreadfully.

G. The Formalization of the Structure "N V N on N"

For the structure "N V N on N", "V" (verb) is also marked by "V_x". Other parts in this structure and the corresponding Chinese translation should be extracted as parameters in the SERe and SERc. The semantic types of "V" are determined according to the patterns classified in the book of Sinclair J. (2002).

TABLE V.
SERE AND SERC OF "N V N ON N"

SERe	SERc	Example
N_{person} V_{give} N_{thing} on N_{person}	N_{person} 对|给 N_{person} V_{give} N_{thing}	Japanese car bosses *have heaped praise on* British workers who accelerated their factory into profit a year early.
N_{person} |thing V_{write} |speak N_{person} on N | V_{ing} |$W_{h\text{-}clause}$	N_{person} |thing 针 对 | 就 | 对 N | V_{ing} |$W_{h\text{-}clause}$ V_{write} |speak N_{person}	His hosts will clearly want to *question him closely on* what he said in Dublin. The prime minister *complimented him on l*eading what she described as the only BR made it clear that it would *consult its legal advisers on* whether court action could be taken to prevent the strikes.
N_{person} V_{focus} N_{thing} on N_{person}	N_{person} 把 N_{thing} V_{focus} 在|于 N_{person}	The public housing authorities were encouraged to *concentrate their efforts on* slum clearance and redevelopment rehousing.
N_{person} V_{direct} N_{weapon} on N_{person}	N_{person} V_{direct} N_{weapon} 对着 N_{person}	I reminded him that Feld had *pulled a gun on* me and, most probably, had later ransacked my apartment.
N_{person} V_{strike} N_{thing1} on N_{thing2}	N_{person} 把 N_{thing1} V_{strike} 到 N_{thing2} 上	He shouted out loud in his anger, and *banged his fists on* the steering wheel.
$N_{person1}$ V_{touch} $N_{person2}$ on N_{body}	$N_{person1}$ V_{touch} $N_{person2}$ 的 N_{body}	His fist lashed out, *caught her on* the side of her face and knocked her down.
N_{person} V_{carve} N_{thing1} on N_{thing2}	N_{person} 把 N_{thing1} V_{carve} 在 N_{thing2} 中	He will say your name as often as he can, thus *engraving it on* his memory.
N_{person} V_{base} N_{thing1} on N_{thing2}	N_{person} 把 N_{thing1} V_{base} 于 N_{thing2} [上]	They tried to *build an empire on* shaky foundations.
N_{person} V_{put} N_{thing} on N	N_{person} 对 N V_{put} N_{thing} | N_{person} V_{put} 对 N 的 N_{thing}	The World Bank *has cast doubt on reports* in Argentina that it is to extend loans to the government of four thousand million dollars.
N_{person} V_{gamble} N on N |V_{ing}	N_{person} V_{gamble} N V | N_{person} on N 上 V_{gamble} N	I'll *bet a quid on* anything, but never more than a fiver.
N_{person} V_{spend} |waste N_{thing1} on N_{thing2} |V_{ing}	N_{person} V_{spend} |waste N_{thing1} 在 N_{thing2} 上 | N_{person} V_{spend} |waste N_{thing1} 来 V	My father thought a university education *was wasted on* a woman.
N_{person} V_{model} N_1 on N_2	N_{person} 以 N_2 来 V_{model} N_1	Their organizational structure *was patterned on* the World War Ⅱ underground resistance movement.
N_{person} V_{model} $N_{pron\text{-}refl}$ on N	N_{person} 以 N V_{model}	As far as their preferences and dislikes are concerned, most children tend to *model themselves on* their parents.

IV. CONCLUSION

This paper focuses on solving one of key problems of describing language phenomenon precisely in MT—the formalization of English structures with preposition "on" and their Chinese translations. A classification The English structures with preposition "on" are classified and formalized together with their Chinese translations based on the theory of SE and SER. The study in the paper will beneficial to the process of word disambiguation and selection in MT. More efforts should be made to put this method into practice and to improve the quality of lexical translation in machine translation.

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Teacher's Error Correction: A Key Factor in Developing Iranian EFL Learners' Speech Accuracy

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***Abstract*—The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effect of the teacher's error correction on the accuracy of the EFL learners' speech. In this regard the proposed null hypothesis is: "There is no significant relationship between the teacher's syntactic error correction and the EFL learners' speech accuracy". In order to test the null hypothesis, 95 students who study English as a Foreign language at Azad university, Mashhad branch participated in a TOEFL test, 40 of them were ranked as "intermediate" and were randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups. Both groups took part in an interview performed by the researcher as the pre-test. During the treatment procedure, in the experimental group, the syntactic errors of the students were corrected by the teacher as soon as they committed them in their speech. On the other hand the syntactic errors of the students' speech in the control group were totally ignored by the teacher. After the treatment, which took 16 sessions, the students participated in another interview as the post-test. Both the pre-test and post-test interviews plus all the class discussions during the treatment were tape recorded. The interviews were scored by five raters. In order to compare the means of the post-test scores of the experimental and control groups a t-test was calculated. The observed t was 2.072 and t critical was 2.021.Since the observed t exceeded the t critical, the null hypothesis was rejected. We can conclude that "There is a significant relationship between the teacher's syntactic error correction and the EFL learners' speech accuracy". The results of this study can be useful for language educators in dealing with their students' syntactic errors in speaking.**

***Index Terms*—accuracy, consciousness raising, error, feedback, mistake, syntax**

I. Introduction

According to Dulay, Brut, and Krashen (1982) "Errors are the flawed side of the learner's speech or writing. They are those parts of conversation or composition that deviate from some selected norm of mature language performance. Teachers and mothers who have waged long and patient battles against their students' or children's errors have come to realize that making errors is an inevitable part of learning. People cannot learn language without first systematically committing errors." (p.138) Murphy (1986) stated that "It is a truth universally acknowledged that a language learner who makes a mistake [or error] must be in need of correction."(p.146). Research in the classroom reveals that in fact teachers are partial and selective in making corrections. In particular some may consider correction inappropriate or problematic in communication activities. Murphy (1986) suggested that correction is necessary in communication activities.

Correction is a form of feedback to learners on their use of the language. Essentially it is neutral and may describe success or failure, because language in use exploits both form and function, it may be concerned with accuracy or fluency. Giving correction, the teacher attempts to help and improve learning; indeed, learners are reported to want correction and find it useful.

Since making errors is an inseparable part of human learning process, the aim of this study is to investigate the effect of the teacher's syntactic error correction on the speech accuracy of EFL learners.

One of the questions that second / foreign language teachers most often address to second/foreign researchers is what to do about error correction: How and when should they correct whom, if at all? Error correction is of practical importance and it is also a controversial issue in the second language acquisition literature.

Following the mentioned points, this study is intended to reveal the role of the teacher's error correction on the speech accuracy of the Iranian EFL students.

This study is hoped to be useful for the language educators in the following ways: It may provide insights into the existing techniques of syntactic error correction in speech and may be a step forward in the direction of choosing the most suitable solution for the error correction. It may also turn out to be useful in making all those concerned with teaching a foreign language in Iran aware of the vital role of the Iranian Intermediate EFL learners.

II. Review of Literature

A. Different Attitudes towards Error Correction

According to Keshavarz (2011), over the past few decades, there has been a significant change in foreign language methodologies and teaching materials and also a significant change of attitudes toward students' errors. When Contrastive Analysis and Audio-lingual Approach to foreign languages were at the peak of their popularity through the fifties and sixties, there was a negative attitude toward errors. For example Nelson Brooks (1960) considered error to have a relationship to learning resembling that of sin to virtue. He stated: "Like sin, error should be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence is to be expected."(p.58)(as stated in Keshavarz(2011)

With the emergence of error analysis in the late sixties, as a reaction to contrastive analysis and with the wave of research interest in the processes of first and second language acquisition and the similarities between them, the errors committed by the second language learners became noticeable. Consequently, the negative attitude held toward errors previously changed to a positive one. Errors were no longer considered as evil signs of failure that had to be eradicated at any cost; rather they were seen as a necessary part of language learning process.

Alongside the emergence of such theoretical views toward errors, innovative methodologies and materials for teaching foreign languages were developed that encouraged creative self-expression and not error free communication.

It should not be implied from the above that errors should not be corrected at all. Even today the role of error correction in ESL/EFL classes is acknowledged. As Nassaji (2007) points out "dealing with learners' errors is an important aspect of L2 teaching ….[and] …. Most of the evidence points to the usefulness of error correction versus no error correction" (stated in Keshavarz (2011).

However; too much correction should certainly be avoided. Teachers should realize that correction of errors is a very delicate task, and if it is not done in an appropriate way it will do more harm than good as it may cause embarrassment and frustration for the learner. This will lead to linguistic insecurity and the learner will be discouraged to speak out in class and write freely in the target language. As Lightbown and Spada (2010) note, "Learner's errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent bad habits."(p.167) "When learners are allowed to interact freely they learn each other's mistakes"(168). On the other hand they state that: "excessive feedback on error can have a negative effect on motivation and teachers must be sensitive to the way their students react to correction." (p.167)

B. Stages of Errors

There are various ways to describe the progression of linguistic development that learners manifest as their attempts at production successively approximate the target language system. In fact learners are so variable in their acquisition of a second language that stages of development defy description. Brown (1987) borrowed some insights from a model proposed by Corder (1973) and came up with a four stage category, based on observations of what the learner does in terms of errors alone.

The first stage of "random errors" which is called "pre-systematic" by Corder, is a stage in which the learner is only vaguely aware that there is some systematic order to a particular class of items. Inconsistencies like "John cans sings" and "John can singing" said by the same learner within a short period of time, indicate a stage of experimentation and inaccurate guessing.

The second, is "emergent". In this stage, the learner grows in consistency in linguistic production. S/he begins to discern a system and to internalize certain rules. These rules may not be correct by target language standards, but they are legitimate in the mind of the learner. This stage is characterized by some "backsliding" in which the learner seems to have grasped a rule or principle and then regresses to some previous stage. At this stage, the learner is unable to correct errors when they are pointed out by someone else. Avoidance of structures and topics is typical.

The third stage is called "systematic stage", in which the learner is able to show more consistency in producing the second language. While those rules are not all well formed inside the head of the learner, they are more internally self-consistent and are closely approximating their errors when they are pointed out.

The last stage is called the "stabilization" by Brown and "post-systematic" by Corder (1973). At this stage, the learner has relatively few errors and has mastered the system to the point that fluency and intended meanings are not problematic. Here, the learner can self-correct. The system is complete enough that attention can be paid to those few errors that occur and corrections made without waiting for feedback from someone else.

It should be mentioned that these stages of systematicity do not describe a learner's total second language system. We would find it difficult to say, for example, that a learner is in an emergent stage, globally, for all of the linguistic subsystems of language. One might be in a second stage with respect to the perfect tense and in the third or fourth stage when it comes to simple present and past tenses.

According to Gass and Selinker (2008) "Errors can be taken as red flags" (p.102) They can provide windows onto the state of the learner's knowledge of the second language. They should not be viewed as a product of imperfect learning or a reflection of faulty imitation. Rather, they are to be viewed as indications of a learner's effort to impose some regularity on the language the he or she is exposed to.

C. The Usages of Errors

1) Errors help find out the ways through which one learns a language. They clearly indicate that the learner is making and testing hypothesis to learn language. They provide data from which inferences about the nature of the language learning process can be made. Correct sentences do not show how language is learned, while erroneous utterances highlight the strategies a learner employs. The systematicity of the errors proves that there is a mental process involved

in language learning. Were the errors not to exist, one might have argued that the learner is just repeating what he was already encountered. For example, the deviant ungrammatical sentence "I goed to the park" shows that the learner is over generalizing the rule he has induced himself or has been explained to. Such an over generalization is a mental process indicating that the learner is not just a passive agent mimicking whatever he has heard. He may never have heard such a deviant sentence from the people around He constructs such sentences from his own relying on the rules and regulations he induces from instances of regular verbs like: open – opened / wash-washed.

2) Errors can help find out how well someone knows a language. Errors are indications of learners' level of language proficiency. We may say that errors help the teacher be more realistic in approaching his job.

3) Learners' errors can help gather information on common difficulties in language learning as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials. This may be interpreted as the adaption of teaching strategy and instructional materials from the learning strategy employed by the learner himself. Learners' errors indicate to teachers and curriculum developers which part of the target language students have more difficulty producing correctly and which error types detract most from a learner's ability to communicate effectively.

4) Errors provide a means for evaluating the students as well as the teaching strategies employed by the instructor himself. Accordingly, the teacher will have an authentic basis upon which he can determine the future task. By analyzing the errors, the instructor can provide himself the best means to handle the problem of evaluation of both his instruction and of student's achievement.

D. Consciousness – raising

Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) stated that "By conscious-raising we mean the deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language".(275)

Schmidt (1990), distinguishes the contrast between conscious and unconscious as follows: Conscious is learning with awareness, noticing, understanding the insight, intention to learn, intention to use metacognitive strategies, ability to report what is known, explicit knowledge, focal attention, the use of short-term memory, controlled processing and serial processing, while unconscious is learning with no awareness, no noticing, no understanding and insight, with incidental learning without the intention to use metacognitive strategies and the ability to report what is known, with implicit knowledge, peripheral attention, the use of long-term memory, automatic and parallel processing.

One of the more controversial issues in applied linguistics concerns the role of conscious and unconscious processes in second language learning. On one hand there are many who believe that conscious understanding of the target language system is necessary if learners are to produce correct forms and use them appropriately. In this view, errors are the result of not knowing the rules of the target language, forgetting them, or not paying attention. There is little theoretical support for the most traditional form of this view; no current theory points the conscious study of grammar as either a necessity or sufficient condition for language learning. However, Bialystok (1978) has provided a theoretical framework that allows a role for conscious knowledge, and Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) have argued that consciousness-raising, drawing learners' attention to the formal properties of language, facilitates language learning.

According to Gass and Selinker (2008) attention which is the concentration of the mental powers upon an object, has come to be one of the important constructs in second language research. There is a relationship between attention and awareness. They also state that, attention and memory are closely aligned in many areas of second language learning.

Based on a study performed by Gass, Svetics and Lemeline (2003), in which they considered attention from the perspective of its differential role on different parts of the grammar (lexicon, morphosyntax, syntax) .They concluded that focused attention was more beneficial for syntax.

E. Grammatical Consciousness-raising

The unstated assumption of many languages –teaching professionals, past and present, has long been that an essential part of language teaching is the teaching of grammar. Rutherford (1987) believes that the assumption of grammatical consciousness-raising has two parts to it "1. A belief that language is built up out of sets of discrete entities and that language learning consists of the steady accumulation of such entities by the learner. 2. A belief that the essential characteristics of the entities can be directly imparted to the learner through teaching." (p. 17)

In this regard, Sharwood Smith (1980) stated that "Instructional strategies which draw the attention of the learner to specifically structural regularities of the language, as distinct from the message content, will under certain conditions significantly increase the rate of acquisition over and above the rate expected from learners acquiring that language under natural circumstances where attention to form may be minimal and sporadic." (p.275)

F. The Significance of Learners' Errors

According to Corder (1981), the learners' errors are significant in three different ways. First, to the teacher, in that they tell him, if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learnt or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Third, the errors are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. It is a way the learner uses for testing his hypotheses about the nature of the language he is learning. The making of errors is a strategy used both by children acquiring their mother tongue and by those learning a second language.

In order to achieve the goal of the present experimental study, the following research question was posed:

Q1.Is there a significant relationship between the teacher's syntactic error correction and the intermediate EFL students' speech accuracy?

To provide a reliable answer to the above mentioned research question, the following null hypothesis is proposed:

HO1: There is no significant relationship between the teacher's syntactic error correction and the intermediate EFL students' speech accuracy.

III. Method

A. Participants

Among 95 Iranian, adults both male and female, aged between 19 to 25, who were EFL freshmen and sophomores, 40 of them participated in this study. They were all studying at Azad University, Mashhad Branch.

Their homogeneity in English proficiency was proven by a TOEFL test in advance. They were considered as "intermediate". The students were divided into two groups: one18, and the other 22. They respectively made the experimental and the control groups. The process of error correction was performed on the experimental group.

B. Instrumentation

The instruments used in this study were as follows:

(1) A TOEFL test for the purpose of making homogeneous subjects in the level of English proficiency.

(2) A number of questions for the pre-test interview.

(3) A checklist of certain grammatical points that was used as a guide-line for correcting the students' syntactic errors in speaking, during the treatment. It was also used as a guide-line for the raters who rated the interviews.

(4) A number of questions for the post-test interview.

It has to be mentioned that, this research was performed in the "conversation" class of the students. Both groups were given the same topics to talk about each session. Moreover, all the class discussions of both experimental and control groups in addition to the pre-test and post-test interviews were tape-recorded.

C. Procedures

The following procedures were taken systematically in order to fulfill the purpose of this study.

Primarily 95 TEFL students of Azad university, Mashhad branch participated in a TOEFL test. The allocated time for the test was 90 minutes. According to the TOEFL scale, the ones whose score fell between 350 and 500 were considered as "intermediate", in the level of English proficiency. Out of the whole participants, 40 students could be determined as "intermediate". These subjects were interviewed by the researcher. During the interview, a number of descriptive questions were asked and there was no time limitation for answering the questions, therefore the subjects could answer as much as they could. The interviews were tape-recorded and were considered as the pre-test.

Then, the subjects were randomly divided into two groups of 18 and 22 which respectively made the experimental and control groups. During the treatment, in the experimental group, as soon as a subject made a syntactic error (the errors that were mentioned in the checklist) , in her speaking, the teacher interrupted his or her speech and corrected him or her by saying the right form. In other words the teacher gave him or her conscious awareness immediately. In the control group the errors that the students made during their speech were neglected, and they were not corrected by the teacher. Of course in both groups the effect of peer-correction and self –correction were the same i.e. no one stopped the peers from correcting each other. It is to be mentioned that all the class discussions in both groups were tape recorded, so that the researcher could make sure that the procedure were going all right.

After the treatment, i.e. sixteen sessions, all of the subjects participated in another interview which was considered as the post-test. The questions of this interview were again descriptive type and the students were given enough time to answer as much as they could. These interviews were also tape recorded.

The pre-test and post-test interviews which were tape recorded, plus a checklist of certain syntactic forms were given to five raters. They listened to the interviews and gave scores to each one of them according to a checklist. The procedure of scoring was in a way that for each syntactic error one score was deducted out of 20. It is to be noted that one of the raters was the researcher herself, and the rest of the raters were chosen among the most meticulous colleagues and classmates of hers.

When the raters finished scoring, the researcher collected all the scores and calculated the inter-reliability of the scores. Since the coefficient of correlation indicates the extent to which the raters' judgments were in agreement, it showed a high degree of agreement between the judges.

In order to see if the difference between the means in the groups is significant or not the researcher calculated the ***t-test.*** For achieving this purpose, she calculated the means and variances of the post-tests in both groups, and since the number of subjects were known, the calculation of the observed ***t*** was done easily. The result indicated that the observed ***t*** exceeded the ***t*** critical value of the table, so the null hypothesis of this study was rejected at the 5 percent (0.05) alpha level of significance.

IV. Results and Discussions

Having collected the required data based on the mentioned data collection instruments and procedures the researcher conducted the analysis of data and tested the hypothesis formulated for the present study.

To ensure that the researcher made interview questions were reliable, an analysis was done employing Cronbach's Alpha to estimate the reliability indexes of pre-test and post-test interview questions. As table 1 indicates, both series of questions enjoy a relatively high reliability. (α=.83 for the pre-test interview questions and α= .85 for the post-test interview questions).

TABLE 1:
RESULTS OF THE RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONS OF THE INTERVIEW

Interview Questions	Cronbach's Alpha	No. of Questions
Pre-test	.83	6
Post-test	.85	6

After all the raters finished scoring the interviews, the researcher calculated the inter-rater-reliability of their scores.

TABLE 2:
RESULTS OF INTER-RATER-RELIABILITY

Groups	Pre-test	Post-test
Exp.	0.869	0.802
Cont	0. 831	0.770

As it is shown in TABLE 2, the inter-rater reliability for the experimental group in the pre-test is 0.869 and in the post-test is 0.802. In the control group for the pre-test is 0.831 and for the post-test is 0.770.

The inter-rater reliability of the scores given by the raters was calculated, by using the coefficient correlation formula which indicates the degree of agreement between the raters. The results showed that there is a high degree of agreement between the scores of the judges.

TABLE 3:
RESULTS OF T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR THE POST-TEST

Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	p.
Exp.	18	16.04	2.17	2.072	38	0.05
Cont.	22	14.70	6.55	2.021		

As table 3 shows, the number of participants in the Experimental group is 18 with (M=16.04 SD=2.17) and in Control group the number of the students are 22 with (M=14.70 SD=6.55).

The ***t-test*** was calculated in order to see if the difference between the means in the groups is significant or not. The results indicated that the observed ***t*** (2.072) exceeded the ***t*** (2.021) critical value at the 5 percent (.05) alpha level of significance, and the degree of freedom of 38. Since the hypothesis of this study was null, two tailed test was implemented. The results indicated that since the observed ***t*** exceeded the critical ***t*** the null hypothesis of the study can be rejected.

Therefore it can be concluded that: "There is a significant relationship between the teacher's error correction and the EFL students' speech accuracy".

V. Conclusion

Primarily the correlation between the scores given by the raters indicated that there is a high agreement between the judges' scores. Then the means and variances of the post-test in both groups were calculated. In order to see if the difference between the means in the groups is significant or not, the researcher calculated the ***t-test***. The results show that the observed ***t*** exceeded the ***t*** critical, therefore the null hypothesis of this study was rejected.

According to the data analyzed through the statistical technique of ***t-test*** there appeared a significant relationship between the teacher's error correction and the TEFL students' speech accuracy.

It should be mentioned that the results of this study can primarily be useful for the language educators who teach at the intermediate level. They can realize that if they correct the syntactic errors of their students, as soon as they make them in their speech, this will improve their speech accuracy.

It will make the teachers more responsible toward their students' syntactic errors, because they should give the students conscious awareness about the errors they make.

The results of this study will make the students more meticulous about the components of the speech they produce. Because they know that if they make an error they will be interrupted and corrected immediately and this is not pleasant for most of them.

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The Impact of Listening Strategy on Listening Comprehension

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***Abstract*—Successful FL learners are characterized by knowing how to use language learning strategies effectively. This article reports a study of the effect of strategy training on listening comprehension. In the study, 56 intermediate foreign language learners at Shandong Economic College were either participants in a strategies-based instructional treatment or were comparison students receiving the regular listening course. Data were obtained and analyzed through the performance of a set of three listening tasks on a pre-post basis by both groups. The subsample of twelve students also provided verbal report data to show their cognitive insights into strategy use and the instruction itself. It was found that the increased use of listening strategy contributed positively to listening comprehension, which led to the implication that formal strategy training should have a role in the foreign language listening classroom.**

***Index Terms*—impact, strategy training, listening comprehension**

I. Introduction

Listening has rightly assumed a central role in language learning, but it is still an area where students feel most frustrated and helpless. In China's English teaching, listening has been emphasized since the mid-1980s, but this skill remains poor for many learners even after they have had six to ten years of experience in learning English. One major reason lies in the teaching and learning methodology. It is true that teaching learners how to solve a listening task by using an array of strategies will lead to better comprehension. But for many teachers, teaching listening is the easiest of all English courses. All they have to do is to play the tape, let the students listen and do the comprehension exercises, play the tape again and check up. There is no doubt that teaching practice in this aspect has generally failed to catch up with the progress of EFL theory. The objective of classroom teaching is to help students develop listening strategies and skills instead of providing random practice. In light of many new discoveries and advances in understanding the nature of listening and the strategies and skills involved, this article considers the impact of strategy training on listening comprehension. It briefly reviews literature related to this issue, and then focuses on a study conducted at Shandong Economic College, in the study, 56 intermediate foreign language learners at Shandong Economic College were either participants in a strategies-based instructional treatment or were comparison students receiving the regular listening course. The data analysis looked for links between an increase in the use of certain strategies included in the strategy list as the result of strategy training and an improvement in rated performance. The aim of the strategy training was to help the learners become more aware of the strategies they could use to learn more effectively, to monitor and to evaluate their listening process.

II. Literature Review

The area of learning strategy research has grown dramatically over the last twenty years. "The skills underlying listening have become more clearly defined" and "strategies contributing to effective listening are now better understood" (Rost, 2001, p.12). "A strategy-based approach teaches learners how to listen effectively by instructing them in the use of strategies" (Mendeldohn, 1995, p.134). Mendelsohn (1995) argues that a strategy-based approach towards teaching listening benefits learners in a number of ways. First of all, it helps learners listen more effectively. Research has shown that in general, good listeners use a variety of metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective strategies and strategy instruction does help improve listening comprehension (Cohen, 1990). The first major development was the publication of The Good Language Learner: a Report (Nairnan et al., 1975), which reported that successful language learners tended to use certain strategies. The underlying premise was that if one could identify the strategies adopted by good language learners and then teach poor language learners to use such strategies, these less effective learners would become more able to handle language learning demands. However, there have been some criticisms of this matter. Bialystok argued that "the human ability to incorporate forms of thought or ideas that are radically different from present experience seems to be severely limited" (Bialystok, 1985, p.259). Some people asserted that learners need not be taught L2 compensation strategies because they already had them in their LI. More importantly, those studies which were completed in the field of foreign language strategy training were not especially encouraging in their results. So it is necessary to conduct more empirical studies to evaluate the effect of strategy

training on language learners.

This study set out to examine the impact that formal strategy training might have on learners in university-level foreign language classrooms, with a particular focus on listening, because this area had received limited attention in research literature on strategy training.

III. Research Design

A. Sample

The sample consisted of 56 second-year non-English major students at Shandong Economic College. They were from two intact classes. One class of 30 comprised the experimental group and received strategies-based listening instruction. The other class of 26 served as a comparison group. Twelve students out of the total 56 were selected on a volunteer basis to provide additional data in the form of verbal report protocols regarding their strategy use. These students represented three different levels of listening ability in their respective classes (4 high-level, 4 mid-level and another 4 low-level).

B. Instrumentation and Data Collection Procedures

TREATMENT

All subjects were administered a pre-treatment questionnaire to measure their knowledge of listening strategies, their use of these strategies and their perception of the value of the strategies. Then the teacher and the experimental students together worked out a list of strategies useful for the students' listening task performance based on O'Malley and Chamot's model. The list mainly included:

Metacognitive strategies

Self-monitoring: Checking and correcting one's comprehension while the listening task is taking place.

Directed attention: Deciding in advance to attend to the listening task and ignore irrelevant distracters.

Selective attention: Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects or situational details that will cue the retention of listening material.

Self-evaluation: Checking the outcomes of the performance.

Self-reinforcement: Arranging rewards for oneself when the task has been accomplished successfully.

Cognitive strategies

Elaboration: Relating new information to other concepts in memory.

Inferencing: Using available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information.

Note-taking: Writing down the main idea, important points, outline, or summary of information presented in the listening task.

Transfer: Using previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge to facilitate a listening task.

Social / affective strategies

Cooperation: Working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a listening activity.

Both the experimental and the comparison groups followed the routine syllabus. The students in the experimental group also received listening strategy training throughout the 15-week class. The strategies were incorporated into regular classroom activities rather than presented separately.

INSTRUMENT

Listening task battery

A Listening Task Battery was designed and made up of a series of three listening tasks (two sets with 6 individual tasks). All subjects from the experimental and comparison groups were asked to complete the similar three tasks on a pre-and post-test basis to determine whether there were gains in listening ability for the experimental students over the 15-week training. The listening materials used in this study were almost at the same level of difficulty. And three different types of listening tasks (a story, a news report, and a scientific story) were expected to elicit a range of listening strategies.

Verbal report protocols

The post-test data collection also included an extra feature for the subsample of the 12 students from both the experimental and comparison groups. These subjects were first asked to describe what was going on in their minds before, during and after the listening process, and what strategies they used, and finally why they used certain specific strategies.

DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

The different listening tasks were rated according to a set of five-point, multi-trait scales. Data obtained from the pre- and post-test listening tasks were used to determine students' improvement in listening proficiency. The effect of increased frequency of use of a given strategy was calculated by correlating the gains in listening performance in general.

As indicated above, the verbal report data were analyzed separately from the listening task data, and aimed at students' insights into strategy use and feedback of the instruction. This verbal report served as a qualitative means for determining whether the training was reliable and valid, and the results are reported in 4.2 below.

IV. Findings

A. Research Question 1: The Effect of Strategy Training on Listening Proficiency

In response to our first research question, regarding the effect of strategy training on listening proficiency, the results of pre- and post- test means showed that the experimental group outperformed the comparison group on all the three tasks (see Table 4. 1). And the correlation data suggested a significant relationship between the increased use of strategies and task performance (Table 4.2).

TABLE 4.1:
OVERALL LISTENING PERFORMANCE BY TASK PRE- AND POST-TEST MEANS

Pre- and post- test means	Task 1 A story	Task 2 A news report	Task 3 A science story
Experimental group (N=30)	3.95/4.34	3.60/4.05	3.22/3.73
Comparison group (N=26)	3.86/3.91	3.63/3.70	3.18/3.20

TABLE 4.2:
GAIN IN TASK PERFORMANCE IN GENERAL CORRELATED WITH GAIN IN REPORTED FREQUENCY OF STRATEGY USE BY EXPERIMENTAL STUDENTS

Listening strategies	pre-test	post-test	performance
Self-monitoring	2.61	4.17	.52
Directed attention	3.36	4.38	.48
Selective attention	3.24	4.25	.47
Self-evaluation	2.75	3.97	.40
Inferencing	3.23	4.23	.53
Elaboration	3.50	4.45	.53
Note-taking	3.02	4.56	.58

B. Research Question 2: Students' Use of the Instructed Strategies

Verbal report collected from the subsample of students was intended to measure the effect of strategy training from a cognitive perspective. The verbal report protocols yielded two types of data-insights about students' strategy use as well as their reactions towards such training program, as presented below.

Experimental group

Pre-test

"Tried to get every word as well as the main idea"

"Paid attention to the specific things, like the time, the place, the name of the person."

"Cannot predict what is going to happen."

"Never thought of using specific strategies."

Post-test

"Learned about my language learning"

"How bad my listening skills are."

"Able to understand from context the words that I didn't know."

"I need to relax myself a little more in order to listen more attentively."

"Writing it down helps."

"I will summarize the story after listening."

"I'm trying to listen attentively."

"I want more training so as to make full use of the strategies."

"Discussing with my classmates is helpful." "I benefit from the training."

Comparison group

Pre-test

"I thought if I could remember every word I could understand everything."

"It's easier to listen to something you're familiar with."

"I translate what I hear into Chinese and then think in Chinese."

Post-test

"When I realized that I was not listening to the tape, became very upset, and what was left become meaningless."

"When I met a new word, I became very nervous. I kept thinking hard for the meaning of it and then missed the following sentences."

"I have difficulty understanding all these strategies. I have never heard them before."

"1 don't know when and how to use these strategies on the list, but I want to learn them."

V. Discussion

With regard to the question of whether strategy training makes a difference in listening performance, the finding

seemed to be positive: the experimental group outperformed; the comparison group on all the three tasks. Students tended to use listening strategies more frequently due to the treatment with a direct result in their gains in the task performance. It was quite understandable that note-taking, among all the strategies listed in Table 4.2, got the highest correlation coefficient, because it was the easiest one to perform. It seemed that self-monitoring, inferencing and elaboration are the other important strategies that would enhance listening ability. For the comparison group, the pre- and post- test mea-difference was too small to be counted, but could be then take-as a natural improvement of the course study. The verbal report showed that strategy training did help students with their listening comprehension. We found that students, having been instructed, seemed to have more valuable insights about the performance of language tasks, and about their language learning. Some students had realized that by relaxing more, they understood more and the task became easier to perform. A student even had the insight that thanks to the strategy training, he had learned how to listen more effectively.

There were indications from the comparison group that the students could use some strategies without training, but only unconsciously and at a very basic level, as one student claimed that he found listening to a familiar topic was much easier, which would mean that he had used elaboration and inferencing strategies. However this does not suggest that the instruction is unnecessary, for several students from the comparison group shared the same experience that they were not familiar with the strategies in the training list and expressed willingness to be trained in order to improve their listening ability.

Finally, one big problem was found that the students were poor at using metacognitive strategies. For example, when interrupted, they had difficulty in redirecting their attention immediately to the listening task. Besides, they tended to use more bottom- up processing (such as repetition, translation, etc) than the top-down processing strategies (such as inferencing, elaboration, etc), as they tried to understand the whole thing by catching each individual word that they had heard. These findings call for the regulation of the teachers' attention when they give formal strategies-based instruction in the classroom.

VI. Pedagogical Implications

This study was undertaken to see whether strategy training should have a role in the foreign language listening classroom. It would seem that the results speak in favor of such a role. So what could and should be done is, above all, concerned with two things: reflection and flexibility. "Reflection represents the learner developing some degree of self-awareness in learning, and shows how a given learner may appreciate his or her strengths and weaknesses. Flexibility arising from metacognitive strategy use organizes and gives purpose to the way cognitive and social-affective strategies are used, and increase the likelihood of appropriateness of strategy choice" (Skehan, 1998, p.265). That is to say, strategy training is intended to raise the students' awareness of metacognitive strategies, through which the learner is more able to select strategies appropriate to a particular problem, rather than engage in the activity for its own sake. To make it simple, students should not be only taught what to learn, but also how to learn.

Every teacher should realize the importance and necessity of listening strategy training, and find some effective ways to carry out strategy training in listening teaching. A teaching approach involves providing helpful support and strategy training to help students succeed in listening comprehension and preparing them for effective functioning in real-life situations. But the Goal of any ESL/EFL language programme should be learner independence (Krashen, 1981). Classroom instructions in listening serve to raise student awareness of listening strategies/skills, assess their listening ability and problems, and build up their confidence. Classroom instructions usually address only common problems, leaving individual differences untouched. It is therefore important for students, preferably under teacher's guidance, to assess their own weaknesses, make a plan to develop relevant strategies and skills and stick to it. Students also need to be exposed to a variety of authentic input outside class. Teacher's guidance in the initial habit-forming stage can be crucial in providing motivation, encouragement and a bit pressure to keep it going.

VII. Conclusion

This study provided suggestions that it would appear beneficial to engage learners in discussions of listening strategies, and practice those strategies in class. If instructors systematically introduce and reinforce strategies, the students might listen more effectively. A listening teacher's role is far from the mechanical operation of tape-recorders. The teacher has to be conscious of listening skills and strategies and assess student needs to formulate teaching objectives; to choose appropriate input materials and design graded pre-, while-, and post- listening tasks if the textbook proves inadequate; and above all, the teacher needs to help students develop learning strategy, which will benefit them. All those efforts will be adequately rewarded with greater student confidence, autonomy and fulfillment.

There are still some limitations in the study, such as the lack of direct link between each task performance and the reported specific strategy use on a pre-post test basis, which should be considered in further studies.

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EFL Teachers' Attitudes toward Using Computer Technology in English Language Teaching

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***Abstract*—Computers have become commonplace in our personal as well as our professional lives. Computers have made many of our everyday tasks easier and faster and made our society more productive. A very important set of variables such as the classroom teacher and the teacher's attitudes towards the effective uses of computers in the classroom have been overlooked in EFL classrooms. This study investigates how teachers perceive the use of computer technology resources in English Language Teaching. The first aim of the study is to define the teachers' attitudes. The second aim is to discuss the aspects of attitude. The third aim is to explain teachers' attitudes and computer technology training. The fourth aim is to elaborate teachers' attitudes and computer technology integration. The fifth aim is to define teachers' attitudes and computer experience. The sixth aim is to discuss teachers' attitudes and computer anxiety and interest. The last aim is to review teachers' attitudes and computer literacy. The review of the related literature shows that simply introducing computer technology resources does not guarantee teachers' use of these in practice. Knowledge of EFL teachers' attitudes about teaching, learning, and computers, affords them the opportunity to design and implement EFL instruction.**

***Index Terms*—computer technology, teacher attitude, training, integration, experience, anxiety and interest, literacy**

I. Introduction

Traditional approaches to language teaching and learning have been challenged by new and innovative approaches based on the latest advances in computer and Internet technology. The vast resources and opportunities that computers and Internet provide have brought about new tools, approaches, and strategies in language teaching and learning. The success of any initiatives to implement technology in an educational programme depends strongly upon the support and attitudes of teachers involved. It has been suggested that if teachers believed or perceived computers not to be fulfilling their own or their students' needs, they are likely to resist any attempts to introduce technology into their teaching and learning (Askar & Umay, 2001). Computers are increasingly widespread, influencing many aspects of our social and work lives, as well as many of our leisure activities. As more tasks involve human computer interaction, computer skills and knowledge have become more positively correlated with both occupational and personal success. Therefore, as we move into a technology based society, it is important that children's classroom experiences with technology be equitable and unbiased for males and females. In most cases, the teacher is key to effective implementation of the use of computers in the educational system and given that teachers have tremendous potential to transmit beliefs and values to students, it is important to understand the biases and stereotypes that teachers may hold about the use of computers and the factors that act as facilitators to teachers' positive computer usage.

Of the factors that have been listed to affect the successful use of computers in the classroom are teachers' attitudes towards computers and these attitudes, whether positive or negative, affect how teachers respond to technologies. This in turn affects the way students view the importance of computers in schools (Teo, 2006) and affects current and future computer usage. In support of the importance of teachers' attitude towards computer use, Zhao, Tan and Mishra (2001) provided evidence to suggest that the attitudes of teachers are directly related to computer use in the classroom. For example, teachers often view the computer as a tool to accomplish housekeeping tasks, manage their students more efficiently, and to communicate with parents more easily. The success of student learning with computer technology will depend largely on the attitudes of teachers, and their willingness to embrace the technology (Teo, 2006). Gaining an appreciation of the teachers' attitudes towards computer use may provide useful insights into technology integration and acceptance and usage of technology in teaching and learning.

No matter how sophisticated and powerful the state of technology is, the extent to which it is implemented depends on teachers having a positive attitude towards it (Huang & Liaw, 2005). In this paper, definition of teachers' attitudes, aspects of attitude, teachers' attitudes and computer technology training, teachers' attitudes and computer technology

integration, teachers' attitudes and computer experience, teachers' attitudes and computer anxiety and interest, and teachers' attitudes and computer literacy are elaborated.

II. Definition of Teachers' Attitudes

An attitude is defined as "a relatively enduring organization of beliefs, feelings, and behavioural tendencies towards socially significant objects, groups, events or symbols" (Hogg & Vaughan, 2005, p. 150). In the educational environment, attitudes expressed by teachers as well as students play an important role in the achievement of educational objectives. Specifically with regard to the use of new innovations in the classroom, traditional teaching methods are being forced to accommodate what are sometimes incommensurate information technologies. The attitudes of teachers play a prominent role in educational interaction as well as instructional choices and as such are fundamental in examining the outcome of technological integration in the classroom (Becker, Ravitz, & Wong, 1999; Albion & Ertmer, 2002).

Allport (1935) as cited in Albarracin et al., (2005) mentioned that an attitude is a mental or neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related. His definition, though is complex, emphasises two crucial aspects that contribute a lot in understanding the concept of attitude. In their definition, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), emphasises the learned nature of attitudes: "An attitude is a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object" (p. 6).

Eagly and Chaiken (1993) have omitted that aspect through their evaluative definition of attitudes: "Attitude is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour."(p. 1). Computer attitudes are influenced by different variables. Examples from recent research include training (Tsitouridou & Vryzas, 2003), knowledge about computers (Mukti, 2000), computer anxiety and liking (Yildirim, 2000), and computer experience (Kumar & Kumar, 2003). In most cases, many of these factors interact with one another to impact on attitude towards computers.

III. Aspects of Attitude

Two core aspects characterise attitudes. The first, which is the central one, refers to "readiness for response." That is, an attitude is not behaviour, not something that a person does; rather it is a preparation for behaviour, a predisposition to respond in a particular way to the attitude object. The term attitude object is used to include things, people, places, ideas, actions, or situations, either singular or plural. This aspect appears in many other definitions like that of Jung (1971): "*readiness of the psyche to act or react in a certain way"* (Jung, 1971, p. 687) as cited in Oskamp and Schultz (2005). The second aspect is the "motivating" or driving force of attitudes. That is, attitudes are not just passive result of past experiences. Instead they have two active actions expressed by Allport as "exerting a directive or dynamic influence. Dynamic action means that it impels or drives behaviour. Directive action means that it guides the form and manner of behaviour into specific channels, encouraging some actions and deterring others.

Attitudes are characterised by other essential features like their relatively "enduring nature", though it is not true for all attitudes (some attitudes can be stable whereas others can be changeable). The evaluation aspect of attitudes, which is the disposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to given objects, has been increasingly stressed by recent research. Olson and Maio (2003) define attitudes as "tendencies to evaluate objects favourably or unfavourably" (p. 299). Bem (1972) defines attitudes as "Attitudes are likes and dislikes" (p. 14) cited in Oskamps and Schultz (2005, p. 8), this simple definition emphasizes the importance of the evaluative aspect of attitudes. In conclusion, I can say that in general "attitude" is a hypothetical construct that represents an individual's like or dislike for an item. They are positive, negative or neutral views of an "attitude object. People can also simultaneously hold a positive and a negative bias towards the attitude in question. All attitudes take a stance - positive or negative – but they can vary in intensity.

IV. Teachers' Attitudes and Computer Technology Training

There is a positive relationship between computer technology training and teachers' attitudes (Becker et al., 1999; Gobbo & Girardi, 2001). Training can significantly impact the ways in which a teacher embraces technology tools in the classroom. In an examination of teaching styles and technology integration in Italy, results "appeared to indicate that both personal theories of teaching and the level of competence with technology play a major role in how teachers implement technology and in their perception of their own and their pupils' motivation" (Gobbo & Girardi, 2001, p. 63).

In contrast, a study carried out by Veen (1993) that described the daily pedagogical practices of four teachers in the midst of implementing Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in their classrooms in Dutch, found that the most important factor effecting teachers' use of ICT was teachers' attitudes regarding what should be taught and the way it should be taught. Computer related technical skills were found to be less important than skills related to the teachers' competence in managing activities and communicating lessons.

Teachers must be given the opportunity to become acquainted with newly introduced technologies. Mcalister et al., (2005), in their study of teachers' use of computers to teach mathematics, found that overall attitudes towards using computers were very positive, although many of them had limited experience with computers. The conclusion of

Mcalister et al., (2005) was that more training and support in IT should be given to teachers, and more value should be placed on the teacher as a role model for students. Gulbahar (2008) reported that lack of in-service training and insufficient technological infrastructures were the factors that have a significant influence on the effective use of technology by instructors.

Most of the studies focusing on teachers and CALL discussed the training and the attitudes of teachers towards CALL (Ridgway & Passey, 1991; Egbert, Paulis & Nakamichi, 2002; Jones, 2002; Warschauer, 2002). Egbert, Paulis, and Nakamichi (2002) had participants of twenty English as a second language and foreign language teachers in their sample. They used surveys and follow-up interviews on technology use in class. They concluded that lack of time, support and resources prohibited the use of CALL by the teachers. Warschauer (2002) discussed the training of instructors in Egypt about the use and applications of CALL. An interesting anecdote was given in his discussion of CALL. He said that an Egyptian university lecturer expressed his view as: we have the hardware, we have the software, but we lack the human ware. Ridgway and Passey (1991) stressed out the importance of training teachers and exploiting the use of computers more than as a word processor in the classroom. Similarly, Jones (2002) argued that teachers need to become informed users of technology and stressed the importance of technology training.

V. Teachers' Attitudes and Computer Technology Integration

Teachers who reportedly value the integration of technology change their teaching in order to better incorporate technology approaches (Cox et al., 1999). Software availability and teacher willingness to use the software can have positive effects on the teachers' attitudes towards the adoption of technology in the classroom (Sepehr & Harris, 1995). Interactive venues and discussion boards can help teachers to learn with technology instead of solely using the technology to teach (Coniam, 2002; Ducate & Arnold, 2006). Additionally, teachers who report a strong commitment to teaching as well as their own professional development have been found to integrate technology tools more readily (Hadley & Sheingold, 1993; Becker et al., 1999).

Norum, Grabinger and Duffield (1999) studied the "thoughts, perceptions, beliefs, experiences, knowledge, and growth" (p. 187) of teachers studying and attempting to integrate the use of computers in their classrooms. The important theme they found running throughout this research was teachers' strong assertion that they needed to change personally and take on new roles if technology was to be effectively integrated into their classrooms. Most of the teachers involved in this study saw themselves as the place where change efforts needed to begin. Experiences with technology planning highlight the well-documented observation that teacher attitudes toward technology and technology integration seriously impact the success of professional development programs. They thus need to be seriously considered (Albion, 1999; Ross, Hogaboam-Gray, & Hannay, 1999).

Positive attitudes toward technology integration enhance learning to use technologies in teaching and learning; negative attitudes constrain it. This does not necessarily mean that only teachers with positive attitudes should be included in technology training activities. It does mean that negative attitudes among participants need to be valued and addressed, and that positive attitudes should be encouraged and developed. Teachers often recognize that their students do indeed need additional input and output activities to help them continue to improve their language skills, particularly pronunciation skills (Albion, 1999; Ross, Hogaboam-Gray, & Hannay, 1999).

Guskey (1989) and Saye (1998) stated that as the teacher plays the key role in classroom change and teachers tend to accept only changes that they perceive facilitate their work, exploring teachers' attitudes toward technology integration is necessary. Early in 1987 Woodrow observed that the infusion of computer technology into school curriculum has the potential to drastically change educational practices. However, to successfully change traditional instructional practices, teachers must have positive attitudes toward the educational issues involved. If teachers are resistant to the change, the proposed curricular and procedural changes will have a slim chance of success. This is true of any educational innovation, but it is particularly true of technology use in education because the change involves both the acquisitions of new technology skills and pedagogies (Woodrow, 1987; Saye, 1998).

Chinese teachers' attitudes toward the pedagogical use of computers were measured by Allan and Will (2001). These attitudes also play an important role in the effective investment in computer technology to support instruction and successful integration of computers in teaching (Koohang 1989). Teachers' attitudes are a major enabling/disabling factor in the adoption of technology (Bullock, 2004). Similarly, Kersaint, Horton, Stohl, and Garofalo (2003) found that teachers who have positive attitudes toward technology feel more comfortable with using it and usually incorporate it into their teaching. Woodrow (1992) asserts that any successful transformation in educational practice requires the development of positive user attitude toward the new technology. The development of teachers' positive attitudes toward ICT is a key factor not only for enhancing computer integration but also for avoiding teachers' resistance to computer use (Watson, 1998). Watson (1998) warns against the severance of the innovation from the classroom teacher and the idea that ''the teacher is an empty vessel into which this externally defined innovation must be poured'' (p. 191).

VI. Teachers' Attitudes and Computer Experience

Dupagne and Krendl (1992) noted that computer experience often fosters positive attitudes towards computers; moreover, the lack of computer instruction often accounts for teachers' low confidence level when they initiate

computer activities. This feeling of low confidence often results in high anxiety towards computers. High anxiety can lead to negative attitudes and eventually negatively influence the learning process.

Computer experience has been the most commonly cited variable correlated to positive attitudes (Woodrow, 1992; Chou, 1997; Ropp, 1999; Yıldırım, 2000; Gaudron & Vignoli 2002). For example, Woodrow (1992) reported correlations between computer experience and attitudes toward technology. Chou (1997) also highlighted that computer experience influenced teacher attitudes toward computers. Ropp (1999) found that there is significant relationship between computer access and hours of computer use per week and computer attitudes.

According to Abas (1995a), Blankenship (1998) and Isleem (2003), teachers' attitudes have been found to be a major predictor of the use of new technologies in instructional settings. Christensen (1998) states that teachers' attitudes toward computers affect not only their own computer experiences, but also the experiences of the students they teach. In fact, it has been suggested that attitudes towards computers affect teachers' use of computers in the classroom and the likelihood of their benefiting from training. Positive attitudes often encourage less technologically capable teachers to learn the skills necessary for the implementation of technology-based activities in the classroom.

VII. Teachers' Attitudes and Computer Anxiety and Interest

According to the report of International Society for Technology and Education (2001), relatively few teachers (20%) report feeling well prepared to integrate technology into classroom instruction. Although computers have been put in the classroom, many teachers are still skeptical of the value computers have provided for teaching and learning. Studies indicate that the level of feelings teachers have toward computer use range from euphoria to uncertainty, to hostility and fear (Berson, 1996; Saye, 1998). Some teachers show little interest in using instructional technology, while others are obviously resistant to its use. Some positively accept the concept, but feel somewhat bound by lack of training for effective integration (Chin & Hortin, 1993). Still others have ambivalent feelings toward technology. Feelings of uncertainty, hostility and fear naturally lead to many teachers' reluctance or resistance to technological innovation. They will continue to adhere to their traditional practices with which they feel more confident and comfortable.

Teo, Lee and Chai (2008) showed that the effective use of technology enables teachers to facilitate and adjust their instructional strategies to optimize students' learning. In this respect, when teachers' role and activity in the process is taken into account; it is important to know teachers' interest in technology and their attitudes, affective features towards technology (Erkan, 2004; Rohaan, Taconis & Jochems, 2010). Kagan (1992) noted that teachers' attitudes appear to lie at the heart of teaching and tend to be associated with a congruent style of teaching. Teachers' attitudes and emotions also build the meanings they bring to innovations such as technology integration. Hence, changes to teaching style, as might be required by working with technology, may necessitate changes to teachers' attitudes (Albion & Ertmer, 2002).

VIII. Teachers' Attitudes and Computer Literacy

In Asan's (2003) study, primary teachers' perceptions and awareness level about specific technologies, and about the role of technology in education, and how they see the technological problems that are faced by basic education school systems in Turkey were investigated. The results showed that many teachers were not computer users and lacked a functional computer literacy background upon which to build new technology and skills. The study also indicated that the use of computer and related technologies was not routine part of their teaching and learning environment.

Cavas and Kesercioğlu (2003) investigated the science teachers' attitudes toward computer assisted learning (CAL). The results showed that the majority of science teachers had positive attitudes toward CAL and no gender difference exists between science teachers' computer-assisted learning attitudes. Ocak and Akdemir (2008) expressed that science teachers' computer literacy level is related to their computer use. And also computer literacy level of the teachers increases their integration of computer applications in their teaching. In the study, most of the teachers use Internet, email, and educational software CDs as computer applications in the classrooms. They found statistically differences in the integration of computer applications as an instructional tool.

Teachers' attitudes toward computer technologies are related to teachers' computer competence. In their study of the correlation between teachers' attitude and acceptance of technology, Francis-Pelton and Pelton (1996) maintained although many teachers believe computers are an important component of a student's education, their lack of knowledge and experience lead to a lack of confidence to attempt to introduce them into their instruction. A large number of studies showed that teachers' computer competence is a significant predictor of their attitudes toward computers (Na, 1993; Berner, 2003). Al-Oteawi (2002) found that most teachers who showed negative or neutral attitudes toward the use of ICT in education lacked knowledge and skill about computers that would enable them to make ''informed decision'' (p. 253).

A major obstacle to successful technology integration was the lack of teacher confidence and skill when using technology (Zammit, 1992). Supporting this result, in the study of Akpınar (2003) where he studied the level of primary and secondary school teachers' using the technological opportunities, it is concluded that half of teachers do not use computers for educational purposes in activities outside the classroom and almost half of them never use computer software in educational activities. Again in another study (Erdemir, Bakırcı & Eyduran, 2009), pre-service teachers state that they do not feel themselves adequate for using internet and computer for the purpose of teaching, while they feel

that they are adequate for using search engines; they can prepare basic materials for teaching but not complex and multi-purpose educational devices.

IX. Conclusion

It can be stated that simply providing technology resources does not guarantee their use in language instruction. Therefore, it is necessary to convince teachers of the usefulness and benefits of these resources in improving teaching and learning. This suggests the need for effective guidance, support and training for teachers in integrating computer technology resources into language instruction through more hands-on and direct practical experience. The prominent factors that influence the use of computer technology resources are provision of efficient and effective training support, and more systematic incorporation of technology resources into the curriculum. Training should not be limited to how to use computer technology; it should show teachers how they can make use of technology in improving the quality and effectiveness of their instruction, as well as how such technology resources can be effectively integrated into the curriculum. There is a need for ongoing training and assistance in helping teachers to better employ computer technology resources in pedagogic practices. Although it is important to know that teachers need more equipment or more time to plan for technology use, it may not always be enough. It may also be important to understand teachers' reasons for computer technology using or not using computer technology and their attitudes about the value of technology in teaching and learning practices. While introducing computer technology resources to teachers, their pedagogical potential should be emphasized and guidance and assistance should be provided on ways of integrating these resources into instruction. Those who plan to integrate particular technology resources need to provide the rational and grounding for better integration into language instruction and learning. Teachers need to be provided with explanation, guidance and assistance from trainers and other colleagues, and also the opportunities to reflect and discuss the integration, share outcomes and possible problems with each other. To understand how to achieve better integration, we need to study teachers and what makes them use computers, and we need to study computer technology resources and what makes teachers want to or need to use them. The innovative nature of technology, as it continues to change and expand, will require teachers to adapt and change the way they approach teaching and learning.

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Differences in L1 and L2 Academic Writing

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***Abstract*—Since the first contrastive rhetoric study by Kaplan in 1966, many studies have been produced, and over several decades of development, there have been many contributions gained from previous contrastive rhetoric studies. In this article, many kinds of differences existing in L1 and L2 academic writing have been discussed. I will categorize the differences in three major parts as following: differences in the level of lexicon, differences in the level of sentence, and differences in the level of passage.**

***Index Terms*—contrastive rhetoric, academic writing, difference between L1 and L2**

I. Introduction

Robert B. Kaplan's study on the differences in discourse structures in different languages in 1966 is the beginning of the huge corpus of contrastive rhetoric studies. Then because of the development of text linguistics and discourse analysis during the 1980s (Enkvist, 1987; Leki, 1991, see Matsuda, 1997), contrastive rhetoric study began to focus on the systematic study of the organization in L1 and L2 rhetoric (Martin, 1992, see Matsuda, 1997) and to "consider whole texts as dynamic entities" (Connor, 1996, P.19). Later Connor (1996) redefines contrastive rhetoric as "an area of research in second language acquisition that identifies problems in composition encountered by second language writers and, by referring to the rhetorical strategies of the first language, attempts to explain them"(P.5). Throughout the three decades, many contributions have been made from previous contrastive rhetoric studies in various fields such as in ESL education, translation, and genre-specific writing (Connor, 1996; Noor, 2001).

Among those research and studies, one statement drew my attention particularly. Stapleton (2002) claims in his paper that the difference between academic writing in an L1 and L2 are often misrepresented and overstated. In his paper Stapleton demonstrates that except for the minor difference in genre, structure and the development of the article, there are lots of resemblances in academic writing between L1 and L2. Although Stapleton's study was persuasive enough to some audience, in my point of view he neglects the great diversity in academic writing between L1 and L2. I disagree with Stapleton's point of view. In my opinion, the differences in academic writing between L1 and L2 are not misrepresented and overstated. There are many kinds of differences existing in L1 and L2 academic writing. I will categorize the differences in three major parts as following: differences in the level of lexicon, differences in the level of sentence, and differences in the level of passage. At the level of lexicon, the differences in the formation of word and in the choice of word will be mentioned. Then at the level of sentence, the differences in the sentence patterns and in the sentence subject will be discussed. Finally at the level of passage, differences in the choice of writing topic, in the voice, in the organization, in the reader's and writer's responsibility, in the attitude toward quotation, in the attitude on good writing, and in writing conventions of discourse community will be elaborated.

II. Main Differences between Academic Writing in L1 and L2

A. Differences in the Level of Lexicon

There are some differences in academic writing between in L1 and in L2 in the level of lexicon, such as the formation of word (character), and the choice of word.

1. Differences in the formation of word (character)

When mentioning the academic writing, we should firstly discuss the word --- the basis of writing. The different way of word formation between L1 and L2 can result in diversity at the word, phrase, sentence and paragraph level and even the whole article itself.

XiaoPin, Ao (1997) suggested, "There are big differences between Chinese and English words" For instance, some Chinese characters can show its meaning from its grapheme. In other words people can guess the signification but can not know the pronunciations of the character from its formation structure. For instance, the Chinese character "明" (bright or brightness) which means light and brightness is made up by "日" (sun) and "月" (moon). People can figure out the meaning of "明" which is bright or brightness, because "日" (sun) and "月" (moon) can bring people brightness.

The formation of English word is different. Most English words can show their pronunciations but can not show the meaning from themselves. That is to say people can read "bright" out but can not know the exact meaning of "bright". Xiufeng, Zhao(2004) suggested that "structural difference of nominal groups between Chinese and English affect Chinese students' styles in English writing". The differences in word formation between L1 and L2 can lead to differences in sentences, and structure in academic writing.

2. Differences in the choice of word

Besides, there are some differences in the choice of word. English speaking students use more nominalizations. Kachru (1983) compares Hindi and English, and finds that more pronouns are used in narratives in English than in Hindi (Noor, 2001, p.260). English language speakers prefer simple words. Therefore They would like to use nominalizations and pronouns to express meaning simply. The choice of word forms in L1 writing would be transferred into L2 writing (Kaplan, 1976, cited in Mohan & Lo, 1985).

B. Differences in the Level of Sentence

In this part, the differences in L1 and L2 academic writing will be discussed from two aspects: the sentence pattern and the subject of a sentence.

1. Differences in the sentence patterns

The sentence patterns of first language will influence the second language writing (Staplan, 1976, cited in Mohan & Lo, 1985). It shows that there do exist many differences between L1 and L2 academic writing. Arab students use many parallel sentences in their English essays. Spanish students like to use long sentences (Noor, 2001, p.257). After comparing Spanish and English, Santana-Seda (1975) claims that Spanish students use more coordinate sequences while English students use more subordinate sequences (Noor, 2001, p.258). Chinese speakers would use more short sentences compared to English speakers. When I translate an English sentence with a subordinate clause into Chinese, it will be translated into several Chinese short sentences to express the same meaning of the English sentence, because there is no subordinate clause in Chinese.

2. Differences in the sentence subject

In academic argument essays, Chinese speakers often use people as the subject in the sentences. They like to involve the role of people in the description of activities. Chinese believe people play a very important and active role in the process of knowing and reforming the outside world (He Shanfen, 2002, p.474).

But in English academic argument essays, in order to show what they are saying is the objective fact, English speaking people prefer to use passive tense in the sentences of which the subjects are objects. Ostler's (1988) study shows that English speaking students use more passives in their essays (Noor, 2001, p.257). This point is also supported by Pan Wenguo (1997) and He Shanfen (2002) respectively. In Pan Wenguo (1997)'s book, he provides some text examples and explains why Chinese speakers like to use people as subjects in sentences.

C. Differences in the Level of Passage

At the level of passage, the differences in L1 and L2 academic writing will be summarized into six categories. They are differences in the choice of writing topic, differences in voice, differences in organization, differences in reader's and writer's responsibility, differences in the attitude toward quotation, differences in the attitudes on good writing.

1. Differences in the choice of writing topic

The choice of writing topic is influenced by cultural background and social conditions. Choice of writing topic is one factor which reflects individual's cultural background and social context. The social and cultural background influences choice of topic in writing.

For example, in Chinese writing, people will discuss their personal beliefs because they consider them to be common and public topics. While in English writing, people seldom discuss around the topics of personal beliefs because in English speaking cultures, issues like beliefs are personal and it is not suitable to be discussed publicly. This is an example of cultural influence on choosing writing topics.

There is another example of social conditions influencing topic choice. In western society, most people advocate laws and would like to discuss issues from the perspective of law. But in Chinese society, people prefer moralization so they would like to discuss it from the perspective of morals. So Noor (2001) suggests social conditions constrain the choice of topic (p.265).

2. Differences in voice

Matsuda (2001) defines the notion of voice which refers to all the language characteristics shown from writing. The voice is social and cultural influenced. It is changing as time goes on (cited in Stapleton, 2002, p.178). As Elbow (1981) describes, voice is individual's written reflection of culture (cited in Stapleton, 2002, p.178).

When writing academic articles, English writers establish their claim early and directly in their articles and like expressing showing their own " voice", and show their " authorial presence" (Hyland, cited in Stapleton, 2002. p.178) and "authorial identity"(Hirvela &Belcher; Ivanic&Camps; Tang and John, cited in Stapleton, 2002. p.178) in their academic writing such as expository prose and argumentation genre. In contrast Chinese writers seldom use voice, authorial presences and authorial identity and they bring forward the claim much later in the article and more indirectly. Shen(1989 cited in Stapleton 2002, p. 179) explores the reasons why Chinese writers experience difficulty using their own voice, by, for example using the pronoun "I".

3. Differences in organization

As Kaplan (1972) says that "each language and each culture has a paragraph order unique to itself" (cited in Mohan & Lo, 1985, p.517). There are some differences in academic writing between different languages in organization aspect.

3.1 Linear and Curvy

There is huge diversity in paragraph organization between L1 and L2 academic writing. In 1966, Kaplan suggested that western people especially English speakers "use a predominantly linear paragraph organization in expository texts". (Kaplan, cited in Noor 2001, p.256). Clyne (1980, 1981, & 1983) studies essay writing and makes a conclusion that German writing is in a less linear way than English (Noor, 2001, p.260).

In contrast, other languages show a different, non-linear organization of paragraphs in expository prose. Arabic speaking students have elaborate introductions but less consistent conclusions. Japanese students put more details in the latter parts and these details often have less relation with the topics (cited in Noor, 2001, p.257).

Shen (1989) claims English writing is straight linear style but Chinese writing is different. In Chinese writing, students would like to start with the explanation of conditions. After clearing the surroundings, the Chinese students get to the real target (cited in Stapleton, 2002, p.181). Therefore, the Chinese approach is 'turning and turning in a widening gyre.'"(Kaplan 1966, cited in Noor 2001, p.256). In other words, Chinese people obviously produce writing in a curvy way.

3.2 Deductive and Inductive

Kaplan explained that "an expository discourse in English begin with a topic statement, which was followed by subdivisions supported by examples and illustrations that central idea was developed to prove or argue the subject in question, relating the central idea to all the other ideas in the whole essay." (Kaplan 1966 cited in Noor 2001, p256) "In reference to Kaplan (1966)'s seminal paper on contrastive rhetoric, Shen (1989) claimed that contrary to the "straight line Western approach" (Shen,1989, p. 463, as cited in Stapleton, 2002, p.180) of composition, Chinese writing follows the Confucian style of first starting the conditions of composition: how, why, and when the piece is being composed. All of this will serve as a proper foundation on which to build a house". (Stapleton, 2002 p.180) In other words Chinese academic writing is inductive and English writing is deductive. (Stapleton, 2002. p.180). Hinds (1990) suggested the same idea. Hinds did research on expository writing in Japanese, Chinese, Korean and Thai. He claimed that Oriental writers used the inductive approach. English speaking people prefer deductive writing (Noor, 2001, p.261).

In Chinese writing, students would like to start with the explanation of conditions. After clearing the surroundings, the Chinese students get to the real target. As a Chinese I have the same feeling, before talking about the real target I would like to use some words to explain why, how and when my work should begin. By using analysis and critique of other's study I will show my claim indirectly and later in the article. That is the reason why some English-speaking people have difficulty finding the clear claim within an academic article written by a Chinese writer.

4. Differences in reader's and writer's responsibility

It is considered that there is a great diversity of reader and writer responsibility in academic writing. By giving examples from Japanese texts and anecdotes of conversations between Americans and Japanese, Hinds (1987) suggests that "English use a writer responsible rhetoric, Japanese use a reader responsible rhetoric". (Hinds,1987, cited in Noor, 2001, p.263) That is to say in English academic writing it is the writer's responsibility to make the article easy to read. Furthermore, in the process of writing the writer should be aware of the audience, which can link to Johns' (1993) viewpoint. In contrast, In Japanese writing, it is the reader's responsibility to understand the author's intention for writing the article. Hinds (1990) said that the two kinds of rhetoric fulfill different expectations of the reader.

Clyne (cited in Noor 2001, p.263) also brings forward similar claims for English and German. Clyne thinks that the writer should afford the burden to make their articles easy to read in English-speaking countries. While in German-speaking countries "the reader has to make the extra effort to understand the text."(Clyne 1987 cited in Noor 2001, p.263). In the German tradition of academic writing the author would like to provide more knowledge and theory beside the main point for the reader. The German way of writing is "not designed to be easy to read." (Clyne 1987, cited in Noor 2001, p.263) That is to say, German writing is to give readers stimulus to think instead of telling them directly. Therefore German writing is not easy to read and it needs readers to make more effort.

Hinds (1987) compares classic Chinese and modern Chinese with Japanese and English (cited in Noor, 2001, p.262). Classic Chinese is more like Japanese. The language marks in texts can be absent or less and the transition sentences are less so that readers have to be active to understand the writing. English is writer-responsible rhetoric. Modern Chinese is more like English. The discourse needs to be directly presented to readers and try to persuade readers to believe what the writer says.

5. Differences in the attitude toward quotation

Differences in academic writing also lie in the attitudes toward quotation. Chinese writers are fond of using quotations and allusions because they are familiar, and love, their history and literature of past ages. In 1950-1970 Chinese writers liked to quote chairman Mao's words to make their claims become more persuasive. In modern Chinese writing, people also like using quotations. They may use proverbs such as "A lazy youth, a lousy age" from Kongzi, the founder of Confucianism to persuade the youth who do not work hard. English writers do not use this approach, and Anglo-American English rhetoric does not consider quotations from authorities as a proper way of expressing ideas. The English people tend to express their claims directly by using voice, such as I. What is worth mentioning is that when English writers cite some person's viewpoint to support their own claim, they find some evidence to explain why it is worth quoting, and show how the quotations helps express the author's claim.

6. Differences in the attitudes on good writing

Different culture made the standard of good writing is widely divergent. It can result in the diversity in academic writings. listed the different criteria on good writing between Chinese and American composition teacher. In the view of Chinese composition teachers a good article should not only brought forward valuable but also need to disseminate accepted morality of society. Chinese writer consider (disseminate morality) in their article as part of their duties. But in English composition teachers have no right to deal with issues of morality. Li also suggests that "imitation is acceptable", that is to say in China, when students are learning about how to write an academic article imitate other's work is acceptable. But in America is forbidden, a good writing should show the author's "unique voice" or particular viewpoint. It is worth mentioning that expressing personal emotion is a good sign in Chinese writing. It can show the author's enthusiasm in the certain academic writing and helps readers to understand or feel the author's claim deeply. For English writing, bringing too much emotion in writing is not good. American or English writers think that emotion should not appear too much in Academic writing. Emotion is not an essential part of writing. Expressing personal emotion too much in academic writing can mislead the readers. That is to say, readers can not easily grasp the writer's claim beside too many emotions.

7. Difference in writing conventions of discourse community

As a part embedded in the cultural background, the discourse community plays an important role in academic writing. The differences in social conventions of discourse community influence people's academic writing a lot, according to the studies of Flowerdew (2000), Kennedy (2001) and Spack (1997). In their studies, they give many examples to prove that there are many significant differences in academic writing between L1 and L2. The example of Japanese student Yuko's experience mentioned by Spack (1997) shows some detailed significant differences in academic writing in different discourse communities embedded in cultures. She met lots of troubles in academic writing because she did not know the conventions in US academic writing discourse community. That is to say, knowing the different conventions in different discourse communities is important in academic writing. These differences exist in the reality and they are not overstated.

III. Conclusion

Since the first contrastive rhetoric study by Kaplan in 1966, many studies have been produced, and over several decades of development, there have been many contributions gained from previous contrastive rhetoric studies. However, there are still some limitations and weak points in this area. So some researchers summarized and made critiques about certain studies. Stapleton (2002) claims the differences between academic writing in an L1 and an L2 are often misrepresented and overstated. I disagree with Stapleton. I believe that there are differences between academic writing in L1 and L2, and they are not overstated. Results of many studies support my argument that there do exist differences between academic writing in L1 and L2 in various aspects and they are not overstated. In this article, many kinds of differences existing in L1 and L2 academic writing have been discussed. These differences are mainly in three parts as following: differences in the level of lexicon, differences in the level of sentence, and differences in the level of passage. At the level of lexicon, the differences in the formation of word and in the choice of word have been mentioned. Then at the level of sentence, the differences in the sentence patterns and in the sentence subject have been discussed. Finally at the level of passage, differences in the choice of writing topic, in the voice, in the organization, in the reader's and writer's responsibility, in the attitude toward quotation, in the attitude on good writing, and in writing conventions of discourse community have been elaborated. However, in order to get more evidence for my point of view and make the statement more powerful, more contrastive rhetoric studies are needed. Besides, one point worths our further consideration, that is, languages are alive and dynamic; and the languages will change with many factors such as time, cross-cultural communication, etc. So the differences between academic writing in L1 and L2 also can change. The dynamic point of view could push contrastive rhetoric studies to go further and wider and then help people understand each other better in the cross-cultural communication.

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The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis Today

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***Abstract*—The Sapir-Whorf's Linguistic Relativity Hypothesis provokes intellectual discussion about the strong impact language has on our perception of the world around us. This paper intends to enliven the still open questions raised by this hypothesis. This is done by considering some of Sapir's, Whorf's, and other scholar's works.**

***Index Terms*—perception, language, thought.**

I. Introduction

Needless to say that the "Linguistic Relativity Hypothesis", well-known as the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, has been the subject of controversy ever since it was first formulated. Its originator was the American anthologist and linguist E.Sapir. He clearly expresses the principle of this hypothesis in his essay "The Status of Linguistics as a science "(cf. Sapir, selected Essays, 1961). B.L. Whorf reformulated the hypothesis in his 1940 published essay "Science and Linguistics" (cf. Whorf, Selected Writings, 1956).

The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis proclaimed the influence of language on thought and perception. This, in turn, implies that the speakers of different languages think and perceive reality in different ways and that each language has its own world view. The issues this hypothesis raised not only pertain to the field of linguistics but also had a bearing on Psychology, Ethnology, Anthropology, Sociology, Philosophy, as well as on the natural sciences. For, if reality is perceived and structured by the language we speak, the existence of an objective world becomes questionable, and the scientific knowledge we may obtain is bound to be subjective. Such a principle of relativity then becomes a principle of determinism. Whether the language we speak totally determines our attitude towards reality or whether we are merely influenced by its inherent world view remains a topic of heated discussion.

In this paper, the author only intends to enliven the already started discussion of the still unanswered questions raised by this hypothesis. However, a short general background as to the real initiators of the Linguistic Relativity Hypothesis is inevitable.

II. Germans as the Initiators of the Linguistic Relativity Hypothesis

Sapir and Whorf were by no means the initiators of the notion of linguistic relativity. The idea that the language system shapes the thinking of its speakers was first formulated by the German philosophers J.G. Herder (1744-1803) and W.V. Humboldt (1767-1835). However, it was Humboldt's philosophy of language that influenced linguistics. He felt that the subject matter of linguistics should reveal the role of language in forming ideas. That is to say, if language forms ideas, it also plays a role in shaping the attitudes of individuals. Hence, individuals speaking different languages must have different world views.

III. Sapir's and Whorf's Views on Language

A. Sapir

For Sapir, language does not reflect reality but actually shapes it to a large extent. Thus, he recognizes the objective nature of reality; but since the perception of reality is influenced by our linguistic habits, it follows that language plays an active role in the process of cognition. Sapir's linguistic relativity hypothesis can be stated as follows:

a) The language we speak and think in shapes the way we perceive the world.

b) The existence of the various language systems implies that the people who think in these different languages must perceive the world differently.

The idea that a given language shapes reality resembles Humboldt's idea of the world view inherent in every language. Sapir was acquainted with Humboldt's views, but his ideas on the role of language in the process of cognition were not genetically linked with Humboldt's opinions. Sapir reflections on language were based on empirically verifiable data resulting from his own work on American Indian languages.

Sapir realized that there is a close relationship between language and culture so that the one cannot be understood and appreciated without knowledge of the other. Sapir's views on the relationship between language and culture are clearly expressed in the following passage taken from his book "Language".

"Human beings do not live in the objective world alone, nor alone in the world of social activity as ordinarily understood, but are very much at the mercy of the particular language which has become the medium of expression for their society. It is quite an illusion to imagine that one adjusts to reality essentially without the use of language and that language is merely an incidental means of solving specific problems of communication or reflection. The fact of the matter is that the 'real world' is to a large extent unconsciously built up on the language habits of the group…We see and hear and otherwise experience very largely as we do because the language habits of our community predispose certain choices of interpretation." (Sapir, 1929b, P.207).

B. Whorf

The formulation of the linguistic relativity, for which Whorf is famous, was the result of his prolonged study of the Hopi language (an American Indian language). His first attempts at interpreting the Hopi grammar according to the usual indo-European categories were abandoned when they produced unexplainable irregularities. The linguistic structures that he found were very different from those of his mother tongue, English. Whorf argues that this implies a different way of thinking. Since thought is expressed through language, it follows that a differently structured language must pattern thought along its lines, thus influencing perception. Consequently, a Hopi speaker who perceives the world through the medium of his language must see reality accordingly.

Whorf's formulation of the linguistic relativity hypothesis is more radical than Sapir's but it is the one that is referred to as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. This hypothesis is not homogeneous as its name would indicate.

Sapir did not doubt the existence of an objective world. He said that human beings do not live in the objective world alone, but that the real world is, to a large extent, unconsciously built up on the language habits of the group.

Whorf stated that the world is presented in a kaleidoscopic flux of impressions which has to be organized by the linguistic system in our minds. This would seem to make the objective world into something totally subjective for Whorf.

Whorf extended his master's (Sapir's)ideas, and went much further than saying that there was a 'predisposition' ; in Whorf's view, the relationship between language and culture was a deterministic one.

The strongest Whorf statement concerning his ideas is the following:

"The background linguistic system (in other words, the grammar) of each language is not merely a reproducing instrument for voicing ideas but rather is itself the shaper of ideas, the program and guide for the individual's mental activity, for his analysis of impressions, for his synthesis of his mental stock in trade. Formulation of ideas is not an independent process, strictly rational in the old sense, but is part of a particular grammar, and differs, from slightly to greatly, between different grammars. We dissect nature along lines laid down by our native languages. The categories and types that we isolate from the world of phenomena we do not find there because they stare every observer in the face ; on the contrary, the world is presented in a kaleidoscopic flux of impressions which has to be organized by our minds — and this means largely by the linguistic systems in our minds. We cut nature up, organize it into concepts, and ascribe significances as we do, largely because we are parties to an agreement to organize it in this way — an agreement that holds throughout our speech community and is codified in the patterns of our language. The agreement is, of course, an implicit and unstated one, but its terms are absolutely obligatory; we cannot talk at all except by subscribing to the organization and classification of data which the agreement decrees."(Carroll, 1956, pp.212-14).

Even though Whorf's view in the above quotation is a deterministic one, he does not claim that a language completely determines the world-view of its speakers; he states that "This fact [the close relationship between language and its speakers, world-view] is very significant for modern science, for it means that no individual is free to describe nature with absolute impartiality but is constrained to certain modes of interpretation even while he thinks himself most free. The person most nearly free in such respects would be a linguist familiar with very many widely different linguistic systems. As yet no linguist is in such position. We are thus introduced to a new principle of relativity, which holds that all observers are not led by the same physical evidence to the same picture of the universe, unless their linguistic backgrounds are similar, or can in some way be calibrated (Carroll, 1956, p. 214).

Different speakers, then, view the world differently, and even sophisticated linguists aware of structural differences between languages cannot see the world as it is without the screen of language. Fishman (1960 and 19752 c) considered the kinds of claims the Sapir–Whorf hypothesis makes. Among these claims is that , if speakers of one language have certain words to describe things and speakers of another language lack similar words, then speakers of the first language will find it easier to talk about those things. This is the case if we consider the technical terms used in different sciences; for instance, physicians talk easily about medical phenomena, more than anyone else. A stronger claim is that, if one language makes distinctions that another does not make, then those who use the first language will more readily perceive the differences in their environment which such linguistic distinctions draw attention to. If you must classify 'camels', differently from someone who is not asked to make these distinctions.

The application of Whorf's views to the area of grammar makes his claims stronger, since classification systems that belong to sex, number, time, are both more subtle and more pervasive. The effect of such grammatical systems is stronger on language users than vocabulary differences alone. The strongest claim of all is that the grammatical categories available in a particular language not only help the users of that language to perceive the world in a certain way but also at the same time limit such perception. You perceive only what your language allows you, or predispose

you, to perceive. Your language controls your world- view. Speakers of different languages will, therefore, have different world-views.

Whorf acquired his views about the relationship between language and the world through his work as a fire prevention engineer, and through his work, as Sapir's student, on American Indian languages, especially on the Hopi language of New Mexico. Whorf found through his work as a fire prevention engineer that English speakers used the words 'full' and 'empty' in describing gasoline drums in relation to their liquid content alone; so, they smoked beside 'empty' gasoline drums, which weren't actually 'empty' but 'full' of gas vapor. Whorf was led by this and other examples to the conclusion that "The cue to a certain line of behavior is often given by the analogies of the linguistic formula in which the situation is spoken of, and by which to some degree it is analyzed, classified, and allotted its place in that world which is to a large extent unconsciously built up on the language habits of the group." (Carroll, 1956, P. 137).

The real work that led Whorf to make his strongest claims was his involvement in American Languages, in particular his contrastive studies on the Hopi Indian Language. He contrasted the Hopi linguistic structure with that of English, France, and German. Whorf found that these languages share many structural features that he named 'Standard Average European (SAE). Whorf, then, came to the conclusion that Hopi and SAE differ widely in their structural characteristics. For example, Hopi grammatical categories provide a 'process' orientation toward the world, Whereas the categories in SAE give SAE speakers a fixed orientation toward time and space so that they not only 'objectify' reality in certain ways but even distinguish between things that must be counted, e.g., trees, hills, and sparks, and those that need not be counted, e.g., Water, fire, and courage. In SAE 'events occur', 'have occurred', or 'will occur, in a definite time ; i.e., present, past, or future ; to speakers of Hopi, what is important is whether an event can be warranted to have occurred, or to be occurring, or to be expected to occur.

Whorf believed that these differences lead speakers of Hopi and SAE to view the world differently. The Hopi see the world as essentially an ongoing set of processes; objects and events are not discrete and countable; and time is not apportioned into fixed segments so that certain things recur, e.g. , minutes, mornings, and days. In contrast, speakers of SAE regard nearly everything in their world as discrete, measurable, countable, and recurrent; time and space do not flow into each other ; sparks and flames are things like pens and pencils; mornings recur in twenty-four hour cycles, and past, present, and future are every bit as real as sex differences. The different languages have different obligatory grammatical categories so that every time a speaker of Hopi or SAE says something, he or she must make certain observation about how the world is structured because of the structure of the language each speaks.

In this view, then, language provides a screen or filter to reality; it determines how speakers perceive and organize the world around them, both the natural world and the social world. Consequently, the language you speak helps to form your world-view. It defines your experience for you; you do not use it simply to report that experience. It is neutral but gets in the way, imposing habits of both looking and thinking.

Those who find the Whorfian hypothesis attractive argue that the language a person speaks affects that person's relationship to the external world in one or more ways. If language A has a word for a particular concept, then that word makes it easier for speakers of language A to refer to that concept than speakers of language B, who lack such a word and are forced to use a circumlocution. Moreover, it is actually easier for speakers of language A to perceive instances of the concept. If a language requires certain distinctions to be made because of its grammatical system, then the speakers of that language become conscious of the kinds of distinctions that must be referred to ; for example, sex, time, number, and animacy. These kinds of distinctions may also have an effect on how speakers learn to deal with the world, i.e., they can have consequences for both cognitive and cultural development.

Boas (1911) long ago pointed out that there was no necessary connection between language and culture or between language and race. People with very different cultures speak languages with many of the same structural Characteristics, e.g., Hungarians, Finns, and the Samoyeds of northern Siberia; and people who speak languages with very different structures often share much the same culture, e.g., Germans and Hungarians, or many people in southern India, or the widespread Islamic culture. Moreover, we can also dismiss any claim that certain types of languages can be associated with 'advanced' cultures and that others are indicative of cultures that are less advanced. As Sapir himself observed on this last point (1921, p.219) "When it comes to linguistic form, Plato walks with the Macedonian swineherd, Confucius with the head-hunting Savage of Assam".

It might be useful to take a quick look at some of Whorf's essential works and at the way he develops his grammatical method since this has contributed to the understanding of the Hopi language and since the study of the Hopi language lays the groundwork for his formulation of the hypothesis.

C. Whorf's Essential Works

In his essays: "A Linguistic Consideration of Thinking in Primitive Communities "(1936, see selected writings. Ed: j.B. carroll. MIT, New York….1956) and "Grammatical Categories " (1937, above source), Whorf draws the attention to the fact that traditional grammar only describes the external formal structure of a language and overlooks the linguistic relations that are not accounted for by sounds. These unmarked internal relations are what Whorf terms "covert categories". As an example, he cited the case of the English gender. Except for the pronouns, HE, SHE, IT, there is no real classification of gender in English, Which does not stop this category from being operative. Names are unmarked for gender, but the native speaker knows whether they refer to a man or a woman, and picks out the appropriate pronoun.

The "overt categories" are those that are marked by a sound and detected by a written sign.

The Navaho (an American Indian language) classification for objects is a covert one. It classifies different sorts of objects according to attributes like long, round, etc. Whorf refers to them as CRYPTOTYPES, as opposed to the PHENOTYPES with a clear meaning and formal mark. Since CRYTOTYPES are not marked, the speaker is not aware of them.

The presence of CRYPTOTYPES and the fact that we are unaware of their functioning, led Whorf later (Science and Linguistics, 1940) to conclude that thought is patterned by speech and therefore both thinking and speaking are influenced by the grammatical structure of our mother tongue.

In general, Whorf's views on language touch upon the problem of reality and perception, logic and cognition. In his "Language and Logic" (1941), Whorf attempts to demonstrate that common logic is not universal but dependent on the language of the speaker. The average person does not realize the influential nature of linguistic structure on his cognitive processes.

Whorf translated different languages into one another and obtained completely different structures and meanings. Some languages like Nootka (an American Indian language) do not divide their sentences into individual words. Whorf blames the Greeks for building up a contrast system and making it a law of reason, such as: Verb/Subject; Action/Actor, and Subject/Predicate. He says the European languages are built up on this contrast and consequently tend to objectivist phenomena. This "bipartition ideology of nature" common to European languages has influenced modern science in the way they "see actions and forces where it sometimes might be better to see states" (p.244). Therefore, Whorf cautions us not to accept the biased world view of a single language. He insists upon the necessity of analyzing many different language structures in order to correct the provisional analysis of reality and world view that western culture has imposed on modern science. That is to say, to avoid the despotism of language, Whorf proposes that we learn many differently structured languages.

IV. Evaluation of the Issues Raised by the Sapir–Whorf Hypothesis

Apart from Whorf, the study of the Hopi language has been the continuing occupation of the American Team of Linguists, C.C. Voegelin and F.M. Vangelis. Their first concern was the systematization of the Hopi Vocabulary. This was intended to facilitate the classification of the Hopi grammatical categories. That is to say, their approach is a linguistic one; its aim is not primarily to verify Whorf's data in order to prove or disprove the Sapir – Whorf hypothesis. This was done by the German linguists, H. Gipper and E. Malotki. Malotki says that "a different kind of linguistic emphasis leads to a certain kind of linguistic thinking "(1979:301). Gipper is just as cautions. He states that our language does influence our cautious, we grow up and learn its structures unconsciously and we articulate our thoughts according to its grammar. There can be no doubt that our mother tongue influences our thinking process, but since we are capable of initiating changes in our language and in our thinking habits, the question of relativity cannot be posed in terms of absoluteness or determinism , but in terms of degree (cf. 1972).

By restating the problem in terms of degree, it is possible to unite the mirror (Schiff's) theory with the creation theory, which asserts the creation of reality by the medium of language. Doing this would allow the following combination: in the first case, we perceive the existence of an objective reality, but in the second case, as adults, we perceive it out of habit through the medium of our language which structures our impressions and accentuates or disregards certain phenomena. The question is: to what degree does language influence us?

Language also affects our perception: the remembering of color cards by recalling their names; remembering figures according to the label we gave them during perception, etc. Carroll has demonstrated in a test given to Navaho and English speaking children that Navaho children classified objects according to their shapes, thus illustrating how perception can influence cognition. Cognition is also influenced by our linguistic structures.

V. Conclusion

Whorf may not have been right on all counts, but he was not wrong either. The fact that language plays a role in shaping our thoughts, in modifying our perception and in creating reality is irrefutable. Gipper phrased the question properly when he asked; to what extent does language influence us? In view of the positive (favorable to the hypothesis), or neutral results which the different tests have yielded, it would seem that the question of linguistic relativity is still a subject of controversy today. Although the search for linguistic universals has been intensified, it will be impossible to determine what is universal, if we don't know what is particular. Linguistic forms and grammatical categories need not appear so different, if their functions are similar.

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