Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

After a Summer: Pedagogical Developments in Cross Cultural Settings

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Abstract—This paper presents approaches and evaluations based on a summer of volunteer work in faculty development in China that led to years of cross cultural shared study, mentoring, and faculty training. Successful teaching or learning in a foreign culture emerged through attitudes and actions based on welcoming, accommodating, invigorating, valuing, and evaluating (WAIVE). Cross cultural shared learning between presenter and local faculty, during summers working in five provinces of China, showed participants gained confidence and skill in pedagogy inclusive of observation, stories, flexibility, cultural appreciation, societal awareness, and mutually shared knowledge in adaptable presentations, actions, modeling, practice, projects, and assessment options. Effective faculty development experiences, just as classroom teaching, needed a foundation of relational communication, flexibility, and interactive learning.

Index Terms—faculty development, pedagogy, cross cultural, China, welcome, accommodations, invigorate, values, evaluation

I. INTRODUCTION

In 2004, on my first morning at the assigned teaching site, in Wuhai, Inner Mongolia, in the People's Republic of China, I awoke at 6:30 a.m. to an enthusiastic instrumental version of Jesu' Joy of Man's Desire. I looked out the window to make sure I still saw rugged mountains and vast stretches of sand, and that I was indeed in a remote western region of China, and not just dreaming about having traveled to China. Then I located the sound, students sitting outside the 4 story classroom building, in an area shaded from the sun, practicing under the supervision of their young music teacher. Since the academic classes started at 7:45, and it was so hot later in the day, early morning practices for band, choral work, and sports took place at the Number One school in the city. Wuhai was a small city in China, in 2004 less than 400,000 people. In 1975 there were only herders and empty stretches of grassland along the western curves of the Yellow River, sand dunes, empty stretches of pummeled raw earth, and rugged craggy mountains farther away from the Huang He River. China saw they needed to develop the west, particularly this region so rich in coal, and a city blossomed in the desert.

For one summer, I had decided to volunteer through the NGO, Amity Foundation of Nanjing, to teach pedagogical strategies to Chinese teachers of English in a western province and city that rarely saw foreigners. Why travel to the other side of the earth to spend a summer teaching teachers? A foundational belief for my philosophy of teaching stands on the idea that teachers who are learners, and who encounter experiences that stretch learning abilities, communicate more effectively with students of diverse backgrounds. This idea of embracing a personal challenge through cross-cultural teaching led me to try a volunteer assignment in a remote rural region of China. It also led to a doctoral dissertation and five more summers working with teachers from a variety of remote and rural locations along with faculty development in the cities of Shanghai and Beijing, with a combined total of almost 600 teacher participants.

Advancing in pedagogy through cross cultural experiences, particularly through living in a community where one has constant reminders of differences, enhances an understanding for students who enter the classroom from a totally different background. As Sanchez, Araujo, and O'Donnell (2008) described, pedagogy for multicultural education teaches everyone involved through attitudes, actions, assumptions, apprehensions, associations, analysis, approaches, and appreciation that emerge throughout the time of shared learning. Williams and Tanaka (2007) found that cross-cultural dialogues between educators strengthened schools and communities, and suggested cultures stand at a crossroads where they will do best by flowing together.

English language studies form an imperative area for development and advancement in China. English is one of 3 major subjects in which students must excel to enter college in China. Public and private endeavors in China have aligned with the required study of English in China, and all areas of the country have the same English language requirement even though cities of the east have wealth and international options for learning that small towns in the west can hardly imagine. Jianxiang (2010) suggested teachers become advisors more than instructors and that students take an active role in learning, like performers.

Mete (2010) reviewed the studies showing there are more non-native speakers of English than native speakers and advised those who teach English to also advocate for building intercultural competence in communication. Amity teaching materials prepare their volunteers to lead Chinese teachers of English through a refresher course that will

advance cross-cultural communication, lead to more active learning, and equip teachers and students with insights on the 21st century global interconnections. However, the teaching materials and training times cannot guarantee the competence for successful cross-cultural communication. To succeed as a teacher in a non-native environment, one needs social and pedagogical skills that welcome, accommodate, invigorate, value, and evaluate (WAIVE) while sharing in learning right along with the students.

II. WELCOMING

Classrooms of public schools in the United States share an inclusive consideration not found in many other countries. If one has not demonstrated academic ability and promise, whether in Europe, the Mideast, Africa, or Asia, one is steered to leave school early and to work on vocational endeavors. In the United States (US) accommodations that may begin in elementary school can continue right through the college years. Acceptance and welcome for diverse abilities, learning styles, and people exists as a basic component to training people to work within education systems in the US. Moore et al (2010) emphasized teachers must practice what they preach to students about accepting and embracing diversity. Safety, respect, encouragement, sharing, and collaboration promote the use of life experiences for all the members of a classroom.

Mikami et al. (2011) studied how the behavior and interactions of teachers who attend to professional development for creating positive learning environments affect students' relationships. For traditional students, with no high disruptive patterns in their classroom experiences, the positive attitude of a teacher created improvement in peer interactions. The data from the Mikami et al.(2011) research showed that even in secondary school, students who had positive environments and interactions with teachers in the classroom will also have improved communication with peers. Unfortunately, students who have negative patterns in school and a history of disruption appeared to decline even more in peer relationships when classmates had more positive interactions with the teacher and peers.

Moore et al. (2010) found inclusive environments promoted more equitable learning and strengthened competencies with diversity in a culture. Small group dialogues, exploring others perspectives, learning new knowledge, varied educational strategies, and respect for learning experiences out of the classroom also fostered a welcoming collaborative environment. Scantlebury, (2008) based on years of teaching in four countries, emphasized the factors for establishing a welcoming classroom should include: respect for individual opinions, opportunities to share opinions, the importance of sharing, recognizing students can learn with and from one another, and establishing an environment where expectations are clear.

Clinton and Higbee (2011) examined the role of language in fostering a welcoming and positive environment. Words have power. Words can inspire, stimulate, and encourage, or not. Clinton and Higbee reinforced the need to consider people when creating a socially safe and empowering learning situation. Many other articles provide insight into creating environments that are welcoming, and Bang and Montgomery (2010) showed that even an appreciative attitude, compassion, and care demonstrated by a teacher can vary in interpretation and effect as that teacher is observed in foreign cultures.

Teachers who expect to work in a foreign culture would do well to consider the priorities and values in a study such as Bang and Montgomery, (2010) and to know as much as possible about the culture they will enter. According to cultural mores, the actual physical proximity in welcoming people into a classroom may vary, but learning names, discovering interests that can blend into classroom content and activities. An energetic presentation, enthusiasm for the subject, varied approaches for differing learning styles, and obvious desire to help class members succeed will establish a welcoming environment.

III. ACCOMMODATING

Min (2010) examined teachers who engaged in faculty development and what teaching staff needed when working with a unique focus group. Min found highly educated faculty members could have a disconnect with those they wanted to help because of a lack of understanding of theoretical and practical aspects of the life of the focus group members. Hillard (2009) explained that as faculty gather for development, the importance of knowing one's students stands as a foundation to finding success in accommodating student needs. Faculty can work together and form effective plans with the support of a school leadership team and identified needs. Hillard's (2009) research, writing, and teaching rests on cross cultural experiences, and the strategies work well in accommodating groups from major cities to remote rural regions.

Working with faculty on professional development in a non-native environment requires one to go beyond the hospitality and polite care of the hosts to do research on the culture, the school systems, the identified needs, and peripheral needs of teachers that affect performance in the classroom. Lee, Hong-biao, Zhong-hua, and Yu, (2011) confirmed that teacher participants in six provinces of China feel positive and open to curriculum reform. With teacher receptivity apparently open to revisions in the national curriculum, there comes a concern to not just make teachers more busy and overloaded in responsibilities. Faculty development facilitators need to know what classrooms, school buildings, books, supplies, school goals, curriculum, and class sizes are like for the participants who want to advance their skills as teachers. Powerful pedagogy does not exist in theories and facts memorized. Data, feedback, goals,

common practices, best practices, collaboration, open discussion, incorporating images participants know, metaphors that reveal teaching strategies, assessment options, and step by step practice of new methods will empower the teachers seeking to review and reform curriculum and their own teaching practices.

Kun-huei's (2010) discussion of learner-centered instruction showed teachers need strategies to help them overcome anxiety, resentment, and resignation in working with students in foreign language classes. Teachers of English also feel greater stress in countries where all students feel pressured to master English, at least well enough to score high on tests that will allow one to continue to have educational and career options. Usually, success for the learner depends on memorization. Kun-huei (2010) accentuated the desire teachers have to create a more well rounded lively environment for learning that meets different learning style needs, but teachers often lack the time and opportunity to experience language immersion, master methods for active learning, and to practice strategies for decreasing student anxiety in learning a foreign language.

If one travels to a foreign culture to engage in faculty development or work with students, one needs to have comprehension of the many tasks confronting the learners, methods to model for varying learning approaches, and ideas for simulating language immersion with active fun learning that decreases anxiety. Wu (2011) provided practical options increasing interest and decreasing anxiety for students who have access to technology. Wu's suggestions also allow for collaboration, and around the world one finds students enjoy working with peers. Frequently they will listen more attentively to peers and learn from them. Some strategies, like incorporating modern technology used by young people can enrich learning. However, teachers from developed English speaking countries need to waive their cultures' constant access to technology and deemphasizing of grammar to understand grammar exists as an essential major emphasis in foreign language learning. Grammar translation studies can engage students in revising topics, communication practice, role play, and creative writing that can alleviate learner anxiety.

Falicov (2009) described cultural attunement that foreign teachers can develop through the study of adaptations, perspectives, values, stressors, and awareness of ethnic minorities within a culture. Landing in a foreign culture as a teacher challenges one to decide between sticking with a universal and general approach, a blend of the universal with country or locale specific needs, and presentations that show one has a grasp on the needs, demands, and goals of a specific area and system. Ku and Shen (2009) highlighted the need to recognize gender differences in students' efforts that depend on intuition, sequencing, and choices of actions. Ku and Shen also emphasized the need to use clarity in word choices in a cultural context for and comprehension of terms. Working with a cultural guide in a host teacher or group of teachers will aid one in planning and presenting in a new cross-cultural setting and making necessary accommodations.

IV. INVIGORATING

Teaching is not business as usual. Teaching varies every day in every class because people change constantly even if not obviously. Van Bockern (2011) provided an explanation of intentionality that can pervade any classroom adding harmony, organization, skills, goals, participation, and vision. Teaching rests on relationships whether face to face or through online communication. Enthusiasm of the presenter adds to participant engagement.

Can's (2010) study in Turkey, with more teacher participants from urban than rural areas, found that adding technological tools to presentations caused teachers to see students give more complete attention to the lessons. With more attentive students teachers showed more enthusiasm for integrating variety in lessons. Banister, (2010) in a US investigation of technology in the classroom, found personal computers, mobile devices, media, and iPod Touch applications, when used well, increased student interest in subjects, exploration, skills, and self-efficacy. According to Banister, (2010) enriched technological options known, used, taught, and evaluated by the teacher, help students to see learning can be constant, mobile, innovative, and customized. What teachers need to guard against in attempting to invigorate the classroom with technology includes lack of planning, tracking, supervising, and managing student work on the web. Using new technology intrigues students, but can become a distraction rather than a tool for learning unless one waives assumptions of student's competence with and access to technology.

In many remote rural locations teachers and students have little access to technological options. Energizing the classroom clings then to a people oriented pedagogy that reaches students through the well managed, guided, varied, interactive, relational, rigorous transformative leadership of the teacher. Jaime Escalanate, decribed by Shouse (2009) modeled a foundation of determination, perseverance, energy, creativity, and leadership for students and faculty in a system and school culture that lacks many extras a wealthy system can provide. Escalante struggled to reach disaffected, discouraged, and disruptive students. He succeeded, just as he taught his students anyone could with strong desire and hard work. Invigorating teachers connect with students in mind and spirit, modeling what they expect from the students, considering student comfort, local challenges, and constructing lessons that give hope and life direction as well as practical skills.

V. VALUING

Tooth and Renshaw (2009) echoed what Coles (2010) has advocated for years, that narrative stories increase the power of learning fundamental to human capacities, commitments, communication, and cultural histories. Narrative in

pedagogy elicits attention, responses, and reflection. Wright, (2011) in a call for meaning-making with minorities, reminds schools and teachers to examine community practices of meaning-making and to know the stories of the communities sending students to the schools. Rather than by focusing on deficits in a community, the school system and teachers who show appreciative knowledge of the local culture will find community practices and stories that can engage students, affirm the community, and build a framework for more learning.

Dervin (2009) explored stories that inhibit cross cultural learning, myths from study abroad programs. When people make claims and tell stories, they provide their interpretation of experiences and events. Reading Dervin's account of perceptions and experiences of study abroad students generates questions that could fit into a variety of classroom studies.

What is a stereotype? What is diversity? What is foreign? How does one perceive attitudes? How openly can emotions be expressed in a culture? How do people form friendships, collaborations, teams, goals? How does one learn to look at self or to fairly judge others? Where does one encounter important symbols, lessons, music, and values of a culture? Why can something be both an advantage and a disadvantage? How do identities form? What are moods and how much control do people have over moods? When do communication problems affect a person's future, a group's future? What forms the unique approaches to grammar in a culture? What exists as foundational to acceptance in a culture? Where does one see a contradiction between what is said and what is usually done in a culture? How does one build a positive reputation in the culture? What causes one to lose respect in a community? What stories form the cultural myths? How can one learn the amount of eye contact, touch, or proximity acceptable in a foreign culture? Does the community value diversity? What are common human competencies?

Teachers need to waive long held ideas and assumptions in entering a community as a foreign guest. Jund's (2010) explanation of talk within a foreign culture shows an advance past comparing and contrasting to discursive practices that can shift with topics and take the conversation to a level that expands knowledge, increases mutual respect, and expand learning opportunities. Rashidi and Safari (2011) take a political glance at inter-cultural communication and language study, and they examine purposes, processes, oppressors, and the oppressed, problem-posing, and critical pedagogy. They remind teachers to take the learners into account in knowing their intellectual level, struggles, and options. Critical language pedagogy exists best with flexibility in the teacher's plan for themes, subject matter, and design of curriculum activities related to learners' realities. Among Rashidi and Safari's 9 principles, the concept of a cross-cultural teacher understanding the varied implications for the internationalization of English will lead individuals engaged in cross-cultural teaching to value each situation uniquely.

VI. EVALUATING

Teja (2010) reviews understanding of cultures with a look at norms, rules, mores, consequences, classifications, values, systems, traditions, and trends. Teja summarized world forces seeking measures of education that have changed the educational environment because of values, expressed subtly and overtly. Individuals involved in cross-cultural faculty development need to understand the values of the culture they visit and what that country uses as a mode of assessment measures. Many cultures choose to assess student learning through rote skills. Language learning, as described by Yuanfang and Bing, (2009) does not develop communicative practices and lifelong learning skills by heightening intrinsic motivation. Even in countries that have acknowledged a need for reform in curriculum and pedagogy, guiding administrators, teachers, and students to seek and use new methods of assessment based on affective and social strategies.

Communication oriented teaching and assessment needs modeling, practice, and buy-in from participants. Teaching approaches will remain tied to the rote skills and memory work without a clear change the value of assessment methods. Few teachers want to try new methods if the result will decrease the test scores that have stood as the foundational gateway to commendations, success, and greater educational options. It is the change globally in access to information that has decreased the value of simply learning as a human repository for knowledge. Even with revised curriculums, new textbooks, and faculty development led by foreign experts, classroom practices will remain aligned with traditional assessments if a society's emphasis and assessments do not stress flexibility, creativity, collaboration, and communication.

At the end of faculty development weeks, participants complete evaluations. Five tables with samples of participant comments follow. Table 1 shows a selection of comments from Chinese teachers of English about a welcoming environment and teacher. Table 2 shows comments about accommodating students' needs. Table 3 reveals reactions to adding invigorating elements to presentations and lessons. Table 4 comments describe ideas on valuing students, strategies, and teaching situations, and Table 5 includes some comments about trying different methods of evaluating student abilities, lesson presentations, and interactive learning.

TABLE 1.
SUMMARY OF PARTICIPANT RESPONSES IN WAIVE FACULTY DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCES

Category: Welcoming	Example Comments
Welcoming	I know a little more about the children than before. It seems that the activities and encouragement is so important for children.
	I want to be more welcoming but there are so many students in one classroom in China, and we cannot control it.
	You have great impact on us and showed the magic to make lessons so unforgettable! I thank you so much for affording time to help me in time. It really helps to clear my doubts and leads me to think I can break the ice.
	"To be a Lifelong Learner." You taught me and you really do that with many important ideas about teaching, and I also appreciate your smile for us and patience...
	I found that the foreign teacher always had effective ways to get us involved in thinking, communicating, reflecting, sharing, applying, and expressing.
	Professor thought out so many questions to motivate us to think about our teaching such as "what can you control in your classroom? What's salt in education? How is a teacher like a bottle of water? How can students master vocabulary with enjoyment?
	I like the images you use to help us think about teaching. You can lead a horse to water, but you can't make it drink unless you give it salt! Teachers need to be SALT which makes students are eager for knowledge. SALT includes, flavor, health, safety, preservation, passion, and persistence.
	Teachers need to wake up students' left and right sides of the brain often and practice with planned variety as much as possible.
	I n this training I felt excited, pleasant, appreciated, and confident so at that time I wanted to communicate eagerly

TABLE 2.
SUMMARY OF PARTICIPANT RESPONSES IN WAIVE FACULTY DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCES

Category: Accommodating	Example Comments
Accommodating	Thank you again for what you taught me in the summer vacation. I have tried to use some of the teaching methods to teach my students. In the past, I asked them to recite 15 words each day, then the next day I just tested them orally or got them to write their answers on paper, but now I will do some small games of words with them and I think it's interesting and my students are interested in the games. Every day when they see me, they will ask me," what will we do today?" I'm really very happy about this. Thank you!
	Today I played the recording of your teaching to my students. They were excited to listen to a foreign teacher working with the Chinese teachers.
	The kids in China are under pressure now. With too many people, fewer decent jobs, and fierce competition going on, they have no choice but to learn the knowledge that doesn't really work in modern society. I actually know now reading books really counts, but there is no time to be fully absorbed in a book. We are like machines and always feel empty.
	A small prize also makes them excited and proud. Thanks a lot for having brought me so much happiness and having given me great encouragement to try to add some fun to learning.
	Thank you for giving me so many good suggestions. I will choose some to have a try. I think different strategies will be effective for some naughty boys ,and I am also trying to think about some good ways to help them. Especially, some are the left- behind children, stay with their grandparents. None can help more about their study even many important habits. Many of problem children's parents are farmers or migrant workers.
	On the one hand, I need to choose some more effective teaching ways, even, sometimes I must forget the test. On the other hand, I need pay more attention on these children who lack the self-confidence and care, and try to design activities to make them feel better about study and relationships.
	It is so considerate of you to rearrange your schedule according to community needs.

TABLE 3.
SUMMARY OF PARTICIPANT RESPONSES IN WAIVE FACULTY DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCES

Category: Invigorating	Example Comments
Invigorating	Thanks for your lessons! These days I was attracted by your teaching style and deeply moved your positive attitude toward education. After listening to your lessons, I became more and more confident in expressing myself!
	I want to say I like you , because you are so energetic and ambitious. In a certain degree , you set an example for me ,
	I' m really glad to have this summer training in Shanghai. We have gotten wonderful lectures. All of us felt that we got strength indeed.
	In China ,people think that the teachers just like the candles, Burning out themselves to give light to others. I think you really do a wonderful job as a teacher.
	I really enjoy your teaching style. I want to say that your vigor and enthusiasm impressed me deeply. In my opinion, a teacher should be a healthy and optimistic person first. Then, he/she can influence their students' feelings, and bring hope and sunshine to the students' hearts. Teaching is a job, full of enjoyment, challenge and room to improve.
	Your enthusiasm and dedication to education, and your ideas about teaching and learning impressed all the teachers from my school. Actually, we are applying your ideas to our classes. As for me, I will always remember and make sure I have something new for my students every day, and that I should have something for the head, the heart and the hand in my class.
	My Monday also went well. I asked my students to describe some of the pictures we took during SEP today.Each group got two pictures and they described them with at least two sentences. They're really excited to see pictures and they did a good job. I learned to add a visual teaching method from you.
	Different kinds of students need different kinds of activities in learning, because every student is unique.
	We try our best to make our own chants, songs and even poems. I am eager to try them out in my teaching. We should improve our ability of creation. If the teachers don't have the spirit of creation, how can the students have them?

TABLE 4.
SUMMARY OF PARTICIPANT RESPONSES IN WAIVE FACULTY DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCES

Category: Valuing	Example Comments
Valuing	To create the new world in the future, the students not only need Knowledge, but also need passion, confidence, persistence and so on. Could we each week choose several models to put their photos and the assessment which written by teachers and classmates on the wall of classroom? Also schools should set bulletin boards for children, each week each class choose one or two pupils who have great behave or progress, it's best to make an opportunity for weak children in study. They may do well in other aspects. I am not sure if it will be effective, I am thinking about it and try to make it more specifically. I want to provide reasons for my students to learn English. Since China has entered the WTO and hosts many international events, if one learns English, one can help the motherland to become more effective, richer, and stronger. We've learned so many great educators: Mary Bethune, Albert Bandura, John Dewey, Maria Montessori, Jean Piaget, Lev Vygotsky and so on that we can think about their ideas and see how people from different countries can contribute to global education methods. We teachers of English know we need to communicate with really English native speakers. I forgot many words that I learned when I was at college and talking to native speakers wakes up them. Thank you for planning time to talk with us outside of classes and presentations. Scaffolding was an important concept. I learned scaffolding includes: I do, you watch. I do, you follow, assist, and help. You do, I help. You do, I watch and check. We also know how to make the scaffolding gradually :whole group, small group, partners, individual. Teachers should use all the discipline of responsibility, the joy of surprises, treasuring each moment and expecting miracles as much as possible. As teachers, we need to influence our students with these concepts too, not only for them but also for us.

TABLE 5.
SUMMARY OF PARTICIPANT RESPONSES IN WAIVE FACULTY DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCES

Category: Evaluating	Example Comments
Evaluating	As a teacher, we not only need educational techniques but also we need passion, encouragement, persistence, sacrifices, devotions, responsibility- we are the ones who we work with are the brightest future of our world.
	Sometimes I would think of the days I studied you often gave us some prize as an encouragement and it is also like a present, every time, surprised us, even we are adults we still feel so cheerful. S o I think it is also suited to treat the young students. The most important is that you have never been angry with us or blamed us, I have never seen angry look from you.
	I think I must think about a long-lasting, more helpful to bring them into full play, a comprehensive appraisal system. This system should touch on not only their score but more round about their changes and progress in behave in schools and home.
	Although that should be the business of head teacher or school, there is not a very good appraisal system in most of schools, but only the rules and the Mid-term and final test are valued and only a score directive.
	There should be a assessment which could urge the students to read more, be polite more help each other more and so on.
	The assessments in many schools of our area are too segmented. So many children even leave the school without finishing middle school these years. It seems that the score is everything in school.
	I have too much work to do. Because my students will be in senior school this Autumn, they are working hard for the coming exams in June. The scores of the exams will determine their choices for life.
	So, many of the students have to hurry to leave their homes to find new opportunity to find themselves or projects to help themselves. Some may achieve their goals for the tests, some others because of the lack of knowledge or the skills, they will suffer another great blow.

VII. CONCLUSION

When one waives some personal right, one voluntarily relinquishes something that was held. Teachers who step into cross cultural situations with a desire to make the most of the time, to positively equip as many other teachers as possible, and to learn more about the culture need to waive rights and expectations based on their own cultures. The imperative of relinquishing ideas of one model and one culture's practices for education will expand possibilities for learning. An open examination of a locale's customs helps one present a welcoming attitude, sincere and spontaneous. Accommodating faculty engaged in professional development requires less pressured presentations, lots of practice, varied pacing, diverse activities, and planning for flexibility in components of the training. Invigorating classroom strategies depends on connections, primarily human, with concern for student comfort, stress levels, comprehension, and communication skills. Teachers and students build lifelong and widely applicable language skills through conversations and stories increasing their appreciation for learning. Evaluation of teacher training, new methods in the classroom, and student progress, should connect to as many life skills as possible. The attitude of openness to shared learning, mutual appreciation for ideas, traditions, customs, and communication leads to a vibrant educational environment in cross cultural faculty development.

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The Relationship between Listening and Other Language Skills in International English Language Testing System

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Abstract—Listening comprehension is the primary channel of learning a language. Yet of the four dominant macro-skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), it is often difficult and inaccessible for second and foreign language learners due to its implicit process. The secondary skill, speaking, proceeds listening cognitively. Aural/oral skills precede the graphic skills, such as reading and writing, as they form the circle of language learning process. However, despite the significant relationship with other language skills, listening comprehension is treated lightly in the applied linguistics research. Half of our daily conversation and three quarters of classroom interaction are virtually devoted to listening comprehension. To examine the relationship of listening skill with other language skills, the outcome of 1800 Iranian participants undertaking International English Language Testing System (IELTS) in Tehran indicates the close correlation between listening comprehension and the overall language proficiency.

Index Terms— listening comprehension, foreign language, second language, IELTS

I. INTRODUCTION

Whilst a substantial amount of research has been conducted in reading and writing skills, investigators (Hunsaker, 1990; Linebarger, 2001; Morris & Leavey, 2006) have underscored the role of listening skill in human learning and development. Indeed, listening skill provides the primary impetus to initiate first, second and foreign language learning and later the medium of communication to sustain the long and often tedious learning process. Without adequate listening input, it is more likely for individuals not to accomplish long – term goals. The perception of the world and interpretation of experience occurs through listening (Linebarger, 2001). As individuals grow to school age, the dominance of this skill appears noticeable. Hunsaker (1990) found that more than three quarters of what children learn in school happens through listening in the classroom. Closely aligned with this, is the study conducted by Gilbert (2005), which demonstrated the prominence of listening in schools. The researcher found that K – 12 participants spend between 65 % and 90 % of their school time in learning, which is achieved, in fact, through listening trajectory. Thus, the current study looks into the relationship between listening comprehension widely in human learning and narrowly in IELTS performance. Here after, the significant relationship of listening with other language skills (speaking, reading and writing) is described. This paper begins with a broad discussion of background on listening research and then ends with the impact of listening in second and foreign language learning.

II. BACKGROUND

Research has found that improvement in listening skill has a positive effect on other language skills - reading, writing and speaking. To illustrate, Morris and Leavey (2006) conducted a study focusing on preschoolers' phonological development. The study reveals that listening instruction skills improve preschoolers' phonological awareness. Similarly, two other studies found out that the listening skills instruction assists middle school students to improve their reading comprehension (Badian, 1999; Bergman, 1999). In addition, the outcome of Bergman's (1999) study revealed that listening and reading stories at the same time lead participants to improve their reading comprehension performance. In addition to the impact of listening skill on reading comprehension, a study reported by Berninger (2000) shows that participants in Grades 1 – 6 improve their spelling significantly through aural skill instruction whereas there is a high correlation between Grades 1 - 3 and the improvement of narrative and expository composition in Grades 2 and 3 through listening instruction.

Given the prominence of listening comprehension in human learning, in general and with a particular focus on language learning, many investigators, such as Goh (2008), Feyten (1991), Pinell and Jaggar (2003), Janusk (2002), and Vandergrift (2007) demonstrate that listening skill is tested rather than taught in classrooms. A study conducted by Feyten (1991) focused on three enquiries (i) whether listening skill is worth paying more attention in foreign language learning (ii) or improving listening skill leads to higher achievements in language learning and (iii) if there is a relationship exists between listening ability and oral proficiency skills. The results showed that the relationship between

the overall listening ability and effective foreign language acquisition is statistically significant. Particularly, a statistically significant relationship exists between listening ability and overall foreign language proficiency; between listening ability and foreign language listening comprehension skills; and between listening ability and foreign language oral proficiency skills. Listening is at the heart of language learning, but it is the least understood and least researched skill in language learning and is often disregarded by foreign and second language instructors (Brown, 2008). As Oxford (1993) appropriately notes, "in many instances listening is treated like a neglected stepchild" (p. 205).The studies presented above shows multiple significances of listening skill in learning in general with a particular focus on second and foreign language learning. Now that listening is crucial for human learning, it is worthwhile to seek the root of this fundamental skill.

A. Research on the Root of Listening Skill

The significance of listening skill in effective communication has been recognized for a century. Rankin (1926) conducted a study and found that listening skill was the most dominant skill for the mode of human communication. However, there were no more similar studies until the 1940s. The base of listening inquiry was primarily laid academically in the late 1940s and the founders (James Brown, Ralph Nichols and Carl Weaver) of the listening skill were considered as the "fathers of listening" (Vocile, 1987). Listening skill was taken into the second and foreign language research field in the mid 20th Century and many researchers put listening as the focus of their studies. After half a century, a professional committee International Listening Association (ILA) was established in 1979 to develop listening skill (Feyten, 1991). Knowing how to entail listening instruction and assessment in the school syllabi was the main target of the pedagogy. Steven (1987) pointed out that many studies provide a focus on either understanding listening comprehension or listening critically – agree or disagree with oral input.

Similarly, Floyed (1985) defines listening as a process entailing hearing, attending to, understanding, evaluating and responding to spoken messages. He further believes that listeners should be active participants in communication process. The nature/purpose of listening skills varies as the context of communication differs. Wolvin and Coakley (1988) propose five different kinds of listening. First, discriminative listening helps listeners draw a distinction between facts and opinions. Second, comprehensive listening facilitates understanding oral input. Third, critical listening allows listeners to analyse the incoming message before accepting and rejecting it. Fourth, therapeutic listening serves as a sounding board and lack any critiques, e.g., advising. Finally, appreciative listening contributes listeners to enjoy and receives emotional impressions. All the varieties of listening help to demonstrate that listening is an active process rather than a passive product. The authors define the process of listening as making sense of oral input by attending to the message. Thus, this study adopts the second definition of listening - understand the oral input mentioned by Wolvin and Coakley as a tool to evaluate the research assumption. The current study seeks to delve into the correlation between listening and other skills in International English Language Testing System.

B. The Relationship between Listening and Second/Foreign Language Proficiency

Language development involves four fundamental and interactive abilities: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The attempt has widely been made to teach four macro skills in second and foreign language for more than 60 years. Berninger and Winn (2006) emphasize that external and internal environment interacts with functional systems to extent, which the nature-nurture interaction at birth evolves over the course of time. The question is how much and how long the basic skill of listening gains attention in second and foreign language learning while listening is recognized to play a significant role in primary and secondary language acquisition (Ellis, 1994; Faerch & Kasper, 1986). In the 1970s, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) method was introduced to develop language learning proficiency. Some prominent researchers (Asher, 1977; Krashen, 1992) highlighted the significance of listening in the pedagogy. Krashen (1992) has argued that language acquisition highly depends on the decoding process of making sense of incoming messages. Language acquisition never occurs without access to the comprehensible language input (Rost, 1994) because in addition to visual learning, more than three quarters (80 %) of human learning occurs through listening direction (Hunsaker, 1990). Returning to language acquisition, Nunan (2003) suggested that listening is the gasoline that fuels the acquisition process. Thus, the main reason experts emphasize the significance of listening in language acquisition is the frequency of listening in language development. However, much of the relevant research incorporated into listening as an inevitable medium to drive primary and secondary language acquisition. What is more, none of them focuses on the relationship between listening skill and other language skills – speaking, reading and writing in English as a Foreign Language (EFL). The current research study aims to fill this gap by providing empirical data obtained in a large-scale investigation of 1800 participants taking the international known language proficiency test – IELTS administered in the capital of Iran, Tehran. Followed are discussions about each single language skill associating with listening skill.

Much debate continued to prove the increasing influence of listening skill on the other three language skills – speaking, reading and writing. To illustrate, Rost (1994) proposed three reasons showing the essential role listening plays to improve speaking skill. First, spoken language provides a means of interaction for the learner. Because learners must interact to achieve understanding, access to speakers of the language is essential. Moreover, learners' failure to understand the language they hear is an impetus, not an obstacle, to interaction and learning. Second, authentic spoken language presents a challenge for the learner to attempt to understand the language as native speakers actually use it.

Third, listening exercises provide teachers with the means for drawing learners' attention to new forms (vocabulary, grammar, new interaction patterns) in the language. Listening and reading have much in common in terms of input processing. Pearson and Fielding (1991) linked listening with reading skill. They argued that like reading, listening involves phonological, syntactic and semantic orchestration of skill and the knowledge controlled by cognitive processes at the same time. Further, Very recently, a study conducted by Yalcinkaya, Muluk and Ashin (2009) shows that the foundation of receptive (reading) and expressive (writing) skills is built upon aural (speaking) and oral (listening) skills. They argue that written language skills hardly develop without realizing the infrastructure of a language - the sounds. They conclude that listening ability strongly influences speaking, reading and writing ability. Now that classroom based research indicates the significance of listening in English as a foreign language learning, the following section discusses the IELTS research and specifically the relationship between listening and other language skills.

C. IELTS Research Reports

A study conducted by Coleman and Heap (1998) addressed the areas of perceived confusion or misunderstanding that candidates sometimes have when attempting to comprehend the rubrics of the *IELTS* Academic Reading and Listening sub-test. The findings demonstrated that few participants misjudged the requirements of the rubrics. It was often the wording and style of the questions themselves that caused the greatest difficulty, and *IELTS* must be applauded for the reasonably low level of misunderstandings generated by the rubrics. Another study investigated by Weir, Hawkey, Green, Unaldi, and Devi (2009a) focused on the relationship between the academic reading construct as measured by IELTS and the reading experiences of participants in the first year of study at a British university. The participants' contextual parameters of the reading text were compared with those performance conditions obtained for reading activities in the IELTS test. The finding indicated that any reading problems might decrease the higher the reading band score gained in IELTS tests before the entry is investigated. In terms of the cognitive load process in reading comprehension, Weir *et al.* (2009b) explored the cognitive process underlying the academic reading construct as measured by IELTS. The researchers used UK university students' retrospection to specify students' use of cognitive processes when performing various tasks in an IELTS reading test. The finding showed that there is a close association between the construct measured by IELTS and that of academic reading in the target space.

An IELTS listening test has four components, such as *daily conversation, public speech, academic discussion* and *academic lecture*. Field (2009) has investigated the cognitive validity of the lecture-based question in the IELTS listening paper. He has compared the performance and experience of students when completing a sample IELTS task with their performance and experience when doing similar task that is not limited by test administration situation. The finding shows that no clear correlation was found between individual performance under test condition and freer 'lecture' condition. First and foreign language speakers might use similar strategies to approach listening tasks. Badger and Yan (2009) conducted a study investigated the use of tactics and strategies by Chinese students in the listening component of IELTS test. 24 Chinese native speakers with an IELTS level for the listening paper of between 5.5 and 6.5, and 8 native/expert users of English took a sample of listening test. The finding using a think aloud protocol and an independent samples 2-tailed t-test provides a grounded insight into lack of significant differences between the two groups in terms of strategy use.

This review of the research argues that limited evidence has been found in addressing the relationship between listening skill and other language skills. The review also demonstrates that there are inadequate investigations focusing on the contributions of listening skill bestowing to other language skills. Afterward, having created these composite IELTS' discrete and overall performance, I followed a correlation design to measure the relationship between listening and other language skills – speaking, reading and writing.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION

In light of the above discussions on the significance of listening skill in language learning, in general and second and foreign language, in particular, the limitation still exists on acknowledging listening skill in English as Foreign Language (EFL) learning in Iran. Thus, the purpose of the current study is to examine the relationship between listening and speaking, reading and writing performance in IELTS. In particular, the proposed research addressed the following question:

- Does listening skill have a close relationship with other language skills, such as speaking, reading and writing?

A. The Purpose of the Proposed Study

This paper brings the attention to rarefied and critical skill in language learning, namely listening with a particular focus on EFL learning in Iran. There is some initial evidence demonstrating the development of listening skill, which leads to the efficiency of second and foreign language development. However, more research is needed on examining the significance of listening skill in improving other skills, such as speaking, reading and writing in second and foreign language learning, which indeed assists language instructors in drawing particular attention to this basic skill in the classroom. In what follows, I ask the proceeding question: What is the relationship like between listening skill proficiency and that of speaking, reading, and writing proficiency skills in EFL through IELTS assessment?

B. Method

   All of the participants were Iranian and spoke Persian as their first language. To test the research assumptions, all the participants undertook the academic training International English Language Testing System (IELTS).

C. Participants and Context

   The participants in the study were 701[1] English for Speakers of Other Language (ESOL) participants, with an age range of 24 - 37 in the capital of Iran, Tehran, who were planning for either continuing their college education or beginning their professional careers in an English speaking country in summer 2010. The participants IELTS performance in detail were downloaded from www.ieltstehran.com. In Iran, at school level, listening skills are not taught due to the predominant use of the traditional *Grammar Translation Method* (GTM) which focuses only on reading and writing skills. At university level, depending on the field of study, reading skills are mainly taught for 3-5 hours per week for each term. Listening skills are taught only in language institutes which have a *Communicative Language Teaching* (CLT) approach. Often, despite instruction of listening skill being specified in the syllabus of many English language institutes, teachers do not teach listening skills but test it in the EFL classrooms in Iran. Currently, listening skill is taught through vocabulary introduction in pre-listening to the students and they examine correct responses in post-listening comprehension questions. The process of explicitly teaching listening skill is overlooked, but the product of listening skill is measured through exams involving multiple-choice or true/false comprehension questions, which are a regular feature of classroom practice.

D. Instrument

   IELTS was the only research instrument used to examine the relationship between listening skill and other language skills – speaking, reading and writing in EFL.

E. IELTS

   IELTS provides a profile of a candidate's ability to use English language. Candidates received scores on a Band from 1 (Non User) to 9 (Expert User). Candidates received a score for each test component – Listening, Reading, Writing and Speaking. Candidates receive a score for each test component – Listening, Reading, Writing and Speaking. The individual scores are then averaged and rounded to produce an overall Band Score. IELTS is available in two formats – Academic and General Training. All candidates took the same Listening and Speaking modules but different Reading and Writing modules. The Academic version is for tertiary study for those who want to study or train in an English Speaking University or tertiary institution. Admission for undergraduate and postgraduate courses is based on the results of the academic test scores. The General training format – for school, work or migration focuses on basic survival skills in a broad social and educational context. It is for those who are going to English speaking countries to do secondary education, work experience or training programs. People migrating to Australia, Canada, and New Zealand must sit the General Training test (http://www.ielts.org/institutions/test_format_and_results.aspx).

   The validity and reliability of the international known test is determined conclusively due to the high demand of this test. In other words, a passing result in this test is indeed a door opening to all international students to be a college student in an English speaking country. Linked to this idea, over 1,000,000 people a year are now using IELTS to initiate a new life in a foreign English-speaking country. Over 6,000 educational institutions, government agencies and professional organisations across 120 countries around the world – including over 2,000 institutions in the USA - recognize IELTS band scores for a range of purposes including further duration, training and immigration (http://www.ieltstehran.com/index.php).

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

   Calculating simple correlations examining the relations between listening as a basic skill and speaking, reading and writing, the current study used SPSS 18 for windows for the statistical analysis. The aim of correlation analysis in this proposed study is that examining participants IELTS performance in Iran confirms the research hypothesis, which is a relation exists between listening and other language skill e.g., speaking, reading, and writing. As part of descriptive data analysis, an ANOVA, Post hog Comparisons, a Pairwise Correlation Coefficient and a Scatter plot were used to measure the relationship between listening skill performance and other language skills performance – speaking, reading and writing as well as the overall performance.

V. RESULTS

   A summary of the IELTS performance analysis is presented in this section. The Table 2 displays the descriptive statistics for each language skill. The lowest attainment is for speaking with a mean of (5.568) and standard deviation (.889). In contrast, reading with the mean (6.987), and standard deviation (.789) shows the highest achievement. As indicated on Table 2, listening entailing the mean (5.724), standard deviation (.069) places one before the last skill –

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[1] There were actually 1854 participants, but 54 discrete and overall IELTS scores were deleted due to their extreme scores.

writing score with the mean (6.564) and standard deviation (.029). In brief, participants scored lower on aural/oral skills than orthographic skills in IELTS.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF ALL LANGUAGE SKILLS

	N	MEAN	STD. DEVIATION	STD. ERROR	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM
LISTENING	1800	5.724	.069	.038	1.00	9.00
SPEAKING	1800	5.568	.889	.035	1.00	9.00
READING	1800	6.987	.789	.029	3.40	9.00
WRITING	1800	6.564	.826	.029	1.50	9.00

A one-way between – group analysis of variance (see table 2) was conducted to explore the relationship between listening and speaking, reading and writing skills. IELTS' scores are divided into three groups according to different language skills (listening and speaking, listening and reading and listening and writing). There is a statically significant difference at the $p \leq .05$ level in performance within three groups: F (7200) = 703.756, p = .000.

TABLE. 2
ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1981.672	3	856.454	703.756	.000
Within Groups	7200.352	1800	.857		
Total	9182.024	1800			

The post – hog comparisons using the Tukey HSD test in Table 3 indicates that the mean score for the three groups (see also, Table, 1) - Listening (M = 5.724, SD = .069) was significantly different from Speaking (M = 5.568, SD = .889), Reading (M = 6.987, SD = .789) and Writing (M = 6.564, SD = .826).

TABLE 3.
POST HOG COMPARISONS FOR DISCRETE LANGUAGE SKILLS TUKEY HSD TEST

Categories (I)	Categories (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Listening	Speaking	.176454[*]	.03564	.003	.0367	.2872
	Reading	-1.1745[*]	.03874	.000	-1.3452	-1.0234
	Writing	-.63456[*]	.04123	.000	-.7342	-.4791

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

However, the relationship between listening and other language skills is closely intertwined. As Table 4 indicates, the relationship between listening performance and speaking, reading and writing skill performance was investigated using Pairwise correlation coefficient in Table 5. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure the violation of assumptions. There was a strong, positive correlation between the variables, listening and speaking (r = .654, n = 1800, $p \leq .000$), reading (r = .735, n = 1800, $p \leq .000$) and writing (r = .643, n = 1800, $p \leq .000$). The correlation between listening and the overall IELTS performance (r = .887, n = 1800, $p \leq .000$) is even stronger.

TABLE 4
PAIRWISE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

		Listening	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Overall
Listening	Pearson Correlation	1	.735[**]	.643[**]	.654[**]	.887[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	1800	1800	1800	1800	1800

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

VI. DISCUSSION

Listening is the basic bricks and mortar of a language acquisition. Within my research paradigm, I expected the listening performance in IELTS to have the stronger association with the second language proficiency in overall performance. Based on the results of the study, the correlation coefficients confirmed this prediction. The correlation between audio skill with other language systems – speaking, reading and writing as well as overall IELTS performance is significant. Despite a close relationship between aural/oral skills in nature, the correlation between listening and reading, however, was stronger than listening and speaking skill performance. Writing is the last skill learned by first and second language learners. However, the correlation between listening and writing performance is very close to that of the correlation between listening and speaking. Thus, reading, due to its common comprehension features with listening had the highest correlation score in IELTS. The high correlation of reading with listening is aligned with the

cognitive load process in reading comprehension which Weir *et al.* (2009b) found that there is a high correlation between the construct measured by IELTS and that of academic reading in the target space.

Given that I found many studies (Ellis, 1994; Nunan, 2003; Richards, 2005) showing the multiple influences of listening in primary and secondary language learning, the outcome of this study points out that listening performance have a large correlation with EFL proficiency. Emphasizing the relationship between listening and writing skill – one starts acquiring listening at birth but writing acquisition starts at school age in first language, the EFL test result confirms the core of Shanahan's (2006) discussion about the impact of listening skill instruction on writing development. The multiple correlations in the current study focused on one dependent variable – listening and three independent variables – speaking, reading and writing as well as overall performance accounting for interrelationship of the independent variables. The analysis produced multiple coefficient of 0.887 (p≤.000). This result is remarkably high to consider the importance of listening skill in EFL classrooms. In the end, the finding – the higher the listening score, the better the speaking also supports James (1985) and Rost's (1994) research suggesting three essential roles listening plays to improve speaking skill. Rost maintained that spoken language provides a means of interaction for the learner. This is because learners must interact to achieve understanding, and access to speakers of the language is essential.

Returning to a high correlation between listening and reading, Dörnyei (2001) maintained that focusing on the situation contributes significantly to the motivation of a particular task. This opinion aligns with participants in this study who benefit from reading skill in English at middle, high schools and college as a subject. The finding of this study supports the fact that the situational environment is an important element influencing language learning. This could not be seen as a surprising result showing that participants, due to devoid of English language exposure in Iran, participants score aural/oral skill less than orthographic and expressive skills in this study. Similarly, the result of this study confirms Hulstijn (2001) argument in psycholinguistic perspectives in that having access to basic knowledge of vocabulary stored in long – term memory contributes learners to the systematic rehearsal and other cognitive strategies. Further, the finding of this study demonstrating the close relationship between listening and reading performance is consistent with the results of Badian (1999) and Bergman's (1999) research. Thus, participants' background knowledge of reading assisted them to score the highest in the reading band.

VII. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTION

This study examined the relationship between listening and other EFL skills – speaking, reading and writing as well as overall performance in the International English Language Testing System. The data collected for the purpose of this study were the results announced on the IELTS centre site in Iran. The significant positive correlations I found between listening and other language skills are particularly strong within the context of EFL providing evidence that listening skill matters even in situation where English is not the primary language. This finding is important because there are few studies reporting the significant correlation between listening skill and EFL language proficiency. Closely aligned with the finding, there is a very strong body of support for syllabus designers and English language instructors to frame the domain of listening skill attention in the classroom instruction. Even though this study provided a focus on EFL listening relationship with other language skills without examining the impact of EFL listening skill instruction, the results are strong enough to guarantee further research looking at the impact of learning strategy on EFL language proficiency.

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The Speech Continuum Reconsidered: A Case Study of a Speaker of Indian English

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Abstract—This study highlights the dynamics of the speech continuum by analyzing the sound system of a speaker of Indian English (IndE). Utterances were collected via the reading of commonly spoken words and a semi-structured interview. The findings indicate that the speaker's sound features are much fewer than those described in earlier studies on IndE accents. Moreover, his pronunciation patterns display a mixture of the basilectal, meoslectal and acrolectal forms of Indian English, reflecting the characteristics of the non-linear speech continuum. This study concludes by discussing the speaker's sound patterns with relation to his sociolinguistic background.

Index Terms—speech continuum, Indian English, English accents, world Englishes

I. INTRODUCTION

Owing to misconceptions about language change and variation, nonnative varieties of English have long been regarded as being characterized by random or careless utterances (Nguyen, 1993; Rickford, 1999; Trudgill, 2004). A number of sociolinguistic studies have confirmed that the utterances of regional vernaculars such as African American English (AAE) are not disordered, but rather are governed by their own set of rules (Green, 2002). Similarly, creole varieties of English, such as Jamaican English, are not haphazard collections of random utterances, but rather consistent linguistic systems (Devonish, & Seiler, 1991; Wassink, 1999). Likewise, the variety of English spoken as one of the official languages of India is not a degenerate or fossilized version of English, but, rather, a distinct form of English which exhibits systematic patterns and pragmatic functions (Agnihotri, 1991; Bansal 1978; Nihalani et at., 2004).

With regard to the various forms of English spoken worldwide, Trudgill (2004) hypothesized that they have been converging lexically due to the influence of American English, but are diverging phonologically. His diachronic study of the phonological affinity between British English, Australian English, and New Zealand English supports his hypothesis about the phonological divergence among different varieties of English Indian English (IndE) is not an exception. Earlier studies have demonstrated that IndE has evolved into a variety of English which is distinct from Received Pronunciation (RP), a process which began in the middle of the 18th century, when India was gradually annexed by the British East India Company (e.g., Balasubramanian, 1972; Kelkar, 1957).

However, each ethnic or national variety of English is not a homogeneous entity, but consists of a wide range of variation, regional and social alike. IndE is an umbrella term for the diverse varieties of English currently used in India. Nonetheless, a number of mesolects have emerged, all of which are regarded as General IndE. In this respect, Gargesh (2008) has made an extensive description of the general phonology of IndE based on the speech of educated IndE speakers. Nonetheless, the speech continuum of sociolects and regiolects in IndE remains largely unexplored. Accordingly, this study analyzes the utterances of a speaker of IndE to investigate how his utterances reflect General IndE phonology (Gargesh, 2008; Mesthrie, 2008).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This study focuses on IndE because, of all the nonnative varieties of English, it has the largest number of speakers, and is used for both intra-national and international communication (Bolton & Kachru, 2006; Kachru, 2004; Kachru & Smith, 2008; Meierkord, 2006; Nihalani et al., 2004; Schneider, 2007). In terms of area, India is the seventh-largest country in the world, and with over 1.2 billion citizens, India's population is second only to China. Moreover, India is the world's largest democracy, and its economic output has expanded rapidly in recent decades. Kamdar (2007a, 2007b, 2007c) has described India's astonishing transformation from a developing country into a global powerhouse. Rothermund's (2008) *India: The Rise of an Asian Giant* provides an illuminating analysis of the new India and how it is likely to profoundly affect the globe culturally, politically and financially. Moreover, India is set to become one of the world's largest recipients of foreign investment and has a huge and highly skilled English-speaking workforce. A wide range of recent books have portrayed contemporary India as a dynamic country shifting from poverty to prosperity (Basu, 2004; Davies, 2008; Emmott, 2008; Fernandes, 2006; Lak, 2008; Meredith, 2007; Rajadhyaksha, 2007; Sengupta, 2005; Sheshabalaya, 2005; Smith, D.A., 2007; Tharoor, 2007). All of these phenomena demonstrate the current and future importance of IndE.

Communicating in English with Indians can be enhanced by familiarity with IndE, and a host of scholars have begun to explore what can be regarded as its general phonology (Gargesh, 2008; Mesthrie, 2008; Nihalani et al., 2004). The following table displays Gargesh's (2008) phonological description of IndE in comparison with General American English (GAE)[1] and RP.[2]

TABLE I.
THE VOWELS OF INDE ACCORDING TO WELL'S (1982) LEXICAL SET

Word	IndE	RP	GAE
Fleece	iː	iː	i
Kit	ɪ > iː	ɪ	ɪ
Face	eː	eɪ	eɪ
Dress	e > ɛ	ɛ	ɛ
Trap	æ>ɛ	a	æ
Bath	ɑː	ɑː ~a	æ
Strut	ʌ	ʌ	ʌ
Palm	ɑː	ɑː	ɑ
Lot	ɔ>ɒ>a	ɒ	ɑ
Goose	uː	uː	u
Foot	ʊ>uː	ʊ	ʊ
Goat	oː	əʊ	oʊ
Cloth	ɔ	ɒ	ɔ
Thought	ɔː	ɔː	ɔ
Price	aɪ	ʌɪ	aɪ
Choice	ɔɪ	ɔɪ	ɔɪ
Mouth	aʊ	aʊ	aʊ
Near	ɪə>ɪr	ɪə	ɪr
Square	ɛː>ɛr	ɛː	ɛr
Nurse	ɜː > ɝː	əː	ɝ
Start	ɑː > ɑr	ɑː	ɑr
North	ɔː > ɔr	ɔː	ɔr
Force	ɔː > ɔr	ɔː	ɔr
Cure	ɪjoː > ɪjor	ʊə ~ɔː	jʊr
Tuesday	ɪjuː	ju	u
happY	ɪ>i	i	i
lettER	ə>r	ə	r
commA	ɑ	ə	ə

First of all, both IndE and RP have non-rhotic accents. Although the r-less feature exists mostly in the educated variety of IndE, IndE is generally rhotic (Gargesh, 2008, p. 237). It is also noteworthy that the liquid /r/ is usually trilled in consonant clusters and in postvocalic positions. Gargesh added, "Although postvocalic realizations of /r/ might be an instance of spelling pronunciation, it must be conceded that the English brought to India from the earliest times is likely to have its postvocalic *r*'s intact" (2008, p. 238).

Additionally, IndE pronunciation of vowels is closer to RP than GAE. The most striking difference is the GAE vowel /æ/ in words like *bath*, which is usually pronounced as /ɑː/ or /a/ in IndE and RP. Moreover, the GAE vowel /ɑ/ is articulated at times as /ɔ/ or /ɒ/ in IndE and RP.

The consonants of IndE also present phonological patterns, as illustrated below:

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[1] This study employs Heinle's Newbury House Dictionary of American English for sound comparison; it is available online: http://nhd.heinle.com/Home.aspx.
[2] Upton's (2008) description of RP is used as a point of reference in this study.

TABLE II.
CONSONANTAL FEATURES OF INDE (ADAPTED FROM GARGESH, 2008, PP. 237–238)

Manner of Articulation	IndE	Examples
Stops	• Voiceless stops are not aspirated. • /t/ and /d/ tend to be retroflexed.	• peace /pis/ • dog /dɔg/
Fricatives	• /v/ might be realized as /bʰ/. (Orissa, Bengal) • /v/ occasionally overlaps with /w/. (Oriya and Bengla speakers) • /f/ might be realized as /pʰ/. (Oriya and Bengla speakers) • /ð/ and /θ/ are realized respectively as the dental stops /t̪ʰ/ and /d̪/. • /θ/ is often realized as the alveolar stop /t/ (South India) • /s/ might be realized as /ʃ/. (Bengal) • /ʃ/ might be realized as /z/. (Orissa) • /z/ might be realized as /dʒ/. • H-dropping is frequent. (Punjabi speakers) • The initial /h/ might be replaced by /j/ or /w/. (South India)	• very /wɛrɪ/ • seven /'nebʰər/ • full /pʰu:ll/ • thin /t̪ʰɪn/ • then /d̪en/ • thought /tɔt/ • same /ʃem/ • zero /dʒɪro/ • house /aus/ • house /waus/ • hill /jɪll/
Affricates	• /ʒ/ is usually realized as /dʒ/, /z/, or /j/.	• pleasure /ple:dʒər/
Nasals	• /ŋ/ is often realized as /ŋg/ when followed by the syllable-final velar stop /g/ in a monosyllabic word.	• sing /sɪŋg/ • ring /rɪŋg/
Liquids	• /r/ is generally trilled.	• car /kar/ • cry /kraɪ/
Semi-vowels	• /w/ often overlaps with /v/. • /w/ and /j/ might be omitted when followed by a mid or close vowel. • /w/ and /j/ might be added word-initially. (South India) • /wh/ is preserved. • Syllabic rhythms, not stress-timed utterances	• window /'vɪndo:/ • won't /o:nʈ/ • yet /ɛʈ/ • old /wo:ld̪/ • about /je'bauʈ/ • where /wher/
Geminates	• Double consonants frequently occur.	• inner /'ɪnnər/
Past-tense suffix	• Voiceless –ed is usually realized as /d/	• traced /tre:sd/
Others	• No syllabic consonant formation • Schwa deletion occurs sometimes in light positions. • Consonant clusters are sometimes simplified. • /ɪ/ or /i/ insertion in the word-initial position in a consonant cluster (Uttar Pradesh, Bihar) • Schwa insertion between a consonant cluster (Punjab, Haryana) • Schwa insertion in –nst # (South India)	• metal /meʈəl/ • allegory /ə'lɛgrɪ/ • fruits /fruʈ/ • school /'isku:l/ • school /'səku:l/ • against /age:nəst/

In contrast to the mesolectal IndE features presented above, some basilectal or broad sound features are displayed below (Bansal, 1969; Masica, & Dave, 1972; Nihalani *et al.*, 2004; Wells, 1982):

TABLE III.
SOUND FEATURES OF BASILECTAL INDE

Sound Features	Examples
1. Substitution of /au/ for /ɔ/	now→gnaw
2. Substitution of /æ/ for /aɪ/	man→mine
3. Substitution of /ɛ/ for /e/	men→main
4. /f/ for the word *of*.	of /ɔf/
5. /wʰ/ or /ʊʰ/ for *wh*-words	which /wʰɪtʃ/ or /ʊʰɪtʃ/
6. /s/ for the plural suffix after a voiced consonant	Dogs /dɔgs/
7. Substitution of /l/ for syllable-initial /r/	very /'vɛlɪ/

Drawing on the sound patterns of IndE as presented above, this study investigates the speech continuum in IndE by examining how an IndE speaker's utterances reflect the general phonology of IndE. The subsequent section details the methodology used for data collection and sound analysis.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

The participant is referred to by the pseudonym Raj, who was 24 years old at the time of the study. He was born and raised in Agra, a city about 200 kilometers south of Delhi, located in Uttar Pradesh, India's most populous state. Raj just came to the US two months ago to study business management in pursuit of his master's degree. He speaks Hindi as his mother tongue, which is the most widely spoken language in north India. Hindi is also the official language of India, whereas English is the subsidiary official language. Hindi is spoken as a first language by 30% of the population, and as a second language by around 28%. In India and abroad, about 500 million people speak Hindi, and the total number of people who can understand the language is estimated at 800 million. Hindi is thus the second most widely-spoken language in the world, after Mandarin Chinese. Additionally, there are thirteen dialects of Hindi in India, among which Khadiboli (or Sarhindi), spoken in Western Uttar Pradesh, was used by the government for the standardization of Hindi

in the 1950s.[3] Although Hindi is the main language in Uttar Pradesh, other local languages of the state include Awadhi, Bundeli, Braj Bhasha, Kannauji, Khari Boli, Bhojpuri, and Bagheli. These languages are promoted by the state government in cultural festivals, but are usually regarded as negligible in formal education.

In the interview, Raj said that he spoke English as a second language when interacting with his friends who did not speak Hindi. However, he emphasized that with three of his closest friends he spoke Hindi most of the time, because they all spoke Hindi as their native language. With Raj as the speaker, this study addressed the following questions:

(1) What is the sound system underlying Raj's utterances?
(2) How frequently do Raj's sound features occur?
(3) How are Raj's sound patterns similar to or different from General IndE phonology?

B. Data Collection

Speech samples were collected by having Raj read a list of common spoken words, and his sound features were compared with those of General IndE (Gargesh, 2008; Mesthrie, 2008).

The reading of a word list was used because, when reading such a list, the participant is very likely to use a more formal pronunciation, as would be done when interacting with strangers from other ethnic groups or nations. There is evidence that English speakers tend to speak as formally as they can in international communication in order to avoid misunderstanding or non-understanding. Jenkins (2000) found that nonnative English speakers often constrain consonant cluster simplification and avoid the use of weak-form pronunciation (such as the use of *from* /frʌm/, rather than /frəm/), since doing so helps to enhance their intelligibility to unfamiliar interlocutors. Accordingly, this study examines the sound patterns that Raj is most likely to exhibit in a formal presentation or an initial interaction with other English speakers. After the reading task, an interview was conducted with Raj to further explore his use of English in daily life.

C. Test Words for the Reading Task

This study used 1,000 commonly spoken English words retrieved from 60 recent interviews on the Oprah Winfrey Show.[4] The test words consisted of high-frequency *concept* words in their basic forms (e.g., *write*), and excluded *graphic* words (e.g., *writes*, *wrote*, *written*, and *writing*). This lexical decision was made because intelligibility is not affected by irregular finite forms and plural/tense suffixes, because the meaning is usually made clear by the context, as shown in such utterances as *He go home yesterday*, *He like her*, and *He don't eat shrimp*.

However, some concept words were deleted, including proper nouns, culturally specific words, and function words. Furthermore, some were changed into their graphic forms for the word-reading task because close inspection reveals that the graphic forms appear much more frequently in Winfrey's interviews. Some of these graphic words are presented below:

TABLE IV.
SOME OF THE CONCEPTS WORDS REPLACED WITH THEIR GRAPHIC COUNTERPARTS

Concept word	Graphic word
Morn	Morning
Injure	Injured
Probable	Probably
Exact	Exactly
Absolute	Absolutely
Definite	Definitely
Especial	Especially
Immediate	Immediately
Excite	Exciting
Shoe	Shoes

The 1,000 test words are considered to be sufficient because an analysis of 10 of Winfrey's interviews indicates that out of a total of around 81,000 words spoken in the interviews, only around 3,800 are concept words.

This study did not employ an already existing corpus of spoken English because some are slightly out-of-date (e.g., the London-Lund Corpus, launched in 1959), some are built on academic English (e.g., the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English), and some are limited to a single topic (e.g., the Switchboard Telephone Speech Corpus, and the Corpus of Business Communications established by the Brigham Young School of Management). By contrast, this study used a popular American talk show to construct a corpus of high-frequency words because the hostess and interviewees of various backgrounds discuss common topics concerning everyday life, making it a good source for commonly spoken English words.

Although the small-scale corpus established for this study primarily reflects spoken American English and might not be highly representative of other varieties of English, some studies have demonstrated that there is a close correspondence of high-frequency words (excluding proper nouns) among different varieties of English (Hofland &

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[3] The information about Hindi appears on Wikipedia: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main_Page.
[4] For a description of the Oprah Winfrey television show, visit www.oprah.com.

Johansson, 1982; Ljung, 1990; Peyawary, 1999).

Raj's reading of the test words was recorded and transcribed by ear for sound analysis. A research assistant with knowledge of phonetics and phonology made the initial transcription, which was later checked by the researcher. The few discrepancies which were found were resolved after re-examination and discussion. Additionally, to explore the frequency of Raj's sound features, we adapted Meade's (2001) categorization of sound alterations, as shown below:

TABLE V.
CLASSIFICATION OF PHONOLOGICAL FREQUENCY (ADAPTED FROM MEADE, 2001, P. 85)

Occurrence Percentage	Usage Frequency
90%-100%	Complete usage
75%-89%	Full usage
50%–74%	Regular usage
25%–49%	Inconsistent usage
1%–24%	Sporadic usage
0	Absent usage

IV. FINDINGS

The most notable sound feature in Raj's reading is his r-less accent, a common characteristic of educated speakers of IndE (Sailajia, 2009). Like most speakers of British English, Raj did not pronounce the syllable-final r-sound as a retroflex, but rather as schwa, as in the word *hair* ['hɛə]. The vocalic /r/ is sometimes dropped with the previous vowel prolonged, as in *car* [kɑ:]. This non-rhotic accent, however, is not regarded as a sound feature of General IndE phonology (Gargesh, 2008, p. 237).

Raj's articulation also exhibits a phonological feature typical of British English: the insertion of the palatal glide /j/ in /ju/ after coronals. Upton (2008) commented, "Yod coalescence is actually a general feature of RP…heard regularly for example in *attitude*, *residue*, *tissue*, and *usual*" (p. 249). He added, though, "Yod deletion is similarly characteristic word-initially in RP in such words as *super* and *suit*" (p. 250). He concluded, "Coalesced forms are becoming increasingly apparent in all positions in RP, where they provide a less formal alternative to the more 'careful' forms" (p. 249). In this study, Raj pronounced the glide /j/ before the stressed vowel /u/ in such words as *during*, *new*, and *news*, but not in *student* and *suit*. This sound pattern occurred as a regular usage because it appeared 67% of the time in Raj's reading.

By comparison, the glide insertion is frequently lost in GAE, as in *Tuesday*, *coupon*, and *neurotic*, but regularly appears in several other words, such as *cure* and *music* (Kretzschmar, 2008, p. 48). Likewise, Boberg (2008, p. 157) noticed that the loss of /j/ in North American English seems "to be diffusing rapidly over most of the continent, including Canada," as indicated in such words as *news*, *student*, and *tube*.

Another phonological feature of British English found in Raj's reading is the vowel shift from /æ/ to /a/. For example, Raj said [ask] for *ask*, ['ansə] for *answer*, and [pas] for *pass*. The occurrence of this vowel shift, however, is inconsistent, occurring only 34% of the time.

Another phonological feature is the realization of /ŋg/ for the velar nasal coda in a stressed syllable. For instance, he articulated [rɪŋg] for *ring*, [rɔŋg] for *wrong*, and [hæŋg] for *hang*. This pattern appears 69% of the time, making it a regular usage.

Raj also tended to pronounce the unstressed ending -ing as /ɪn/, as found in his pronunciations of such words as ['sevɪn] for *saving* and ['ɛnɪtɪn] for *anything*. This sound modification appears frequently enough to be classified as a regular usage.

Furthermore, Raj also frequently pronounced the syllable-initial consonant /r/ as /l/, as in *serious* ['sɪlɪəs], *very* ['vɛlɪ], and *reason* ['lizn]. Although Gargesh (2008) remarked that the liquid /r/ is generally trilled, we perceived it as /l/. Our acoustic analysis of Raj's pronunciation of *very* and *family* indicates that the formants of the final syllables are close, and their spectrograms look nearly identical to each other, as shown below:
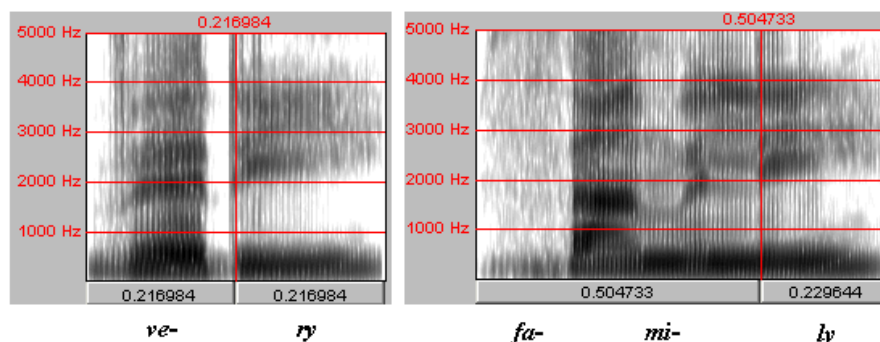
Figure 1. Spectrographic comparison between *very* (left) and *family* (right) in Raj's reading

This consonant substitution, however, occurs only 36% of the time, and thus is classified as an inconsistent usage.

In addition, Raj often pronounced the interdental fricatives /ð/ and /θ/ as the dental stops /d/ and /t/, respectively. For instance, he said [de] for *they*. Interestingly, word-final, interdental fricatives were also changed into a stop. For example, Raj articulated the word *bath* with the final /t/ aspirated. The acoustic analysis demonstrates that the final *th* is aspirated because its duration is noticeably more protracted than the final *t* consonant in *but*, as displayed below:
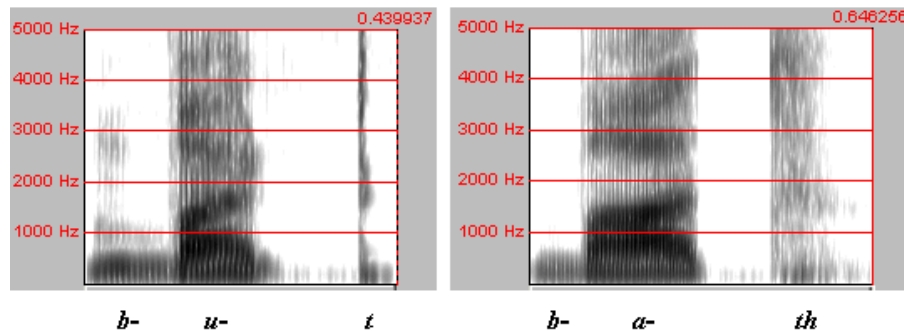
Figure 2. Spectrographic comparison between *but* (left) and *bath* (right) in Raj's reading

This sound alteration is in full usage in his reading.

The most notable sound feature in Raj's reading is that he mostly pronounced voiceless stops with unaspiration when they were in the syllable-initial position, frequently enough to be classified as a full usage. For instance, Raj pronounced *two* like *do*, and *pick* like *big*.

The most peculiar sound feature in Raj's reading is the substitution of /v/ for /w/, and vice versa. For instance, he enunciated [wɔɪs] for *voice* and [vɪʃ] for *wish*. This bi-directional substitution, however, is an inconsistent usage because it appears less than 40% of the time. Nonetheless, /wh/ is fully preserved in Raj's reading. Below is a summary of the sound patterns found in Raj's reading:

TABLE VI.
THE SOUND FEATURES FOUND IN RAJ'S READING

Phonological feature	Example	Occurrence rate
1. Syllable-final, r-less accent	water→[' wɔtə]	100% (complete)
2. Glide insertion before stressed /u/	new→[nju]	67% (regular)
3. preservation of /wh/	where	100% (complete)
4. Realization of the unstressed rhyme /ɪŋ/ as /ɪn/	anything→['ɛnɪθɪn]	60% (regular)
5. Unaspiration of voiceless stops	two→do pick→big	100% (complete)
6. Realization of interdental fricatives as dental stops	thin→[tin] with→[wɪt]	Syllable-initial: 75% (full) Syllable-final: 100% (complete)
7. Preservation of /g/ after /ŋ/ in a stressed syllable	ring→[rɪŋg]	69% (regular)
8. Substitution of /l/ for syllable-initial /r/	very→['vɛlɪ]	36% (inconsistent)
9. Shift between /v/ and /w/	voice→[wɔɪs] wish→[vɪʃ]	/v/→/w/: 37% (inconsistent) /w/→/v/: 32% (inconsistent)
10. Vowel shift from /æ/ to /ɑ/	ask→[ɑsk]	34% (inconsistent)

Actually, the first two features also exist in RP. The third feature, the preservation of /wh/, also appears in RP, but it has declined and is rapidly changing into /w/ (Upton, 2008). However, the most striking vowel shift of RP—from /æ/ to /ɑ/, which makes both RP and General IndE differ from GAE—appears only inconsistently in Raj's reading. Moreover, the vowel shift that makes IndE distinct from both RP and GAE—the change from /ɛ/ to /e/, as in the word *dress*—does not appear at all in Raj's reading.

As a whole, all of Raj's sound features are consonantal modifications, except for the infrequent vowel change from /æ/ to /ɑ/. Accordingly, Raj's vowel system does not include any vowel merger, as shown below:
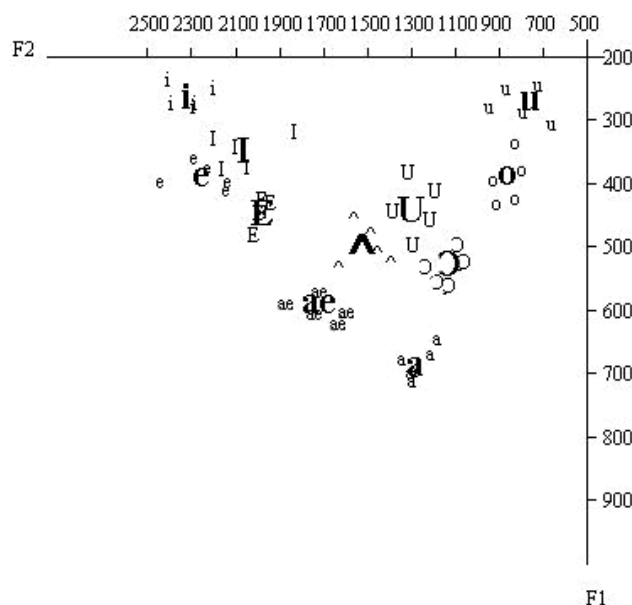
Figure 3. Raj's vowel chart

Taken together, most of Raj's vocalic patterns reflect General IndE phonology, but the lax vowel, as in *dress*, does not change into its tense counterpart. By comparison, the consonantal features exhibited by Raj are much fewer than those usually ascribed to speakers of IndE, as shown in Table 2 (Gargesh, 2008; Mesthrie, 2008). These findings demonstrate that Raj's pronunciation does not reflect all of the sound patterns typical of General IndE phonology, displaying the dynamic trajectory of the speech continuum in IndE. All in all, Raj's pronunciation indicates the existence of phonological variation in IndE, GAE and BE, in support of the Phonological Divergence Theory posited by Trudgill (2004).

V. CONCLUSION

This study has shown that Raj's English pronunciation is not random, but rather exhibits phonological patterns, despite varying rates of occurrence. A total of ten sound features are found in Raj's pronunciation; among which, seven occur regularly, whereas the others appear only sporadically. These frequent features include the non-rhotic accent, the unaspiration of syllable-initial stops, the glide insertion before stressed /u/, the preservation of /wh/, the realization of interdental fricatives as dental stops, the preservation of /g/ after /ŋ/ in a stressed syllable, and the realization of the unstressed rhyme /ɪŋ/ as /ɪn/.

By and large, Raj exhibits a British English accent in his complete use of the r-less accent, and his regular use of glide insertion before stressed /u/. Nevertheless, the prominent vowel shift from /æ/ to /a/ in British English appears to be only an inconsistent feature in Raj's pronunciation, although it has been described in earlier studies as a regular feature of basilectal IndE (Nihalani *et al.*, 2004).

It is noteworthy that Raj's non-rhotic accent is not regarded as characteristic of General IndE phonology, but, rather, is a feature used mostly by educated speakers of IndE (Gargesh, 2008). Nonetheless, four regular phonological patterns distinguish Raj's pronunciation from that of a speaker of British English: the unaspiration of voiceless stops, the stopping of interdental fricatives, the preservation of /g/ after /ŋ/, and the realization of /ɪn/ for unstressed /ɪŋ/. Among these consonantal features, the realization of the unstressed rhyme /ɪŋ/ as /ɪn/ is actually not a distinctive feature in General IndE phonology, but it is commonly used by native English speakers in informal settings, and it is also common in many nonstandard varieties of English as well (Jenkins, 2006; Wassink, 1999; Wolfram & Schilling-Estes, 1998).

Perhaps the most unique feature of Raj's pronunciation is his complete use of the realization of interdental fricatives as dental stops. Although this feature is also common in many nonstandard varieties of English, its appearance in syllable-final positions, as in such words as *with* [wɪt], *bath* [bat], and *death* [dɛt], is a distinctive, even idiosyncratic, feature. However, this pattern might have been the result of orthographical enunciation in the reading task, and this feature might not be the way Raj normally spoke.

Moreover, the substitution of /l/ for syllable-initial /r/—a broad feature of IndE—appears only inconsistently in Raj's pronunciation. Interestingly, Raj does not display a common feature that is usually associated with the pronunciation of speakers of IndE from Uttar Pradesh: /ɪ/ or /i/ insertion in the word-initial position in a consonant cluster, as shown in *school* /ˈsəkuːl/.

To summarize, Raj's pronunciation not only exhibits a distinct sound system different from RP and GAE, but also displays some phonological variation from General IndE. In fact, his sound patterns seem to be a mixture of basilectal, meoslectal and acrolectal IndE, which is not surprising, given the dynamics of the speech continuum in IndE.

Because this study only examined Raj's reading pronunciation, follow-up research might examine inter-speaker variation via a comparison, for example, between his reading and his spontaneous utterances in conversation with a close friend. Furthermore, for the same reason, future research might compare Raj's sound patterns with those of other Indians who share similar sociolinguistic backgrounds. In particular, it would be intriguing to investigate whether the distinctive features of Raj's pronunciation found in this study—the realization of voiceless syllable-final interdental fricatives as unvoiced dental stops—are merely idiosyncratic, or are also exhibited by other Indians his speech community.

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Teaching and Assessing Speaking Performance through Analytic Scoring Approach

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Abstract—The research sought to discern if the analytic scoring approach would be more effective for improving EFL learners' speaking performance. The two groups, analytic group and holistic group, were compared in terms of the test results from analytic scoring approach and holistic scoring approach respectively. The study also found the students' positive attitude towards the adoption of analytic scoring approach in teaching and assessing speaking skill.

Index Terms—speaking, analytic scoring approach, holistic scoring approach, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

The holistic scoring approach has been the foundation for teaching and assessing speaking performance of the EFL students at University for Natural Resources and Environment, Ho Chi Minh City. Nonetheless, the holistic scoring approach in teaching and assessment does not provide useful anatomical guidance for students to improve their speaking competence. Obtaining the score for speaking, students do not know why they succeed or fail since a single score does not allow [students] to distinguish between various aspects of speaking such as control of syntax, depth of vocabulary, organization, and so on.

Bachman and Palmer (1996) suggested a framework for testing in terms of the usefulness. The framework can be relevant in helping teachers decide which type of test to use. This framework proposed six qualities of test usefulness: Reliability, Construct Validity, Authenticity, Inter-activeness, Impact, and Practicality (Bachman and Palmer, 1996, pp. 17-38). Weigle (2002) commented on Bachman and Palmer's framework, showing a comparison of holistic and analytic scales based on the same six qualities of test usefulness. On reliability, the analytic scales will be more reliable than the holistic scales even though the holistic scoring scales are acceptable. On construct validity, the analytic scales are more appropriate to second language students. On impact, the analytic scales will provide students with more information about their competence; teachers and educators also are benefited with the analytic scale when it can orientate teachers and educators what they should use to instruct students. However, the analytic scales will be more disadvantageous than the holistic scales when practicality is taken into consideration since it is a time-consuming and expensive method of scoring.

The aim of this research was to examine if the analytic scoring approach in teaching and assessment would be more effective for improving students' speaking performance. The research also explored the students' attitude towards the implementation of analytic scoring approach in speaking teaching and assessment. The research question guiding this research thus encompasses:

1. Does teaching and assessing speaking performance analytically improve EFL students' speaking competence better than teaching and assessing speaking performance holistically?

2. How do EFL students reflect on the implementation of the analytic scoring approach in speaking teaching and assessment?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Analytic Scoring Schemes

Analytic scoring schemes are means of assessment by breaking down the objective of final products into criteria parts, and each part is scored independently. The procedures of this method involve the separation of the various features of a discourse into categories for scoring purpose (Park, 2004, p. 1). The total score is the sum of the rating for all of the parts that are being evaluated. When using analytic scoring schemes, it is necessary to treat each criterion or part as separate to avoid bias towards the whole product. Depending on the purpose of the assessment, speaking performance might be rated on such criteria as content, organization, cohesion, register, vocabulary, grammar, or mechanics. Contrary to the holistic scoring scheme, this method of scoring avoids the potential flaw in global impression band scales of uneven development in the different criteria (Weir, 2005, p. 189). Moreover, with this approach of assessment, a teacher is easy to give a higher scoring for a certain criterion by giving a certain coefficient when he/she think that his/her students should focus on the criterion. For example, if a teacher pays more attention to the organization of the

speech, he/she can give a coefficient of two to the criteria before the total score of the speaking performance is calculated.

Advantages of Analytic Scoring Schemes

Analytic scoring schemes are preferred over holistic schemes by many speaking specialists for a number of reasons. First, as mentioned above, it provides more useful diagnostic information about students' speaking abilities. That is, it tells learners where their weaknesses are and where their strengths are. Analytic scoring has been considered as more interpretable scoring approach because it accesses the examinee's specific strengths and weaknesses and identifies the particular components of speaking discourse that an examinee needs to develop (Downing and Haladyna, 2006, p. 314). Holistic scores provide valuable information for an overall categorization of speaking ability, but analytic scores provide more diagnostic information. The information also allows instructors and curriculum developers to tailor instructions more closely to the needs of their students. To a certain extent, the analytic scoring scale is a useful tool to provide teachers' feedback for students on the areas of students' strengths and weaknesses. Park (2004, p. 2) pinpointed that the explicitness of the analytic scoring scheme guides offers teachers a potentially valuable tool for providing speakers with consistent and direct feedback. Second, analytic scoring schemes are particularly useful for second language learners, who are more likely to show a *marked* or *uneven profile* across different aspects of speaking discourse. Some second language learners may have excellent speaking skill in terms of content and organization, but may have much lower grammatical control; others may have an excellent control of sentence structure, but may not know how to organize their speech in a logical way. On this aspect, the analytic scoring scales can show students that they have made progress over time in some or all dimensions when the same rubric categories are used repeatedly (Moskal, 2000).

Analytic schemes have also been found to be particularly useful for scorers who are relatively inexperienced (Weir, 2005, p. 190). Weir in his 1990 research reported that a multi-trait analytic mark scheme is seen as a useful tool for the training and standardization of new examiners (Weir, 2005, p. 190). Other authors maintained that, compared to holistic scoring schemes, analytic scoring schemes are easier to train scorers to use it, an inexperienced scorer may find it easier to work with an analytic scoring scheme than a holistic scoring one because they can evaluate specific textual criteria (Park, 2004, p. 2; McNamara, 1996). Thus, inexperienced scorers may find it easier to work with an analytic scale than a holistic one.

Disadvantages of Analytic Scoring Schemes

The major disadvantage of scoring analytically is that it takes a lot of time to rate speaking performance since examiners are required to make more than one decision for every speaking performance. When scoring analytically, an examiner has to check, consider, and score each criterion of the speaking ability and then gives a total score depending on the coefficient put forward.

Critics of analytic scoring schemes also point out that measuring the quality of a text by tallying accumulated sub-skill scores diminishes the interconnectedness of spoken discourse. At this aspect, it is thought that "the whole should be greater than the sum of its part". Measuring the quality of a spoken discourse by tallying accumulated sub-skill gives the false impression that speaking can be understood and fairly assessed by analyzing autonomous discourse features (Park, 2004, p. 3). Hughes (1989) pinpointed that concentration on the different aspects may divert attention from the overall effect of the speech. Inasmuch as the whole is often greater than the sum of its parts, a composite score may be very reliable but not valid (Hughes 1989, pp. 93-94). In this aspect, the analytic scoring often has the tendencies to reduce and oversimplify the components of speaking, and to emphasize the flaws than the strengths of speaking.

Hughes (2003) warned that in scoring analytically, the criterion scored first may affect on subsequent criteria which are scored later, making the overall effect of a speech diverted to an individual criterion. Futcher (2009), based on Thorndike's idea, named this phenomenon as the Halo Effect of the analytic scoring. Thorndike in 1920 defined the phenomenon as *a problem that arises in data collection when there is carry-over from one judgment to another*. In other words, when scorers are asked to make multiple judgments they really make one, and this affects all other judgments. If scorers are give five scales each with nine points, and they award a score of five on the first scale for a speech, it is highly likely that they will score five on the second and subsequent scale, and be extremely reluctant to move too far away from this generally. As a result what we find is that profiles tend to be "flat", defeating the aim of providing informative, rich information, on learner performance (Futcher, 2009). Consequently, criteria scales may not be used effectively according to their internal criteria, resulting in a halo effect in which one criteria score may influence another.

An additional problem with some analytic scoring schemes is that even experienced essay judges sometimes find it difficult to assign numerical scores based on certain descriptors (Hamp-Lyons, 1989). In this aspect, there are possibilities for scorers to disagree with one another. It is more difficult to achieve intra- and inter-rater reliability on all of the dimensions in an analytic scoring scheme than on a single score yielded by a holistic scale. Also, on the scorers' part, McNamara (1996) exposed that there are some evidences proving that scorers tend to evaluate grammar-related categories more harshly than they do other categories (McNamara, 1996), thereby overemphasizing the role of accuracy in providing a profile of students' proficiency. This disadvantage is inevitable, especially with un-trained or un-experienced scorers. Grammar-related categories are somewhat wrong – right categories whereas other categories are judgments. Focusing on wrong – right categories will always be easier than judgments. White (1985) added other limits

of analytic scoring. That is the lack of agreement about what separate traits exist and its tendency to complicate the assignment of the scores for listeners, increasing time and therefore costs.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Students

The two classes comprising 104 students at University for Natural Resources and Environment, Ho Chi Minh City were invited to participate in the research as the experimental group (the analytic group) in which the analytic scoring approach was utilized for teaching and assessing speaking and the control group (the holistic group) in which the holistic scoring approach was utilized for teaching and assessing speaking.

The analytic group consisted of 51 students, among which 38 students were female, accounting for 74.51% and 13 students were male, accounting for 25.49%. This class was chosen to be the analytic group in this research since the group's mean of the pretest was 6.78, lower than 6.81 of the holistic group. This choice would give the study more reliable when the holistic group seemed to be better than the analytic group at the beginning of the research.

The holistic group consisted of 53 students, among which 40 students were female, accounting for 75.47% and 13 students were male, accounting for 24.53%.

Teacher

A female teacher was invited to teach the two groups to avoid the researcher's bias. The teacher holds a master degree in TESOL and has over six years of experience in teaching speaking.

B. Instruments

Pretest and posttest

The pretest was the final test that the students in the two groups took for the subject of speaking in their previous semester. The score of the posttest was the aggregation of the scores from six speaking tests through the speaking course.

The analytic scoring scale for this study was adapted from the scales suggested by Nakamura (2004, p. 47) and Hughey et al. (1983, p. 140). The Nakamura scoring scale is on the scale of four for each criterion among five criteria of Originality of Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Grammar and Logical Consistency. The Hughey et al.'s scale has five criteria of Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language use and Mechanic. The analytic scoring scale used as the basis for teaching and assessing speaking in this research contains five criteria: 1) Coherence, 2) Content, 3) Grammar and Structure, 4) Language used (consisting of Vocabulary, Spelling and Word used), and 5) Organization.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in the study was a six-scale Likert-type one in Vietnamese language. The six-scale response was used in the questionnaire to prevent respondents from choosing a "sit the fence" attitude by making the most neutral possible answer (Brown, 2000, p. 1). The type was designed to ask respondents to choose either in the positive or negative attitude towards the use of the analytic scoring approach.

The questionnaire was used for investigating students' attitudes towards the use of the analytic scoring approach in teaching and assessing their speaking performance. The questionnaire has six items.

- Item 1 (*The analytic scoring approach helps students enhance their speaking skill*) was designed to examine students' attitudes towards the role of the analytic scoring approach in enhancing students' speaking competence. This item has the response categories of Agreement. The six options for the response categories are *Strongly disagreed – Disagreed – Somewhat disagreed – Somewhat agreed – Agreed – Strongly agreed*.

- Item 2 (*The analytic scoring approach is essential for students to enhance their speaking competence*) was designed to examine students' attitudes towards the necessity of using the analytic scoring approach. This item has the response categories of Agreement. The six options for the response categories are *Strongly disagreed – Disagreed – Somewhat disagreed – Somewhat agreed – Agreed – Strongly agreed*.

- Item 3 (*I am interested in discerning my strengths and weaknesses in speaking skill*) was designed to examine students' attitudes towards the fact that the analytic scoring approach displays students' strengths and weaknesses in speaking skill. This item has the response categories of Agreement. This item was expected to be correlated with Item 1. The six options for the response categories are *Strongly disagreed – Disagreed – Somewhat disagreed – Somewhat agreed – Agreed – Strongly agreed*.

- Item 4 (*How often did you apply the analytic scoring approach to their learning strategies outside the classroom?*) was designed to examine how students applied the analytic scoring approach to their learning strategies. This item has the response categories of Frequency. The options for the responding categories are *Very frequently – Frequently – Occasionally – Rarely – Very rarely – Never*.

- Item 5 (*Do you want the analytic scoring approach to be applied to your other speaking courses*) was designed to examine students' expectations for the continuous application of the analytic scoring approach to their learning of speaking. This item has the response categories of Likelihood. The options for the responding categories are *To a great extent – Probably – Somewhat – Possibly – Very little – Not at all*.

- Item 6 (*I am pleased with my improvement in the speaking competence after attending the course*) was designed to examine students' content with their improvement on the speaking competence after attending the course. This item has the response categories of Likelihood. The options for the responding categories are *Definitely – Very probably – Probably – Possibly – Probably not – Very probably not.*

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Students in the Analytic Group Enhanced Their Speaking Performance Better than Students in the Holistic Group during the Process of Analytic Teaching and Assessment

Table 1 and Table 2 recapitulate the results that the two groups obtained through the six speaking tests in the study. Table 1 is for the holistic group and Table 2 is for the analytic group. For the columns of Mean, Min and Max in the tables, the students in the holistic group did not improve much during the course from the first speaking test to the last one. These students earned averagely 6.31 for speaking test 1 but they averagely earned only 6.58 for speaking test 6. They improved with their minimum and maximum scores by one mark for each parameter; concretely from 3.50 up to 4.50 for their minimum scores and from 8.00 up to 9.00 for their maximum. It is also noted that the students in the holistic group obtained relatively static results from speaking test 1 to speaking test 6 when the means are analyzed. The highest value of the means is for speaking test 6 (6.58) and the lowest one is for speaking test 1 (6.31).

TABLE 1.
SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS OF THE HOLISTIC GROUP THROUGH SIX SPEAKING TESTS

Holistic group						
				Difference in Median -		
	Mean	Median	Range	Mean	Min	Max
Speaking test 1	6.31	6.00	4.00	(-) .32*	3.50	8.00
Speaking test 2	6.38	6.50	4.50	.13	3.50	8.00
Speaking test 3	6.37	6.50	4.50	.15	4.00	8.50
Speaking test 4	6.48	6.50	4.00	.03	4.50	8.50
Speaking test 5	6.50	6.50	4.50	.10	4.50	8.00
Speaking test 6	6.58	6.50	4.50	.03	4.50	9.00

(-)* indicates that the mean is higher than the median

For the students in the analytic group, the statistic summary denotes an improvement during the process of learning. For the means, these students improved from 6.33 for speaking test 1 to 7.06 for speaking test 6. These improvements are for the four last speaking tests with 6.68, 7.03, 6.93 and 7.06, while the means for the two first speaking tests are stable with 6.33 and 6.35. The differences between the means and the medians also denote a prominence for the analytic group, especially with the four last speaking tests. Speaking tests 3 and 4 which have negative results prove that the number of students obtained scores from the median and above is higher than the number of students obtained scores from the median and below. These differences are closer to 00 for the last two speaking tests, indicating that the scores in the two sets are spread all over the set from the minimum score to the maximum one.

TABLE 2.
SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS OF THE ANALYTIC GROUP THROUGH SIX SPEAKING TESTS

Analytic group						
				Difference in Median -		
	Mean	Median	Range	Mean	Min	Max
Speaking test 1	6.33	6.50	4.00	.17	4.50	8.50
Speaking test 2	6.35	6.50	5.00	.15	4.00	9.00
Speaking test 3	6.68	6.50	3.50	(-) .18*	5.50	9.00
Speaking test 4	7.03	6.50	4.00	(-) .53*	5.50	9.50
Speaking test 5	6.93	7.00	4.50	.07	5.00	9.50
Speaking test 6	7.06	7.00	4.50	.01	4.50	9.00

(-)* indicates that the mean is higher than the median

The comparison between Table 1 for the holistic group and Table 2 for the analytic group substatiates that the analytic group obtained better results than the holistic group when the process of teaching speaking analytically. The improvement of the analytic group can be attributed to the use of analytic approach in informing students' strengths and weaknesses. After the first two speaking tests, the students in the analytic groups perceived their strengths and weaknesses in their speaking skill. This awareness helped them adjust their learning strategies to surmount their weaknesses. As a result, these students improved their speaking performance better than students in the holistic groups on the last four speaking tests.

The t-test results also display the differences between the two groups' score sets through the process. For the frist three speaking tests, the differences are *not statistically significant*. On the contrary, all of the differences between the two groups' score sets of the last three speaking tests are *very statistically significant* for speaking tests 4 and 5 and *extremely statistically significant* for speaking test 6. The p values for these t-tests are extremely small, .00112, .00301, .00059, respectively. It should be noted that these values are smaller and smaller from speaking

test 4 to speaking test 6, denoting that the differences are more and more statiscally significant. Table 3 summarizes the results of the t-tests for the six speaking tests.

TABLE 3.
T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE SIX SPEAKING TESTS

	Means		T-test results			
	Analytic group	Holistic group	two-tailed $t_{statistical}$	df	P value	Conclusion
Speaking test 1	6.33	6.31	.80882	102	.420	not statistically significant
Speaking test 2	6.35	6.38	.18638	102	.852	not statistically significant
Speaking test 3	6.68	6.37	1.07373	102	.285	not statistically significant
Speaking test 4	7.03	6.48	3.35399	102	.00112	very statistically significant
Speaking test 5	6.93	6.50	3.03913	102	.00301	very statistically significant
Speaking test 6	7.06	6.58	3.54494	102	.00059	extremely statistically significant

This finding is in accordance with Weigle's comment on Bachman and Palmer's test usefulness of Construct Validity. Weigle (2002) claimed that analytic scoring approach is more appropriate for second language speakers as different aspects of speaking performance develop at different rate. This idea is also shared by other researchers (Downing and Haladyna, 2006; Park, 2004; Moskal, 2000). Especially, Moskal (2002) and Park (2004) claimed that the analytic scoring schemes would be useful for the process of learning speaking skill. During the process of the course, it was noted that the students in the analytic groups improved their speaking competence better than those in the holistic group through each speaking test, especially the last four tests.

B. The Improvements of Students in the Analytic Group in Terms of the Five Criteria of the Analytic Assessment

The improvement of the students in the analytic group on the speaking performance can be further analyzed through their improvements on the five criteria of the analytic assessment. Table 4 displays the average scores of the analytic group based on the five analytic criteria. These scores are converted from the scale of four to the scale of ten by multiplying these scores with the coefficient of 2.5. This conversion is made to have the score in line with the current scale used at University for Natural Resources and Environment, Ho Chi Minh City.

On the whole, as Table 4 displays, the students in the analytic group made their improvements on all of five criteria. The highest improvement among the five criteria is Content. This criterion has 5.80 for the lowest score and 7.11 for the highest score, equal to 13.07%. The smallest difference is for Organization which has 6.50 for the lowest and 7.01 for the highest score. The difference is .51, equal to 5.07%.

The lowest scores for each criterion are with the first two speaking tests. Speaking test 1 has the lowest scores for Coherence, Grammar and Organization. Speaking test 2 has the lowest scores for Content and Language used. The highest scores for each criterion are with the last three speaking tests. Speaking test 4 has the highest scores for Content and Language used. Speaking test 4 has the highest scores for Coherence, Grammar and Organization. The criterion of Grammar exhibited a gradual improvement with 11.09%.

TABLE 4.
AVERAGE SCORES OF THE ANALYTIC GROUP IN TERMS OF THE FIVE CRITERIA IN THE SIX SPEAKING TEST

	Coherence	Content	Grammar	Language used	Organization
Speaking test 1	5.83	6.14	6.39	6.72	6.50
Speaking test 2	6.05	5.80	6.88	6.32	6.80
Speaking test 3	6.13	6.26	7.37	6.80	6.81
Speaking test 4	6.36	7.11	7.29	7.45	6.91
Speaking test 5	6.68	6.55	7.47	7.06	6.90
Speaking test 6	6.75	6.70	7.58	7.24	7.01

(*) Scores are converted into the scale of ten by multiplying the average scores with 2.5

C. Students in the Analytic Group Improved Their Speaking Performance Much Better than Students in the Holistic Group from the Pretest to the Posttest

The results of the pretest denote that the two groups were almost at the same speaking competence level. The holistic group showed the slightly higher mean for the pretest (6.81 versus 6.78) and the smaller range (3.50 versus 4.00) compared to the analytic group. The t-test also provides the conclusion that the difference of the means relative to the spread of the two groups' scores is not statistically significant with the p value of .877, far much higher than the critical α value. Thus, the two groups were at the same level of English speaking when the study commenced.

Table 5 compares some parameters of the two groups in the pretests and the posttests. The comparison displays that the students in the analytic group excel their counterparts in the holistic group after four-month experiment. These students earned .66 higher for the means, .75 higher for the maximum score, 1.11 higher for the minimum score. Their

range is advantageously .36 smaller. This smaller range proves that the analytic groups' score set is more focused on the mean than the holistic group's.

TABLE 5.
THE COMPARISON OF THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE ANALYTIC GROUP AND THE HOLISTIC GROUP FOR THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST

	Pretest Analytic	Holistic	Pretest difference	Posttest Analytic	Holistic	Posttest difference
Mean	6.78	6.81	-.03	6.93	6.27	.66
Max	9.00	9.00	equal	9.01	8.26	.75
Min	5.00	5.00	equal	5.25	4.14	1.11
Range	4.00	4.00	equal	3.76	4.12	-.36

* the minus sign implies the value of holistic group is higher

D. *Findings from the Questionnaire Survey*

The questionnaire has six items. The first five items are used for examining students' attitudes towards the adoption of the analytic scoring approach in teaching and assessing their speaking performance. The last item, Item 6, is used for asking students to express their content with the improvement on their speaking skill after attending the course.

Findings from responses to item 1 of the questionnaire

Item 1 (*The analytic scoring approach helps students enhance their speaking skill*) was designed to examine students' attitudes towards the role of the analytic scoring approach in enhancing students' speaking competence.

The pattern of the responses displays that most of the students agreed that the analytic scoring approach helps them enhance their speaking skill to different degrees of agreement. 50 students (98.04%) of the group agreed to the statement from *somewhat agreed* to *strongly agreed*. Concretely, 76.47% *strongly agreed* with the statement, 15.69% *agreed* and 5.88% *somewhat agreed*. On the negative side of the response categories, only one student, accounting for 1.96%, *somewhat disagreed* with the statement.

The pattern of the responses to Item 1 display that there is a broad consensus among the students in the analytic group on the issue that the analytic scoring approach helps them enhance their speaking competence. This attitude is in accordance with numerous researchers' standpoints (Moskal, 2000; Downing and Haladyna, 2006; Park, 2008).

Findings from responses to item 2 of the questionnaire

Item 2 (*The analytic scoring approach is essential for students to enhance their speaking competence*) was designed to examine students' attitudes towards the necessity of using the analytic scoring approach.

The pattern of the responses displays that there are non-consensus among the students in the analytic group on the issue. Twenty-one students, accounting for 41.18%, disagreed with the statement, stating that the analytic scoring approach is not indispensable for students to enhance their speaking competence. Among these students, 12 students *strongly disagreed*, ten students *disagreed* and 13 students *somewhat disagreed* to the statement. Thirty students, accounting for 58.82%, thought that the analytic scoring approach is necessary for students to improve their speaking capability. Among these students, ten students *somewhat agreed* with the statement, 13 students *agreed* and seven students *strongly agreed*.

Even though these students have the broad consensus on the previous item which states that the analytic scoring approach will help them improve their speaking competence, they almost disagree with their classmates about the necessity of the analytic scoring approach. Nevertheless, this polarization is not opposite to other researchers' views. None of the researchers have mentioned that the analytic scoring schemes are essential for students to improve their speaking capability.

Findings from responses to item 3 of the questionnaire

Item 3 (*I am interested in discerning my strengths and weaknesses in speaking skill*) was designed to examine if the information about their strengths and weaknesses in speaking skill interest them.

In response to Item 3, all of the students agreed to different degrees to the statement which states that they are interested in discerning their strengths and weakness in speaking skill. Eight students, accounting for 15.69%, responded that they *somewhat agreed* to the statement. Fifteen students, accounting for 29.41%, *agreed* to the statement. Over half of the class, 28 out of 51 students, responded that they *strongly agreed* to the statement.

This finding is, to some extent, correlated with Item 1 as it is posited. The reliability statistics display that the Cronbach alpha's for the two items is .866 and the inter-item correlation is .767. These high values are in accordance with the percentage statistics when 50 students (98.04[%]) of the group are on the side of agreement for Item 1 and all of the students are on the side of agreement for Item 3.

Findings from responses to item 4 of the questionnaire

Item 4 (*How often did you apply the analytic scoring approach to their learning strategies outside the classroom?*) was designed to examine how students applied the analytic scoring approach to their learning strategies.

The pattern of the responses to Item 4 displays that all of the students in the analytic group did resort to the analytic scoring approach to adapt their learning strategies outside the classroom. 37 students (72.55%) of the group responded that they often based on the analytic scoring approach to prepare their speech. Among these, 29.41% *occasionally*, 35.29% *frequently* and 7.84% *very frequently* paid attention to the scores. However, 14 students (24.45%) of the group *very rarely* to *rarely* used the analytic scoring approach in their speaking strategies.

Findings from responses to item 5 of the questionnaire

Item 5 (*Do you want the analytic scoring approach to be applied to your other speaking courses*) was designed to examine students' expectations for the continuous application of the analytic scoring approach to their learning of speaking.

Responding to Item 5, the students in the analytic group displayed a broad consensus on the issue. All of the ideas are on the positive side of the attitudes. 20 students (39.22%) are eager to have the analytic scoring scheme used for their other speaking courses. 27 students (52.94%) express that they *probably* and four students (7.84%) contend that they *somewhat* want to have the analytic scoring scheme used for their other speaking courses. None of the students gave the attitudes from *not at all* to *possibly*. The students' prominent favor proves that the students understood that the analytic scoring approach would benefit them.

Findings from responses to item 6 of the questionnaire

Item 6 (*I am pleased with my improvement on the speaking competence after attending the course*) was designed to examine students' content with their improvement in the speaking competence after attending the course.

The pattern of the responses proves that the students in the analytic group pleased with their improvement in speaking competence after attending the course. nine students (17.65%) responded that they *definitely* pleased with their improvement. Almost half of the class, 23 students (45.10%) chose *very probably* and 13 students (25.49%) chose *probably*.

V. Conclusion

The research provides an insight into the interconnection between the analytic approach and students' improvement in speaking learning. This insight also helps teachers have a clear-cut decision on the implementation of the analytic scoring scheme for assessing their students' speaking performance. Moreover, the research shows that teaching and measuring students' speaking performance should be a process rather than a product. The research is a reaction to the current preferable holistic scoring approach in teaching and assessing speaking skill. The holistic scoring approach can bring some advantages to teachers in teaching and assessing students' speaking performance but introduce students some disadvantages to their autonomous process of learning speaking skill.

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The Culture of Othering: An Interrogation of Shakespeare's Handling of Race and Ethnicity in *The Merchant of Venice* and *Othello*

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Abstract—This paper examines Shakespeare's handling of the issue of race in The Merchant of Venice and Othello. Race and ethnicity have been at the epicentre of many conflicts throughout history and are still a headache even in 21st century societies that boast of unprecedented technological advancement and sophisticated lifestyles. Shakespeare has been used as a touchstone in many literary communities --playwrights and poets have been measured against his writings and the academic diets of pupils and students alike in many countries have always included a dish from the 'Chief Chef', Shakespeare. There is no doubt that his works entertained as well as educated many, his contemporaries as well as later generations across cultures but did the curriculum content of his education always inculcate virtue? Wasn't the entertainment at the expense of certain individuals because of their background? Through close reference to the plays The Merchant of Venice and Othello, this paper argues that the revered artist was racially intolerant and his writings may have influenced or helped to perpetuate racism and religious bigotry which was evident in The Slave Trade, Colonialism and the persecution of Jews in Germany. Some of his works therefore not only entertain(ed) and instruct(ed) but also misentertain(ed) and misinstruct(ed).

Index Terms—Shakespeare, race, ethnicity, The Merchant of Venice, Othello

I. INTRODUCTION

This article takes a close look at *The Merchant of Venice* and *Othello* by Shakespeare who is regarded as unparalleled in his literary prowess. His poems and plays are still read, acted and immensely enjoyed the world over centuries after they were written. In many countries, and very certainly in the former British colonies, one could not be regarded as having done Literature in English without having studied works by Shakespeare. In fact even at primary school 'prosified' and shortened versions of his plays were included yet close scrutiny of his literary products reveals astonishing levels of racism and religious bigotry among other vices. This article interrogates Shakespeare's handling of the issue of race in *The Merchant of Venice* and *Othello* using an Afrocentric approach.

II. AFROCENTRIC CRITICISM

According to Simon During this approach is driven by 'the need, in nations or groups which have been victims of imperialism to achieve an identity uncontaminated by Universalist or Eurocentric concepts or images' (www.enotes.com/../introduction accessed on 18/11/09). Afrocentric writing or criticism exhibits an African-centred consciousness which is based on a profound understanding of the culture and cosmology of African peoples against such colonial practices as exploitation and slavery (Ngara, 1990). This literary theory has its roots in Negritude that many African critics consider the starting point of any cultural and literary response of the African to European domination. Negritude, a term coined by Caribbean writer and politician, Aimé Cesaire, signifies Africa's reawakening from the deep slumber of colonial domination and marginalization. The main postulates of the movement in Africa were Leopold Senghor and David Diop. The movement asserted African values and sought to challenge the colonialists who had made the African accept colonial rule as God-given, as an act of philanthropy and as legitimate thus making the African a willing and co-operating passenger on the voyage of self-denial and totally denigrating his/her own language, culture and identity. After generations of colonization and subnegation the Africans realized that they had something to be proud of after all and that there was nothing wrong with their race, colour and cultural practices as they were led to believe by their conquerors and sorcerers through carefully calculated curriculum concoctions to achieve what Ngugi refers to as 'cultural genocide' (Ngugi, 1981.p.14). Leading European thinkers traded the racist formulations which arguably helped to shape subsequent Anglo-Saxon thinking. David Hume in 1735 asserted:

The Negro is naturally inferior to the whites. There scarcely ever was a civilized nation of that complexion, nor even any individual, eminent either in action or speculation. No ingenious manufactures among them, no arts, no science…(cited in Ngugi, 1981.p.14).

Burton in 1865 wrote:

The savage custom of going naked has denuded the mind and destroyed all decorum in the language. Poetry there is none…There is no metre, no rhyme, nothing that interests or soothes the feelings or arrests the passions…(cited in Finnegan, 1970.p.27).

Thomas Jefferson the third President of the United States (1801-1809), the principal author of the Declaration of Independence (1776), and one of the most influential Founding Fathers of America (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Thomas_Jefferson: accessed 10/02/10) remarked:

The blacks, whether originally a distinct race or made distinct by time and circumstances, are inferior to the whites in the endowments of body and mind …(cited in Ngugi, 1981:14).

According to Ngugi, for the best and most sensitive minds of European culture, including Shakespeare's, the definition of social reality was rooted in their European tradition, history, race, culture and class and when they talked of man they meant the European man (Ngugi, 1981). Thus Jefferson's views above should not be surprising-- although the USA fought against Britain on the basis that all men were created equal they did not mean to include non-whites -- these were too dark to be visible! This explains why black people continued to suffer slavery and racism in the land of the free. This also explains why David Livingstone 'discovered' what he named the Victoria Falls whose real name is Mosi oa Tunya, in spite of the fact that the local black guides and carriers of his luggage took him there. Naming the falls in honour of his distant queen illustrates how the blacks did not matter to him. In fact Africans needed to be exorcised of their heathen and backward practices and the school system shouldered this big responsibility. In schools

…the English language and English literature syllabuses were tailored to prepare the lucky few for an English degree at university…Shakespeare, Milton, Wordsworth, Shelley, Keats and Kipling were familiar names long before I knew I would even make it to Makerere (Ngugi, 1987.p.91)

As Ngugi (1987:93) notes the products of the school system's way of looking at the world, even the world of the immediate environment was Eurocentric. Europe was the center of the universe. The earth moved around the European intellectual scholarly axis (Ngugi,1987.p.93)

Post-colonial criticism seeks to resist domination and assert the humanity of the formerly oppressed. As aptly put across by Chidi Amuta (1989:6) 'Afrocentric literature tries to shake off the yoke of Eurocentricity which history has placed upon the shoulders of Africa'.

The negative perception about 'Dark Africa' such as exhibited in the following quotation influenced European writers the same way the media currently influences Western people about Africa:

The Natives being propagated from Cham (Ham), both in Visages and Natures, seem to inherit his malediction. Their colour is ugly black, are strongly limbd, desparate, crafty and injurious. Their heads are long; their haire, woolly and crisp…Their noses are flat, crusht so in their infancie; great lips, description cannot make them greater; quick ,crafty eyes…But these savages eat men alive or dead…(Thomas Herbert: 'Travels into Africa and Asia of 1638 cited in Flora Veit-Wild,2006.p.7)

Herbert above talks about 'great lips',Othello is described as having 'the thick lips'(Act 1 Scene 1 line 63);Herbert talks about 'these savages' Montano refers to Othello as a 'damned slave'(Act 5,Scene 2 line 241) and Lodovico, a high ranking Venetian nobleman describes Othello as 'a cursed slave'   (Act 5,Scene 2 line 288);Herbert says 'their colour is ugly black' and Emilia talks about 'thou dull Moor'(Act 5,Scene 2 line 223).These are some examples which show that the attitude shown by Shakespeare towards people of colour, as reflected by his characters and reflecting his own attitudes as a human being, was not an isolated incident. The differences of people from different ethnic and racial groups brings about the concept of 'othering' which refers to 'the labeling and degrading of cultures and groups outside of one's own'(Riggins,1997 cited in Jandt (2007:42).Jandt (2007:42) goes on to say that

as people create a category called 'us', another category of 'not us' or 'them' is created. The collective pronouns *us* and *them* become powerful influences on perception. The names given to 'them' can be used to justify suppression and even extermination.

Names given to black people in Zimbabwe and elsewhere in Africa such as 'native', 'baboon', 'savage','kaffir' were meant to characterize them as not only different but also inferior/subhuman and therefore not 'deserving' of a treatment which was normally given to 'normal' human beings. The Nazis labeled Jews 'bacilli', 'parasites', 'disease', 'demon' and 'plague' because 'although killing another human being may be unthinkable, 'exterminating a disease' is not' (Jandt,2007:42).We find a lot of this *de*-humanizing in the cited texts in order to justify different and unfair treatment.

III. THE MERCHANT OF VENICE

The Merchant of Venice is believed by some critics to have been influenced by Marlowe's play *The Jew of Malta* which is based on a real historical figure, Joseph, Duke of Naxos (Walter,1960). Marlowe chooses to call him Barabas, completely falsifies his character and draws him according to the medieval pattern as a monster. Both Shakespeare and Marlowe should be seen at worst to be very much prejudiced against Jews. If they were not they danced to the gallery and created the monsters which their audiences relished to watch. If indeed he created the caricature called Shylock to please his paymasters, the Elizabethans, he should be charged for racism/Anti-Semitism and religious bigotry.

Some sources argue that *The Merchant of Venice* was partly influenced by the trial and execution in 1594 of Roderigo Lopez a Jew and Queen Elizabeth's physician who had been a highly respected and trusted man until the enmity of the Earl of Essex ruined him (Walter,1960).The anti-Jewish climate prevailing during the trial might not have

created atmospheric conditions favourable for a fair hearing for the condemned man especially bearing in mind that the Earl of Essex presided over the hearing (Lott,1962).

A. Shakespeare's Handling of Shylock

Antonio, the merchant of Venice, is approached by his bosom friend Bassanio who needs money to spruce up his image in preparation for his intended visit to woo Portia. Unfortunately all his ships are out and he cannot raise the 3000 ducats required. He then suggests that Bassanio finds money from whatever source and promises to pay back when his ships return:

Go presently inquire, and so will I,

Where money is, and I no question make

To have it of my trust, or for my sake (Act I, Scene 2 lines 183-5)

The search lands the two at Shylock's home. It is crystal clear from Shylock's utterances to Bassanio that there is deep-seated hostility between Christians and Jews. When, for instance, Bassanio invites Shylock to dinner the latter remarks sarcastically:

Yes, to smell pork, to eat of the habitation which your prophet the Nazarite conjured the devil into. I will buy with you, sell with you, talk with you, walk with you, and so following. But I will not eat with you, drink with you, nor pray with you (Act I, Scene 3 lines 28-32).

In an aside when Antonio enters Shylock declares:

I hate him for he is a Christian.

But more, for that in low simplicity

He lends out money gratis, and brings down

The rate of usance here with us in Venice

He hates our nation, and he rails

Even there where merchants must congregate (Act I, Scene 3 lines 36-43)

From the speech we get to hear of the deep-seated grudge he harbours for Antonio for being Christian, for lending out money interest-free and for hating/hurting him being a Jew. As readers we find the first two reasons deplorable but our view of him somewhat changes when we hear that Antonio also hates him and 'rails' where merchants congregate. We are persuaded to think that Antonio is no better. We should believe Shylock's utterance since it is an aside, which is like thinking aloud -- with no one 'in attendance' there is no reason for him to misrepresent facts. In fact Antonio goes on to call Shylock 'the devil' (Act I, Scene 3 line 93) and 'an evil soul' (Act I, Scene 3 line 94) in one breath to someone whom he wants to borrow huge sums of money from. This shows the audience how much Antonio abhors Shylock. As if this evidence of Antonio's not-so-Christian side is not enough Shylock accuses him thus:

You call me misbeliever, cut-throat dog,

And spit upon my Jewish garbedine

And all for use of that which is mine own. (Act I, Scene 3 lines 106-9)

Antonio does not deny the charges. Instead he threatens even more:

I am as like to call thee so again

To spit on thee again, to spurn thee too.

If thou wilt lend this money, lend it not

As to thy friends…(Act I, Scene 3 lines 124-6)

What happened to the Christian teaching of loving our enemies reflected in the following verses?

But I say unto you, love your enemies bless them that curse you, and pray for them, which despitefully use you and persecute you. (Mathew 5 v 44) and

And if you salute your brethren only, what do ye more than others? do not even the publicans so? (Mathew 5 v 47)

If Antonio did all the things Shylock accused him of doing to him, which we do not have even an inkling of doubt to suspect he didn't, is he not even worse than the person on whom he heaps insults and threats including spitting on his Jewish gabardine and beard?(Act I, Scene 3 line130).It seems Shylock stomachs all the insults stoically. If one gets so much in terms of insults and his heart hardens as a result can we really blame him? If he gets an opportunity to revenge and seizes that opportunity, bizarre as it might seem, do we not or should we not at least understand where he is coming from especially when the perpetrator threatens to heap even more insults? If Antonio has the audacity to threaten to spit in the face of a potential lender of 3000 ducats because of a difference of opinion on economic matters and religion who is the villain? Why did he 'stoop' so low as to borrow dirty money from a sworn enemy? Where were the 'good' Christians he dished out money to gratis in the past?

The strong aversion for Jews is not only confined to Antonio. Even clowns like Launcelot have a field day on how inhuman Jews are supposed to be when he says to his father:

My master is a very Jew. Give him a present? give him a halter? I am famished in his service; you may tell every finger I have with my ribs…I am a Jew if I serve the Jew any longer (Act II, Scene 2 lines 92-100).

The description 'Jew' is synonymous/associated with evil. Launcelot bids farewell to Jessica whom he describes as the 'most beautiful pagan, most sweet Jew'. By being beautiful, in Launcelot's view, facially and especially in the heart, she is an exception -- Jews are expected to be ugly! In Act II, Scene 4 lines 29-39 Lorenzo tells Gratiano and Salerio how Jessica will run away with him stealing her father's gold and jewels. Gratiano, a Christian, revels in breaking the

seventh commandment (Exodus 20 v 15) by stealing from his prospective father-in-law whom he describes as 'a faithless Jew'(Act II, Scene 4 line 37). In fact the triumphant Antonio, given the opportunity to render mercy to Shylock at the end of the trial proposes to keep half of what the latter possesses

to render it

Upon his death unto the **gentleman**

That lately **stole** his daughter (*Emphasis added*)(Act II, Scene 4 lines 379-81).

The gentleman is rewarded handsomely for stealing.

In fact more Christians are involved in the stealing of Jessica from her father as well as Shylock's money and jewellery. Launcelot, Shylock's former servant and currently Bassanio's, is sent to Shylock to purportedly invite him for dinner but the actual reason is to give Jessica ample time to loot Shylock's valuables. Doesn't all this Christian involvement in inflicting pain on him understandably radicalize him even further and deepen the fissure between the two antagonistic groups?

Solanio, like Antonio, describes Shylock as 'the villain Jew' (Act II, Scene 8 line 4), 'the dog Jew'(Act II, Scene 8 line14) and 'Old carrion' (Act III, Scene I line 29) and describes Antonio thus:

…without any slips of prolixity, or crossing the plain highway of talk, that the good Antonio, the honest Antonio-O that I had a title good enough to keep his name company(Act III, Scene I lines 9-12).

He goes on to say 'let me say 'amen' betimes, lest the devil cross my prayer, for here he comes in the likeness of a Jew' (Act III, Scene I lines 17-18).

The merchant of Venice, Antonio, is depicted as a saint while Shylock is seen as the devil. The phrase 'he (the devil) comes in the likeness of a Jew' tends to generalize as if all Jews are carbon copies of each other in terms of their behaviour.

If Antonio has done what Shylock in the following speech says he did there is no reason to characterize him, like his one-sided Christian friends do throughout the play, as a spotless blemish-free victim. We have no reason to doubt what Shylock says here to Salerio and Solanio, two of Antonio's friends:

He hath disgraced me, and hindered me half a million, laughed at my losses, mocked at my gains, scorned my nation, thwarted my bargains, cooled my friends, heated mine enemies, and what's his reason? I am a Jew. Hath not a Jew eyes? Hath not a Jew hands, organs, dimensions, senses, affections, passions? Fed with the same food, hurt with the same Winter and Summer, as a Christian is? If you prick us do we not bleed? If you tickle us do we not laugh? If you poison us do we not die? And if you wrong us shall we not revenge? (Act III, Scene I lines 44-54).

Salerio and Solanio do not dispute the allegations leveled against their 'superhuman' friend. In fact when Tubal approaches Solanio he instead says 'here comes another of the tribe; a third cannot be matched, unless the devil himself turn Jew' (Act III, Scene I lines 63-4). This utterance reveals racism at its zenith.

In Act III, Scene I we are informed about Jessica and Lorenzo's extravagance. In Genoa she is reported to have spent 'fourscore ducats'? (Act III, Scene I lines 89-90) and sold the ring her father got from Leah her mother (presumably a wedding or engagement ring, a priceless heirloom) for a monkey. Is such extravagance called for or defendable? Shylock might be miserly but is unbridled extravagance (the kind which reminds one of the prodigal son's escapades) especially of ill-gotten wealth, not equally nauseating? In fact the prodigal son was better since he was squandering his share -- Jessica and Lorenzo had plundered it from Shylock's coffers.

In the court scene alone (Act IV Scene 1) there are 23 references to Shylock's ethnicity. On one page alone or within the space of 31 lines 'Jew' is mentioned eight times. One wonders whether the issue is about the bond per se or about race: Shylock dares to touch the untouchable and the untouchable have ganged up. Instead of referring to him by name, the Duke, Portia, Antonio, Bassanio and Gratiano among others, refer to 'the Jew'. Besides this there are other denigrating characterizations that are made such as 'a stony adversary, an inhuman wretch' (by the Duke (of all people!) in line 4), 'harsh Jew', 'inexecrable dog' and 'currish Jew' (by Gratiano in lines123, 128 and 288 respectively), 'cruel devil' and 'this devil' (by Bassanio in lines 213 and 283 respectively). The Duke of Venice says to Antonio:

I am sorry for thee, thou art come to answer

A stony adversary, an inhuman wretch,

Uncapable of pity, void and empty

From any dram of mercy (Act IV Scene 1 lines 3-6)

The Duke goes on to say: 'Go one and call the Jew into the court' (Act IV Scene 1 line14).

Reference to 'the Jew' has an effect of amplifying the differences or perceived differences between the Christians and the Jews. With such bias one wonders what kind of treatment Shylock will receive with the Duke among those demonizing him thus. In one breath the Duke pleads on behalf of Antonio whom he describes as 'a royal merchant' (Act IV Scene 1 line 29) and expects 'a gentle answer Jew' (line 34) as if 'Jew' refers to 'something' certainly subhuman. The clerk reads Bellario's letter, which in part reads '…his name is Balthazar. I acquainted him with the case in controversy between the Jew and Antonio the merchant' (Act IV Scene 1 lines 153-155). When Portia (Balthazar) is called upon she asks: 'Which is the merchant here? And which the Jew?' (Act IV Scene 1 line 170) and a few moments later she says 'Then must the Jew be merciful'(Act IV Scene 1 line 178).

The use of the description 'the Jew' is consciously or unconsciously putting a huge wedge between the majority (the 'Christians') and the Jews who are in the minority. That phrase has an effect of putting the 'Christians' on a moral high ground and of 'othering' the Jews who do not seem to measure up. Is it necessary for Balthazar to say to Shylock:

Take then thy bond…
But in the cutting it, if thou dost shed
One drop of Christian blood, thy lands and goods
Are by the laws of Venice confiscate
Unto the state of Venice (Act IV Scene 1 lines 305-8)

Is Christian blood better than any other? If the altercation were between two Jews would the court's reaction be different?

Asked by Portia (Balthazar) what mercy Antonio can render Shylock, Antonio says, among other conditions, that Shylock 'presently become a Christian' (Act IV Scene 1 line 383).

Antonio forces Shylock to be a Christian. 'Normal' Christian teaching requires one to freely choose to be one. If one is forced, as in the case of Shylock, one may just pay lip service to the faith to save one's skin instead of the soul therefore Antonio's requirement smacks of religious bigotry. Shylock's answer, 'I am content' (line 389) after he is asked if he agrees to Antonio's terms should be seen as an utterance squeezed out of one who is cornered and thus comes from the mouth not from deep down his heart. This explains why his next utterance is to ask for leave to go since he is no longer feeling well. A true convert should be filled with joy not forlorn -- conversion shouldn't be punitive. The holier-than-thou attitude adopted by the so-called Christians in *The Merchant of Venice*, which may be a reflection of the Elizabethan Christian, is ill-advised. Its arrogance, militancy and intolerance outlived this era. This mentality was displayed in the Anti-Semitism of Germany in the 1930s and 1940s and is also evident even today: the worldview of the economically powerful is **the** worldview, the religion of the economically powerful is **the** religion, the culture of the economically powerful is **the** culture etc. The unipolar world threatens to *uniformize* everything and those out of the circle are not only denigrated but also demonized and concerted efforts are sought to sponsor, financially and militarily, those who have 'the right way' of doing things. The key court scene is a farce: Portia is unqualified to practise law. The letter from Bellario that introduces her as Balthazar a trained lawyer is a piece of fraud. She 'grants' Shylock his wish, that is, to have the pound of flesh but without shedding, not just ordinary human blood but a 'drop of Christian blood'. What human flesh can exist without blood? Isn't this argument seriously flawed? The court scene is meant to rescue Antonio, a 'Christian'? at any cost but may not be, legally speaking, sound.

The discussion has so far attempted to shed light on Shylock's 'villainy' and to show that if he indeed is a villain, he is not the only one in *The Merchant of Venice*. At the receiving end of xenophobic, racial and religious attacks Shylock gets a rare opportunity to revenge when one of his erstwhile tormentors fails to pay back what he owes him. The Antonio-Shylock altercation is not about the unpaid 3000 ducats, this is only the catalyst .Shylock is too rich to have sleepless nights over that amount. The issue is about human dignity. The handling of the characterization of Shylock shows that at worst Shakespeare had entrenched prejudices against Jews and at best he was dancing to the Elizabethan audience's racist dictates. The latter argument suggests that the Elizabethans had terrible attitudes towards Jews whom they saw as the devil incarnate. So Shakespeare by depicting Shylock thus was simply playing to the gallery. If indeed he was, that is unfortunate -- that action makes him no better than his audience and the racist and ethnocentric breed of characters be created.

B. Shakespeare's Handling of The Prince of Morocco

Shakespeare, through one of the key characters, Portia, displays a racist attitude towards the people of colour through his handling of the Prince of Morocco. When the serving- man announces the Prince of Morocco's imminent arrival she responds: 'If he have the condition of a saint and the complexion of a devil, I had rather he should shrive me than wive me'(Act I Scene 2 lines 110-112).As far as Portia is concerned Blacks have the complexion of a devil and given her way she would not entertain a black person for a husband. The announcement of the Prince of Morocco's imminent arrival (Act I Scene 2 line 105) comes immediately after Portia and Nerissa approvingly discuss Bassanio as the most eligible suitor (Act I Scene 2 lines 95-102). This is meant to create anxiety among the Elizabethan audience upon the possibility of Portia being 'won' by one who has the 'complexion of a devil' ahead of the blue-eyed boy, Bassanio, whom she wants to 'coach' on how to choose correctly when he comes. She says:

I would detain you here some month or two
Before you venture for me. I could teach you
How to choose right…(Act III Scene 2 lines 9-11).

Some critics contend that the music played when Bassanio is going through the caskets which has conspicuous 'd'-sounds and the message it contained may have been assistance enough for Bassanio. In fact Portia's imploring of Bassanio to be careful in his choice is meant to tell him, albeit subtly, not to fall into the popular trap of associating the glittering gold with the solution. If one stops someone who is at the verge of committing himself/herself to a certain choice and tells him/her to be careful the real meaning /effect is to tell him/her to stop, reconsider and think differently (and unordinarily) and this is help coming at the most opportune moment. All this was meant to assist the blue-eyed boy to choose correctly. When the Prince of Morocco fails to choose the right casket, Portia is greatly relieved and says:

A good riddance. Draw the curtains, go

Let all of his complexion choose me so (Act II Scene 7 lines 78-9).

She wishes all black suitors who might come in future would choose wrongly so that she is saved? from marrying into the wrong race. Portia's characterization of blacks as having the complexion of a devil is reflected in much later works and general attitude of the European towards 'The Dark Continent' as evidenced by for instance Kipling's notorious poem 'The White Man's Burden' in which the poet implores:

Take up the White man's Burden-
Send forth the best ye breed-
Go send your sons to exile
To serve your captives' need…
Your new-caught, sullen peoples,
Half devil and half child
(Cited in Eliot, 1962 .p.143)
The attitude expressed in this poem

'…was not an isolated image concocted by Kipling. Rather it was an accurate articulation of European colonial consciousness which was amply represented not only in the popular literature of the day *but also in the enduring conceptions and speculations of modern European thought…* (*emphasis supplied*) (Serequeberhan,1995.p.4)

Sifuna and Otiende (1994) have this to say about this 'enduring conception':

The view held by many Europeans who first came to Africa…was that the African was a savage, a pagan with no history and culture to perpetuate, that he knew nothing… (p. 129)

This is what Cecil John Rhodes, the founder of the British colony of Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe) said about the issue of imperialism that inevitably led to the denigration of other peoples and the subjugation of anything associated with the colonial subjects:

I contend that we are *the finest race in the world* and that the more of the world we inhabit the better it is for the human race. Just fancy those parts that are at present inhabited by the most *despicable specimens of human beings* what alteration there would be in them if they were brought under Anglo-Saxon rule? (*Emphasis added*) (Atkinson, 1972. p.5)

The colonized therefore 'owed' the colonizer gratitude for colonizing him/her since this brought enlightenment hence the 'minimum' force used to drag the non-white from the dark cave (Plato's allegorical cave?) was inevitable and should be understood by all level-headed beings! Hence the Shylock types had to be dragged to the light by forcing them to renounce their religion for '**the** religion'.

When any artist chooses to allot some of the most controversial utterances to one of the most important characters he/she risks being (mis)understood. Portia is depicted as flawless -- she is a paragon of beauty, witty, wealthy and extremely intelligent. In the space of a few hours, for instance, she acquaints herself with Venetian Law and outshines those who have studied law and have been in practice for years. If this 'perfect' and therefore likeable character is then given racist lines to speak then the audience are likely to condone such behaviour associating it with the playwright's beliefs. The audience is forgiven for equating a main character's utterances and actions with those of the creator of that character especially when there are no 'sanctions' on the character. Portia is some kind of a messiah who snatches Antonio from the jaws of death (since he would have certainly bled to death from the extraction of the pound of flesh from nearest his heart) an action that endeared her to the audience. Unfortunately she is blatantly racist and so was her creator, Shakespeare. The messiah is only for those of a certain skin pigmentation.

IV. DEPICTION OF OTHELLO

The protagonist in *Othello* is a black man who is a highly capable General in the Venetian army who secretly marries Desdemona without even the knowledge of her father, Brabantio. The fact that the well-respected General does this speaks volumes about the racial relations between the whites and non-whites. The two might have been too afraid to marry openly. When the father hears about it he raises hell. It is understandable to be deeply upset but it is uncalled for to be racially abusive to the 'perpetrator'. He refers to his daughter's husband as 'the Moor' and he also accuses him of witchcraft several times and describes the union as 'treason of the blood' (Act 1,Scene 1 line 166). On the supposed link between blackness and witchcraft he says: 'Damned as thou art thou has enchanted her' (Act 1,Scene 2 line 63). It is inconceivable to Brabantio for 'fair' Desdemona to accept Othello, a black person and therefore a 'black magic' practitioner, as husband, unless she has been subjected to black magic. We learn that Brabantio had spurned Roderigo's proposal as his son-in-law (Act 1,Scene 1 lines 93-95) but now he has suddenly made a U-turn because a black man has won her heart. He wishes Desdemona had been married to the Venetian: 'O,would you had had her!' (Act 1,Scene 1 line 172) and goes on to refer to him as 'good Roderigo' (Act 1,Scene 1 line 180) and now teams up with him to manhunt or 'moorhunt' the 'fugitive'. He asks Roderigo:

Do you know
Where we may apprehend her and the Moor? (Act 1,Scene 1 line 173).

Othello here and elsewhere is 'othered' -- he is not referred to by name. Like the use of the term 'the Jew' in *The Merchant of Venice*, the term 'the Moor' is used in order to show how different and inferior the referent is.

As the villain, Iago's utterances will only be referred to in passing since he is not the best character to represent the playwright and societal attitudes of his time. However Iago's racial attitude is no different from most other characters. He implores Brabantio and other Venetians within earshot:

Arise,Arise!

Awake the snorting citizens with the bell,

Or else the devil will make a grandsire of you

Arise I say! (Act 1,Scene 1 lines 84-87).

The snoring citizens are implored to wake up and prevent the unfortunate incident which is about to happen that is, the devil marrying angelic Desdemona resulting in the two having 'strange-looking' offspring who will obviously be Brabantio's grandchildren. He goes on to taunt him thus:

…you'll have your daughter covered with a

Barbary horse, you'll have your nephews neigh

to you, you'll have coursers for cousins, and

gennets for germans (Act 1,Scene 1 line 108-11)

Othello is depicted in animal terms, a beast of burden and war, not a human being; if human he is just a 'knave of common hire, a gondolier' (Act 1,Scene 1 line 21). As it is, for the Venetians, he is good as a hired 'mercenary' to ward off their enemies. One has the feeling that he is just as good as a dog that is kept for convenient utilitarian reasons. Unfortunately the dog has overstepped its sphere of operation hence the hysterical reaction by Brabantio. Iago may be the villain in terms of his catalytic role in turning Cassio against Othello and Othello against Desdemona but his attitude to race seems to be shared by many other characters hence his call for action is taken up to the Duke. The reader should be forgiven for concluding that the characters share the playwright's and his contemporaries' racial intolerance.

The First Senator says: 'Here comes Brabantio and the valiant Moor' (Act 1,Scene 3 line 47). This may seem to be a compliment at surface level but upon close scrutiny it isn't that: why the reference to ethnicity in Othello's case? Desdemona refers to 'the Moor my Lord' (Act 1,Scene 3 line 187) as if their relationship is based on her fascination with a man from a different racial and physical background. A few lines later she talks about how much she loves 'the Moor' (Act 1,Scene 3 lines 244-255) before she talks about seeing 'Othello's visage in his mind' (Act 1,Scene 3 line 248) indicating that she loved the inner person but her continued reference to his ethnicity makes the observant critic uneasy. The mentioning of 'the Moor' can be seen as a slip of the tongue/mind-slipping from the unconscious-the 'moorness' is what attracted her to Othello -- this explains her obsession, whether conscious or unconscious, with him as shown by her addressing him with reference to his skin colour.

The Duke after hearing Othello and Desdemona express their commitment to each other 'comforts'/ 'reassures'? Brabantio thus: 'your son-in-law is far more fair than black' (Act 1,Scene 3 line 286). Blackness is associated with evil but this 'their'? black person according to the Duke, is an exception. Immediately after the Duke's utterance the First Senator says: 'Adieu, brave Moor. Use Desdemona well' (Act 1,Scene 3 line 287). There is a conscious or unconscious Negrophobia that the fair and delicate lady is in the wrong arms which are too coarse to handle her comfortably and that the General needs to be reminded on civilized handling of sophisticated women.

In Act 2, Scene 2 Third Gentleman describes Othello as 'the warlike Moor Othello'(Act 2,Scene 3 line 28) and Cassio, Othello's blue-eyed boy and confidant '…prays the Moor be safe'(Act 2,Scene line 33) and goes on to say:

Thanks, you the valiant of the warlike isle

That so approve the Moor, O, let the heavens

Give him defence against the elements (Act 2,Scene 1 line 43-45).

Even those who are supposed to be very close to him are consciously or unconsciously distanced from him. In the space of seven lines that is from Act 2 Scene I line 27 to line 33 the term 'the Moor' is mentioned three times.

Montano, the Governor of Cyprus and therefore an eminent person, says about Othello's choice of Cassio:

And 'tis great pity that the noble Moor

Should hazard such a place as his own second (Act 2,Scene 3 lines 134-135).

It is always 'the Moor' not the General or Othello. Other examples are Emilia (Act 3,Scene 1 line 43) and Lodovico, a high-ranking Venetian noble(Act 4,Scene 1 line 260).Othello himself is given words which denigrate his blackness:

Yet I'll not shed her blood

Nor scar that whiter skin of hers than snow

And smooth as monumental alabaster (Act 5,Scene 2 lines 3-5)

The above speech reflects an inferiority complex and the 'worship' of the white skin. Like Desdemona he is also consciously or unconsciously fascinated by one who has a different skin colour. Almost four centuries after *Othello* was written the same fascination with crossing the racial divide is revealed in *The Autobiography of Malcolm X* when Malcolm X drops Laura, his black girlfriend, for Sophia, a white one in order to improve his social standing. Malcolm X says about it: '…in my black ghetto in America, to have a white woman…was for the average black man, at least, a status symbol of the first order…' (Haley and Malcolm X, 1964.p.67)

V. CONCLUSION

When the majority of characters in *Othello* choose to refer to another character by referring to his ethnicity instead of his name there will be a problem. There is a worse problem when because of the character's skin pigment he/she is demonized, not by just one character who might understandably have a personal axe to grind with him but also, by almost the entirety of the 'Who's Who' of the play. When the latter happens the critic should be forgiven for concluding that the artist shares whatever attitudes are displayed by his creations, the characters.

Shakespeare's handling of race especially in *The Merchant of Venice* and *Othello* reflects deep-seated prejudices that he shared with his paying audience that he sought to please. One wonders on the 'comedyness'? of *The Merchant of Venice* when during the rigged court session and amidst jeering Shylock is not only stripped of his wealth but, more importantly, also of his dignity and identity. As if in the mishandling of Shylock Shakespeare has not exposed his ethnocentrism enough, he brings in The Prince of Morocco who has 'the complexion of the devil' and who is 'a gentle riddance' to the 'angelic' Portia when he fails to choose the correct casket. A more balanced handling would have seen Shylock seeing the folly of being consumed by revenge without being coerced and Antonio acknowledging his contribution in the near-tragedy and the two embracing in reconciliation. Such a handling could also rid the play of the implicit and explicit references to race and ethnicity in denigrating terms.

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Do Different Textual Enhancement Formats Have Differential Effects on the Intake of English Subjunctive Mood?

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Abstract—This research was inspired by Simard's (2009) study on the differential effects of textual enhancement on the noticing and intake of English plural markers. This study investigated the differential effects of different textual enhancement formats (typographical cues) on the intake of English subjunctive mood among EFL learners in an Iranian context. The participants were 114 female upper-intermediate learners of English in an English institute. A reading text was prepared for five experimental and one control group. For each group the target structure was enhanced differently (underline, bold, italic, back ground, and choice) in the text and for the control group the passage was intact. The last two experimental formats, i.e., back ground and choice, were created by the present researchers to examine their effectiveness on the intake of the target structure. ANOVA analysis and Scheffe post hoc test were applied to analyze the data. Final results revealed that, in comparison with other formats, underline textual enhancement format was more effective in inducing the intake of target structure. However, back ground and choice did not prove to be effective textual enhancement formats.

Index Terms—textual enhancement, noticing, intake, subjunctive mood

I. INTRODUCTION

The teaching of grammar has been the locus of hot disputes among language teaching gurus for a long age, the question is not whether to teach grammar or not but is *how* to teach it from among a wide range of pedagogical options open to language practitioners (Ellis, 1997). The argument in SLA has been in favor of integrating grammar instruction into communicative language teaching (Pica, 2000; Savignon, 1991). One way to this end is through input enhancement which leads to increased attention on the part of learner and therefore increased noticing (Sharwood Smith, 1981).

Noticing has received considerable attention from applied linguistics researchers in the past two decades (e.g., Schmidt & Frota, 1986; Sharwood Smith, 1981, 1991, 1993). Qi and Lapkin define noticing "as the awareness of stimulus via short-term memory." They refer to stimulus as "anything that rouses one's attention." (Qi and Lapkin, 2001, p.279). There is a consensus among applied linguists that attention to form is necessary for the acquisition of form (e.g., Doughty, 1991; Fotos, 1994, 1998; Nassaji, 1999; Lightbown and Spada, 1990). Making a structural feature salient by enhancing that feature induces this attention on the part of learners. According to Sharwood Smith (1991, 1993) attention is paid to form when the form is made more salient which brings about noticing and subsequent intake of the enhanced form.

One way to bring about noticing is through *Textual Enhancement* (TE) whose main function is to draw learners' attention to linguistic forms by modifying the physical appearance of target structures. The use of typographical cues such as bold, italic, capital, underlining, changing the size of the font of letters and highlighting is the most typical way of enhancing the saliency of certain linguistic features in written texts (Simard, 2009). TE is making a particular linguistic feature more salient in the text in order to make the reader notice this feature. TE of a particular item in the text makes the learner pay more attention to that item which, in turn, is said to trigger noticing. Intake of a particular linguistic feature is the result of learner's paying attention to that feature. These features, when made salient or enhanced are more likely to be paid attention to (Schmidt, 1994a,b, 1995, 2001). A number of empirical studies endorse the view that when higher amount of attention is paid to form, more learning takes place (Leow, 1997b; Robinson, 1996; Rosa and O'Neill, 1999; Schmidt and Frota, 1986).

Concerning previous studies focusing on TE, it should be noted that the issue of the TE impact on intake and acquisition has remained an area of controversy among researchers. Some studies reject the positive effect of TE on intake, comprehension or acquisition (e.g., Alanen, 1995; Leow, 1997a; Leow, 2001) and some are in favor of the influential role of TE in noticing, intake or the acquisition of linguistic features (e.g., Jourdenaise, Stauffer, Boyson &

Doughty, 1995; Shook, 1994). This study, however, is an attempt to shed more light on the influence of TE on learners' acquisition of linguistic features by introducing two new TE formats which, to the best knowledge of the authors, are *unprecedented* in TE literature. One is *back grounding* in which the whole reading text is bolded and the target features are back grounded or dimmed as in the sentence taken from the reading text used in this study: "… **I suggested that she** go **through the usual channels and get a bank loan**…". The second format was to introduce both correct and incorrect forms in the reading text while the incorrect forms were identified by an asterisk and come after the correct forms. The latter is less implicit in nature compared to other TE formats, but it is not utterly explicit in that there is no explanation as to how the target structure works. The following sentence is taken from the reading text used in this study: "… I suggested that she (go/goes*) through the usual channels and get a bank loan…".

One limitation of this study is that since these two TE formats are novel, there is no relevant literature to be investigated by the researchers. These two TE formats, are derived from general beliefs about human nature (explained below) and do not have theoretical background in the literature. However, there are no strong claims made regarding their effectiveness. They were systematically and experimentally tested and the final results revealed their ineffectiveness. The underlying reasons for selecting the two new formats by the researchers of the study are as follows: The authors chose background TE format based on the common belief in human nature in that whatever is less available is more coveted and this inclination might tempt learners to pay more attention to dimmed parts of a text. In other words, the researchers presumed that the sense of curiosity might cause more noticing to occur for less noticeable parts of the text. The choice TE format was selected based on the belief that moderation is the best policy, that is, we believe TE is very implicit and metalinguistic explanations are utterly explicit. Choice TE format seems to be the half way between and is a compromise between implicit TE and explicit metalinguistic explanations.

Simard's (2009) work on the differential effects of TE on the intake of English plural markers has inspired this work and the present researchers have drawn on his design and methodology in some parts of this study. However, this study is by no means a replication of Simard (2009). The present researchers have conducted a similar research in the Iranian context on a different group of participants with different features from those of Simard in terms of their proficiency level. The target structure is also different. The number and types of typographical cues are also different. In addition, this study investigates two novel TE formats which have not been investigated before neither by Simard nor by any other researcher.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

TE studies have mostly been controlled experiments with a pre-test, post-test design and post test usually following immediately (Han, Park & Combs, 2008). Studies mostly targeted a particular linguistic feature such as relative clauses (Izumi, 2002), Spanish preterit versus imperfect forms (Jourdenais et al., 1995), or English plural markers (Simard, 2009). What is obvious concerning TE is that the field is still full of controversies and contradictions. The following is a review of some of the major studies.

A. Studies Concurring Little or No Impact of TE on Noticing, Intake, or Acquisition

Alanen (1995) studied the effects of TE (italics) and explicit rule presentation on learners' processing of semi artificial Finnish locative suffixes and consonant gradation. Sentence completion and grammaticality judgment task were utilized in order to measure the subjects' knowledge of target forms. Think aloud protocols were employed to measure noticing and rule awareness. The final results revealed that although the performance of subjects exposed to TE was significantly different from that of the control group, compared to explicit rule presentation group, their performance was lower. Leow (1997a) inspected the effects of TE (underline and bold) and passage length on 84 college level learners of Spanish. There were four conditions (long, enhanced; short, enhanced; long, unenhanced; short, unenhanced) to which subjects were exposed. To measure their intake, the subjects were given a short answer comprehension task and a multiple-choice recognition task. The findings demonstrated no effect of TE on either comprehension or intake. A couple of years later, Leow (2001) investigated the effect of TE (underline and bold) on the learning of imperative forms among 38 Spanish learners. On-line think aloud protocols, a recognition task and a written production task were used; however, there was no effect of TE on intake or comprehension. Overstreet (1998) examined the effect of TE (bold, underline, enlarged letters and different font) and content familiarity on learners' intake of preterit and imperfect tenses in Spanish and on their comprehension of passage content. Not only did he find no effect of TE on subjects' intake of target features, but also he found a negative effect of TE on comprehension. Jourdenais (1998), likewise, came to the same conclusion. She studied the effect of TE (underline, bold, shadow, and different font) on 124 learners' intake of Spanish preterite and imperfect tense. These subjects had to read three chapters of narration in one of the four conditions (enhanced preterit, enhanced imperfect, unenhanced preterit, and unenhanced imperfect). By using a production task in which the subjects were asked to write an essay, data were collected but the results were disappointing regarding the effect of TE. The effect of TE (enlargement, different combinations of bold, italics, and underline) on the ability to use third person singular possessive determiners was investigated by White (1998). The participants' ability to use possessive determiners was measured by using oral picture description, passage correction task and a multiple-choice task. The final findings divulged that TE did not result in the correct use of the target features while increasing the frequency of the use of these features. Izumi (2000; cited in Leow, 2001) studied the effect of TE

(bold, shadow, different fonts, and sizes) on subjects' ability to evaluate relativization in the passages they were given. To assess the effect of TE, he used note-taking, sentence combination task with picture cued essay and post exposure questionnaire, but he found no learning gains from pretest to posttest. Leow, Nuevo and Tsai (2003) investigated the role of TE (underline, bold, and enlarged fonts) and language features (present, perfect, and subjunctive) on comprehension and intake of 72 adults who were learning Spanish. Learners' noticing and intake were measured by think-aloud protocols, a multiple-choice recognition task and a multiple-choice comprehension task. Their results did not reveal any effect of TE on noticing, comprehension or intake. Wong (2000, 2003) examined the effect of TE (bold, underline, italics, and enlarged letters) and input simplification on the acquisition of past participle agreement among 81 English learners of French. Error identification and correction task was applied to measure learning and a free recall task to measure comprehension; nonetheless, no effect of TE was found on the acquisition of the intended structure.

B. Studies Concurring the Positive Effect of TE on Noticing, Intake, or Acquisition

In an study on the effect of TE (bold and capital) on 125 first and second year English speaking Spanish learners' intake of present perfect and relative pronouns, Shook (1994) employed two off-line tasks (multiple-choice recognition and fill in the blank production) to measure intake. He had three groups (one control and two experimental). Two written production tasks (one for the present perfect and one for the relative pronouns) and two written recognition tasks (one for the present perfect and one for the relative pronouns) were used. The experimental groups which were exposed to TE performed significantly better than the control group but the difference between the scores of the two experimental groups was not significant. Jourdenais et al. (1995) investigated the effect of TE (underline, bold, shadow, and different font) of preterit and imperfect tense in Spanish on the noticing of 10 English first year learners of Spanish. Think aloud protocols and a written task were used as measurement instruments. Overall, the results revealed that subjects exposed to TE significantly performed better than the control group by reporting more episodes containing the targeted linguistic feature. Izumi (2003) explored the impact of TE (different font, different size of fonts, shadow, and bold) on the noticing and learning of relative clauses by adult English learners. Noticing was assessed by utilizing the notes subjects took during exposure to the experimental treatment. A grammaticality judgment, sentence combination task and an interpretation task were also employed to measure the subjects' knowledge of relative clauses. No learning was reported in the post test although subjects demonstrated noticing of the target forms. Lee (2007) examined the effect of TE on the acquisition and comprehension of meaning among 259 Korean English learners. To measure intake, a correction task and to measure comprehension, a free recall task were applied respectively. He found that TE lead to the acquisition of the target forms but had a negative effect on comprehension. Simard (2009) studied the influence of TE by enhancing the same text by eight different conditions (italic, underline, capital, bold, color, 3-cues, 5-cues, and control). She examined the differential effect of TE on French English learners' acquisition of English plural markers. He concluded that capital and three-cue group performed better than the other groups.

A prominent characteristic of TE studies is that the results regarding the effectiveness of TE vary so greatly (Izumi, 2003; Lee, 2007; Lee & Huang, 2008). As Han et al. (2008) put it, methodological idiosyncrasies are the norm of this body of research. They maintain that seven major issues appear to be limiting the generalizability of the findings and holding up further progress in understanding the efficacy of TE for learning: (1) noticing and/or acquisition, (2) TE and comprehension, (3) simultaneous or sequential processing, (4) TE and the nature of the enhanced form, (5) TE and prior knowledge, (6) TE and input flood, and (7) TE and overuse. The contradictory results obtained in TE studies can also be traced back to the differences in the methodological choices made by the authors (Simard, 2009). Simard refers to the fact that linguistic features selected, languages observed, measurement instruments used and constructs examined in these studies vary greatly.

The review of the literature on TE reveals that, to the researchers' best knowledge, no study to date has been conducted on the effect of TE on Persian learners' acquisition of English subjunctive mood. As part of previous literature on TE (part 2.2.) demonstrates, TE is conducive to learning grammatical structures of a language. Regarding English grammatical structures, subjunctive mood is an area of difficulty for Persian learners and it's a complex linguistic feature for them. This difficulty has been observed by the authors and their colleagues via the experience of teaching at different English institutes. Hence, this study is an attempt to investigate the influence of TE on the acquisition of English subjunctive mood by upper-intermediate Persian learners of English. In addition, there are two novel and unprecedented TE formats introduced- back ground and choice (as explained in introduction)- in order to investigate the effect of TE on intake through these new approaches and compare them with mainstream TE formats (e.g., bold, italic, capital, different color, different font, etc). To fulfill the aim of the study, the following research question was raised:

● Do different TE formats (typographical cues) have differential effects on Persian learners' intake of English subjunctive mood?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

114 female Iranian EFL learners who were learning English in an English institute in Orumie, a city in north west of Iran, participated in the study. They were all female, their age ranged between 14 and 41 (M= 17.39, SD= 4.85) and

their level of education varied from high school to M.A. All subjects were Turkish speakers who were proficient in both Turkish and Persian. In English, they were at the upper-intermediate level of proficiency, that is, they had studied English for 3 years in that institute: three and half hours of instruction per week (two days a week; each day, one hour and forty five minutes). The Participants had taken the placement test when enrolling in this institute. In addition, in the end of each term they were given an achievement test in order to let the qualified ones pass onto the next level. Therefore, they were almost at the same level of English proficiency. However, in order to make sure that they are equal, at least, in terms of their knowledge of English subjunctive mood, a pre test was given and the results revealed that there were no between group differences at pre test.

B. Instruments

1. Background Questionnaire

In order to obtain the necessary demographic information about subjects such as, age, educational level, years of studying English, etc, a background questionnaire was employed.

2. Reading Text

A reading text of 326 words at upper-intermediate level was chosen. For the control group, there was no intervention and the text was neutral; however, for each of the five experimental groups the subjunctive structures inside the text were enhanced differently, respectively, italics, bold, underline, back grounding and choice. In order to make sure that the text was of appropriate level of difficulty, it was piloted on an upper-intermediate group of learners who had the same features as the target groups. In so doing, the text was administered to a class of upper-intermediate learners with 23 students in the same institute. In addition to asking learners orally about the difficulty of the text, ten comprehension questions followed the text. Learners' oral reports confirmed the appropriateness of the text for their level. Also, the comprehension questions were answered 78 percent correctly by learners which was suggestive of the fact that the text was almost well comprehended by the pilot group. In piloting the text, the researchers also examined the reliability of the text by applying KR-21 formula which turned out to be 0.76.

3. Multiple-Choice Recognition Tests

Two parallel versions of a multiple-choice recognition test were constructed (A & B), one for pre-test and one for post-test, as this method is most commonly used to investigate the effect of TE on intake (Leow, 1997; Overstreet, 1998). Furthermore, by employing multiple-choice test, the researchers prevent subjects form utilizing avoidance strategies and direct their performance toward the intended structures. Each version of the test consisted of eighteen multiple choice questions, twelve on subjunctive and six fillers. The equivalence of two tests was confirmed during a pilot study in which the twelve subjunctive questions of pretest and posttest were put together into one test of 24 questions on English subjunctive mood. Odd numbers were assigned pretest questions and even numbers posttest questions to ensure the best mixture of pretest and posttest questions. The 24 multiple choice questions were given to an advanced class of EFL learners at the same institute who had already learned subjunctive structures according to the institute's syllabus and their teachers' reports to the researchers. The mean of the class was 84 which indicated that the subjects had an ample knowledge of subjunctive. The two parts of the test that is, odd numbers (pretest questions) and even numbers (posttest questions) were scored separately. In order to investigate if the two versions were parallel the correlation coefficient between two parts (odd numbers and even numbers) was computed which turned out to be 0.84.

C. Target Structure

The English subjunctive mood was the target structure on which the effect of differential types of TE was investigated. English subjunctive mood is used in American English in sentences such as " It is important that she study her lessons." or " it is necessary that she do her homework." This structure, as mentioned before, is a complex one and is a source of difficulty for Iranian learners. This difficulty was observed by the researchers and also their colleagues teaching throughout the country.

D. Procedure

The study was carried out in Iran Language Institute, one of the oldest and most well known language teaching centers in Iran between November 12th and December 1st, 2010. Before conducting the research, the researchers organized a meeting with the teachers who were supposed to administer the study in their classes to inform them about the exact administration process they were supposed to follow. To make sure that the subjects had no knowledge of English subjunctive mood, the researchers analyzed the syllabi they had covered till then and also asked teachers whether they had taught subjunctive mood to their students already or whether their students had any knowledge about the topic. Then, the data were collected in two sessions. The first session, the teachers administered the demographical information questionnaire and the pretest in 20 minutes. The pretest was one of the two versions of the multiple choice recognition test (A or B) and was administered to ensure that subjects had no prior knowledge of subjunctive and to verify if all groups were equal and comparable at the pretest. The scores of subjects on the pre-test revealed that they had almost no knowledge of English subjunctive mood and there was no significant difference between the six groups that participated in the study. Next session, the reading passage was administered. The text was enhanced differently for different groups. The subjects read the passages in 20 minutes and the posttest immediately followed which took 10 minutes. The posttest was the version of the multiple-choice recognition test that subjects had not completed during the

pretest. To score the test, each correct answer was given three points. Why three points was chosen to be given to each correct answer was decided only on an arbitrary basis. As stated earlier, there were eighteen questions for pre-test and eighteen for post-test. The questions were parallel out of which six were fillers and twelve were on subjunctive mood in both tests. Only the twelve subjunctive questions were corrected by the researchers and as was mentioned each correct answer was given three points. Therefore, the subjects' scores ranged from zero to thirty-six in each test.

E. Data Analysis

To ensure the normality of the distribution, descriptive statistics was run. To see the difference of the mean scores among the six groups on pretest, posttest and the difference between pre-test and post-test, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to the data. To identify the precise location of the differences, a Scheffe's test was applied.

IV. RESULTS

The descriptive statistics for the six groups at the pre-test are displayed in Table 1.

TABLE-1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE SIX GROUPS AT PRE-TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Control	24	8.25	5.252	1.072	6.03	10.47	0	18
Background	16	9.38	5.784	1.446	6.29	12.46	0	21
Bold	16	8.06	5.335	1.334	5.22	10.91	0	21
Underline	21	8.71	6.141	1.340	5.92	11.51	0	24
Choice	14	9.86	4.912	1.313	7.02	12.69	0	21
Italic	23	8.35	4.951	1.032	6.21	10.49	0	21
Total	114	8.68	5.330	.499	7.70	9.67	0	24

To compare the mean scores of the six groups at the pre-test, a one-way ANOVA was run. The *F*-observed value and p-value were .274 and .926, respectively. This amount of *F*-value at 5 and 108 degrees of freedom was lower than the critical value of F (i.e., 4.40) and p-value was higher than the significance level of .05 (see Table 2):

TABLE-2:
ONE-WAY ANOVA ON THE SIX GROUPS AT PRE-TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	40.227	5	8.045	.274	.926
Within Groups	3170.405	108	29.356		
Total	3210.632	113			

Therefore, it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the six groups at pre-test (F (5, 108) = .274, p> .05).

The result of the Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the six groups enjoyed homogenous variance; that is, there was not any marked difference between the variance of the six groups. Hence, the results of the one-way ANOVA were reliable (F (5, 108) = .419, p> .05) (see Table 2):

The descriptive statistics for the six groups at the post-test are illustrated in Table 3.

TABLE-3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE SIX GROUPS AT POST-TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Control	24	12.63	9.486	1.936	8.62	16.63	0	36
Background	16	9.00	3.950	.987	6.90	11.10	3	15
Bold	16	17.81	8.448	2.112	13.31	22.31	6	33
Underline	21	22.43	7.972	1.740	18.80	26.06	9	33
Choice	14	11.86	8.393	2.243	7.01	16.70	0	33
Italic	23	15.52	7.971	1.662	12.07	18.97	3	36
Total	114	15.14	8.973	.840	13.48	16.81	0	36

To compare the mean scores of the six groups at the post-test, a one-way ANOVA was conducted. The F-observed value and p-value were 6.64 and 0.000 respectively. This amount of F-value at 5 and 108 degrees of freedom was higher than the critical value of F, and p-value was lower than the significance level of .05 (F (5, 108) = 6.640, p< .05) (see Table 4):

TABLE-4:
ONE-WAY ANOVA ON THE SIX GROUPS AT POST-TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2139.096	5	427.819	6.640	.000
Within Groups	6958.659	108	64.432		
Total	9097.754	113			

Thus, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the six groups on post-test. The effect size, calculated via eta squared, was found to be 0.23. This indicates the degree of association between the dependent (post-test scores) and independent (the different types of TE) variable, which is a large size (Dornyei, 2007).

The result of the Leven's test of homogeneity of variance demonstrated that the six groups had homogenous variance (F (5, 108) = 1.881, p> .05); accordingly, the results of the one-way ANOVA were reliable, that is, there was not any marked difference between the variance of the six groups.

ANOVA analysis revealed that there is a difference somewhere among the means, but the precise location of differences is not clear. To locate the exact place of differences, a post hoc comparison of the means was performed. In so doing, a Scheffe's test was applied. The results of the post-hoc Scheffe's test indicated that, at the level of 0.05, there was significant difference between the Underline group and the three groups of Control, Background and Choice (see Table 5).

TABLE-5:
SCEFFE'S TEST FOR THE COMPARISON OF POST TEST MEANS OF THE DIFFERENT GROUPS

(I) GROUP	(J) GROUP	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	Background	3.63	2.591	.854	-5.16	12.41
	Bold	-5.19	2.591	.551	-13.97	3.59
	Underline	-9.80(*)	2.399	.008	-17.93	-1.67
	Choice	.77	2.699	1.000	-8.38	9.92
	Italic	-2.90	2.342	.908	-10.84	5.04
Background	Control	-3.63	2.591	.854	-12.41	5.16
	Bold	-8.81	2.838	.095	-18.43	.81
	Underline	-13.43(*)	2.664	.000	-22.46	-4.40
	Choice	-2.86	2.938	.966	-12.82	7.10
	Italic	-6.52	2.613	.293	-15.38	2.34
Bold	Control	5.19	2.591	.551	-3.59	13.97
	Background	8.81	2.838	.095	-.81	18.43
	Underline	-4.62	2.664	.700	-13.65	4.41
	Choice	5.96	2.938	.537	-4.00	15.91
	Italic	2.29	2.613	.979	-6.57	11.15
Underline	Control	9.80(*)	2.399	.008	1.67	17.93
	Background	13.43(*)	2.664	.000	4.40	22.46
	Bold	4.62	2.664	.700	-4.41	13.65
	Choice	10.57(*)	2.770	.017	1.18	19.96
	Italic	6.91	2.423	.159	-1.31	15.12
Choice	Control	-.77	2.699	1.000	-9.92	8.38
	Background	2.86	2.938	.966	-7.10	12.82
	Bold	-5.96	2.938	.537	-15.91	4.00
	Underline	-10.57(*)	2.770	.017	-19.96	-1.18
	Italic	-3.66	2.721	.873	-12.89	5.56
Italic	Control	2.90	2.342	.908	-5.04	10.84
	Background	6.52	2.613	.293	-2.34	15.38
	Bold	-2.29	2.613	.979	-11.15	6.57
	Underline	-6.91	2.423	.159	-15.12	1.31
	Choice	3.66	2.721	.873	-5.56	12.89

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

To investigate the impact of the different types of TE on the intake of the intended grammatical structure more precisely, the difference of scores at pre-test and post-test was calculated and the related statistical analyses were conducted to them. The descriptive statistics for the difference of scores at pre-test and post-test for the six groups are illustrated in Table 6.

TABLE-6:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE DIFFERENCE OF SCORES AT PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Control	24	4.3750	9.64957	1.96971	.3003	8.4497	-12.00	30.00
Background	16	-.1875	5.41872	1.35468	-3.0749	2.6999	-12.00	9.00
Bold	16	9.7500	11.67048	2.91762	3.5312	15.9688	-12.00	30.00
Underline	21	13.7143	8.72435	1.90381	9.7430	17.6856	.00	30.00
Choice	14	2.0000	7.32750	1.95836	-2.2308	6.2308	-3.00	24.00
Italic	23	7.1739	9.64672	2.01148	3.0024	11.3455	-9.00	30.00
Total	114	6.4825	9.98781	.93544	4.6292	8.3357	-12.00	30.00

To compare the mean scores of the difference at pre-test and post-test for the six groups, a one-way ANOVA was conducted. The F-observed value was 5.780. This amount of F-value at 5 and 108 degrees of freedom was higher that the critical value of F, i.e., 4.40 (see Table 7).

TABLE-7:
ONE-WAY ANOVA ON THE DIFFERENCE OF SCORES AT PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2379.812	5	475.962	5.780	.000
Within Groups	8892.653	108	82.339		
Total	11272.465	113			

Thus, there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the difference at pre-test and post-test for the six groups (F (5, 108) = 5.780, p< .05). The effect size, calculated via eta squared, was found to be 0.21. This magnitude points out the degree of connection between the dependent (the difference of scores at pre-test and post-test) and independent (the different types of TE) variable, which is a large size (Dornyei, 2007). The result of the Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the six groups enjoyed homogenous variance; consequently, the results of the one-way ANOVA were reliable. The *F*-value of 1.842 at 5 and 108 degrees of freedom was lower than the critical value of 4.40. Thus, the underlying assumption of one-way ANOVA was met, that is, there was not any marked difference between the variance of the three groups (F (5, 108) = 1.842, p> .05).

To locate the exact place of differences, a Scheffe's test was utilized. The results indicated that, at the level of 0.05, there was significant difference between the Underline group and the three groups of Control, Background and Choice (see Table 8).

TABLE-8:
SCEFFE'S TEST FOR THE COMPARISON OF DIFFERENCE OF MEANS AT PRETEST AND POSTTEST FOR THE SIX GROUPS

(I) GROUP	(J) GROUP	Mean Difference(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	**Background**	4.5625	2.92865	.787	-5.3657	14.4907
	Bold	-5.3750	2.92865	.644	-15.3032	4.5532
	Underline	-9.3393(*)	2.71141	.044	-18.5310	-.1476
	Choice	2.3750	3.05159	.987	-7.9699	12.7199
	Italic	-2.7989	2.64779	.952	-11.7749	6.1771
Background	**Control**	-4.5625	2.92865	.787	-14.4907	5.3657
	Bold	-9.9375	3.20818	.097	-20.8133	.9383
	Underline	-13.9018(*)	3.01117	.001	-24.1097	-3.6939
	Choice	-2.1875	3.32078	.994	-13.4450	9.0700
	Italic	-7.3614	2.95401	.295	-17.3755	2.6527
Bold	**Control**	5.3750	2.92865	.644	-4.5532	15.3032
	Background	9.9375	3.20818	.097	-.9383	20.8133
	Underline	-3.9643	3.01117	.883	-14.1722	6.2436
	Choice	7.7500	3.32078	.371	-3.5075	19.0075
	Italic	2.5761	2.95401	.979	-7.4380	12.5902
Underline	**Control**	9.3393(*)	2.71141	.044	.1476	18.5310
	Background	13.9018(*)	3.01117	.001	3.6939	24.1097
	Bold	3.9643	3.01117	.883	-6.2436	14.1722
	Choice	11.7143(*)	3.13086	.020	1.1006	22.3279
	Italic	6.5404	2.73878	.343	-2.7441	15.8248
Choice	**Control**	-2.3750	3.05159	.987	-12.7199	7.9699
	Background	2.1875	3.32078	.994	-9.0700	13.4450
	Bold	-7.7500	3.32078	.371	-19.0075	3.5075
	Underline	-11.7143(*)	3.13086	.020	-22.3279	-1.1006
	Italic	-5.1739	3.07593	.726	-15.6013	5.2535
Italic	**Control**	2.7989	2.64779	.952	-6.1771	11.7749
	Background	7.3614	2.95401	.295	-2.6527	17.3755
	Bold	-2.5761	2.95401	.979	-12.5902	7.4380
	Underline	-6.5404	2.73878	.343	-15.8248	2.7441
	Choice	5.1739	3.07593	.726	-5.2535	15.6013

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

V. Discussion

The results of the present study corroborate many studies conducted in the field (e.g., Jourdenaise et al., 1995; Shook, 1994) in that the use of different TE types has differential effect on the noticing of linguistic features in the text. For example, the use of capital letters is said to make learners remember the information they are presented in their first language (Shebilske & Rotondo, 1981). In Mark's (1966, cited in Simard, 2009) study, as well, the type and combination of the typographical cues used made subjects react differently to the instructions. Foster and Coles (1977) also found that the type of typographical cue can induce different reactions from the subjects to the task they are asked to perform.

This study investigated the differential effects of different TE formats on Persian learners' intake of English subjunctive mood. As was perspicuous at pretest, there was no significant difference between the six groups but at posttest a significant between group difference emerged. The underline group outperformed other groups at posttest which signifies that underline TE format helped learners notice the target structure better than other formats. In other words, TE format, that is, the type of typographical cue proved to be differentially effective in inducing the noticing and intake of the target form. This result confirms the findings of Simard's (2009) study. In a similar vein, according to the findings of her study, she reached to the conclusion that different types of TE format had differential effect on French English learners' intake of English plural markers.

Jourdenaise et al. (1995) and White (1996), as well, found underline an effective TE format in inducing the noticing and intake of target features. Contemplating the possible reasons for finding the underline group to outperform other groups with a large mean difference, the researchers came across the following main reasons: when we underline a structural feature, we make it more salient than when it is bolded or italicized since in underlining we add something to the text, that is, the line drawn under the target feature. In simpler words, underlining is an *additive* TE format in that the subject sees something extra in addition to the target structure and this is what, we conjecture, induces the noticing of what the researcher means to be noticed. However, a bolded or italicized feature might not attract as much attention as underlining triggers since the two former approaches to TE do not add anything extra to trigger the subjects' curiosity and induce their noticing of the target structure.

The second reason might be lurking behind subjects' learning strategies. To put it in a nutshell, Iranian learners at almost all levels and fields have one learning strategy in common and that is the fact that the majority underline the salient parts of their textbooks when studying for a test or during the term. This is not a claim but a learning strategy which is very popular in Iran among learners. To corroborate this assumption, at least among the participants of the present study, the researchers required the teachers to ask participants which one of the six formats they usually apply for their own learning when they are trying to emphasize the salient and important parts of the textbooks they are studying. According to the teachers' oral reports to the researchers, the majority of participants reported underlining and highlighting. This part was done orally because it was not the focus of this study and was only conducted as a probable hint for future research. Therefore, the reason why underlining proved so effective in inducing the noticing and subsequent acquisition of the target structure seems to be the participants' learning strategies and a sense of affinity they felt with this TE format.

Considering bold group, the between group mean difference at posttest was the second highest after the underline group, but it was not significant. This finding concurs the results of Leow (1997) and Overstreet (1998)'s studies. Likewise, these researchers found no effect of bold TE format on intake.

A surprising result obtained was the post test mean for the background group (9.00) which was lower than the pretest mean (9.38); however, this mean difference is infinitesimal and insignificant. What this might entail is that background TE format seems to be detrimental to the intake of target structures. Literature on the two new TE types used in this study is almost non-existent and this is why researchers find it difficult to anchor the findings, at this part, to the previous research. The reason as to why back grounding proved not only ineffective but also detrimental might reside in the fact that this format might have had negative psychological effect on subjects since bolding of the whole text and dimming the target structures makes the text difficult to read since the whole text is bolded and reading a bold text is far more difficult than reading a text in small case letters. In addition, we are all used to reading texts written in small case letters and not the other way round and this might be the reason to account for the bad performance of background group at posttest.

What present researchers find far from easy to account for is why choice TE format, like back ground, did not prove to be effective in bringing about the noticing or intake of the target structure. The only wild guess we can offer is that by introducing both correct and incorrect forms to subjects they began wondering why a particular form was incorrect and the other one was correct. Since there were no metalinguistic explanations about how the target structure workd or why the asterisk marked structure was incorrect, the subjects were baffled and this fact per se, we surmise, contributed to their malperformance. Choice TE format allowed neither implicit acquisition nor deductive conscious learning since it was half way between implicit TE and explicit metalinguistic explanation. The other reason contributing to the subjects' malperformance might be the fact that in other TE formats they read the text and rarely stop at enhanced points to figure out what is going on. However, at choice TE format they had to pause at each enhanced structure and ponder what the story was that one form was asterisk marked as incorrect and the other one was not asterisk marked and was considered correct. This is what, we reckon, has also contributed to the subjects' bad performance.

The two novel TE formats, namely, back ground and choice did not turn out to be effective in inducing the noticing or intake of target features. Having run Scheffe's post hoc test, the researchers detected the differences to be lying among control and underline, back ground and underline, and choice and underline. The other two formats - italics and bold - were not significantly different from underline and this indicates that these two TE formats are relatively more effective than the researchers' devised ones which turned out to be significantly different from underline. Bold and italics triggered the noticing of target forms more than choice and background although this was not significant. This fact shows that the traditional TE formats, that is, underline, bold and italics are still more effective compared to background and choice.

VI. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study indicate that a) Enhancing a particular feature in a text is effective in triggering the noticing of that feature and its subsequent intake, this finding corroborates some previous research regarding the positive effects of TE on intake such as Jourdenaise et al., (1995), Shook (1994) and Lee (2007); b) different TE formats have differential effects on noticing and intake, as Simard (2009) puts it, there is an inherent saliency potential in each TE format and they impact attention differently; c) the present researchers' devised TE formats did not impact noticing and intake of the target form, while the two most commonly used and popular TE formats, that is, underline and bold (though not significant) proved more effective.

An important implication of this study is for researchers to pay more attention to the learning strategies of learners. As was observed in this study, students reported that they usually used underlining or highlighting in order to emphasize important points in their textbooks, and as the results indicated, underline TE format was more effective than other ones in inducing noticing and intake. Highlight TE format where the target structure was highlighted was not used in this study. Had it been used, it might have been effective in triggering the intake of target structure. Bold TE format looks like highlighting more than other formats used in this study and as the result section revealed bold group's performance at the posttest was the second highest after the underline group, although not significant. Repercussions can be that a particular TE format per se might not be always effective for all learners, but what makes a particular TE format effective is how this format interacts with a learner's learning style and how well it resembles the way the learner herself emphasizes important points in a text. This will entail implications for further research which should unravel the nature of the relationship between learners' learning strategies and different TE formats. The present authors do not discuss this relationship since it is not the central focus of this study and will wait for further research to shed more light on it.

The implications for material developers are numerous. They have a wide range of TE formats at their disposal while the research results regarding their effectiveness and even differential effects vary greatly (Izumi, 2003; Lee, 2007; Lee & Huang, 2008). According to the findings of this study, underline can be an appropriate TE format for material developers. They can apply underline TE format to the structures they want to introduce in reading texts to help learners notice them. A further implication of this study for material developers is that they should apply country or nation specific TE formats in reading texts since it seems that learners' learning strategies interact with the type of TE format they notice best; however, this point as mentioned earlier, needs the confirmation of further research.

A fairly indiscriminate implication or rather suggestion of the present research is for teachers to allow learners do TE themselves. In other words, this is a kind of emphasizing important pints on learners' part mingled with TE on teacher or material developers' part. In simpler terms, the procedure is that teachers give learners a neutral text in which nothing is enhanced, then, they introduce the target structure to be learned and ask the learners to enhance the text wherever they find this structure. The disadvantage is that learners might grow more conscious of the form, and this is not what TE is trying to achieve. However, in this way each learner applies his/her own TE format, a format which is congruent with his/her learning strategy. This suggestion needs much research to be confirmed and paves the way for more studies that can delve beneath the relationship between learners' learning strategies and TE formats.

Nonetheless, the current study suffers from some limitations. One limitation of the study is the type of assessment used. As Leow (2001) commented, a more appropriate type of assessment would be to collect oral protocol by using on line measurement instruments since post exposure measurement instruments do not provide information about on line input processing and what learners pay attention to. Therefore, one way for researchers to find out what input learners pay attention to and notice is to collect oral protocol reports while the learners are doing the task (Jourdenaise, 2001). Another limitation of this study is that we used an immediate post test design which behooves future researchers to assess differential effects of these two new TE formats using delayed posttest designs. A third limitation is the fact that the participants were all female.

A TE format deserving further research is choice TE format which had very little effect on triggering the noticing of the target feature while it introduces both correct and incorrect forms and is almost semi-explicit. In other words, this TE format at first look seems to be able to trigger noticing more than other TE formats since it is more explicit than other TE formats.

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An Exploration of the Spoken English Teaching in Beijing English Training Schools

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Abstract—**This study aims to explore the spoken English teaching methods and techniques in Beijing English Training Schools, such as, New Oriental School. Through the date analysis and discussion to the interviews to 8 spoken English teachers and 100 questionnaires to the spoken English class students in New Oriental School, one of the Beijing English Training Schools, demonstrate the characteristics of the spoken English teaching methods and techniques in Beijing English Training Schools. The findings of this exploration help other spoken English teachers both in public schools and English training schools to improve their spoken English teaching in China.**

Index Terms—**spoken English teaching, Beijing English training schools, teaching methods and techniques**

I. INTRODUCTION

With increasing globalization, spoken English teaching is playing an increasingly important role in China. Increased opportunities for communication in the world created a demand for oral proficiency in English (Black & Cameron, 2002). Chinese public education system, however, seems not able to meet the spoken English learners' needs. This can be seen from the large number of the learners in English language training school who seek for what they really need there. This creates a big market for English Training Schools. Why do many college students prefer giving up the English class in public school which is compulsory and also much cheaper in tuition than English language training school? The teaching methods and techniques in Beijing English training schools are really worthwhile to research. According to Cook (2001), successful teaching results from learning; if students do not learn from the teaching, there is no benefit no matter how entertaining, lively, or well constructed the lessons are. What teaching methods the teacher employs in a specific class depends substantially on the practical realities of the classroom (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). This research places focus on the teaching methods and skills on the SET (Spoken English Teaching) in BETS (Beijing English Training Schools) and aims to apply the theoretical and research prescriptions to practical spoken English teaching in order to enhance the effectiveness of SET in China.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Development of the Main TESL Teaching Methods

In the TESL, one of the crucial decisions, if not the most important and challenging one, which each English teacher is confronted with is the choice of teaching methods and techniques (Cook 2001). Teaching method can be defined as the means by which theory is put into practice and choices made about the particular skills to be taught, the content will be asked and technique as "the level at which classroom procedures are described" (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). According to Cutting (2007), the main differences between first-language acquisition and second or foreign language learning are whether the children or learners create their own structures; whether there is already a mother tongue present in their minds; and whether learning is affected by transfer from the L1 (first language). Because of the difference between L1 acquisition and L2 learning, SLA (Second Language Acquisition) teaching methods and approaches were produced to reflect various views on how non-mother-tongue language is best taught and learned (Yule, 2003). The SET in BETS is one part of L2 teaching. Therefore, to know the difference of various teaching methods is useful to instruct the SET in BETS.

Grammar Translation method was very popular in Europe and foreign language teaching from the mid-19th century to mid-20th century. Until now, it is still widely used in some parts of the world (Richards and Rodgers 2003). In China, many college English teachers are used to teaching in Grammar-Translation Method, which is actually not suitable for spoken English teaching. In Grammar-Translation Method, the purpose of second language learning is to read literature written in it; Translating each language into another is an important goal; it emphasizes the reading and writing skills, not communicative skills; Learners are required to be aware of the grammatical rules of the target language (Freeman,

2003). Therefore this method treats second or foreign language learning as an academic subject as any others (Yule, 2003). Audiolingual methodology uses Stimulus-Response-Reinforcement model to form good habits in language learners on the basis of behaviorist learning theory (Harmer, 2003) in the mid-1950s. Audiolingualism came from the incorporation of the linguistic principles of the Aural-Oral approach with state-of-the art psychological learning theory (Richards and Rodgers 2003). Littlewood (1990) claims that language learning is realized by imitation, reinforcement and repetition of behaviour. Mitchell and Myles (2002) strongly argue that language learning is the process of habit formation. The behaviorism theory behind Audiolingualism methodology was demonstrated in Fig. 1 (Richards and Rodgers 2003).
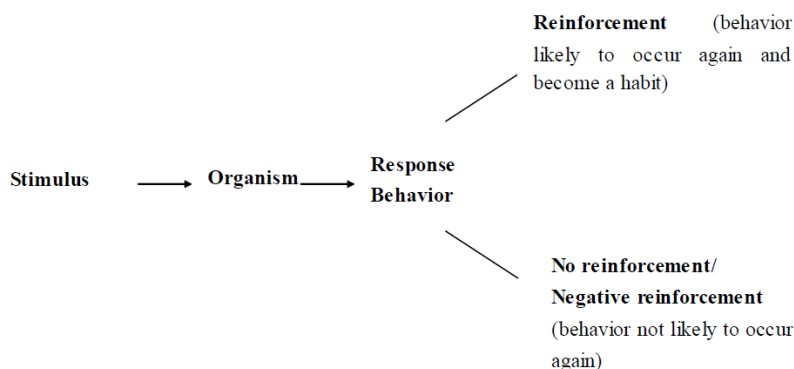

Fig. 1 the behaviorism theory behind Audiolingualism methodology

Audiolingualism methodology is a very important method in improvement the listening comprehension, accurate pronunciation (Brooks 1964), which are the essential abilities in spoken English learning. Therefore, Audiolingualism methodology is imperative to SET. However Audiolingualism methodology has a distinct drawback in that the isolated practice of drilling patterns is not same as the interactional nature of actual language use (Yule,2003).The Communicative approaches became popular in 1970s (McDonough & Shaw, 2003). Hymes (1972) argued that the goal of language teaching was to develop 'communicative competence'. Wilkins (1976) claimed that communication required language learners to perform certain functions within a social context. All these opinions shift the language teaching from a linguistic structure-centered approach to a Communicative Approach (Widdowson, 1990). In contrast to Audiolingualism, communicative approaches emphasized both the functions of language as communication and the consciously learnt grammar of a language which would result in an ability to use the language (Yule, 2003). The main principles of communicative approaches put emphasis on communication, authentic and meaningful communication, fluency, and language skills (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). Therefore, the language teaching is to be focused on communicative efficacy rather than on mere mastery of structures in order to develop 'communicative competence' (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). Communicative approaches have significant influences to many other language teaching approaches and methods which "can be considered descendants of communicative language teaching" (Richards & Rodgers, 2003, p.173).Thus, the communicative approaches are the most important approaches in SET.

B.   Teacher is the Key to Decide the Spoken English Teaching Approaches

"Approaches and methods can be studied not as prescriptions for how to teach but a source of well-used practices, which teachers can adapt or implement based on their own needs." (Richards & Rodgers, 2003, p.16), and "the teacher is the ultimate key to educational change and school improvement."(Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992, p.ix) That is to say, it is extremely difficult for BEST language teachers to come to conclusions about which approaches and methods are most appropriate for a certain teaching situation. Cook (2001) argues that "teaching methods usually incorporate a view of L2 learning", and knowing the needs of learners makes the teaching method more effective and much firmer. Thus, choosing the proper teaching methods according to the teaching and learning context is particularly important for successful teaching. To spoken English teachers, what teaching method they would choose to teach spoken English in the classroom has been an important issue. In the nineteenth century, a revolution in teaching was in putting the emphasis on the spoken language. Then a series of spoken language teaching methods appeared correspondingly, such as, the audio-lingual and audio-visual methods, communicative method, the Total Physical Response method, and so on. In the twentieth century, many linguists put emphasis on the importance of speech in that "speech is the primary form of language and writing depends on speech" (Cook, 2001, p.3-4).

III.   METHODOLOGY

A.   Combination of Both Deductive and Inductive Methods.

In this research the deductive approach is employed in the process of the identification of the spoken English teaching problems that Beijing English training schools faces. 8 spoken teachers as interviewees in BETS and 100 Chinese students as questionnaire respondents in BETS are directly involved in this research. Data collection concentrating on a limited number of samples may not be general, but it enables the spoken English teachers to gain

in-depth understanding of specific cases. In the process of analysis, the employment of the inductive approach will be proved appropriate, as this research method will encourage exploration and explanation, which are central to this research.

B.   Combination of Both Quantitative and Qualitative Methods

In order to increase the validity of information collected, both the academic and empirical research in this strategy will be used to provide different viewpoints. This research also presents the analysis of particular small-sized educational organization in BETS. The small sample means that the research is not likely to hold much external validity, which is typical for the statistical, quantitative research strategy. However, the research emphasizes the significance of the improvement of spoken English teaching and the importance of the useful teaching techniques they convey, which indicates that the study is of qualitative nature.

IV.   DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

From the data collected, the success of the SET in BETS depends to a great extent on the successful interlocking of various elements which influence the teaching directly. The understanding of the teaching environment appears to be crucial for teaching success. The awareness of the external and internal factors is indispensable for the needs-awareness SET in BETS. Furthermore, a well-designed teaching is paramount, as it determines whether the teaching is a success or failure.

In the learners' opinion on the allocation of the class time between teacher's talk and students' activities, 73% learners prefer more practice time for themselves in the class to teacher's long lecture in the spoken English class. This shows that the role of teachers should transfer from the knowledge giver, the controller and the authority to facilitator, organizer and participant of the class in SET in BETS, which is also the demand of 'learner-centered' teaching (Harmer, 2003). The learners' learning experiences and their response are at the center of a language course, and a good lesson should be mainly learners' activities, not the performance of the teacher (Harmer, 2003). Harmer (2003) said that all roles of teachers should aim to promote the learners' progress in some way or other, which are dependent on what the teachers wish the learners to achieve. In BETS, the aim of SET is to develop the learners' communicative abilities to express themselves and understand others. Therefore, the role of a spoken English teacher is clearly organizer, prompter and participant of the classroom activities.

According to the data, 70% of learners think their problems in spoken English learning are mixed, 11% learners' problem is due to improper use of grammar, 8% learners' problem exists in bad understanding, 7% learners' problem is due to incorrect pronunciation, 4% learners' only problem is caused by limited vocabulary. Therefore, the success of SET is built not only on the more interaction practice of the communicative abilities, but also the improvement of comprehension abilities, including grammar, listening understanding, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Mckay & Tom (1999) point out that "language is an interrelated and meaningful whole" and the learners integrate every new bit of learning into an overall competence in a long process. Thus, all the factors of grammar, listening, pronunciation, and vocabulary are equally important and support each other. At the same time, spoken English teachers have to be good trainers in grammar, listening, pronunciation and vocabulary.

According to both interviews to 8 Spoken English teachers and questionnaires to the 100 spoken English learners in New Oriental School, one of the BETS, the spoken English teachers in BETS who choose to exploit a combination of different teaching methods to teach spoken English, which benefits language learning and teaching context, including the type of learners and the classroom situations. As mentioned above, the SET in BETS is learner-centered and need-awareness teaching. Learners' needs are the most essential factors to be considered by teachers. Thus, all the teaching methods, techniques and activities are based on this. According to the interview with teachers in BETS, learners are given the chance to express their expectations of the course by answering a questionnaire at the time of enrollment. This allows teachers to measure the different learners' ambitions and expectations against the content and methodology of the course which the teachers intend to organize.

According to the teachers' interviews, all the teachers agree that the SET in BETS is relatively learner-centered. Although the methods, techniques and activities employed in the teaching are varied, most teachers agree that whatever they are in SET, the improvement in students' communication abilities, interest evoking and learning determination attraction are the main aims of SET in BETS. In questionnaires to the students, most students think that the classes in BETS are always full of fun because of the totally humorous teaching style of all the teachers there. So they never feel bored with the classes. Besides this, the students think all the teachers there are very knowledgeable and they can learn a lot from them. Jeffcoate (1992) points out that the teacher ought to do everything within their power to get the learners to do more practice to get a good teaching result. Around learner-centered teaching, the main classroom activities of SET in BETS are role play and games, answering questions, group discussions and retelling, activities are no difference to other education systems. However, some teachers said that they did these activities with much enthusiasm and well-designed to make the activities more exciting and effective. They think if they want the learners to be enthusiastic and active in the classroom activities, the teachers themselves should be enthusiastic and active first, which will influence the learners to do more. Discussion and role play activities are agreed by all the teachers in BETS as good ways to develop the proficiency of spoken English. However, the teachers find that the learners in BETS may be unable

or unwilling to participate in the discussion and role play classroom activities because of a variety of factors, such as linguistic limitations, educational practices and the failure of past learning, as well as different participant's different background and personality. Another reason is that, in China, the traditional English teaching method mainly refers to grammar-translation method. This teaching method makes students form the habit of keeping silent during much of the English class. Jaworski and Stephens (1998) suggested that silence in communication may be employed as a face-saving strategy. The use of silence, instead of verbal expression of critical views or disagreement, can be identified as the strategy of 'Don't do the FTA (face-threatening act)' (Nakane, 2006). Therefore, as the spoken English teachers design the classroom activities, they have to consider how to avoid the FTA as much as possible. For example, teachers have to decide when and how to correct students' language mistakes to avoid making students lose face.

According to the teachers' interviews, the spoken English teachers in BETS widely use modern technology to teach, such as computer-assisted language learning (CALL) tools, multi-media facilities and teaching software. A multi-media learning system offers the learner access to a range of real language situations, in which they can develop an increasing independence of action as their different social status allows. The advantages of the use of modern technology are obvious. According to Cook (2001), CALL has enhanced students' motivation, which reinforces the learning. CALL also provides a huge information database for learners. Stilborne and Heide (1996) said that the Internet provides learners with online texts, libraries, databases, news, travel, cooking, hobbies, and sports which enlarge the knowledge range of the learners' speech. And 80% of teaching information is stored in the world's computers (Graddol, 1997). The information technologies provide interactive multimedia presentations with sound, animation and full-motion video (Beatty, 2003). Weller (2002) points out it helps learners to reach a greater penetration in society than most other educational technologies.

V. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this research was to investigate the SET issues and find effective teaching methods in BETS. In the course of this research, after an introduction to the SET background in BETS, the academic literature on SET has been reviewed. It includes previous work done on the field of study and some issues considered to be relevant to the research questions and the investigation. It concludes with a brief review of the theories of second language teaching, the main skills and activities used in the SET, the choice of teaching methods and the relevant issues. If handled improperly, these issues can develop into serious barriers and impede the effectiveness and efficiency of the SET. To deal with these issues properly, the spoken English teachers have to consider all these aspects according to the specific teaching and learning context.

The SET in BETS study has suggested that the teaching context in BETS determines the teaching methods in SET. In a word, the nature of learner-centered and needs-awareness teaching determines all the aspects of the teaching in the particular teaching context. The author presents the findings on the relevant issues from both teachers' and learners' perspectives, which also give other teachers and curriculum developers some enlightenments on their own teaching or teaching programs.

APPENDIX I QUESTIONS OF INTERVIEW (8 ENGLISH TEACHERS IN BEIJING NEW ORIENTAL SCHOOL)

QUESTIONS TO TEACHERS OF SPOKEN ENGLISH TEACHING IN BEIJING ENGLISH TRAINING SCHOOLS

<u>BACKGROUND INFORMATION</u>

Purpose of the study:

These questions are being conducted for the study on Spoken English Teaching in Beijing English Training Schools.

The goal of these questions is to map the understanding and views of teachers on Spoken English training classes. This interview will take 30 minutes.

Interview questions:

1. Do you think spoken English Training course in English Training schools in Beijing is a good supplement for the English Teaching in formal Schools? Why?

2. How do you deal with spoken English teaching in the situation of big class size, different age learners with different English levels?

3. What are the aims of students who take part in the spoken English training in English training schools in Beijing?

4. Do you agree with the idea that the English teaching is totally learner-centered in English training schools in Beijing? If you agree, what kind of teaching method do you use in your spoken English teaching? And why?

5. How do you make spoken English teaching more purposeful to different student groups?

6. By what techniques, methods and activities, do you think, you teach the spoken language? And why?

7. What technology do you use to teach the spoken language to your students? Why?

APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

<u>BACKGROUND INFORMATION</u>

Purpose of the study:

This questionnaire is being conducted for the study on Spoken English Teaching in Beijing English Training Schools.

The goal of this questionnaire is to map the understanding and views of students on Spoken English training classes. This questionnaire will take 10 minutes to complete.

1. Sex: (please tick)   Female □   Male □
2. Age: _____
3. Status: Student □   Non-student □
4. Major: _____
5. Spoken English Level   Elementary □   Intermediate □   Advanced □

SPOKEN ENGLISH TEACHING QUESTIONS FOR STUDENTS

1. In spoken English classes, what is the allocation of the class time you would prefer?
   a. 30% teacher's speech, 70% students' practice or communication in English
   b. 70% teacher's speech, 30% students' practice or communication in English
   c. 50% teacher's speech, 50% students' practice or communication in English
   d. others : _____ (please give a brief description)
2. Which one, do you think, is the most useful element to learn spoken English well?
   a. large vocabulary
   b. good grammar
   c. imitate and repeat correct sentence structure
   d. good listening ability
   e. good at conversations
   f. good at communication
   g. good at doing role plays
   h. all of the above
   i. other elements: _____(please give a brief description)
3. Which oral English learning method do you prefer in your spoken English training?
   a. I prefer to do listening and speaking practices in the classes as much as possible.
   b. I always take notes of the spoken English language points and usages and listen to the teachers' lecture. In this way, I feel safe in the class.
   c. Real world situations, such as films, with the teacher's occasional instructions make you feel like you are emerging in the real English language environment.
   d. I prefer to do a lot of interpretation exercises in the training classes
   e. other ways: _____(please give a brief description)
4. What do you think attracts your attention most in the spoken English classes?
   a. The teacher accelerates the speed of the his speech
   b. The teacher excites you by some humorous speech or anecdotes.
   c. The teacher raises his voice
   d. The teacher is very humorous
   e. The teacher is very knowledgeable
   f. The teacher plays English games
   g. all of the above
   h. other ways: _____(please give a brief description)
5. Which spoken teaching methods, do you think, are applied in the spoken English training school class?
   a. Vocabulary and grammar-rules are the centre of the teaching (grammar-translation method)
   b. No L1 was involved; speech and listening comprehension were taught; correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized (Direct Method)
   c. learn spoken English sentence by sentence through imitation and memorization (Audio-lingual Method)
   d. Communication is the center of the teaching (Communicative approaches)
   e. other methods: _____ (please give a brief description)
6. Which classroom activity, do you think, are used frequently in the spoken English training school class?
   a. role play
   b. intonation gap activities
   c. group discussion
   d .learning spoken English by films
   e. tell or retell the stories
   f. small presentation
   g. small oral report
   h. answer questions
   i. all of the above
   j. other activities _____ (please give a brief description)
7. In spoken English classes, do you want your spoken teacher to interrupt your speech and correct your

pronunciation every time when you make a mistake?

    a. No. It will make me frustrated. I can correct pronunciation by imitating English tapes.

    b. No. I will forget what I want to say.

    c. Yes. But I hope it happens at the end of my speech.

    d. Yes. Every time I make pronunciation mistakes, the teacher should correct me.

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Aspects of Cultural Elements in Prominent English Textbooks for EFL Setting

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Abstract—**Materials development and evaluation is a relatively young phenomenon in the field of language teaching. In the practical sense, it includes the production, evaluation and adaptation of materials. Undoubtedly, culture is much more valuable than teaching and practicing the literary masterpiece. The need to integrate culture into teaching the second language particularly teaching English in a foreign context is not a new debate and has long been highlighted in countless studies. Societal values, attitudes and cultural elements are integrated with the communicative approach to enhance the effectiveness of L2 acquisition. Conversely, textbooks are an integral part of language learning in the classrooms. Yet, it seems to be common practice that foreign language textbooks and classrooms frequently overlook the conclusions drawn in such studies and neglect the essential information about the target language culture that would help students reach a cultural understanding to accompany their linguistic knowledge. Hence, it is the intent of this paper to examine the cultural elements in four English language textbooks: Interchange, Headway, Top Notch, On Your Mark currently used in Iran in order to determine the most prominent cultural dimension portrayed.**

Index Terms—**culture, text book, EFL**

I. INTRODUCTION

The term "culture" refers to the systems of knowledge shared by a group of people, including a group's values, beliefs, and attitudes, notions of appropriate behavior, statuses, role expectations, and worldview (notions of time, space, and cosmology). Culture also includes material objects and knowledge about their purpose and use. Culture is understood to be a symbol-rich template that shapes human consciousness and behavior. There are many axioms reflecting the relationship between language and culture in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) pedagogy. There are also various stands by a number of ELT educators regarding the place of culture in ESL. The positive implications of including cultural associations of the target language into instructional materials are largely known and accepted. This inclusion will nurture positive attitudes towards the target language, hence facilitating its acquisition. Generally, there is a tacit agreement that the assimilation of the target culture which results in acculturation will encourage communicative competence which in turn will enhance language learning. Therefore, cultural understanding should not be disregarded but should be in the heart of second language learning. Having established the cultural niche we have then moved on to the issue of what kind of cultural elements are introduced and integrated into ELT instructional materials specifically, textbooks, and how deliberate the infusion is. Studies in English textbooks for EFL students reported that cultural information is present in EFL textbooks. They revealed different portrayals of culture in all its dimensions. This paper discusses the cultural impact on Iranian English Language teaching and learning as well as identifies the cultural dimensions found in Iranian English Language textbooks.

Sheldon (1988) obviously noted that the ability to evaluate teaching materials effectively is a very important professional activity for all EFL teachers. No course book or set of materials is likely to be perfect and even though it is clear that course book assessment is fundamentally a subjective, rule-of-thumb activity, and that no neat formula, grid or system will ever provide a definite yardstick nonetheless, a model for hard pressed teachers or course planners is needed and it should be brief, practical to use and yet comprehensive in its coverage of criteria, given that everyone in the field will need to evaluate materials at some time or other.

Cunningsworth (1995) and Ellis (1997) suggest that textbook evaluation helps teachers move beyond impressionistic assessments and it helps them to acquire useful, accurate, systematic, and contextual insights into the overall nature of textbook material. Textbook evaluation, therefore, can potentially be a particularly worthwhile means of conducting action research as well as a form of professional empowerment and improvement. Similarly, textbook evaluation can also be a valuable component of teacher training programs for it serves the dual purpose of making student teachers aware of important features to look for in textbooks while familiarizing them with a wide range of published language instruction materials.

A. The Theoretical Development of Culture in EFL Education

According to Allen (1985) "in the earlier part of this century second language learning took place in order for learners to gain access to the great literary masterpieces of civilization". Learners were exposed to cultural experiences associated with the target language. In the sixties, another educational purpose for second language learning emerged - "cross cultural communication and understanding" (Nostrand in Lessard-Clouston, 1997). Culture then became essential not only for the study of literature but more importantly for language learning where the term "small c culture" came into the picture. .This thought is further supported by the emergence of the communicative approach in language teaching which promotes the integration of language and culture. This is translated into the goal of communication within the cultural context of the target language which in turn should encourage communicative competence. The relationship between language, society and culture is further explained through the domain of sociolinguistics which examines language use within different social contexts. In relation to this language use includes the social functions of language and the forms these functions take in the evocation of social meaning as people's lives, opinions and beliefs are strongly influenced by the society they live in. Although sociolinguists have a common concern in examining the relationship between language, society and culture, there exist various interpretations of the meanings of these terms. However, they do agree on the principle that there exists an inextricable bond between language and culture

Stern (1983) posits the cultural aspect of second language and foreign language teaching in his three-level framework. The foundational level incorporates linguistics, educational, anthropology, sociology and sociolinguistics theories. Ethnographic or cultural description of the target language is the essence of the inter-level or level two while the sociocultural component of the target language is the foundation for level three. In Stern's conceptual framework language, culture and communication is synonym with society. Therefore like many other conceptual frameworks it also emphasizes the inclusion of culture in ESL education.

Backing to the related literature, Controversies exist around what kinds of content should be incorporated into a foreign or second language curriculum. Since the early 1970s, momentous changes have occurred in the field of foreign language teaching. The early 1970s witnessed the reform of structural methodologies such as the Grammar Translation Method and Audiolingualism, because it became important that "language was not to be studied but to be learned and spoken" (Byram, 1991, p. 13).

After all the transitions from one approach to another, the widely-held belief was that it was essential to teach the target language through meaningful and culture-based content. In order to be successful in real life situations, this, in turn, would help the learners to employ the social rules of that target culture in learning its language.

The social rules of language use require an understanding of the social context in which the language is used, and hence, the language learner ends up with the inevitable culture-specific context of the foreign or second language class. As Alptekin (2002) puts it, "learning a foreign language becomes a kind of enculturation, where one acquires new cultural frames of reference and a new world view, reflecting those of the target language culture and its speakers" (p. 58). Similarly, applied linguists such as Halliday (1975) have suggested that learners should acquire knowledge about how to use the language in order to function successfully in socio-cultural contexts. Thus, language teachers are inevitably supposed to be equipped with target language communicative competence, so that the students can gain access to educational or economic opportunities within the target language setting. What is more important, since acquisition of target language communicative competence entails the integration of both language and its culture, learners should become familiar with the "experience of another language, and a different way of coping with reality" (Alptekin, 2002, p. 59). Similarly, as Risager (1991) notes, speaking with a native speaker includes the ability to act in real life situations, and is not merely a question of knowing the grammar and lexis. Thus, it is important for the learners to be involved in communicative acts, as well as in the reality of the target culture, so that they can understand the cultural references and views that the native speakers of the particular target culture possess.

Norrizan (1993) set out to find out the impact of various cultural elements in ESL texts introduced during ESL lessons to two sets of students in two different schools. She compared a school in Community A with middle or upper middle class students and Community B which was an urban village with low income families. She used a cultural unit matrix which includes culturally suggestive topical items such as types of houses, overseas studies, satay, business loans, travels, air travels and local festivals among others. These items were selected from a survey of six form four ESL textbooks referred to or used by the teachers in the study. Classroom observations and interviews were carried out to determine whether the topical items are culturally familiar or unfamiliar to the students. She found out that many of the topical items were culturally relevant to students who came from middle or upper middle class families in Community A. She concluded that the textbooks were biased towards middle-class values and lifestyles. Thus, meaningful interactions were achieved in these classrooms. Conversely, students in Community B were very distracted and restless during these lessons. She proposed that teachers should be more selective in choosing appropriate items according to the learners' culture. It is concluded that culturally familiar items do facilitate second language learning.

Despite misgivings about the inclusion of Western culture in English Language teaching, Shimako(2000) found that many of the textbooks adopted in Japan do include Western characters and values although Japanese culture was predominant. Foreign cultures were almost always in the context of Western visitors being introduced to Japanese culture by the locals. Generally, American culture is the main culture representing Western values and characters.

In the Korean English as a foreign language (EFL) context, the teaching and learning of culture encompasses all aspects of human life: lifestyle, behavior, thoughts and the value system of the target culture. Learners are made aware of the various dimensions of culture as well as the rules of the language. It is found that the most frequently appeared topics related to culture in the Korean English textbook for secondary schools are food, holidays, gestures, weather, customs and travel to English speaking countries. The predominant concept of culture is 'culture as the way of life' which is the sociological sense of culture.

The aesthetic dimension of culture, culture as a way of thinking and behavior do not seem to be taken into consideration.

In their study of teaching materials in Moroccan secondary schools Adaskou, Britten, and Fahsi (1990) found nothing beneficial or motivating in including Western culture. By introducing Western culture there's a tendency for cultural comparison which in turn will breed discontent among learners with their own culture. Besides, certain patterns of behavior in English-speaking social contexts are not desirable, being incompatible with local values. Finally, the teachers in the study believe that motivation in learning English will improve if the language is presented in contexts relevant to learners' lives as young adults rather than in the context of an English-speaking country. Adaskou, Britten, and Fahsi (1990) also maintains that the inclusion of a cultural component in language teaching can improve international understanding, enhance appreciation of one's own culture, facilitate learners' visits to foreign countries and contacts with their people, and motivate learners.

Generally in the textbooks of these nations, the Western characters are used to introduce stereotypes presenting differences between Western culture and local cultures. They also portray issues of gender roles and all of them appear in textbooks approved by the local Ministry of Education. Along the same line, it is the intention of the present study to explore the cultural dimensions and describe the cultural contexts in Iranian settings.

B. What is the Role of Culture in L2 Textbooks?

As Hinkel (1999) noted it is widely acknowledged that textbooks are the main materials used in language classes. They may be the teacher, the trainer, the authority, the resource, and the ideology in the foreign language classroom. Such textbooks are produced massively for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) purposes all over the world, and aim to meet the needs of language learners, so that they can function linguistically and culturally well in English communicative acts. Thus, it is extremely important that these textbooks include the vital components to teach the language, its culture, and are appropriate for learners' needs, cultural background, and level. Yet, regrettably, certain aspects of the target culture, such as oral and written history, literature, music, drama, dance, visual arts, celebrations, and the lifestyle of native speakers are not always represented in these resources, nor are the intercultural phenomena. To illustrate, textbooks produced at a national level for particular countries mirror the students' local cultures, rather than the English-speaking cultures.

C. The Role of Culture in Intercultural Competence

This section discusses some of the arguments posited in support of developing second language learners' intercultural competence. This is in line with globalization where second language learners are increasingly exposed to the global community in which English plays a role as an international bridge.

Learners who are fully competent in the language are expected to be global performers well versed in the cultural awareness embedded in the international language in their quest for knowledge as well as fostering global relations.

The closeness of the relationship between language and culture gives rise to the perception of language as a kind of acculturation where language learners assimilate new culture, "new codes of expression, new values, and new norms of conduct" as well as a different world view. Puente (1997) asserts that "language reflects and affects culture" forming a "dynamic relation" or intrinsic link. This link is manifested in what Fantini terms "lingua-culture" where language is inextricably linked with culture and in turn is taught in tandem with its culture. In relation to this, Iranian English Language learners need to learn about the target language culture together with Persian culture in order to communicate effectively, achieving communicative competence. Communicative competence is not possibly achieved without cultural understanding as it is the core of language acquisition. This is demonstrated in the fact that when a learner decides to learn a language, such as German, the learner is not only learning the linguistics of German but everything else German and Germany. Therefore, learning the linguistics of a language involves assimilating cultural associations and its entire cultural load. A learner then avoids all the pitfalls of cultural misunderstanding or ignorance which leads to the breakdown of communication. In addition to communication, learners who are said to have acquired a language are those who are able to align themselves with the culture of the target language. They can also think in the target language thus enabling them to identify with the language by capturing the essence of the language. (Tang, 1999)

It is mentioned earlier that Iranian EFL learners need to learn about the culture of the target language together with Persian culture assimilated into the target language. Accordingly, intercultural understanding should then be emphasized in EFL education in Iran.. Intercultural understanding means dual culture understanding where learners are exposed to the target language culture, specifically English and to a certain extent, American culture as well as being introduced to Persian culture in English. Learners are given plenty of exposure to cultural information of the target language. This exposure to the target language culture is to minimize what Schulman and Ellis (1985) termed as social and psychological distance in his Nativization model where he posited that language learning may be hindered by social

and psychological distance. Social distance refers to the equality of the social status of each culture, the integrative and instrumental motivation in learning the additional lingua culture which in turn affects the attitude of the learner towards second language learning.

Psychological distance is realized in language and culture shock, motivation and ego boundaries of individual learners'. Therefore, social and psychological distance extensively influence learners' attitude, whether positive of negative, towards the target language and its culture. A positive attitude will facilitate language learning as it promotes affinity with the lingua-culture. In contrast if learners feel alienated from the target language and culture, language learning is certainly hampered by this cultural gap . It is also essential to bridge this gap as it could pose difficulties in communication; especially when the second language learners come into direct contact with target language culture.

In the pragmatic dimension, confusion could occur due to the ignorance of cultural information. Learners need to be aware of ambiguity in some functions of the target language such as in the classic example of the statement 'It's cold'. The statement can function both as a general comment on the weather and a request for the window to be opened. If an EFL learner does not recognize the hidden meaning, communication is surely lost. In addition to this, learners need to be informed about culturally accepted attitude and behavior in the target language. The Asian way of reacting to praise or compliments with reticence and humility might cause cultural misunderstanding in the target culture. Consequently, cultural contexts in its entire dimension should be introduced in ELT education in order to achieve communicative competence.

Lack of cross-cultural awareness will lead to misunderstandings in second language classrooms. Some 'improper' classroom behavior may stem from culturally specific behavior. Many rules and procedures for effective classroom interaction are dictated by culture. Powel and Andersen (1994) asserted it is not surprising that a female Muslim learner will not often volunteer to lead a group when there are other Muslim male learners in the group. This is the consequence of her up-bringing which recognizes the leading role of a male Muslim. She will often avoid direct eye-contact with a male teacher when responding to a question as direct eye-contact with a person of the opposite sex, is undesirable in the Islamic context, especially when not related. Syahrom (1995).

The learner may be upbraided for breaching the ideals of effective communication which emphasizes eye-contact in interaction by a teacher who is not well-versed with cross-cultural understanding. This lack of understanding has serious implications because it affects classroom management and consequently the teaching and learning process. Teachers need to reflect on their cultural judgment and adjust their world-view in the light of these cultural constraints. They have to localize certain aspects of culture by adopting the target language culture without neglecting local cultural values. This is in line with McLeod (1985) who asserts, "It is important for the teacher to understand the values he is transmitting and also the values of the students' cultures".

Confusion and conflict can arise among people engaging in cross-cultural interaction .One reason is that the culture one is born in to is generally taken for granted as reality. The anthropological term "ethnocentrism" refers to the way that people's central stance toward reality is shaped by their social group. While it is not the only source of cross-cultural challenge understanding the implications of ethnocentrism may help facilitate cultural adjustment and ease the experience of "culture shock".

D. Textbook and Culture

A discussion on textbooks is inevitable in light of the arguments advocating the infusion of culture in ESL education. The significance of textbooks is seen in the many roles textbooks play in facilitating the second language teaching and learning process in the classroom. According to Cortazzi and Jin (1999), the textbook "can be a teacher, a map, a resource, a trainer, an authority, and an ideology." Hence, the textbook can be a major source of cultural elements besides providing linguistic and topical contents which necessarily reflect the ideology inherent in the EFL context of a particular circle. Textbooks across the world are of different cultural orientations; whether they are based on source cultures, target culture or international target cultures. Source cultures refer to learners 'own culture, target culture is the culture in which the target language is used as a first language while international target cultures refer to various cultures in English, or non-English-speaking countries which use English as an international language. (Cortazzi and Jin, 1999). Consequently, this categorization will assist in describing the cultural orientation of the textbook in this study.

II. Objective of the Study

This is a very small scale descriptive study on an Iranian four English Language textbooks currently in use. It sets out to identify or determine the most prominent cultural dimension found in these textbooks. It also intends to describe the cultural contexts portrayed.

III. Research Question

What is the most prominent cultural dimension portrayed in English Language textbooks in Iran: the aesthetic, sociological, semantic or the pragmatic (sociolinguistic)?

A. The Conceptual Framework

A specific and operational definition of culture which outlines four dimensions or 'senses' of culture; the aesthetic, sociological, semantic and the pragmatic posited by Adaskou, Britten & Fahsi (1990) is adapted to be used to facilitate the investigation. These aspects are representative of the myriad dimensions of culture as well as providing concrete substance to the abstractness of culture. It should be mentioned here that the analysis of cultural component in this study does not include the prescribed literary texts integrated into the ESL syllabus by the Ministry of Education.

It should be mentioned that although this framework was developed for an EFL context, it is found to be compatible to Iranian EFL context which resembles EFL in the psychological distance of L2 in the majority of learners. It is also appropriate as a framework for studies on non-native speakers.

Figure 1. Four meanings of 'culture': Adaskou, Britten and Fahsi (1990)

The Aesthetic Sense: Culture with a capital C: the media, the cinema, music (whether serious or popular, literature-the study of which used often to be one of the main reasons for language teaching. Many of these forms of culture are at the same time sources of information on culture in our second sense.

The Sociological Sense: Culture with a small c: the organization and nature of family, of home life, of interpersonal relations, material conditions, work and leisure, customs and institution.

The Semantic Sense: The conceptual system embodied in the language, conditioning all our perceptions and our thought processes, time and space relations, emotional states, colors.

The Pragmatic (or sociolinguistic) Sense: The background knowledge, social skills, and paralinguistic skills that, in addition to mastery of the language code, make possible successful communication:

► The ability to use appropriate exponents of the various communicative functions.

► The ability to conform to norms of politeness, where different from the learners' culture, including taboo avoidance.

► Awareness of conventions governing interpersonal relations- questions of status, obligation, license, where different from the learners' culture.

► Familiarity with the main rhetorical conventions in different written genres e.g., different types of letters and messages, form-filling, advertisements.

B. The Textbooks Sample

Interchange, Headway, Top Notch, On Your Mark

IV. Procedure

Examination of the four cultural dimensions adapted from Adaskou, Britten and Fahsi (1990) is carried out on the textbook sample. The written text in the textbook is scrutinized looking out for language discourse which suggests and conforms to the cultural dimensions in the conceptual framework. Text analysis is carried out drawing attention to:
• Informative or descriptive text material
• Texts presenting foreign attitudes and opinions
• Human-interest texts (including dialogues), authentic of fictitious, with details of everyday life
• Contextualized practice activities, writing tasks
• Lexis- particularly idioms – and unfamiliar collocations, which involve alien concepts
• The exponents of the communicative function
(Adapted from Adaskou, Britten and Fahsi (1990)
Cultural information can be effectively communicated through this particular analysis thus it is adopted and adapted to facilitate the study.

During the analysis any textual discourse with cultural loads are recorded in a tally sheet in order to gauge the distribution and frequency of occurrence of the four cultural dimensions. The frequency of occurrence of each dimension of culture is then converted to percentages for comparison purposes. These percentages are then analyzed to determine the dimension which occurs the most frequently. The findings are then presented in tables and visuals. The findings are later justified and discussed qualitatively to address the research question.

V. Findings and Discussion

FIGURE.2.
DISTRIBUTION OF CULTURE DISTINCTIVE OCCURRENCES ACROSS CHAPTERS

The Aesthetic Sense	The Sociological Sense	The Semantic Sense	The Pragmatic or sociolinguistic Sense
8chapters	7chapters	8 chapters	14 chapters

FIGURE.3.
THE RANKING AND PERCENTAGES OF CULTURE DISTINCTIVE OCCURRENCES ACROSS CHAPTERS

Ranking	Cultural Dimension	No. of Chapters	Percentage %
1	The Pragmatic (or sociolinguistic) Sense	12	80.0
2	The Sociological Sense	8	53.3
3	The Aesthetic Sense	8	53.3
4	The Semantic Sense	8	53.3

Culture distinctive occurrences are found to be spread across fifteen chapters of the textbooks. (Figure 2). The pragmatic or sociolinguistic sense is found in twelve out of fifteen (80%) of the chapters. The sociological sense is found in eight chapters or 53.3%, the aesthetic sense is found in seven chapters (46.6%) and the semantic sense in five chapters which is 33.3%. Therefore, the pragmatic or sociolinguistic sense of culture spans over almost all fifteen chapters of the textbook followed by the sociological sense, the aesthetic sense and finally the semantic sense.

The pragmatic (sociolinguistic) occurrences are quite predominant probably because the forms and functions of language such as 'to offer', 'to clarify' and 'to request' are included in almost all the chapters. According to Adaskou, Britten and Fahsi (1990) the pragmatic (sociolinguistic) sense includes 'the ability to use various exponents of communicative functions." Another probable reason is the rhetorical conventions in different written genres for example, types of letters, are introduced in the sub-section of the textbooks on the writing skill which is found in every chapter of the textbooks. This could imply that the textbooks conform to the communicative language teaching approach which is the generally accepted ESL ideology in Iran.

FIGURE. 4.
FREQUENCY OF CULTURE DISTINCTIVE OCCURRENCES

The Aesthetic Sense	The Sociological Sense	The Semantic Sense	The Pragmatic (or sociolinguistic) Sense
21	35	28	21

This finding is equivalent to the findings in the Korean study where almost all the culture distinctive occurrences are sociological in nature. However, in this study it is found that though sociological dimension is prominent the other three dimensions of culture; the semantic, the aesthetic and the pragmatic (sociolinguistic) senses are not totally neglected.

It is also found that the characters portrayed in these textbooks are mostly local characters from the different ethnic groups. Even the travel destinations are strictly local but there is a mention of a holiday in other non-western countries.

VI. IMPLICATION

It is observed that the cultural focus or content of these textbooks is local culture or 'localized culture' made up of the cultures of the various ethnic groups. In line with this, the cultural orientation of these textbooks is based on the source cultures in which there is a direct and explicit inclusion of local culture such as found in the passages explaining about local festivals and dances. There is also an attempt to introduce intercultural behavior and communication .No instances of comparison with western or target language culture are found. In this respect the EFL context in Iran is extended to English as an international language (EIL) context as it is used to describe local culture and values to other global speakers of English. In conclusion, hence the inclusion of culture is beneficial to language proficiency. Therefore the Iranian ELT ideology on culture is successfully translated into the cultural occurrences in the textbooks investigated in this study.

VII. LIMITATION

As mentioned earlier, this is a very small scale study with just four textbooks as samples. Therefore it is not the intent of this study to generalize its findings. The scope of the study is only confined to the analysis of written text. It does not consider illustrations and other visuals, tape scripts of listening texts, sound recordings, realia and pseudo-realia of all sorts.

VIII. CONCLUSION

It is a fact that English has become an international language therefore it doesn't belong only to native speakers in English-speaking countries. It has truly belonged to the world as the global lingua franca of this century. Second language speakers of English use English to communicate not only with native speakers of English but with other second language or foreign language users of English. The rapid and extensive localization and nativization of English suggests that English need not always be linked to the culture of those who speak it as a first language. Indeed the purpose of an international language is to describe one's own culture and concerns to others. (McKay, 2004). The

findings in the studies reviewed in this paper reveal that, in many countries, the teaching of English is becoming much more localized, integrating local flavors with those of the target culture. The use of local characters, places, and issues as the content for textbooks is subtly interspersed with the cultural contexts of English-speaking countries. This is a necessity as language could not be totally divorced from culture. The adoption of English as a second language means to a certain extent the acceptance of Western culture and values. As Smith (1976) proposed thirty four years ago, only when English is used to express and advocate local culture and values will it truly represent an international language.

Clearly, ESL and EFL educators support the inclusion of a cultural component in the teaching of English. Therefore the issue now is not whether to include but what aspects of culture to include, what role culture should play and more importantly how culture should be taught in the teaching of English as a second language.

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The Protection of Endangered Languages in Mainland China

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Abstract—With globalization of economy, many minority languages are facing language genocide and loss with the widespread use of dominant language in nation-state. The minorities in mainland China also meet this problem. The assimilation and acculturation from the host culture are very obvious and overwhelming. Many minority people have accepted mainstream Han ideology, culture and language for economic and political reasons, falling into mixed identity problem. In order to maintain the linguistic ecological balance and diversity of cultures, many efforts have been taken to protect the endangered languages. But there are still a lot of problems which are difficult to solve. This article analyzes the dilemma of endangered languages in PRC and some solutions are suggested.

Index Terms—endangered languages protection, mainland China, language policy

I. INTRODUCTION

German theoretic linguistic Wilhelm von Humboldt(1988) once said: "Every language contains a unique ideology." From the perspective of culture, language is the representation of culture, records and reflects the features of culture. If a nation's language is in danger, its songs, dances, music and other forms of literature and arts are all in danger. In other words, saving a language is the first step to save its culture.

In Mainland China, it has been a long journey for people to recognize the dangerous situation of minority languages. Primarily, people thought that endangered languages were those that are going to disappear from the earth. With the deeper understanding, some scholar defined the endangered language as the language which children no longer use and will disappear in one or two generations. Then, some others further defined it by such parameters as the number of people who speak the language and the age group of the users under 40 years old. But there were still some disagreements on these definitions and parameters. Chinese scholars Dai Qingxia and Deng Youling (2002) posited a set of dynamic and quantified "comprehensive parameters systems" and defined the endangered languages in a much more complete and scientific way and universally accepted by academic circle. Dai's system consists of core parameters and reference parameters. The core parameter includes three elements: the proportion of population who lost the heritage language; the proportion of the distribution of age group who still use the heritage language; the heritage language ability. According to this system, the endangered language should meet the following three conditions: 1) 80% of the nation population have shifted to use the dominant language and the number is increasing; 2) the heritage language is only used by middle-aged and senior people above 40 specifically; 3) the heritage language users only have listening ability and have lost speaking ability. These three complement with each other, and if meeting these three conditions, it can be defined as the endangered language. In order to be more complete and precise, for different practical situations, such reference parameters are offered as "the domain of heritage language use", "the notion of language use in ethnic group". Comparatively, as a standard to define endangered language, this comprehensive parameter system is much more scientific and objective.

Based on the above system, till now, there exist 120 languages in PRC and more than 20 languages are in danger with only less than 1,000 users and the number is decreasing continuously. It is estimated that more than 20% languages will disappear within next 20-50 years (S.X. Xu. 2001). Most of these languages are minority languages, such as Naxi and Xiandao in Yunnan Province, Qilao in Guizhou Province, Tujia in Human Province, Yi in Sichuan Province, Man, Erluanchuan, Heze in Northeast China, etc. Taking Man language for example, there are only three senior people who can speak Man in Sanjiatun, Qiqihaer, Heilongjiang province. They are all over 80 years old. Once they are dead, it means that Man language will disappear from the earth. But in Qing dynasty, Man language was used as the "national language" which is as important as Han language. There were a huge amount of books and documentaries written by Man and more than 200,000 pieces still exist till now. (,H.P. Li, 2007). The extinction of Man on one hand will lead those documentaries not to be understood and their archeological values also can't be appreciated. On the other hand, as a multinational country with long history, it is very meaningful to maintain the language equality by keeping, inheriting and enriching the minority nations' cultural traditions. Hence, protecting the endangered languages is one essential way

to maintain the diverse cultures.

II.   ACHIEVEMENTS IN ENDANGERED LANGUAGES PROTECTION IN PRC

Since the foundation of New China, the Chinese government has been devoting to developing the nations' languages and national education. Under the push of many dedicated scholars, China has gained some achievements in this cause.

Firstly, on legislation level, the Department of Ethnic Minority Education was established in 1980 under the previous State Ministry of Education, which is now called the State Education Commission. PRC government has issued "National Common Language Characters Law" and "Law of Regional Autonomy of Minority Nationalities", which have articulated the use of minority languages, provided the powerful protection and laid foundation for legislation of the use and enrichment of minority languages. Autonomous regions are authorized to build their schools, create their school curricula, choose languages used as the medium of instruction in schools, and provide teacher training programs. In the PRC Regional Autonomous Law for Minority Nationalities in 1984, there are 6 articles on minority groups' language use (M. Zhou,2004). Although preferential policies were given to improve minority language education, it is more on political and ideological education of minority students. As Mandarin Chinese becomes the language commonly used nationwide, it becomes reasonable for minority students to use Mandarin Chinese because some minorities have lost their written language while others never had a written language at all. (M. Zhou, 2004) It is convenient for minority students to get education. But it indeed have some bad effects on language diversity.

Secondly, bilingual education has been promoted in minority areas, and many effective measures have to be taken to inherit and enrich minority cultures. Now, there are about 10,000 schools where bilingual education are conducted in 21 Minority Autonomous Regions and 13 provinces, especially Inner-mongolia, Korean, Tibetan nationalities where the complete education system from elementary to tertiary levels has been established with the heritage languages as the medium of instruction, and the edition of textbooks written in minority languages also achieved great success. There are about ten provinces and autonomous regions established textbook edition and publishing organizations. (Tudaoduoji, 2006). But bilingual education in minority regions emphasizes the fluency of both minority languages and Mandarin Chinese. In 1984, for instance, Qinghai province proposed the use of minority languages and Mandarin Chinese for ethnic secondary and elementary schools. Minority students are encouraged to learn their spoken and written language, on the basis of which they learn Mandarin Chinese (Dai & Dong,2001). Many minority textbooks were published in different minority languages and local newsletters and even the Bible was published in minority languages (Schein,2000). Forklores and literature in minority languages are also available (Schein,2000). The Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region and the Tibet Autonomous Region have both set forth the principle of using their minority language for basic education and learning Mandarin Chinese as well for the goal of fluency in both languages after secondary school graduation. (Dai & Dong, 2001)

Thirdly, special funds were allocated to minority groups to develop minority education: the Ethnic Minorities Education Aid Special Fund, Project Hope, and the Border Areas Aid Fund helped many minority students receive education in school (C.Yang,1994). Preferential policies also included free tuition and books or free tuition, lodging, food, and clothing to students in boarding schools in agricultural or pastoral areas in Tibet and Xinjiang (Sautman, 1998; C. Wang & Q. Zhou, 2003). Boarding schools in the eastern part of provinces and cities were built for minority elementary school graduates from Tibet and for high school graduates from Xinjiang. Every year about 1000 elementary graduates were taken out of Tibet and sent to the boarding schools in the eastern part of China for 7-12 years. (C. Wang & Q. Zhou,2003)

Fourthly, on academic research, the work of endangered language protection almost keeps pace with the international counterparts, and attracted their attentions. For example, the "Daohua" in Yajia, Ganji Autonomous Region, Sichuan Province has been listed in international ELDP(Endangered Language Documentation Program) as well as the "Tujia" in Hunan Province and "Wutun" in Qinghai Province. (Ganzi Daily, 08/02/2004). In addition, the work of endangered language protection in some regions went ahead of other regions, for example: Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region initiated "Mongolian Language Corpus construction Program". In the same year, "Qilao language Training Base" has been set up in Qilao tribe, Zunyi,Guizhou Province to engage in the concrete work.

III.   DILEMMAS IN ENDANGERED LANGUAGES PROTECTION

Even though there are some achievements, The extinction of minority languages are still serious, and there are discrepancies between minority policies and practices.

1. Firstly, the endangered languages protection doesn't get enough concern. Since 1949, there are three articles concerning minority languages: Article 4 of "The Constitution of PRC" in 1954, Article 10 of "National Common Language Characters Law"[1] in 2000 and Article 10 of "Minority Autonomous Region Law"[2] in 2001. Those articles articulate that minorities are entitled to using their heritage languages and protect their language rights by law, but little is said about how to put it into practice. There are some similar laws and regulations in national and provincial levels, but all are simple and vague which are far lagged behind the practical development of minority languages. Even though

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[1] "National Common Language Characters Law" is passed by the 12nd session of the 9th people's national council in Oct. 31, 2000.
[2] "Minority Autonomous Region Law"(2001 edition) is passed by the 18th session of the 9th people's national council in Feb. 28,2001.

many scholars have been called for quickened pace of legislative establishment of protecting endangered languages since 1980s, it is regretful that till now no singular law is issued.

To improve the legislative system, the relevant local laws and regulations are essential which can correspond to and complement with the national laws. Although at present some minority regions have drawn up their regional regulations on heritage languages, for example: "Regulations on learning, using and enriching Tibetan language(trial)" issued in 1988 by Tibet Autonomous Region; "Regulations on language characters in Xinjiang Autonomous Region" in 1993 by Xinjiang Autonomous Region and some similar regulations issued by Inner-Mongonia, Yunnan Province. But all these regulations were lack of targeted features. We can see that the protection of endangered languages haven't got enough attention from government. The law-makers also lack the awareness of the importance of this protection.

Although Chinese government policies towards minorities and minority education are officially for the protection of minority groups' rights, in practice, laws are not practiced properly. Local Communist Party leaders can sometimes be above the law because laws are subordinate to the party's interests and political needs. (Heberer, 1989) According to the autonomous law of 1984, autonomous regions should be self-governed by minorities. Actually, people in the most high-ranking positions, such as party secretaries, are appointed by the central government of the Chinese Communist Party. In China a party secretary has much stronger decision-making power than a state governor (Mackerras, 1994). Since the Chinese Communist Party controls its monopoly of political and military power(Mackerras,1994) to ensure "one state but many nationalities",(Oostiglione,1992), it is impossible for minorities to gain real autonomy for minority regions (Heberer, 1989;Smith,2008) without breaking the monopoly of the Communist Party.

2. government funding is not enough.

The economic and educational development are unbalanced seriously. Poverty in minority regions in China is becoming worse because of the unbalanced educational and economic development between Han dominant eastern regions and minority dominant western regions: According to statistics, by 1994 the impoverished parts of the ethnic minority areas were mainly located in western China, including 5 autonomous regions, 20 autonomous prefectures and 49 autonomous countries" (The Development-Oriented Poverty Reduction Program for Rural China, 2004). Minority people suffer from poverty, and more than 80 percent of Chinese People who lack basic food and clothing are from minority areas (Sautman, 1999). Many minority children have no money to attend school. Wan (2004) argues that there are large gaps between these government policies ensuring equal rights and protecting languages and cultures of ethnic minorities and "real equality on an economic and cultural level" (P367). Mackerras (1994) used the term "inequality in practice" (p200) to describe the central government economic policy and practice in minority regions that caused minority groups to lag behind the Han group.

Despite many projects being launched, the fund is still limited and a big proportion of the projects can't set forth for lack of money and physical needs. For example, there are only less then 10 projects funded by China Social Science foundation every year for minority language research. Because of the fierce competition, many projects on endangered language protection can't be approved. Lack of money not only hindered the procession of projects and but also influenced the continuity of the academic work. Shixuan Xu (Li, 2007) , the scholar on endangered language protection, said that for lack of money, piles and piles of the data collected are still in the Social Science Institute unprocessed. Many scholars have been calling for establishing a national language museum, but 10 more years has passed, there is no response. If we want to protect the endangered language practically, it is essential to set up a database for minority languages to record and reserve the existing language corpus; build up "endangered language reserve" to create good ecological environment. All of these actions need money. The lack of education fund in minority regions is another bottleneck which block the development of bilingualism. The development imbalance is salient in minority regions, where the conditions and quality of education are far lagged behind of the coastal areas. It is hard to accomplish 9-year compulsory school education in those areas. Many public school have been closed for poor conditions, unqualified teaching facilities and insufficient books and references. The above-mentioned Sanjiazitun elementary school is the only school in the country where Man is the medium of instruction. As the report said, there were only two Man language substitute teachers and all the courses in Man language were not included in test courses. A board and some pieces of handwritings on the wall were the only Man language which can be seen in the school. (Li, 2007)

The similar phenomena are easily seen in minority bilingual schools. Some teachers even can't get paid, let alone such benefits as the housing, medical care, social security, their own children's education. That is why few teachers want to teach in minority regions. For various kinds of reasons, the number of dropout students are increasing greatly in minority regions. According to the report "the statistics of education in Yunan Province(2004-1005), issued by Department of Education in Yunnan Province, at the elementary level, countryside schools in Deqing, Tibetan Autonomous Region, the dropout rate was 11.01% and 11.77% in Gongshan, Nujiang Lili Autonomous region. (2007) Hence, the premise for quality and sustainable lingual education is to increase the investment, improve the teaching conditions and stabilize the faculty.

3. Complete bilingual education system hasn't been set up yet.

At present, bilingual education in mainland China is hard and slow. There is no complete, pertinent and promissory bilingual education legislation system at the central and local government levels to give it the powerful support. Despite some relevant laws concerning bilingual education in minority regions, there is no single law except some regulations issued by local administration. And most of these regulations are incomplete and backward, can't meet the needs of

bilingual education development. Therefore, it is reasonable to think that the legislative system of bilingualism has not been set up yet.

The macro-trend towards cultural homogenization in China is obvious. Han-centered culture and knowledge constitute the contents of the National College Entrance Examination. Little attention has been given to the culture and knowledge of minority groups in this examination, which passes false information to minority students that the mastery of Han culture and knowledge means good university, good job and better life. The minority languages always discriminated. Mandarin Chinese as official language has been promoted since 1950s. Minority students sometimes in the segregated schools have no chances of learning from students from other cultures and of experiencing other cultures. (Spring, 2007) Because of China's strong economic development, Mandarin Chinese became popular in both national and international arenas.   Speaking Mandarin Chinese affords not only great employment opportunities but also "the option of entry into the identity of being Chinese" (Nelson, 2005,p26). This massive use of Mandarin in minority regions has devastating effects on minority language learning and maintenance. So bilingual education in minority regions actually provides a transition from minority languages to Mandarin Chinese; finally, Mandarin Chinese replaces minority students' language in minority students' education (Bilik, 1998; Dwyer,1998) The migration of people to urban areas for career opportunities encourages the younger generations to speak Mandarin. The dominant use of Mandarin causes many minority members in the southwest to give up their native languages and use Mandarin instead. (Bradley, 2001)

4. Formalism and utilitarian in the endangered languages protection are still existing.

If people think that protecting the endangered languages is just protect language itself, it will fall into formalism and the practical effect is little. In 1950s, the central government helped Miao Minority create their own characters based on Roman letters and Pingyii phonetics. But for lack of laws and supporting facilities of bilingual education. Miao language now is facing extinction. According to director in local Miao academic commission, nobody use the Miao language now, which was helped to created by government now (Zhang,2004) So ,it is clear that the protection of endangered languages can't only create the language itself,   it is more essential to protect its culture, set up a multi-dimensional environment consisting of administration, judiciary, legislation, education, publishing, media and information economy, providing endangered languages with authentic communication environment.

Also, some backward minority regions regard saving endangered languages as a way to make money. There is a good example of Naxi language in Yunan Province. The author has got a chance to Lijiang, Yunan Province, where Naxi minority sold some clothes and ornaments with various Naxi characters and graphs on them. Most of the characters and graphs are created artistically, which are far away from the real Naxi language. On the surface, it is good for endangered language protection. But actually, those languages and cultures which are created for commercial purposes are far astray from their original forms and unable to get the real meaning of the endangered languages. It is a kind of "language and culture show", which will speed up the extinction of those endangered languages. (Zhou, 2003)

IV. SUGGESTIONS TO ENDANGERED LANGUAGES PROTECTION

Faced with those dilemmas mentioned above, the author think that changing the present situation is no time to delay. Measures should be taken in macro and micro levels.

1. macro level: work should be done in four aspects:

Firstly, it should be clear that endangered languages protection is not an easy and simple work, but a long and continuous endeavor. In the long run, legislation procession is the best choice. The first priority is to build up a complete set of law system from central to local governments and improve the supporting facilities. "Endangered Languages Protection Law" should first be enacted in central government level to show its importance.

Secondly, it is the governments at all levels that should take the responsibility to do the protection. The present management situation is that various government departments such as culture department, education department and language administration department, all put their hands in it, but on one is willing to take real responsibility to do the practical work, causing great economic loss and inefficiency. It is recommended that an exclusive department be set up to take the full responsibility of the work.

Thirdly, we should recognize that endangered language protection is not only an academic action but also a social service, and need the attendance and cooperation from language users and the whole society. With great efforts by the scholars worldwide, government and common people have gradually developed some awareness of this serious social cultural and ecological problem, but there is a long way to go. Widespread publicity is most essential.

Last but not the least, non-government organization(NGO) is another importance power. Internationally, NGO plays more and more importance role in culture-related projects. In recent years, with the social development, universal education, environmental protection and charity causes, the power of NGO is becoming stronger and stronger. It is believed that there will be more and more learned people taking part in the movement of endangered language protection.

2. micro level: based on the practical situation in mainland China, measures should be taken from three dimensions like education, finance and media.

Firstly, the bilingual education in minority regions should be supported and protected by government policy and be put into action. There is a call for all governments at all levels to design the bilingual education curricula which fit local

minority and speculate concrete regulations on schooling model, textbook editing, teaching methodology, evaluation, teacher development and school management. Among them, teacher training is of great importance. The maintenance of minority languages in China is a challenge to language educators and language specialists. Not only a policy written in the Constitution but also the practices of qualified teachers who value and respect minority languages can make minority students feel that their language and culture in class are appreciated and that school curricula are related to their daily life. Qualified teachers are the key because they know how to integrate minority language, culture, and knowledge into school curriculum and how to help students recognize their culture and construct their identity.

Secondly, endangered language protection should be supported by enough fund. Fund management is also important and the specific organization and financial regulations should be set up to guarantee the safe and effective use of the fund.

Lastly, TV, radio and network are good media to help widespread the importance and urgency of the endangered language protection, and raised people's awareness to endanger languages issues. At the same time, building some database to keep and record the language materials is very essential. Besides, we can also build up the minority culture base, endangered language reserve to protect the language use environment in order to create good conditions for the existence of the endangered languages.

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Automated Versus Human Essay Scoring: A Comparative Study

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Abstract—This study investigated the effects of automated essay scoring (AES) system on writing improvement of Iranian L2 learners. About 60 Iranian intermediate EFL learners were selected on a Standard English proficiency test (Allen 2004). Afterwards, they were randomly assigned to two groups of 30, experimental and control group. Participants in experimental group received the AES scoring, and control group, received the human scoring. Statistical analyses of the results reveal that 1) AES tool results in significant improvement of L2 learners writing achievement, 2) Results from questionnaire show that Students ware favor about using AES tool, 3) The results from the current study support the conclusion that the AES tool does not seem to correlate well with human raters in scoring essays. Hence, the findings of this study indicate that using AES tools can help teachers ease their big teaching students to improve their writing and it can be used as an educational tool on classrooms.

Index Terms—automate essay scoring (AES), human scoring, correlation, validity, reliability

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is one of the most important skills that students need to develop, and the ability to teach writing is central to the proficiency of a well-trained language teacher (Hyland, 2003).

New technologies have played an important role in the teaching of writing; writing teachers are often faced with these technologies. Writing always needs some kinds of application of technology, whether pencil, typewriter, or printing press, and each innovation involves new skills applied in new ways (Lankshear & Snyder, 2000).

An effective teacher could make the best decisions about methods, materials, and procedures used in classroom. New technologies offer opportunities for learners to engage with the creative process of construction and for teachers to help them to make their writing processes more effective. Technology is not a method but a resource which can support a variety of approaches (Warschauer, 2002). Using technology can change student writing behaviors. According to Warschauer and Kern (2000), the use of computers in language teaching reflects a move from structural through cognitive to sociocognitive orientations to teaching.

Writing assessment and providing feedback to students is often seen as one of the teachers' most important tasks. Feedbacks allow students to see how others respond to their work and to learn from the responses. Assessment is not simply a matter of setting exams and giving grades. Scores and evaluative feedback contribute enormously to the development of an effective and responsive writing course. In recent years, computers have opened up new opportunities for providing feedback to writing and it offers teachers greater flexibility in education.

Computerized feedback has been researched in studies as an alternative for enhancing the effectiveness of feedback. Researchers have found problems with the quality of feedback given by teachers; because of lack of time and large classes, teachers sometimes fail to give timely and precise feedback. In spite of the ample positive effects of feedback, these issues can critically and seriously limit the benefits of feedback. Understanding this problem, researchers and educators began to pay serious attention to the automated essay scoring system because of its potential as a mechanism for consistent and prompt feedback and essay grading.

Automated essay scoring (AES) is the ability of computer technology to evaluate and score written prose (Shermis & Burstein, 2006). With the advent of new technologies, AES systems were developed to assist teachers' classroom assessment and to help overcome time, cost, reliability, and generalizability issues in writing assessment.

The research on AES has revealed that computers have the capacity to function as a more effective cognitive tool (Attali, 2004). However, responding to student papers can be a burden for teachers. Particularly if they have large number of students and if they assign frequent writing assignments, providing individual feedback to student essays might be quite time consuming. AES systems can be very useful because they can provide the student with a score as well as feedback within seconds (Page, 2003). Previous research studies have demonstrated that a high score agreement

rate could be achieved between human raters and automated scoring systems (Kukich 2000; Attali & Burstein 2006; Ben-Simon & Bennett 2007).

The present study examined the relationship between AES and human scoring in order to determine usefulness of AES for writing assessment.

II. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Automated essay scoring (AES) is defined as the computer technology that evaluates and scores written works (Shermis& Burstein 2003).

AES appears with different titles like automated essay evaluation, automated writing evaluation, automated essay grading, automated essay assessments and automated writing scoring.

AES offers many advantages as increasing scoring consistency, introducing varied high-stakes assessments, reducing processing time and keeping the meaning of "Standardization" by applying the same criteria to all the answers.

These systems have some disadvantages like extracting variables that are not important in evaluation operation, the lack of personal relationship between students and evaluators (Hamp-Lyons 2001) and the need for a large corpus of sample text to train the AES model (Chung & O'Neil 1997).

Research in the field of automated essay scoring began in the early 1960s (Page, 1994). Burstein states that Educational Testing Service (ETS) has been conducting research in writing assessment since 1947. ETS administered the Naval Academy English Examination and the Foreign Service Examination as early as 1948 (Educational Testing Service, 1949-1950), and the Advanced Placement (AP) essay exam was administered in the spring of 1956. Some of the earliest research in writing assessment laid the foundation for holistic scoring a scoring methodology used currently by ETS for large-scale writing assessments (see Coward, 1950 and Huddleston, 1952).

Attali, Bridgeman and, Trapani (2010) stated that essay writing assessments are often favored over measures that assess student s knowledge of writing conventions, because they require students to produce a sample of writing and as such are more "direct." However, a drawback of essay writing assessments is that their evaluation requires a significant and time-consuming effort. These difficulties have led to a growing interest in the application of automated natural language processing techniques for the development of automated essay scoring (AES) as an alternative to human scoring of essays. Even basic computer functions, i.e. word processing, have been of great assistance to writers in modifying their essays.

AES affords the possibility of finer control in measuring the writing construct (Bennett, 2004).

The research on AES has revealed that computers have the capacity to function as a more effective cognitive tool (Attali, 2004).

There are several different types of AES systems widely used by testing companies, universities, and public schools, Dikli (2006) discussed the following systems: Project Essay Grader™ (PEG), Intelligent Essay Assessor™ (IEA), CriterionSM, e-rater®, IntelliMetric™, MY Access® and BETSY.

According to Shermis, Burstein, Higgins and Zechner (2010), three major automated essay scoring were developed. The Educational Testing Service (ETS) has *e-rater*® which is a component of *Criterion^{SM}*, Vantage Learning has developed *Intellimetric™* which is also part of an electronic portfolio administration system called *MyAccess!^{TM}* and Finally, Pearson Knowledge Technologies supports the *Intelligent Essay Assessor™* which is used by a variety of proprietary electronic portfolio systems. As they stated that "all AES engines have obtained exact agreements with humans as high as the mid-80 and adjacent agreements in the mid-high 90's--slightly higher than the agreement coefficients for trained human raters".

According to Bennet and Ben-Simon (2005), "automated essay scoring has the potential to reduce processing cost, speed up the reporting of results, and improve the consistency of grading". As they stated the National Commission has recognized the potential value of this technology on Writing in Americas schools and colleges, with recommends research and development of AES system for standardized tests (National Commission on Writing, 2003, pp. 30-31).

This study, therefore, sought answer to the following questions:
1. Is there any correlation between scores assigned by AES tool and scores assigned by human raters?
2. What are learner's attitudes toward AES tool?
3. Does automated scoring using AES tool result in significant improvement of L2 learners writing achievement?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study, selected through random sampling, consisted of 60 intermediate EFL learners majoring in English teaching at Shahrekord Azad University. The participants were classified into two groups after administrating the Oxford Placement Test (OPT): group one as the experimental and the other one as the control group. The experimental group, including 30 participants, received electronic scoring and the control group, including 30 participants, received human scoring.

B. Materials

In this study, four types of materials were used

1. The Oxford Placement Test (OPT) developed by Allen (2004). According to the scoring guidelines by Allen (2004), the scores among 60-75 were considered as the intermediate level.

2. The Electronic writing rater Whitesmoke^{TM} is one of the qualities writing enhancement software that using Artificial intelligence technology (AI) Natural Language Processing (NLP); it can correct errors that commonly occur in the natural flow of writing.. Whitesmoke^{TM} has some feature as below:

- Comprehensive checkers for grammar, spelling, punctuation, structure and style
- Translation of full texts
- Multi-lingual dictionary
- Artificial intelligence technology(AI)
- Templates on various writing styles for business letters, resumes, finance writing, greetings, etc.

3. Writing quality assessment checklist

In this study to reduce scorer errors and attend reliability and validity of the scores given to each paper, for scoring the students' papers, Roebuck's Analytic scoring Rubrics, modified by Maftoon & Rabiee (2006) as a writing assessment check list were used.

4. Questionnaire for learner interviews

In this study, one questionnaire was administered by researcher to indicate students' attitudes towards receiving AES tool. A group of students that received AES tool participated in this part. The questionnaires were ten questions consisted of two open-ended and eight Likert-scaled questions.

C. Procedure

This study was conducted with 60 intermediate EFL learners in Shahrekord Azad University. To collect the data, first, a multiple-choice proficiency test, (i.e., OPT developed by Allen, 2004) was administered. According to the scoring guidelines by Allen (2004), those whose scores in the test were among 60-75 were considered as the intermediate-level participants of this study [1]. The results showed the homogeneity of the juniors who were classified into two groups: Experimental Group and Control Group. The experimental groups ($n = 3o$) received the AES scoring, the control group ($n = 30$), received the human scoring. After receiving OPT exam both group have pretest - They were given a pretest in order to check their writing homogeneity. It was an essay writing task scored by two experienced teachers - , three writing tasks and a posttest all in five sessions, both group had the five topics same as writing prompts in the same genre. The time for writing an essay was 45-60 minutes. In the last session, the juniors on experimental group had a questionnaire to express their feeling and experiences with AES tool. The questionnaires had 2 open- ended and eight likret- scale questions. They had 5-10 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

IV. RESULTS

1. First research question: Pearson correlation coefficient test was selected for determining the correlations between AES tools and human scoring. The results of the correlational analyses indicated that there was no statistically significant correlation between Whitesmoke™ and human scoring ($r = 0.121$). As seen in Table 4.6 there is no relationship between AES tool and human rater.

TABLE-1
THE RESULTS OF CORRELATIONAL MEASUREMENT

Result	N	sig	r
	30	0.522	0.121

2. Second research question: One sample T-Tests was used for analysis of the questionnaire; it compared the means between groups. As can be seen in the following tables students' were ensured about software scores. In general, the mean of all questions can be concluded that students were favor to use AES tools.

TABLE -2
ONE-SAMPLE STATISTICS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
S1	30	2.6667	1.47001	.26839
S2	30	3.4000	.96847	.17682
S3	30	3.1333	1.00801	.18404
S4	30	3.3000	.91539	.16713
S5	30	3.0000	.98261	.17940
S6	30	3.3333	.92227	.16838
S7	30	3.2667	.98027	.17897
S8	30	3.1333	1.19578	.21832

TABLE -3
ONE-SAMPLE STATISTICS

N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
30	3.1542	.71142	.12989

TABLE – 4
ONE-SAMPLE TEST

Test Value = 3			
t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
1.187	29	.245	.15417

TABLE-5
ONE-SAMPLE TEST

	Test Value = 3			
	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
S1	-1.242	29	.224	-.33333
S2	2.262	29	.031	.40000
S3	.724	29	.475	.13333
S4	1.795	29	.083	.30000
S5	.000	29	1.000	.00000
S6	1.980	29	.057	.33333
S7	1.490	29	.147	.26667
S8	.611	29	.546	.13333

3. Third research question: As seen in Table 8 the two-tailed P value is less than 0.0001 by conventional criteria, this difference is considered to be extremely statistically significant. We can see the improvement of AES group scores in contrast of human scoring group.   The AES evaluation such as teacher behavior and it concluded that AES can affect students' writing.

TABLE-6
GROUP STATISTICS

	N	MEAN	STD. DEVIATION	STD. ERROR MEAN
EXPERIENCED TEACHER	30	52.1917	11.50650	2.10079
AES TOOL	30	49.8000	5.79179	1.05743

TABLE-7
GROUP STATISTICS OF AES AND HUMAN RATER POSTTEST

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Posttest AES	30	61.17	7.00	1.28
Human rater	30	49.1667	9.2656	1.6917

TABLE-8
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES t TEST FOR THE JUNIORS POSTTEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	15.548	.000	5.6591	58	0.0001	-12.0000	2.120	-16.2446	-7.7554
Equal variances not assumed			5.6591	49.1667	0.0001	-12.0000	2.120	-16.2446	-7.7554

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to consider the relationship between automated essay scoring (AES) and human scoring in order to determine the usefulness of AES for assessment writing tests in large community. This study was conducted with 60 intermediate EFL learners majoring in English teaching at Shahrekord Islamic Azad University in the second semester of the academic year 2011-2012.

A correlational research design was used to answer the first research question; correlations between AES performance and human raters' performance were examined. For answer to the second research question a questionnaire were prepared. Third research question were analyzed by using independent t test. This study produced a number of key findings in relation to the aim of the survey.

Results based on the correlational data analyses showed no statistically significant correlation between Whitesmoke^{TM} scoring and human scoring in terms of overall holistic scores. This finding did not corroborate most previous studies conducted AES systems, which reported strong correlations between AES and human scoring for overall ratings [14]. But it has some exceptions, like Wang and Brown studies (2007& 2008). In the next section the finding of the study correlated with each of the three research questions presented above.

To address the first research question, the following null hypothesis was tested:

H_{01}: There is no correlation between scores assigned by AES tool and scores assigned by human raters.

The first null hypothesis was not rejected. To evaluate this null hypothesis, Pearson correlation coefficient test was conducted.

Results based on the correlational data analyses showed no statistically significant correlation between Whitesmoke^{TM} scoring and human scoring in terms of overall holistic scores (n= 30, r = 0.121).

On the whole, the results from the current study support the conclusion that Whitesmoke^{TM} did not seem to correlate well with human raters in scoring essays these results may be attributed to the following factors:

1. Most of AES tools were designed for English language and its features. As mentioned on literature review, most studies conducted by AES tools were validation studies, which had split the pool of student writing samples from the same student population into two groups, using one group to build the scoring model and the other group as a validation data set. This means the scoring model built by the writing samples drawn from the same student population as the validation set might have extracted writing features idiosyncratic to the particular student population. Therefore, the scoring model could score the validation set with relatively high accuracy, but it is questionable whether its application is generalizable to other student populations who receive different writing instruction and have different writing experiences. It also true about Whitesmoke$^{TM;}$ AES tools didn't examined in Iran educational systems until now.

2. In the current study, Whitesmoke^{TM} scoring have not a significant correlation with human scoring, so it is possible that automated essay scoring tools tend to be more accurate in evaluating surface features of writing samples at the sentence level. In contrast, human raters are trained to regard surface features as one of the five dimensions of writing; they may not have weighted surface features as heavily as did AES tools. More importantly, human raters emphasize meaning-making and communicative contexts, which AES tools may still be incapable of identifying and evaluating. In many counties the interest in adopting AES tools increases, and as the development of AES technologies undergoes rapid changes, they still hold a promising future for writing assessment programs; therefore, continuous research and investigation in the validity and generalizability of the AES tools are inevitable. Also in Iran this studies is required.

Another research question was that what are learner's attitudes toward AES?

Most prior AES research fold into two categories -- the technical features of natural language processing (NLP), and reliability studies based on comparing human graders with a AES program rather than on students' attitudes and responses to and experiences with automated essay scorers. As mentioned before the questionnaire was used to look at the basic attitudes and opinions of the group of participant that scored their essay by AES tool, this questionnaire could be helpful for future studies. Structured questionnaire just for AES group, it was associated with the context of their essay writing class that use AES tool as scorer. The main reason of collect questionnaire was to analyze the feedback of a new method of scoring in Iran, IELTS and TOFFLE institutes' uses computer to score, but using AES tool for improving writing is not common in Ministry of Education, and educational organization. Researcher must found feedback of this new method for further programming.

As seen in results, analyzing the questionnaire indicated that students were ensured about AES values and feedbacks, and they were like to accept this method.

It should be indicated that during survey participants were enthusiasm about this method but using technology for them in class was a little strange and unusual. In summary analyzes questionnaire showed, the chief benefits of AES in the classroom include increased motivation for students and easier classroom management for teachers. The main point to bear in mind is that such automated systems do not replace good teaching but should instead be used to support it. This is particularly so with the instruction of weaker students, who may lack the requisite language and literacy skills to make effective use of automated feedback. To matching students with this method, at first they must learn to use technology as a way to improve their weakness' of learning, after that they found necessity of AES, they need to learn write for a variety of audiences, including not only computer scoring engines, but peers, teachers, and interlocutors outside the classroom, it could help them to improve writing.

The third research question was does automated scoring using AES tool result in significant improvement of learner's writing achievement?

H_{02}: AES does not result in significant improvement of learner's writing achievement.

The second null hypothesis was rejected. The results showed the effect of AES on improvement students essay writing (t =1.017, df = 58, P <0.05). The AES evaluation behaved such as teacher, and it concluded that AES can affect students' writing. It was revealed that the use of AES benefited the students in writing essays. In this stage the interreliability of teacher scoring was as independent factor and essay writings were as dependent factor. The results indicated that AES could score like teachers and could use in class for assessment essay writing. A comparison of mean scores of posttests in AES group and human scoring group, displays that the mean scores of the AES group has an increase of scores in contrast of human scoring group posttest(AES posttest : 61.17, human scoring: 49.1667) . It revealed that the students in the AES group wrote better essays in comparison with the students in human scoring group and it showed the role of AES to improvement of writing achievement.

The finding of the present study can lead to several important conclusions. The most important one is that computers could be useful in helping teachers ease their big teaching loads in some way and this method could help students to improve their writing.

This study also has helped, to believe that automated essay scoring could be use as an education tools in classes.

Based on the results of the study, writing teachers need to be equipped with more recent developments in the field of e- rating. They should be aware of new methods of teaching writing to lead student to creativity in writing. Good writing skills are increasingly seen as vital to equip learners for success in this century. The ability to communicate ideas and information effectively through the global digital network is crucially dependent on good writing skills.

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The Character Cracked: *The Waves* and Woolf's New Way of Characterization

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Abstract—The publishing of *The Waves* can be viewed as the climax Woolf's writing career, for this work could best represent her rebellion against conventional novel's poetics. Its unique form, of which the unique way of characterization is a crucial element, has almost completely overturned that of traditional novel thus aroused considerable debate. Combining close textural study with in-depth research into its relation with English literary tradition and its modern background, this thesis will try to present a full view of Woolf's brand new way of characterization demonstrated in this work yet already implied in her previous books.

Index Terms—Virginia Woolf, *The Waves*, characterization, motif-character

I. INTRODUCTION

Being one of the most innovative and influential novelist of last century, Virginia Woolf's entire publishing career can be described as an ever-regenerating creative process. By resetting the subject matter of the novel and constantly experimenting with its form, she finally ascends to that conspicuous height from which she can penetrate into life's flesh and fabric. Having long been viewed as a paradigm piece of modern literature, *The Waves*, her latest complete work, can best demonstrate this innovative spirit of Woolf's. It literally possesses no plot; therefore it almost seems an impossible task to provide an outline of its content. There are six main characters in this book, but they feel no warmth of real human beings. Actually each of these characters represents one unique perspective of life, and the all six of them point up the main body of this work, which mainly consists of their observations or meditations on the meaning of human existence, self-identity, the truths of personal as well as collective human life, etc.. It meets all requirements of Roland Bartes' *le texte de jouissance*, not all because of its notorious difficulty, but also because it challenges our various cherished conventions and so compels us to reexamine them.

But not everyone can appreciate this kind of *jouissance,* as many people failed to taste the intended sweetness after the bitterness accompanying their first bite. From its first publishing, its unique form, especially its brand new way of characterization, its absence of plot, and its poetic style, has aroused much confusion or even contempt among some of its readers. Such confusion not only came from amateur readers, whose reaction was natural enough; but it was also uttered by a few prominent writers or critics such as Arnold Bennett and E. M. Forster. The main concern of this thesis is to dispel such confusion or puzzle resulted from the unique quality of this work's artistic features. Because of the limited space, it will focus on only one aspect of them, namely, its distinctive way of characterization. By comparing Woolf way of characterization demonstrated in this work yet evolving from the start of her career with that of conventional novel, we can get an all-dimensional view of its strangeness. By revealing its functioning mechanism from the inside and placing it into the developing process of English novel, it can be expected that its exquisite inner glamour and significance for the literary tradition could get fully recognized.

II. THE DISSOLUTION OF CONVENTIONAL CHARACTER

In *Le Plaisir du Texte*, Roland Barthes distinguishes two kinds of literary text: *le texte de plaisir* and *le texte de jouissance*. By confirming readers' notions of literary coherence and significance, the *texte de plaisir* brings them seeming pleasure. In contrast, by disrupting literary conventions, the *texte de jouissance* will cause shock or misery on the readers' side. But right because of such shock or misery, the latter kind of text should be cherished. Through such shock or misery, it compels readers to reconsider or question the various literary conventions that are hitherto invisible. As it is mentioned above, *The Waves* certainly belongs to this kind of text. With its disruption of those cherished conventions of novel, it has brought considerable *jouissance* to many readers. Among such disrupted conventions of novel, characterization is certainly one of the most foundational, thus resulting in considerable dissatisfaction. Once commenting on Woolf's characterization, Bennet (1975) says:

The foundation of good fiction is character creating, and nothing else. The characters must be so fully true that they possess even their creator. [...] I think that we have today a number of young novelists who display all manner of good qualities—originality of view, ingenuity of presentation, sound common sense, and even style. But they appear to me to be more interested in details than in the full creation of their characters. [...] they attach too much weight to cleverness, which is perhaps the lowest of all artistic qualities.

E. M. Forster (1974) displays a similar view on this subject:

She could seldom so portray a character that is was remembered afterwards on its own account, as Emma is remembered, for instance, or Dorothea Casaubon, or Sophia and Constance in The Old Wives' Tale.

Because Woolf's characters are often lifted out of their social-economical conditions, Forster (1974) thinks that they lack life eternal. "The problem's center for Woolf," Forster comments, "is can he create character?" From these words, we can see both Bennett and Forster don't rank Woolf' characterization high and think it fails to meet conventional standards of successful characterization.

Here some words must be said on conventional characterization. Approximately, there are two means through which conventional characterization is accomplished. The characters either emerge from a chronological account of events, or from a static description of their personal features and their situation. Sometimes a character first appears as mystic, indeterminate figure, but after experiencing with him a series of events, we can finally deduce his personality. In other cases an initial static portrait of a character is produced while certain expectations of him are set. Then based on his violation or confirmation in time of such expectations, readers can get a complete idea of his personality. Some writers may prefer one of the two ways to another, but in most cases they are employed in combination. Jane Austin's characterization of Emma, the character successfully rendered in Bennett and Forster's opinion, can be approached in these two directions. Right at the beginning of the first chapter of *Emma*, we can see a static description of Emma's disposition, social-economical situation, family relationships, etc. is given. Yet it is only an initial portrait and Emma at this point is not yet "fully true", to use Bennett's words. More colors are waiting to be added to this initial portrait when Emma is put in relations with Harriet Smith, Jane Fairfax, Mr. Elton, Mr. Knightly and others.

So much has been said about conventional characterization, now if we turn to that of The Waves, the contrast can't be sharper. This work consists of nine chapters, every one of which is preceded by a short prelude in italics. These preludes are completely devoted to a description of the sun, the sea, and the garden, which bears no direct significance on the characters' experience. Apart from these preludes, the nine chapters are uniformly composed of direct interior monologues of the six main characters. Therefore there is no space left for an omniscient narrator's direct, static description of the initial conditions of the characters. Information about the colors of their eyes, their dispositions, and their class can be obtained in nowhere. So at least we can see the first way of conventional characterization has been abolished. As the preludes are all about the indifferent natural world, events and actions can't be detected there; as for the interior monologues, the very name by which we address them implies that they are more concerned with elements of the characters' inner life than the actual actions or events of the outside world. It is an undeniable fact that in Woolf's previous works, such as *Mrs. Dalloway* and *To the Lighthouse*, readers could salvage some broken pieces of the characters' living experience here and there from their consciousness. But in this work, such expectation on the readers' side is doomed from the start, for all the direct inner monologues making up the main body of this work refer rarely to the material world. Therefore the other way of conventional characterization also has no space to breathe in this work. When characters are robbed of their appearance and experience, what will become of them?! Having completely abandoned conventional means of characterization, how can Woolf breathe life into her characters?

III.   FROM CHARACTER TO MOTIF-CHARACTER

"Motif" is a term usually employed in analysis of poetry or music. A motif can be approached as one of the sub-themes of a poem, through the interplay of which the overall theme of the poem is constructed. Borrowing it to our discussion of character, we mean by *motif-character* a new kind of character which equals a single quality or an element of conventional 'round' characters. In context of our analysis of *The Waves,* we designate this name to its characters because all the six main characters are rendered in such a way that each of them represents one angle of human perception, as Leonard Woolf (1957) reveals:

[Virginia Woolf] wanted to take six persons, intimate friends, all different, and show their relations to the fundamental things in human existence: friendship, love, life, and death. At the same time [...] she wanted to show that these six persons were several facets of a single complete person.

So the six characters represent six perspectives through which life is grasped. One must notice that not all Woolf's characters can be addressed as motif-character. Though almost all her characters in her mature works have attained a sense of abstractness as a result of Woolf's reluctance to reproduce actualities of life, only in The Waves her characters achieve that kind of purity so that they can be designated this name. Characters such as Mrs. Dalloway in *Mrs. Dalloway* and Mrs. Ramsay in *To the Lighthouse* are also revealed through their consciousness, but what concerns their mind is varied and rich, and their perception is multi-directed. In contrast, in *The Waves,* the singleness, or purity of its characters' perception is maintained from the beginning to the end.

However, a further question is raised right by such singleness or purity of the motif-characters: how should we approach them? Addressing character, Henry James (2003, P. 501) uttered his famous comment: "what is character but the determination of incident? What is incident but the illustration of character?" Conventionally, one major way to approach character is through actions. But this approach will certainly not do with our motif-characters, for, as it has made clear previously, they are not represented through their actions. Yet a useful analogy can be drawn from Henry James's comment: what is motif-character but the determination of perception; what is perception but the illustration of motif-character? So the motif-characters can be approached through their respective quality of perception, through the

unique texture of their mind. Critics have noticed that there are three fundamental questions constantly engaging Woolf's characters' mind. The first one is an ontological question about self-identity, as it has been put forward by Bernard in *The Waves*: Who am I? The second question is about human cognition, about the possibility to lay hands on ultimate truths of life, just as Bernard wants to get the "true story" of life in *The Waves*, or Mr. Ramsay tries to reach "R" of the alphabet in *To the Lighthouse*. The third question concerns ethical values, or the fundamental meaning of life, as Lily Briscoe in *To the Lighthouse* asks: what is the meaning of life? This summary is concise enough, but it can be further refined. In fact, question one and three are already contained in question two. One's self, that wedged-shaped core of darkness, can be defined by the way he approaches life; also the meaning of existence should be found in human endeavors to resolve the irresolvable, to grasp the ungraspable. A tinge of Hegel's Master-slave dialectics can be detected here: just as the slave, by reforming nature, finally manages to assert his identity as master and attain the meaning of his existence, the motif-characters, through their respective endeavors to define life, defines their own self-identity and attain their own meaning of life.

From what has been said above, an effective way to define the motif-characters is to see how they define life. In *The Waves*, life's indifferent presence can be felt all throughout, of which the universe presented in the nine preludes, is the perfect embodiment. The nine preludes preceding each chapter have long caught critics' attention. As they uniformly concern themselves with the sun, the sea and the garden, and bear no immediate significance to the characters experience, many efforts have been devoted to explore the relation between the two. Numerous essays are trying to testify an analogous correspondence between the universe in these preludes and the characters' experience. Such correspondence sounds reasonable enough, but indulging themselves in their ecstasy about this finding, critics often neglect another important function of these preludes: with the indifferent universe presented in these preludes looming eternally in the background of the characters' endeavors, a tension bearing profound formal and thematic significance is created. One familiar with Woolf's works should not feel strange about this arrangement. It reminds one of the strikes of Big Ben in *Mrs. Dalloway* and the *Time Passage* part in *To the Lighthouse*; only here it appears much more compelling. As the threatening, indifferent figure of nature has been set up, the characters all set out to penetrate it from their own individual perspective. The unique quality of each character's perspective is his/her motif. The motif of Bernard is language; Neville intellect; Louis commerce; Rhoda fantasy; Susan maternity; and Jinny sensuality.

Bernard believes in the power of words, phrases and stories, and accordingly he approaches life by forging words, making up phrases, and telling stories. Even as a child, Bernard begins to feel the pressure of life's indifference, as he recalls: "[…] when I was a child, the pressure of an enemy had asserted itself; the need for opposition had stung me (*The Waves*, P. 152)." From then on, he keeps felling this pressure, feeling that "disorder, solidity and corruption surround us" (P. 165). The weapon he takes up to fight against that enemy is words, phrases and stories. On every crucial point of his life whenever he needs help, he relies on the power of them. In the mystic garden of his early childhood, story-telling is the means by which he consoles Susan, as he believes that "[…] words, moving darkly in the depth of your mind, will break up this knot of hardness in your (Susan's) hanker-chief (P. 7)." Later, when he and the other five children are leaving home for school in London, words, phrases and stories are the means by which he can restrain himself from crying, as he thinks that he "must make phrases and phrase and so interpose something hard myself and the housemaids, the stare of clocks, staring faces, indifferent faces, or I shall cry (P. 16)." At school, Bernard becomes more and more aware of his talent in handing words or making stories, and he begins to record his observation of life in his mind's notebook:

"*I note the fact for future reference with many others in my notebook. When I am grown up I shall carry a notebook-a fat book with many pages, methodically lettered. I shall enter my phrases. Under B shall come 'butterfly powder' (P. 19).*"

When he is telling stories, he is mostly at ease:

"*Let me talk. The bubbles are rising like the silver bubbles from the floor of a saucepan; image on top of image. […] I must open the little trap door and let out these linked phrases in which I run together whatever happens, so that instead of incoherence there is perceived a wandering thread, lightly joining one thing to another (P. 26)*"

Numerous more examples can be drawn to testify words, phrases, and stories as Bernard means to grasp life, but there is no need to add more. In sum, they serve three basic functions for Bernard: as the means of cognition, as the source of life's meaning, and as the vital element of his self-identity. He once explicitly declares: "I am a natural coiner of words, a blower of bubbles through one thing and another (P. 35)." Therefore, we say the motif of Bernard is language.

IV. MOTIF-CHARACTER AND WOOLF'S NEW ARTISTIC VISION

Literary masterpieces are not isolated islands; rather they are always integral parts of the whole literary tradition. If a single literary piece is only a single utterance among many others making up the literary tradition, then it is not enough to only focus on its *constative* significance, to use a linguistic term, its *performative* significance must be taken into account, too. By constative significance we mean the significance of a literary work observed in isolation, while by performative significance we mean significance of this work understood in relation to other works inside the literary tradition. In our present attempts to fully appreciate the splendors of this work's characterization, it is inadequate to only concentrate our discussion on its internal qualities; instead, to make our study complete, it is more than necessary

to examine how it is related to conventional English novel's characterization. Generally, the relation of this work's characterization to that of conventional novel can be described more as rebelling than as inheriting. This rebelliousness is mainly manifested in two levels, namely the level of artistic vision and the level of artistic expression. The former is rebellion on mind, while the latter is rebellion on paper.

One of the main functions of art is to provide people new perspectives of life. Absorbed in their daily concerns, people's perception becomes to a great extent *automatized* or *habitualized*, so they fail to grasp life's freshness. Art, by providing new angles and adjusting the viewing distance, can regenerate our mode of perception from the automatic or habitual to the innovative or the artistic. Shklovsky (1986) makes this quite clear in his influential article *Art as Technique*:

The technique of art is to make objects 'unfamiliar', to make forms different to increase the difficulty and length of perception, because the process of perception is an aesthetic end in itself and must be prolonged. Art is a way of experiencing the artfulness of an object [...].

For Virginia Woolf, the main reason why she chooses to rebel against conventional novel is right because she feels conventional novel has lost this power to refine perception.

The conventional novel Woolf set out to write against is the 19th century realistic and naturalistic novel. Her most explicit attack on these two schools comes in her essay *Modern Fiction*. In this essay she calls the three representative figures of contemporary realistic and naturalistic schools, namely Wells, Bennet, and Galsworthy, 'materialists'. She (Woolf, 1984) means by this term that works of these three, with their main body devoted to represent the superficial details of life, fail to grasp its essentials:

So much of the enormous labor of proving the solidity, the likeness to life, of the story is not merely labor thrown away but labor misplaced to the extent of obscuring and blotting out the light of the conception. The writer seems constrained, not by his own free will but by some powerful and unscrupulous tyrant who has him in thrall, to provide a plot, to provide comedy, tragedy, love interest, and an air of probability embalming the whole so impeccable that if all his figures were to come to life they would find themselves dressed down to the last button of their coats in the fashion of the hour. The tyrant is obeyed; the novel is done to a turn. But sometimes, more and more often as time goes by, we suspect a momentary doubt, a spasm of rebellion, as the pages fill themselves in the customary way. Is life like this? Must novels be like this?

Here Woolf is criticizing the representational quality of her contemporaries' novel. The text of such novel is amassed with numerous trivial details of characters and their material surroundings, to ensure the resemblance of the fictional world to the real world; and its characters are always busily engaged in their comic or tragic worldly pursuits to carry out the novel's didactic function. Novel as such focuses only on the surface of life, seldom looking within to grasp its meaning in depth. Woolf's criticism of conventional novel here reminds one of Plato's criticisms of imitative poetry in *Republic*. In the example provided by Plato (2003), a carpenter makes a bed in imitation of its ideal; a poet portray a bed in imitation of the bed made by the carpenter; so the poet's bed is an imitation of imitation, therefore "thrice from truth". Applying this criticism of Plato's on imitative poetry to novel of the realistic or naturalistic school, we can find it is rather fitting. The realists or the naturalists lay enormous efforts to make the world portrayed in their works seem real or natural, to ensure their *verisimilitude*, but as such efforts are only concentrated on the material surface, their works are also far from truth. For Woolf, such old conventions of novel are like a tyrant, in obeisance to which novel loses its capacity to grasp life. Nietzsche, in his *Birth of Tragedy*, attributes the downfall of Greek tragedy to its abandonment of the Dionysian impulses in submission to the restrictive Apollonian conventions. Woolf, in this essay of hers, has sensed a similar risk faced by English novel, as its body is burdened with rotten conventions while its grasp on life is loosening. Now the need for change and revolution is more than urgent.

As conventional novel's mode of perception has become stale, a new mode must be introduced. In the same essay, Woolf (1984, P. 149) proposed her new mode of perception:

Look within and life, it seems, is very far from being "like this". Examine for a moment an ordinary mind on an ordinary day. The mind receives myriad impressions—trivial, fantastic, evanescent, or engraved with the sharpness of steel. From all sides they come, an incessant shower of innumerable atoms; and as they fall, as they shape themselves into the life of Monday or Tuesday, the accent falls differently from of old; the moment of importance came not here but there; so that, if a writer were a free man and not a slave, if he could write what he chose, not what he must, if he could base his work upon his own feeling and not upon convention, there would be no plot, no comedy, no tragedy, no love interest or catastrophe in the accepted style, and perhaps not a single button sewn on as the Bond Street tailors would have it. Life is not a series of gig lamps symmetrically arranged; life is a luminous halo, a semi-transparent envelope surrounding us from the beginning of consciousness to the end. Is it not the task of the novelist to convey this varying, this unknown and uncircumcised spirit, whatever aberration or complexity it may display, with as little mixture of the alien and external as possible?

From this short passage above, we can see the new mode of perception proposed by Woolf is sharply different from the old one on its object, its means, and its aims. Speaking of its object, this new mode of perception has shifted its focus from the outside to the inside, from the material world to human consciousness. Later in this essay, Woolf explicitly points out that the point of interest for the moderns now lies very likely in the dark place of human psychology. If a realist or a naturalist usually focuses on a character's appearance and experience, the modern novelist

would directly examine the texture of his mind, exploring the myriad impressions she has received on an ordinary day. Then, about the means of this new artistic vision, one can see it relies on the combination of sense and sensibility. On one hand it relies on human sensibility to receive the colors, scents, sounds, etc. of the outside world, to form various impressions of existence. Such impressions are various, private, and highly individual, a perfect example of which is the rich sensations triggered by a piece of sugar or music in the protagonist mind in Proust's *Remembrance of the Things Past*. But only this receptive sensibility is not enough. If so, the new novel would be only a passive accumulation of various impressions, reducing itself down to a kind of psychological naturalism. Therefore the new mode of perception must rely also on rational power to grant those impressions an aesthetic form, to grasp their significance. Finally, speaking of this its aim, this new mode of perception always involves itself in addressing fundamental questions of life. If conventional novel's characters' mind is engaged with questions about love, fortune, or honor, mind of Woolf's characters would be engaged with questions about life's essentials, such as "what's the meaning of life?", "Who am I?", "What is reality?"… For Woolf, modern novel should not concern itself only with the articles on life's surface, rather it should devote itself to rendering life the "luminous halo", the "semi-transparent envelope" clear, to providing justification for existence, and to grasping its fundamental truths.

This new mode of perception best manifests itself in *The Waves,* the work we are addressing. Except for the nine short preludes, the whole body of this work is devoted to explore the six main characters' consciousness, with the importance of the material world deduced to a minimum. The six characters represent six different perspectives of life. Through the characters' sensations, impressions, reveries, and their efforts to reach a synthesis of them, life is grasped. What concerns the characters as well as the whole work is the quest for the essential things, such as self-identity, human cognition, and meaning of life. *The Waves* can be understood as a paradigm of the mode of perception advocated by Woolf.

V.   Motif Character as New Mode of Artistic Expression

New mode of perception naturally results in new mode of artistic expression. On the surface, the change taking place on artistic vision seem parallel with the change taking place on artistic expression; the former is a change on mind, while the latter on paper, as we have mentioned previously. In depth, the two are actually one, for the latter change is nothing but the further development or manifestation of the former. Pondering over this relation between artistic vision and its representation draws us back to the old argument about the relation between "content" and "form". Modern literary criticism has long discarded the notorious idea of 'form' being only the tubes through which content flows through, or content being the substance hiding in the sugar-clothes of form. The origin of such idea can be traced back at least to Horace's (2003) *Art of Poetry*, in which he identifies the main advantage of poetry as to teach and delight. In his notion, the delighting elements or the formal features of poetry are in service to its teaching elements or its content. Nowadays, however, the unity of the two is widely acknowledged in literary criticism. Commenting on this subject, in *The Art of Fiction* Henry James (2003, P. 506) compares the relation between content and form to that between needle and thread, either of which cannot be separated from the other. He (Ibid., P. 509) adds latter: "the deepest quality of a work of art will always be the quality of the mind of the producer […]. His remark is explicitly relevant to our present discussion: the artistic quality of a modern novel will always be the quality of the modern novelist' mind, and the change of a modern novelist's mode of perception will always bring in new poetics of novel. In the case of Virginia Woolf, her new mode of perception first results in a new way of characterization.

In accordance with the new mode of perception she has proposed, Woolf's new way of characterization consists of three aspects. Firstly, characters in her works are purged of irrelevant details of their states in the material world, with the weight now put on their inner world. Woolf wants her novel to tell its readers little about the houses, incomes, occupations of its characters, and it will have little kinship with the sociological novel or the novel of environment. Its characterization will focus on the feelings, impressions, and reveries on its characters' mind, exploring "that large and important part of life consists in our emotions towards such things as roses and nightingales, the dawn, the sunset, life, death, and fate […] (Woolf, 1966)."

But only this shift from the outside to the inside is far less than enough, for the inside has to be managed and its elements have to be selected. A novelist must select from the multitude of his impressions and experiences those that bear most profound significance to his theme or his value of life, as Woolf (1966, P. 228) put it: "he will have extended the scope of his interest so as to dramatize some of those influences which play so large a part in life[…]" This aspect of selection in Woolf's characterization is extremely important, because it prevents her characterization from falling down into merely passive imitation of the mind, and distinguishes her from many other novelists whose interest lies also in human consciousness. It reminds one of the principles of selection in post-impressionism painting, whose relation to Woolf's poetics of novel is widely acknowledged. Of all Woolf's works, this second aspect of characterization manifests itself most explicitly in *The Waves*, as the six main characters are purified into six perspectives of life. They possess little "roundness" of conventional characters, and can even be described as rather "flat". But "roundness" or "likeness" should not be the sole standard to judge good characterization; instead, it should be judged in consideration of its efficiency to serve the overall concern of a work. For Woolf, the first and foremost concern of a work is to grasp essential meanings of life. Speaking of its service to the accomplishment of this aim, Woolf's characterization in *The Waves* is undoubtedly successful, as the characters' "flatness" enables their "sharpness", which cut deep into life like a

blade.

Thirdly, there is a formal contrast built among the characters, which enriches the variety of distance and angle of characterization. One of the finest examples of the formal contrast in question comes in the last chapter when Bernard is examining a willow tree in his mind. Focusing his mind's eye on this willow tree, he swiftly switches from one's perspective to another's to get his observation. By contrasting his perspective with that of other motif-characters, Bernard gets a more distinct picture of himself. On the readers' side, too, an additional picture of Bernard can be obtained by contrasting him to the others. This formal contrast built among the motif-characters is another way of characterization, in addition to the first way of characterization analyzed in the previous part. If in the first way the motif-characters are defined through their relation to life, in the present way they are defined through their relation to each other. By constantly contrasting their own perception of life with that of the others, they obtain a more accurate picture of themselves. But this formal contrast's bearing on characterization doesn't end here. From our analysis above, we can see in Bernard's mind portraits of the others are formed. In the same way, in every other motif-character's mind, such portraits of the others can also be obtained. So every motif-character's mind can be seen as a reservoir where information of the others is stored. If readers collect such fragmentary pieces of information of one motif-character from the others' minds and assemble them together, another picture of him can be obtained. Therefore it is reasonable to say a third way of characterization is implicit in the formal contrast in question. If "the foundation of good fiction is character creating", according to Arnold Bennet, now it is beyond any doubt that Woolf done a superb job to lay a sound foundation for this work of hers. In quite a different way, she enables her characters achieve a kind of "roundness" that can compete with any roundness achieved through conventional characterization. Each motif-character in *The Waves* is portrayed from three different angles, namely, from their relation to life, from their relation to each other, and indirectly from other one's minds. This multi-angle characterization grants Woolf's motif-characters a new "roundness" that enables them to appear no less vivid or lively than Austin's Emma or Dickens's David Copperfield.

VI.   AN APOLOGY FOR MOTIF-CHARACTER

In the beginning part of this thesis, we have mentioned that Woolf's new way of characterization has aroused considerable confusion either in common readers or professionals' part. Now towards the end, after much IN and OUT of the text, it's the most suitable time to finally dispel it.

The first question need to be answered in order to dispel charges against Woolf's characterization is: What is the standard against which the quality of an artifice is judged? Is it the "likeness" to life, the accumulation of details about people's appearance, marriage, family, occupation, class, fortune, love, etc.? Certainly not so. Reference to the real world should not be the sole criteria of good art; it exists somewhere else.

"Questions of art are questions of execution," as Henry James (2003, p. 503) puts it: "we must grant the artist his subject, his idea, his donneé; our criticism is applied only to what he makes it." "If we pretend to respect the artist at all," he adds: "we must allow him his freedom of choice, in the face, in particular cases, of innumerable presumptions that the choice will not fructify (ibid)." Applying this principle to the art of fiction, we should acknowledge that "the advantage, the luxury, as well as the torment and responsibility of the novelist, is that there is no limit to what he may attempt as an executants—no limit to his possible experiments, efforts, discoveries, successes"(Ibid). So technically, to achieve a certain aim, a novelist may have many choices at hand. A certain artistic effect can be created through different means, and a certain subject matter can be rendered in various ways. The means or the way chosen by a novelist should not be judged for their own sake, but by their "efficiency" or "usefulness" displayed in aiding the novelist to achieve his end.

It is absurd to range Woolf low, just because she doesn't favor the representational aspect of conventional novel, nor is it just to consider her characterization as a failure only because her characters possess little conventional "roundness". Successful characterization may be accomplished from the outside, by focusing on appearance and experience; or from the inside, by exploring the realm of impressions and reveries. Each way is lawful; neither is illegal. No one is privileged by birth. To see which is better, they have to be judged in reference to their contribution to the overall end of a work. In accomplishment of this overall end of a work, characters must work hand in hand with its other elements. E. M. Forster (1955) himself acknowledges this in *Aspects of the Novel*: "we are concerned with the characters in their relation […] to a plot, a moral, their fellow characters, atmosphere, etc. They will have to adapt themselves to other requirements of their creator."

So characterization itself is not the end, but one of the many means through which a novel accomplish its certain goal in general. Good characterization possesses no essential quality such as vividness or "roundness". It distinguishes itself by its "performance", its efficiency in helping the novelist accomplish his goal. This reminds us of the character of Percival in *The Waves*, whose value lies in his "supportiveness", his contribution to the interior structure of the whole work. Similarly, the virtue of the six main characters in this work lies not in their "likeness" to some real person on earth, but in their service to the overall goal of this work: to grasp the truth of being. Viewed from this perspective, their "flatness" is their bliss; it's the source of their perception' "sharpness". Judging from their resemblance to real human beings, they are indeed poorly rendered. But judging from their performance, their functioning, they are most artfully created. As Forster himself has identified this standard of judgment in his own study of novel, it is quite puzzling why he can't detect its perfect execution by Woolf in her works. Maybe it's just easier said than done, as the old saying goes.

New manner of artistic expression is always related to new form of artistic vision. As the charges against Woof's artistic expression have been answered, it's time to turn to those against her artistic vision. Here again a question has to be answered: are there some essential qualities by which the superiority of one artistic vision over that of another is judged? What is truth? What is reality? Is stirring a cradle reality, while meditating under the beams of the lighthouse not? Is one's vision, composed of impressions, moments, and patterns, necessarily inferior to that of another's, which consists of scenes and plots? Are one's concern over the War, the kings, and the living conditions of the working-class human, while another's concern, over self-identity, meaning of life, and the possibility of knowledge, naturally inhuman? Definitely not so. "Humanity is immense, and reality has a myriad of forms (James, 2003, P.499)." The War, the kings, and the living conditions of the working class, or the impressions, moments, and patterns, to quote Henry James (Ibid., 507) again, "they are all particles of the multitude life with which the novel deals", and "surely no dogma which pretends to make it lawful to touch the one and unlawful to touch the other will not stand for a moment on its feet". We agree with Woolf's (1984, P. 146) conviction that there is no "proper stuff" of fiction, and that "everything is the proper stuff of fiction, every feeling, every thought; every quality of brain is drawn upon; no perception come amiss". The superiority or inferiority of an artistic vision should be judged, as that of characterization is, also by its efficiency, its "usefulness" in perceiving life, by its potential to open new vistas of life.

But Woolf deserves more than an equal treatment; she deserves an exceptional treatment. In context of modern time, her artistic vision, compared with that of the realists' or the naturalists', is more capable of grasping life's meaning. A brief survey of the research on modernization carried out by Max Weber and Frankfurt School can testify this. As modernization brings in unprecedented material prosperity, it also brings in unprecedented spiritual famine. People in modern time are losing the sense of "organic" existence possessed by people of pre-industrial societies, and the sense of alienation becomes more and more acute. Modern problems go hand in hand with modernization. Such problems can be attributed to two fundamental ones: "the loss of meaning" and "the loss of freedom". By loss of meaning, we mean that when traditional ethical values and religious faiths are replaced by instrumental knowledge, modern people have lost their life's guidance. By loss of freedom, we mean that as subdivision of labor goes further and as instrumental rationality begins to dominate people's judgment, modern people are losing their freedom to make choice over their lives; their moves are more and more prescribed by those mechanical laws of their society, of which they are only extremely tiny, insignificant parts. An explicit symptom of such modern problem is that people now don't work, talk, behave, smile, etc. as they WANT TO, but as they ARE SURPPOSED TO; their actions, words, and expressions fail to represent their true states of mind. Turning back to our context, now we can see way Woolf's artistic vision is superior than that of the realists' or the naturalists'. If dialogues, actions, and other outward details now fail to reflect true stated of one's mind, why enormous efforts are still laid out to represent them? Why not turn to one's mind itself? Why not turn from the phantoms on the wall of the cave, to look squarely at the fire itself? If the realists or naturalists are marked by their loyalty to appearance and experience, then under modern conditions, such loyalty, once being the source of their glory, now inevitably turns into their undoing. For in modern time, thanks to division of labor and explosion of instrumental knowledge, individuals are robbed of their faces and features to be submerged into some functioning "class" or "group"; and their experience, if they must have some experience after all, is more of an experience of fragmentation and nihilism than that of willful action. If now both action and appearance are almost impossible, doesn't the realism, being loyal to them, turn into a kind of idealism? In contrast, does the modern fiction advocated by Woolf, which accepts this impossibility but is often accused of aestheticism or idealism, turns out to be much more realistic? Therefore, the modern novelist, to quote Woolf (1984, p.146), "has to have the courage to say that what interests him is no longer 'this' but 'that'; out of 'that' along must he construct his work". For the moderns, "that", the point of interest, lies very likely in the dark place of psychology.

VII. CONCLUSION

To sum up, in *The Waves* Woolf has granted a brand new form to her work, of which the characterization is certainly a major element. By transforming conventional character into *motif-character*, Woolf has done a profound contribution to the evolvement of English novel, making it a more suitable artistic form for the representation of modern life. Though unique and daring, the coming forth of such new means of artistic expression follows the natural logic of the novel's development. Even its relation to its previous conventions is more of rebelling than inheriting, they nevertheless serve as the base for such denial. More importantly, one should look into the in-depth motivation for such rebellion. After all, rebellion is not for its own sake. The change on artistic expression resulted from the change on a new generation's artistic vision, which in turn resulted from the change of man's living conditions under new circumstances. If art is the dazzling violet in May, one should not view it as a flouting blossom in the air; on the contrary, one must feel its roots deep in the rich, fertile earth that is everyday life and its age. *The Waves* and its unique artistic features represented by its innovative characterization is certainly such a sight-catching blossom, and the rich soil underneath is certainly the life in its author's era. No one here is insisting the old-fashioned parallel cause-effect relation of life and art; on the contrary, what we get from our research is the wholeness of man's living experience, of which art may be viewed as its expression, or just a part of it, though usually the most breathtaking, glamorous part.

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A Cross-linguistic Study of Prepositions in Persian and English: The Effect of Transfer

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Abstract—The present paper is a contrastive study which attempts to investigate the errors made by Iranian EFL learners due to the cross-linguistic influence between their L1/SL and L2/TL language (i.e. Persian & English respectively). To meet the goals of the study, an error analysis was conducted to examine the status of different types of errors of prepositions made due to the transitional constraints between Persian and English languages. To this end, a translation task was developed by the present researcher. The translation task aimed at identifying the interlingual preposition errors caused by the process of transfer between the target language (English) and the source language (Persian). The translation task was then given to 53 adult EFL learners at intermediate level to translate the sentences from Persian into English during the allotted time. After collecting and analyzing the data, the corollaries of the study indicated that the Iranian EFL learners under investigation were faced with the errors related to the wrong and redundant use of prepositions more frequently as compared with the errors related to the omission of prepositions in L2 while translating from Persian into English. The findings might make a significant contribution to the preparation of corpus of preposition errors in Iranian EFL learners discourse and thus inform Iranian ELT practitioners and teachers of the cross-linguistic areas of difficulties concerning the acquisition of second language prepositions.

Index Terms—Contrastive Analysis, cross-linguistic transfer, language prepositions, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

In the middle of the twentieth century, the importance of the cross-linguistic influence of two languages in contrast was called into attention and soon came into vogue in the circle of applied linguistics through the influence of the thought-provoking inception of *Contrastive linguistics (CL)* as a new well-founded disciple. Following the adoption of the premises of CL, researchers and practitioners were endowed with numerous pedagogical insights and implications because the reported findings were essentials of language teaching in the heyday of structural linguistics, behavioristic psychology, and pattern practice language teaching methodologies such as audiolingual method (Brown, 2000, James, 1980).

As Krzeszowski (1990) discusses, early contrastive studies, however, mainly revolved around the assumption that when a learner learns a new language, he/she usually focuses his attention on discrepancies and if he/she discovers some similarities, he/she is amused and surprised since making such similarities explicit for the learner may facilitate the process of second language learning. In addition, originally all contrastive studies were pedagogically motivated and oriented; however, some distinctions have been drawn between *"theoretical"* and *"applied"* contrastive studies. In this respect, Krzeszowski likewise contends that applied contrastive studies are distinct from theoretical contrastive studies; the former studies, as part of applied linguistics, "must depend not only on theoretical ,descriptive, and comparative linguistics but also on other disciplines relevant to teaching including psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, dialects, and psychology of learning" (pp. 10-11).

However, the applied contrastive linguistics can practically and pedagogically be realized but considered useful by syllabus designers, practitioners only to the extent to which appropriate use can be made of it in the given teaching milieu (Krzeszowski ,1990). In the light of this assumption, the present study intends to investigate the errors made due to the cross-linguistic influence between the L1/SL and L2/TL language (i.e. Persian & English). To do so, an error analysis has been conducted to examine the status of different types of preposition errors made on account of the transitional constraints between the SL (Persian) and the (TL) English. It is also worth noting that only a few studies have attempted to explore the cross-linguistc influence of English and Persian prepositions on second language learning; therefore, this study might contribute to enrich the body of cross-linguistic knowledge vis-à-vis English prepositions versus Persian prepositions. Furthermore, the significance of the study is to manifest some findings that may help teachers to present teaching materials more appropriately and also assist syllabus designers and material developers in selecting and grading of ELT materials.

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To serve the aims of the study, the following questions were raised:
1. To what extent do Iranian EFL learners make the prepositional errors in the translation task?

2. What types of errors in use of prepositions (omission of prepositions, redundant or wrong use of prepositions) are more likely to be made by Iranian EFL learners via the translation task?

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Historical Perspective of Contrastive Analysis (CA)

By definition, Richards and Schmidt (2002) concisely state that contrastive analysis is based on the following three maxims: "a) the main difficulties in learning a new language are caused by interference from L1; b) the difficulties can be predicted by CA; c) teaching materials can make use of CA to reduce the effects of interference" (p.119). In another sense, James (1980) advocates the attitude that CA is a hybrid which relies very strongly on psychology and linguistics because learning involves psychological processes. He likewise assigns CA to a science of applied linguistics for two reasons: firstly, because it is different from "*pure linguistics*" in drawing on other scientific disciplines; and secondly, because linguistics is the science upon which it draws most heavily. In essence, as Stern (1983) asserts, CA was not a new teaching method; but it was a form of language description applicable to language teachers, materials and curriculum developers, and test designers.

In the same vein, Keshavarz (1994) discusses that during the 1950s and 1960s, CA was considered as the ultimate panacea for language teaching problems: predicting and solving learners' errors and difficulties. Based on the assumption that second/foreign language learners tend to transfer the formal features of their L1 to their L2 utterances, structural linguists set out to identify areas of difficulty for second language and produce appropriate teaching materials to overcome these linguistic obstacles. In effect, on the one hand, the task of a contrastive analyst was to pinpoint the items in learner's L1 which are in line with the similar items in learner's L2 *(positive transfer)* so as to facilitate language learning process. On the other hand, the contrastive analyst identified the areas of asymmetry between the learner's L1 and L2 (*negative transfer*) and predicted the areas of learning difficulties and thus avoided the probable linguistic phenomenon of *interference* which was believed to seriously hinder the process of second language learning.

To compare and contrast the various linguistic items practically, an offshoot of this discipline emerged called *Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH)* which gained significant kudos in the domain of applied linguistics. To elaborate on this hypothesis, Brown (2000) argues that

…the CAH claims that the principal barrier to second language acquisition is that the interference of the first language system with the second language system, and that a scientific, structural analysis of the two languages in question would yield a taxonomy of linguistic contrast between them which in turn would enable the linguist to predict the difficulties a learner encounters (p. 208).

For all the prevailing prosperous CA-based findings in the 1960s, the ascribed predictive axiom of CAH was severely criticized and called into question in the 1970s (e.g. Corder, 1973; Oller & Ziahosseiny, 1970; Whitman & Jacson, 1972; Wode, 1967). Hence, Wardhaugh (1970) termed the early version of CAH *strong version* and called for an alternative version of the early CAH called *weak version* in which *a priori* prediction of certain linguistic items across languages was not claimed and the influence of learner's L1 system was emphasized instead of the predictive value of the learner's L1 system. According to Brown (2000), today the weak version of CAH can still be viewed under the general label *cross-linguistic influence (CLI)* (see Kellerman & Smith, 1986) which realizes the influence of the learner's native language as prior knowledge or experience on second language learning and teaching.

B. The Emergence of Error Analysis (EA) in Applied Linguistics

In the late 1960s, applied linguistics began to witness a new wave of research culminating in the emergence of the new concept of *error analysis (EA)*. In fact, EA was introduced as an alternative to CA in which the understanding of the nature of errors was revisited. That is to say, errors were not treated any longer as debilitative and embarrassing faults. But instead, they could provide researchers with feedback to identify learning strategies because errors reflect the competence of learners. In this sense, errors were not only attributed to the learner's L1 (i.e. negative transfer/interference) but also to the learner's L2 system; therefore, *intralingual transfer* was proposed accounting for the unexplained errors not caused by *interlingual transfer*, namely, interference. To expound on the discrepancy between these two types of transfers, it is generally argued that unlike interlingual errors, intralingual errors were solely associated with the learner's L2 (Brown, 2000). Further, EA could give important additional source of information for the selection of items to be incorporated into syllabuses. In principle, EA thus paved the way for teachers to ameliorate their teaching methodology and maintain a state of alert in terms of what parts of their syllabus have been inadequately learned or taught and need further attention (see, for example, Corder, 1981).

According to Corder (1973), error analysis has two objectives: one theoretical and another applied. The theoretical objective serves to check the validity of theories, namely the psycholinguistic theory of transfer. The applied objective concerns pedagogical purposes. When errors are analyzed, the nature of difficulties and problems faced by L2 learners is identified which helps teachers to modify their way of teaching and checking their teaching materials. In terms of the proposed EA models, there are two important models; first, Corder (1974) identified a model for error analysis including three stages: *data collection, description* and *explanation*. Following this model, two decades later Gass and Selinker (1994) then complemented the early model and identified 6 steps followed in conducting an error analysis,

namely, *collecting data, identifying errors, classifying errors, quantifying errors, analyzing source of error,* and *remediating for errors*.

However, EA was later carried out within the learner *interlanguage system* (Selinker, 1972) due to the fact the second language learner develop a dynamic and *approximate system* (Nemser, 1971) which is in all likelihood unique itself along with the learner's *idiosyncratic dialects* (Corder, 1971) which are unique to a particular individual learner. In essence, the active role of learners is taken into account in this way while the learner's *strategy of avoidance* could also be explained and examined. In other words, error analysis emphasizes the significance of errors in the learner's interlanguage system but the absence or present of errors does not necessarily reflect native-like competence (Brown, 2000). According to Corder (1974, p. 27), the results of error analysis "can help teachers to adapt themselves to the learner's needs rather than impose upon him their (the teachers') preconceptions of how he ought to learn and when he ought to learn". As Erdogan (2005) discusses, "error analysis deals with the learners' performance in terms of the cognitive processes they make use of in recognizing or coding the input they receive from the target language. Therefore, a primary focus of error analysis is on the evidence that learners' errors provide an understanding of the underlying process of second language acquisition" (p. 263).

C. The Introduction of Conceptually-based Contrastive Analysis

Granted the fact that conceptual errors have increasingly been reported in learners discourse and interlanguage systems (Danesi, 2000, Russo, 1997), Danesi (2003) attempted to revitalize CA based on a conceptually-oriented model and introduced a revamped CA called *conceptually-based CA*. In this recently developed kind of CA, the emphasis is given to the underlying conceptual structures reflected in language grammar, vocabulary, prosody, and so forth. According to Danesi (2003), within the crux of this contemporary view of CA lies our conceptual systems which are "culturally transmitted to us, through language, through our use and understanding of the language, and through other representational activities to which we are composed in a culture"(p. 91).

Over the last decades, most debates and attempts in Second Language Teaching (SLT) have been virtually directed towards the enhancement of *linguistic* and *communicative competences* whereas the *conceptual competence* has been taken for granted (see Talebinezhad, 2007; Talebinezhad & Hashemian, 2006). In effect, Danesi (2003) believes that the lack of conceptual confidence in language learners is one of the most crucial factors accounting for vexing challenges in the circle of second language pedagogy which have ultimately led to the emergence of a kind of pedagogical quandary over the last decades called *SLT Dilemma (*see also Mahmoodzadeh, 2011 for a critical discussion on the theoretical trends towards this dilemma). Given the belief that conceptual competence is teachable and can be imparted in the classroom, Danesi (2003) defines conceptual competence "as the ability of language learner to verbalize concepts so as to construct messages that have a culturally-appropriate structure, no matter what suitable syntactic or morphological form they assume" (p. 75).

In this regard, it should be noted that conceptually-based CA is directly related to the notions of conceptual competence and *conceptual fluency*. Unlike, *Verbal fluency* which is defined as the grammatical and communicative abilities of an L2 learner for producing discourse, conceptual fluency refers to the ability to use and comprehend the conceptual concepts of a given language. Thus, to be conceptually fluent in a language is to know how that language reflects or encodes its concepts on the basis of metaphorical structuring (Danesi, 2003; Talebinezhad & Hashemian, 2006).

In a conceptually-based CA, following the identification of the main domains that allow native speakers to deliver this concept in discourse, language teachers, textbook designers, and syllabus designers can resort to the achieved results of the conceptual analysis to become aware of the areas of *interconceptual interference* and also *intraconceptual interference* (Danesi, 2003). Furthermore, Danesi claims that conceptual syllabuses "can be integrated with grammatical and communicative syllabuses but the core premises of the course and textbooks should revolve around concepts such as time, love, health, and etc." (p. 101).

D. The Cross-linguistic Influence of Prepositions

Prepositions as an important area of English grammar are generally found difficult by EFL/ESL learners. According to Pittman (1966), among those who teach or learn English language, prepositions have earned a reputation for difficulty if not downright unpredictability. In a similar vein, Takahaski (1969) argues that the correct usage of prepositions is the greatest problem for learners of English. By definition, a preposition expresses a relationship between entities: it indicates a relationship in space (between one object and another), and/or a relationship in time (between events). In addition to other relationships such as instrument and cause (Quirk et. al., 1993), prepositions can be used with different parts of speech of the same root word.

Prepositions can be classified according to their form, function and meaning. Concerning form, prepositions can be simple (one-word preposition), or complex (also called two- word, three-word, or compound prepositions). Simple prepositions are closed class. That is, we can not invent new single word prepositions. However, complex prepositions are open class because new combinations could be invented (Grubic, 2004, as cited in Asma, 2010). In English, there are, however, approximately seventy simple prepositions. The most frequently used are: *at, by for, from, in, of, on, to* and *with*. With regard to prepositional phrases, Quirk et al. (1993) view that a prepositional phrase is made of a

preposition followed by a prepositional complement which is a noun phrase (e.g. *at the bus stop*) or a WH-clause (e.g. *from what he said*) or V-ing clause (e.g. *by signing a peace treaty*) (cited in Asma, 2010).

However, several studies (e.g. Jimenez Catalan, 1996) have been conducted thus far exploring the cross-linguistic transfer of English prepositions across different languages. For example, in Arabic language, Hamdallah and Tushyeh (1993) and also Hasan and Abdullah (2009) have examined the cross-linguistic influence of prepositions across English and Arabic languages. Likewise, Asma (2010) has recently investigated the reality of the phenomenon of simple prepositions transfer from Standard Arabic into English by Algerian EFL learners. Through a designed test consisting of twenty sentences, she concluded that Standard Arabic is not the only source of transfer for Algerian learners since they transfer from French and Algerian Arabic as well. Thus, Algerian learners rely on Standard Arabic, in addition to French and Algerian Arabic prepositional knowledge in order to acquire English language prepositions.

However, only a few studies have been carried out so far investigating the use of English prepositions among EFL learners in the Iranian context. For example, Delshad (1980) conducted a contrastive study of English and Persian prepositions and found that Iranian EFL/ESL students have difficulty in the use of English prepositions. According to Delshad, Iranian EFL learners seemingly tend to misuse or omit English prepositions (as cited in Jafarpour & Koosha, 2006). Likewise, in an endeavor to determine the extent to which Iranian EFL learners' knowledge of collocation of prepositions is affected by their L1, Jafarpour and Koosha (2006) conducted a study in which the errors of the collocations of prepositions turned to yield the significance of Iranian EFL learners' L1 transfer. That is, Iranian EFL learners tend to carry over their L1 collocational prepositions to their L2 production.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In this article, the present researcher considered Iranian EFL adults learners at intermediate level as subjects of the study. The number of subjects was 53; thirty were male and twenty-three were female learners studying English at a Foreign Language Institute in Mashhad, Iran. The criterion used to select the subjects in question was a placement tests which had already been administered to measure their language proficiency. The test was a locally-developed placement test designed by the institute's experts.

B. Instruments

Since some language speakers are more reflective and reserved, using only what they are sure they know in their attempting to speak the target language cannot help us to compare optimally the errors made by various speakers. In fact, if learners are not obliged to use any target language structures which they are not certain about, they may avoid the problematic target language structures accordingly. To consider cautiously the hidden effects of this learning strategy, *translation* can be regarded as the best basis of comparison of languages (James, 1980). In this sense, the *translation technique* as an elicited procedure has several advantages. First, it forces the subjects to attempt to produce the structures under investigation. Secondly, it assures the researcher that the subjects understand the semantics of the structure he is required to produce (Keshavarz, 1994).

Thus, the instrument applied to collect data in this study was to employ a translation task developed by the researcher. Much attention was, however, given to the development of a translation task which aims at identifying the interlingual preposition errors caused by the process of transfer between the target language (English) and the source language (Persian). Meanwhile, much attempt was made to suit the translation task to the participants ' current level by reducing the lexical difficulty of the translation items. The developed translation task includes 15 problematic sentences in Persian selected based on the most cross-linguistically challenging prepositions observed by the researcher in Iranian EFL classrooms throughout his teaching experience. The selected sample of prepositions includes both simple prepositions and prepositional phrases. These chosen sentences were felt to cause some cross-linguistic errors in the use of propositions for Persian-speaking Iranian EFL learners. The translation task (see Appendix) consists of:
   a) Three sentences for absence of propositions in L1 (No. 2, 3, 6, 14, 15)
   b) Three sentences for redundant prepositions in L1 (No. 1, 5, 7, 9, 11)
   c) Three sentences for different equivalent propositions in L1 (No. 4, 8, 10, 12, 13).

C. Procedures

To evaluate systematically the type and the extent of the propositional errors committed by EFL learners in Iran due to the cross-linguistic influence between the two languages, the developed translation task was given to the involved participants to render the sentences within the allotted time. In order to collect the relevant and useful data to meet the purpose of the study, first, the participants were told that the translation task was not an exam or a test having any effect on their class performance; secondly, they were allowed to do the task in only 10 minutes, that is, less than one minute per sentence. In doing so, the participants were forced to write their first immediate response and as such, they would spontaneously render the sentences and the factor of timing could be considered in this way. To collect the necessary data, the translation task was then given to the participants.

D. Data Analysis

After calculating the data, as was expected, the responses that the subjects gave to the translation task were of three kinds: wrong or inappropriate equivalence; omitted prepositions, and redundant prepositions. To categorize the obtained data clearly, the results of frequency of translation errors in terms of the use of prepositions in the translation task are tabulated and shown in the following:

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCY OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF TRANSLATION ERRORS IN TERMS OF THE USE OF PREPOSITIONS IN THE TRANSLATION TASK

Error Type	Frequency %	Questionnaire Items
Omission	9.2 %	No. 2, 3, 6, 14, 15
Redundancy	46.4 %	No. 1, 5, 7, 9, 11
Wrong Use	52 %	No. 4, 8, 10, 12, 13

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR ERRORS IN USE OF PREPOSITIONS (HIGHLIGHTED IN RED) RELATED TO INDIVIDUAL ITEMS OF TRANSLATION TASK

No.	Preposition Errors	Type of Errors	Frequency %
1	twice in a week	redundancy	71
2	rest --- 3o minuets	omission	7
3	--- 6:30 a.m.	omission	4
4	afraid from	wrong use	53
5	asked from	redundancy	18
6	--- Fridays	omission	11
7	enjoyed from	redundancy	56
8	different with	wrong use	32
9	--- the next day	redundancy	42
10	from TV	wrong use	22
11	went to home	redundancy	45
12	depends to	wrong use	74
13	died from	wrong use	79
14	--- weekends	omission	20
15	worked --- two hours	omission	4

Note: The represented statistical figures have been rounded off.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As related before, the purpose of this study is to figure out what types of errors in use of prepositions (omission, redundant or wrong use) are more or less likely to be committed by Iranian EFL learners through a translation task. In this respect, Table 1 shows that the subjects under study have made errors related to wrong use and redundancy of prepositions more frequently as compared with errors related to the omission of prepositions in L2 while translating from Persian into English.

In particular, 52 % and 46.4 % of the subjects made errors belonging to wrong use and redundant prepositions respectively in the translation task, whereas only 9.2 % of the subjects had difficulty rendering the prepositions which are omitted in English language. To sum up, it can be implied that Iranian EFL learners are more likely to suffer from some difficulties in producing (i.e. translating, speaking, & writing) English prepositions which are either redundant or wrong in Persian language. More particularly, for instance, among the prepositional phrases listed in Table 2, the redundant preposition in phrases such as "twice in a week" (71 %) and the wrong use of prepositions in phrases like "die from" (79 %) or "depend to" (74 %) were among the most frequent errors made via the translation task. In contrast, omission error of prepositions in phrases such as "--- 6: 30 a.m." (4 %) and " worked --- two hours" were among the least frequent errors made by the subjects of the study.

The pedagogical implications of this study can in part inform Iranian syllabus designers and material developers to consider the level of cross-linguistic difficulty in use of prepositions in selection and grading of materials such as the unit organization of course books. Likewise, another implication is to enlighten the knowledge and understanding of Iranian language teachers as how to provide learners with more efficient corrective feedback while treating preposition errors made in the classroom. In an endeavor to diminish the difficulty acquiring second language prepositions, it is suggested that language teachers and practitioners delve deeper into the issue of prepositional corrective feedback and attempt to deliver corrective feedback considering the cross-linguistic error gravity of the given prepositions for production. Finally, the findings of the study may enrich the corpus of preposition errors made by Iranian EFL learners. However, one limitation of the study is that the small sample size restricts the generalization of the achieved findings. Thus, there is a need for further research to cross-validate finding from the present study to a different and larger sample. In addition, Iran is not the only Persian speaking country in Asia and other language varieties of Persian are spoken elsewhere so that further similar cross-linguistic studies are called for the investigation of language prepositions among other Persian-speaking Asian EFL learners.

APPENDIX

* لطفاً جملات زیر را ترجمه کنید. نتیجه ی حاصل از ترجمه های زیر، هیچ گونه تأثیری در نمره کلاسی یا امتحانی شما ندارد.

زمان پاسخگویی: 10دقیقه

   * Please translate the following sentences. The result of your translation has no effect on your class performance or your final examination grade.

   Allotted time: 10 minutes

1. دو بار در هفته با دوستام فوتبال بازی می کنم.

2. معمولاً بعد از نهار نیم ساعت استراحت می کنم.

3.معمولاً ساعت 6/5 صبح از خواب بیدار می شوم.

4.مریم از گربه می ترسد.

5.امین از پدرش خواست که به او مقداری پول بدهد.

6.در ایران دانش آموزان جمعه ها به مدرسه نمی روند.

7.رضا از تماشای بازی فوتبال لذت برد.

8.نظر من کاملاً با نظر شما فرق می کند.

9. روز بعد مجبور بودم سفرم را لغو کنم.

10. دیروز از تلویزیون بازی فوتبال را تماشا کردم.

11. بچه ها خوشحال به خانه رفتند.

12. موفقیت تو بستگی به اعتماد به نفس تو دارد.

13. شوهرش در اثر بیماری سرطان فوت کرد.

14. آخر هفته ها شنا میرم.

15. دیروز دو ساعت تو دفترم کار کردم.

* Correct equivalents of the above Persian sentences translated into English.
1. I play football with my friends twice a week.
2. I usually rest for 30 minutes after lunch.
3. I usually wake up at 6:30 a.m.
4. Maryam is afraid of cats.
5. Amin asked his father to give him some money.
6. On Fridays, students do not go to school in Iran.
7. Reza enjoyed watching the football game.
8. My idea is totally different from your idea.
9. In the next day, I had to cancel my trip.
10. I watched the football match on TV yesterday.
11. The children went home happily.
12. Your success depends on your self-confidence.
13. Her husband died of cancer.
14. On weekends, I go swimming.
15. I worked for two hours in my office yesterday.

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Abstract—**Even though Translation Studies has undertaken a cultural turn and made fruitful achievements, Peter Newmark, whose theory bears a strong tint of applicability, should still be considered as one of the most important figures in the field of translation studies, especially among those who are devoted to translation practice or translation teaching. Therefore, it is not out of season here to discuss Peter Newmark and his seemingly dated theory in the present academic atmosphere of Translation Studies. Mainly based on *A Textbook of Translation*, in which the great translation theorist strongly advocates literal translation, this paper has taken a further consideration on to what extent his theory can be applied to Chinese-English and English-Chinese translation, which would be beneficial to translation practice and translation teaching. The aim is not to put forward something new, but rather to serve as an attempt to rectify the academic extremity after the cultural turn in Translation Studies.**

Index Terms—**Peter Newmark, literal translation, Chinese-English and English-Chinese translation**

I. INTRODUCTION

Ever since the late 1970s, translation theorists who, influenced by deconstructionism, has begun to switch translation studies from source-orientedness to target-orientedness. The first target-oriented paradigm was established by functionalist translation theorists represented by Reiss, Vermeer, Nord, etc., who began to "dethrone" the source text and regard it as a mere "offer of information" or the translator's "raw material" (Vermeer 1987, see Nord, 1997, p.37), thus laying emphasis on how translation is affected by such social factors as commissioner or initiator, *Skopos*, function, etc. while they develop functionalist approaches "with an orientation toward translator training" (Nord, 1997, p.39). Meanwhile, another target-oriented paradigm was carried out quietly in the Low Countries, which was not known to the world until the publication of an anthology of essays entitled *The Manipulation of Literature: Studies in Literary Translation* (Hermans, 1985), on the basis of which scholars devoted to this paradigm were dubbed "the Manipulation School" (Snell-Hornby, 1995, p.22). The aim of the Manipulation School is "to establish a new paradigm for the study of literary translation" (Hermans, 1985, p.10). What is envisaged in the new paradigm is:

a view of literature as a complex and dynamic system; a conviction that there should be a continual interplay between theoretical models and practical case studies; an approach to literary translation which is descriptive, target-oriented, functional and systemic; and an interest in the norms and constraints that govern the production and reception of translations, in the relation between translation and other types of text processing, and in the place and role of translations both within a given literature and in the interaction between literatures (ibid, p.10-11).

Thus, if the first target-oriented paradigm still bears an applied nature, the second target-oriented paradigm established by the Manipulation School has always been geared primarily towards the descriptive-explanatory goal (Toury, 1995, p.25). Whatever the paradigms, they have subverted the central position of the source text, attaching excessive importance to extralinguistic factors in translation.

Although translating can be regarded as a social or political act, to translation practitioners as well as translation teachers it has always been a primarily linguistic act. If this is the case, it is quite doubtful whether the research results of the first target-oriented paradigm established by functionalist translation theorists is really as applicable as expected if too much attention is paid to extralinguistic social factors in training translators. As to the second target-oriented paradigm established by the Manipulation School, much more doubts should be raised against it. Actually, it is the Manipulation School that makes translation studies completely break the stranglehold of prescriptivism, meanwhile forecasting the advent of the cultural turn in Translation Studies. Even though the cultural turn has made fruitful achievements in describing, explaining, and predicting translational phenomena, it is somewhat divorced too far away from pragmatism in translation theories to be regarded as of any practical use by some scholars, especially by those who are devoted to translation practice and translation teaching. Indeed, translation studies have now gone to another

extreme by completely ignoring practical translation problems, hence increasing antagonism towards translation theory among such scholars. To call more attention to applied translation studies after the cultural turn, it has good reason to re-mention Peter Newmark and his seemingly dated translation theory, not because his theory is flawless or much more influential than any other applied translation theories, but rather because he, as one of the most important figures in the field of translation studies, has once been much more candid than other translation theorists in contending that "Translation theory's main concern is to determine appropriate translation methods…it provides a framework of principles, restricted rules and hints for translating texts and criticizing translations…"(Newmark, 1982, p.19). This paper, particularly focusing on what Peter Newmark has proposed in *A Textbook of Translation*, would present a reconsideration of his theory on literal translation, which is expected to be beneficial to translation practice and translation teaching. The aim is not to put forward something new, but rather to rectify the academic extremity after the cultural turn.

II.   The Need for Amendment in Peter Newmark's Theory on Literal Translation

In his *A Textbook of Translation*, Peter Newmark (1988) has discussed more than twenty translation procedures, namely, literal translation, transference, naturalisation, etc., among which he puts special emphasis on literal translation, which occupies one chapter in that book (Chapter 7). He asserts that "literal translation is correct and must not be avoided, if it secures referential and pragmatic equivalence to the original" (ibid. p.68). To him, "literal translation is the first step in translation" (ibid. p.76) or "the most important of the procedures" (ibid. p.81), only on the following conditions can a translator retreat from literal translation: 1. A literal version is plainly inexact; 2. A vocative or informative text is badly written; 3. There are no "satisfactory" one-to-one TL equivalents for SL general words even though one is over-translating (see ibid. p.76).

Peter Newmark's view on literal translation is deeply rooted in traditional debates on the two basic translation methods, literal vs. free translation. Such debates have quite a long history both in the West and in China. In the west, the distinction between "word-for-word" (i.e. "literal") and "sense-for-sense" (i.e. "free") translation goes back to Cicero (first century B.C.) and St Jerome (fourth century A.D.), who clearly expressed the "literal" and "free" poles in translation (Munday, 2001, p.19-20). In China, the debate on "literal" vs. "free" translation might date back to as early as the Han dynasty (206 B.C.~220 A.D.) and the Three Kingdoms Period (Wei, Shu Han and Wu, which divided China from 222 A.D. ~280 A.D.), during which the Sanskrit Sutras were translated into Chinese in large scales. During that period, the first Buddhist translator to be named in Chinese sources, An Shigao (?~168 A.D.), a Persian prince who renounced his claim to the royal throne of Parthia in order to serve as a Buddhist missionary monk in China, preferred slightly free translation and attracted a devoted community of followers. In Three Kingdoms Period, Zhi Qian (fl. 222~252 A.D.), a Chinese Buddhist layman of Yuezhi (an area that overlapped to at least some extent with the territory of the Kushan Empire) ancestry, had a heated debate on literal vs. free translation with other translators and wrote the first extant Chinese article on translation *Preface to Fajujing*. From then on, this influential translator began to prefer extremely literal translation and translated a wide range of Indian Buddhist scriptures into Chinese with such translation method.

Rather than repeat the long-standing debate on literal vs. free translation, this paper attempts to amend some of Peter Newmark's theory, which has until now been very influential in the applied translation theories. Though I quite agree with Peter Newmark's argument that "literal translation is the first step in translation", I must point out that he has emphasized literal translation so excessively that it would be even baneful to translation practice, especially to that is undertaken between Chinese and English, considering that the two languages are rather different from each other. Peter Newmark can hardly imagine the difficulties with which the translator would confront when applying his theory to Chinese-English and English-Chinese translation, for he does not know Chinese at all and has never practiced in such kind of translation. Therefore, a further consideration should be made on to what extent literal translation can be applied to Chinese-English and English-Chinese translation.

III.   Some Concepts to Be Distinguished

Besides literal translation, Newmark (1988, p.47) has also incidentally discussed free translation, which he surprisingly labels it "not translation at all". As mentioned above, the espousal of literal translation or free translation has dominated the discussion on methods of translation for a long time both in the West and in China. In order to avoid such meaningless disputations, which at times even go to extremes, we had better distinguish literal translation from mechanical or dead translation, and free translation from random translation.

Newmark only distinguishes literal from word-for-word and one-to-one translation:

Word-for-word translation transfers SL grammar and word order, as well as the primary meanings of all the SL words, into the translation, and it is normally effective only for brief simple neutral sentences… In one-to-one translation, a broader form of translation, each SL word has a corresponding TL word, but their primary (isolated) meanings may differ. … Literal translation goes beyond one-to-one translation in including, say *le courage, der Mut* and 'courage' as literal equivalents; it is particularly applicable to languages that do not have definite and/or indefinite articles (ibid. p.69).

In the light of Newmark, word-for-word translation and one-to-one translation should be narrower forms of literal translation, which ranges from one word to one word through group to group, collocation to collation, clause to clause, to sentence to sentence (ibid.). However, word-for-word translation, when absolutely used, may lead to mechanical or dead translation, which is not literal translation at all. Since Newmark does not mention the concept "mechanical or dead translation" in that book, here we have to draw a line of demarcation: A literal translation is a translation that follows closely both the form and intended meaning of SL, while a mechanical or dead translation is a translation that follows closely only the form of SL to the detriment of its intended meaning. The following two examples are typical of mechanical or dead translation:

1) April is a reluctant beginning of spring in Beijing.

在北京，四月是一个春天不情愿的开端。

2)（你们俩从小在一起长大，）可算是青梅竹马了。

(You two have been growing up together since you were little things.) You certainly *have green plums and bamboo horses.*

The above two examples are translated absolutely word for word, which leads to mechanical or dead translation and is plainly inexact. A plainly inexact version is not literal translation at all, but mechanical or dead translation.

Having distinguished literal translation from mechanical or dead translation, we may be more convinced that the prejudice against literal translation should be eliminated. As Wilss (1982, p.100) puts it, "In any case, literal translation seems to be rather powerful, at least in certain sorts of texts, for example LSP[①] texts." Although literal translation is the basic translation procedure and the starting point for all translation, no translation is completely literal, nor should that be a desirable goal. Looking back to examples 1) and 2), we may find that only free translation is possible to render them accurately:

1) 北京的四月，乍暖还寒。

2) (You two have been growing up together ever since you were a little boy and a little girl.) You certainly *have had intimate childhood friendship.*

The borderline between literal translation and free translation is constantly being crossed by the translator. Taking up the traditional distinction between literal and free translation, Hockett and Chao have the following to say:

"The terms 'literal' and 'free' thus do not really form a clear binary contrast. A word-by-word rendering is literal as compared with a loose translation of a whole sentence, but free as compared with morpheme-by-morpheme rendering. It may be proposed that, for any give passage, there are as many degrees of literalness and freedom of translation as there are levels of hierarchal structures in the passage".

"A common distinction is often made between literal or word-for-word translation and idiomatic or free translation. But there are more than just two degrees on the scale of literalness and idiomaticity. If we go below the level of the word, there can also be morpheme-by-morpheme translation, while if one tries to translate proverb by proverb, there is often no corresponding internal structure at all". (quoted from Wilss, 1982, p.87).

Nevertheless, the fuzziness that exists on the borderline between literal translation and free translation does not indicate that they are just the same. A literal translation follows closely both the form and intended meaning of the SL, while a free translation abandons the form of the SL, only keeping its intended meaning. At least at the lexical or sentential level, they are distinct from each other with their respective features. Sometimes the translator must translate literally because no genuine alternative to a literal translation procedure exists, sometimes he or she has to translate freely when literal translation is impossible, while at other times he or she can translate both literally and freely, which translation procedure to choose being determined by various factors. Whatever the translation method the translator chooses, he or she must at least guarantee that the translation follows exactly the intended meaning of the source text. In this sense, free translation only has limited freedom. An excessively free translation is nothing but random translation, which keeps neither the form nor the intended meaning of the source text and which the translator should be wary of falling into.

With the above notions being distinguished from each other, it has now been clear that even the notion of "literal translation" is not made clear by Newmark. Both literal translation and free translation should definitely be an exact rendition of the intended meaning of the source text; therefore, a plainly inexact version is caused by neither literal translation nor free translation, but by either mechanical translation or random translation. If we accept this point, Newmark's first above-mentioned condition on which the translator can retreat from literal translation has lost its theoretical ground.

IV.   TRUTH, ACCURACY AND BEAUTY

Newmark (1988, p. xi) considers himself somewhat of a "literalist", because he is for truth and accuracy. "Truth" and "accuracy" seem to be his criteria for a good translation. Therefore, when replying to "insidious resistances" to literal translation, he argues, "Apart from translationese (i.e. inaccurate translation) the only valid argument against what I might find an acceptable literal translation of an ordinary language unit is that you find it unnatural" (ibid. p.75). Even when considering unnaturalness, he contends that "in fact, by repeating several times to yourself a slightly 'unnatural'

[①]This is Wilss' abbreviation term for "Language for Special Purposes".

unit of language, or by saying it in a soft tone of voice, you can sometimes make it sound more natural, and convince yourself it is a good translation" (ibid. p.76). Generally speaking, this argument has two defects: 1. "Truth" and "accuracy" cannot be regarded as the sole criteria for a good translation. Especially in literary translation, "beauty" should be added to the criteria. 2. If the source text is not unnatural for SL readers, it may be ridiculous to convince yourself that an unnatural translation is a good translation.

To make a convincing argument, "truth" here is defined as being factually, stylistically and culturally faithful to the source text. Newmark seems to equate "truth" only with the facts of matter and the style of the source text, therefore, he contends that the translator is entitled to correct, clarify and reorganize the facts and style of poorly written vocative and informative texts (1988, p.41, 204, and passim; 1982, p.42). In my opinion, however, the translator's job is to explain in TL what the original author has expressed in SL. Whatever the type of text he or she is translating, the translator has no right to "correct" what the original author has expressed, even when he or she finds that the facts in the text do not conform to the reality. In the case of a vocative or informative text, badly written, the translator has to translate literally to show the TL readers that the original is so, except that he or she "makes use of it" (not "translates it"!) for a certain purpose. If the translator has to faithfully keep the original, Newmark's second above-mentioned condition on which the translator can retreat from literal translation, in my opinion, also holds no water.

The translator cannot be too faithful to the source text factually, stylistically and culturally, leaving the readers to judge on their own. In most cases, literal translation serves quite well in this respect. When it comes to cultural truth, however, the translator has to take the TL readers' reception into account and use literal translation meticulously. As culture is inseparable from language, translation is always accompanied by introducing SL culture to TL. Literal translation, more often than not, can do a good job in introducing SL culture. In most cases, literally translated SL culture-specific expressions may also enrich TL if generally recognized by TL readers. For example, such Chinese expressions as "特洛伊木马(Trojan horse)", "斯芬克司之迷(Sphinx's riddle), "象牙塔(ivory tower)", "鳄鱼眼泪 (crocodile tears)" are all adopted from literal translation. Free translation can never achieve such effect; sometimes it may even give TL readers false impressions of the SL culture. For instance, to translate "Beauty lies in the lover's eyes" into "情人眼里出西施" may cause the Chinese readers wonder how "西施" materializes in a text of foreign language, while a literal version "情人眼里出美人" is more appropriate.

Effective as literal translation seems to be in this respect, when the gap between two cultures is too large at some points, literal translation can only cause confusion or misunderstanding, for example:

3) He works like a dog.

Literal Translation: 他象狗一样工作。

Free Translation: 他拼命工作。

4) 他是帝国主义的走狗。

Literal Translation: He was a running dog of imperialism.

Free Translation: He was a lackey of imperialism.

As the connotations of "dog" and "狗" are quite different in the two cultures, literal translation of the above examples only causes opposite effect among TL readers. In this case, the translator has to choose free translation, converting the figurative elements of SL into the corresponding package in TL, thus neglecting the cultural truth of SL.

Another criterion, "accuracy", which requires the translator to render the source text appropriately, is the soul of translation. Under no circumstances should the translator sacrifice "accuracy", otherwise he or she will fall into mechanical or random translation. Newmark seems to try to impress the reader that only literal translation can achieve accuracy. What I want to point out is that literal translation does not necessarily indicate accuracy, though in some cases accuracy can only be achieved through literal translation, as the translation of "Beauty lies in the lover's eyes" shows. "Accuracy" is a rather complex problem, which requires the translator to give full consideration of such factors as the expression habits of TL, the readership, the aesthetic function, etc. and to use corresponding translation procedures.

A. The Expression Habits of TL

As to English and Chinese, the most obvious difference in their expression habits should be grammar. For instance, in English, grammatical agreement comes before semantic agreement, while in Chinese, semantic agreement comes first. Therefore, "he" in the following English sentence, if translated literally into "他", not freely into "他们"(they), would be inappropriate:

5) The US infantryman, while requiring far too luxurious logistical support, put up a nice fight in France; *he* was fresh, well-fed and unscarred by battle.

Obviously, in the above sentence "infantryman" is used as a mass noun, meaning "foot soldiers collectively". Therefore, even though the third person singular pronoun "he" is used to refer to "the US infantryman" for the sake of grammatical agreement, this pronoun must be translated into the third person plural pronoun "他们", or it would be semantically wrong in Chinese.

Another most obvious difference in expression habits between English and Chinese should be logic. The following expressions would show how different Chinese and English are in logic thinking:

6) 双杠 (literally: double bars)—parallel bars

座钟(literally: sitting clock)—standing clock

太平门 (literally: peace door)—emergency exit

教练车 (literally: coach vehicle)—training vehicle/ student vehicle

九折 (literally: ninety percent discount)—10 percent discount

Had such kind of Chinese expressions been translated literally into English, the English reader would misunderstand the original meaning, or even get completely confused.

Difference in expression habits between English and Chinese can be manifested in such other aspects as rhetoric, word order, etc., and it is neither possible nor necessary to enumerate all of them in this single paper. However, the above two examples have sufficed to make clear this point: When TL is quite different from SL in expression habits, literal translation should be avoided, or it would cause some trouble.

B.   The Readership

In real-life translation practice, it is not uncommon that a source text can be rendered differently with different readers in mind. The readership, therefore, is also an important factor that determines which translation procedure secures accuracy. The following example can make this point simply clear:

7) He had been faithful to the fourteen-year-old Vicar's daughter whom he had worshipped on his knees *but had never led to the altar*.

If the readers are quite familiar with the western culture, the translator has no problem in translating the italic part literally into "但他从没有把她带到圣坛前面"; however, for readers who neither know anything about nor have any interest in the western wedding custom, the translator has to translate it freely into "但他从没有同她结婚". In such cases, we cannot judge which translation is more accurate. The different choices just correspond with the '*Skopos* rule', which Nord (1997, p.29) regards as the top-ranking rule for any translation and intends to solve the eternal dilemmas of free vs. faithful (i.e. literal) translation, etc.

C.   The Aesthetic Function

Talking about the aesthetic function, Newmark (1988, p.42) admits that in translation—in particular, poetry—there is often a conflict between the expressive and the aesthetic function ("truth" and "beauty")—the poles of ugly literal translation and beautiful free translation. This reminds us of the sexist quip made by early Renaissance Italian writers that "translations are like women—homely when they are faithful and unfaithful when they are lovely" (Nida, 1964, p.2). "Truth" and "beauty" seem to be incompatible, resulting respectively from literal translation and free translation.

However, putting "truth" and "beauty" to mutually repulsive poles is neither desirable nor realistic in translation practice. Even as a literalist, Newmark (1988, p.43) also points out that if the translation is "ugly" (cacophony), the purpose of the text is defeated. Therefore, "beauty", which concerns the aesthetic function of the text, is also a very important criterion for a good translation. If a literal translation is ugly, the translator is justified to use free translation, which sometimes involves in abandoning unimportant 'detail truth' (Zhang, 1987, p.194) in the source text for beauty's sake. The following is a typical example:

8) "He is seventy-six years of age," said Mr. Smallweed.

Mrs. Smallweed piped up: "Seventy-six pounds! Seventy-six thousand bags of money! Seventy-six hundred thousand million of parcels of banknotes!"

Literal Translation:

"他今年七十六岁,"斯墨尔维德先生说。

斯墨尔维德太太尖叫起来:"七十六英镑！七万六千袋钱！七兆六千亿包钞票！"

Free Translation:

"他今年七十六岁,"斯墨尔维德先生说。

斯墨尔维德太太尖叫起来:"七十六英镑！七十六万袋钱！七十六万万包钞票！"

As compared with the literal version, the free one is less faithful to the source text in rendering some of the numbers, yet it depicts the old miser more vividly and we cannot say that it distorts the intended meaning. On the contrary, as far as the aesthetic function is concerned, the free version is much more accurate in rendering the source text. Thus, if a beautiful free translation secures the intended meaning, abandoning some unimportant detail truth cannot be regarded as inaccurate and unfaithful. Quote what Keats said—"Beauty is truth, truth beauty".

V.   CONCLUSION

So far Peter Newmark's arguments on literal translation have been reconsidered further by using examples from both Chinese-English translation and English-Chinese translation. Although very much useful to translation practice and translation teaching, some of his strong advocacies of literal translation are not convincing in Chinese-English and English-Chinese translation circumstances. Though he has mentioned three conditions on which the translator may retreat from literal translation, according to the above discussion, only the third condition is totally reasonable, i.e. there are no "satisfactory" one-to-one TL equivalents for SL general words even though one is over-translating.

In addition, the translator should be refrained from literal translation under such other conditions: 1. When the gap

between two cultures is so large at some points that literal translation may cause confusion or misunderstanding; 2. When TL is too different from SL in some expression habits to make literal translation possible; 3. When the translator thinks TL readers will not appreciate a literal version; 4. When a free version is more beautiful and readable and it also does not distort the intended meaning. Whatever translation procedure the translator applies, he or she must bear in mind that it should be appropriate under a certain condition. Only with this idea in mind can Peter Newmark's theory be of much use to translation practitioners.

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Dynamic Assessment (DA): An Evolution of the Current Trends in Language Testing and Assessment

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Abstract—**Traditional static testing, aimed at measuring the achievement of pre-determined criteria, has been widely used by language teachers for many years. Such tests conventionally reflected students' misunderstanding of instruction more than their abilities to perform a task. Disillusionment with traditional assessment has led to an examination of alternative assessment procedures that are accurate and appropriate in evaluating diverse populations' learning. Dynamic Assessment (DA) stems from the mutually constitutive relationships between methodology and epistemology. Its root is the concept of development in Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). The central feature of DA is that it does not separate instruction from assessment, but instead, is in favor of a teacher-student unity that works jointly towards students' future improvement through their ZPD. The present article is a literature review which aim to look critically at the emergence of DA as an alternative approach to the previous traditional approaches. Also, after taking a look at the theoretical framework as well as different models of DA, the researcher goes on to discuss the merits and demerits as well as the application and implication of DA in the scope of language teaching and language testing.**

Index Terms—**Dynamic Assessment (DA), models of DA, theoretical framework of DA**

I. INTRODUCTION

Testing as a universal feature of social life has attracted a great deal of attention by many language teachers and scholars. Throughout history people have been put to the test to prove their capabilities or to establish their credentials. According to McNamara (2000) Language tests play a powerful role in many people's lives, acting as gateways at important transitional moments in education, in employment, and in moving from one country to another. Since language tests are devices for the institutional control of individuals, it is clearly important that they should be understood, and subjected to scrutiny. Therefore, an understanding of language testing is relevant both for those actually involved in creating language tests, and also more generally for those involved in using tests or the information they provide, in practical and research contexts (McNamara, 2000).

One of the areas in which language testing is of great application and has great implications is language teaching. From the early days of language teaching, language tests have been always utilized by teachers as important devices for the purposes of assessment, evaluation as well as many other applicable purposes related to both the process of language teaching and language learners themselves. The emergence of new approaches, theories and methods in language teaching has affected the form and type of language tests too. In fact, theoretical developments in the area of language teaching have been compatible with that of language testing. Kuhn's (1962) concepts of paradigm and paradigm shift help understand the issue well. It simply states that the appearance of a new paradigm in a specific point in time has influenced all the previous teaching and testing practices and thus has led to the shift in the ruling paradigm as well as introduction of new notions compatible with the latest scientific achievements. Taking a glance at the early days of language teaching reveals that when the aim of language learning was the ability to read the target literature, language tests usually consisted of essay writing, translation and grammatical analysis judged subjectively by language teachers. Considering the evolutionary path of language teaching as a long continuum, at one end, as it was mentioned above, there was Grammar Translation Method (GTM) in congruity with teachers' biased judgments, while at the other end there is Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) moving away from psychometric and discrete-point testing and focusing on dynamic ways of assessment which integrate both teaching and testing together. This evolutionary movement in the area of language testing, indeed, can be regarded as a revolution which opened up new insights both for language teachers as well as language learners. Therefore, the present article, through an elaborate literature, starts with an introduction to the history of language testing, and then goes on to present a critical look at the emergence of

Dynamic Assessment, its theoretical framework, its models, merits and demerits as well as its application and implication in the scope of language teaching as well as language testing.

II. THE HISTORY OF LANGUAGE TESTING

As it was aforementioned, along with the theoretical advancements in the domain of language teaching, language tests themselves have undergone certain changes based on the scientific shifts dominant in the field. As Weir (1993) states language tests from the distant past to the present are important historical documents. They can help inform us about attitudes to language, language testing and language teaching when little alternative evidence of what went on in the bygone language classroom remains. Seeing where we have come from also helps us better understand where we are today. This line of different language testing can be categorized as follows:

A. Traditional Essay Translation Approach (1930s)

This approach was commonly referred to as the pre-scientific stage of language testing. During this period of language testing, no specific skill or expertise in testing was required. The subjective judgment of the teacher was considered to be of paramount importance. Essay writing, translation and grammatical analysis were the most common types of tests in this period. Tests had a heavy literary or cultural bias. During this period, formal language testing involved the assembly of recognized language experts in the development of the test. Based on the involvement of experts, the test maker claimed the test to be valid and reliable (Spolsky, 1978). Grammar translation method was the offspring of the traditional approach in linguistic analysis which concerned itself with a very shallow, surface analysis of language.

B. Structuralist Approach (Discrete-point) (1960s)

Baker (1989) mentioned that the roots of this approach can be traced back to the traditions of *Psychometric Testing* and *Structural Linguistics*. The psychometric tradition in psychology provided the tools for producing and developing tests which were mostly of "closed" type. Also, a fairly elaborate system of statistical procedures had been evolved for developing and evaluating this kind of test. Based on structural linguistics, the basis for the content of the tests was provided. Therefore, tests developed in this era were designed to focus on measuring sounds, words and structures in isolation and mostly in a decontextualized format. Since the items focused on discrete elements of language, the focus was on the linguistic content of items, and the items were often placed outside of a communicative context, this came to be known as discrete point testing. Weir (1990) maintained that the clear advantages of testing "discrete" linguistic points are that they yield data which are easily quantifiable, as well as allowing a wide coverage of items. According to Oller (1979) this approach suffered from some deficiencies. Discrete point analysis necessarily breaks the elements of language apart and tries to teach them or test them separately with little or no attention to the way those elements interact in a large context or communication. What makes it ineffective as a basis for teaching or testing languages is that crucial properties of language are lost when its elements are separated.

C. The Integrative Approach (1970s)

Spolsky (1978) called the third stage the 'integrative-sociolinguistic stage,' and it became prominent during the seventies. The decade of the seventies saw a more intense use of statistics to examine tests. In that sense, the 1970s was notably more scientific (psychometric) than the 1960s. This approach involved the testing of language in context and was thus primarily concerned with meaning and the total communicative effect of discourse. These tests were often designed to assess the learners' ability to use two or more skills simultaneously. Thus, integrative tests were concerned with a global view of proficiency-an underlying language competence or grammar of expectancy, which every learner possessed regardless of the purpose for which the language is being learned.

Integrative testing involves functional language but not the use of functional language. Integrative tests are best described by the use of cloze testing and of dictation. The rational for integrative testing is derived from the transformational linguist's concentration on language competence and the cognitive psychologist's rationalistic approach in trying to discover the psychological principles of organizing and functioning.

John Oller wrote extensively during this period, so much so that one could call this "the decade of John Oller". Oller's (1976) approach differed from the approach of the 1960s in that he focused on the test as a whole, and attempted to define the construct that it measured. The first feature of the psychometric approach which Oller challenged was the neglect of context. Oller's proficiency was unitary; where discrete-point tests eliminated context.

Some experts believe that integrative and discrete-point tests form the two extremes of one continuum. On the one hand, there are the most discrete-point items, on the other there are the most integrative with most types of items such as reading comprehension items falling in between.

D. Functional-communicative Approach (1980s)

Publishing an article with the title 'Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing', Canale and Swain (1980) can be considered as the originators of this approach to language testing. Canale and Swain (1980) proposed a tripartite theory of communicative competence consisting of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. They discussed the relevance of these different types of

competence for second language teaching and second language testing. Within the realm of testing, they discussed the features of competence that could go into a communicative test and the features of the examinee's performance that could or should be evaluated. Their framework made continual reference to the communicative context and the learner's communication needs.

Communicative tests are concerned primarily with how language is use in communication. Because of their emphasis on context and authentic material they reflect the culture of a particular country. Since they take the learners' needs into account, they are very much suitable for the testing of English for specific purposes. Communicative testing has introduced the concept of qualitative modes of assessment in preference to quantitative ones. This approach is advantageous over the previous approaches in that it adopts a more humanistic approach to language testing. The functional-communicative approach has moved away from norm-referenced testing and prefers to make use of criterion-referenced testing, that is, each student's performance is evaluated according to his or her degree of success in performing the language tasks rather than solely in relation to the performances of other students. Moreover, from another point of view, qualitative forms of assessments are given preference and superior to quantitative assessments favored in psychometric testing.

It should be kept in mind that, in most cases, the difference between various theories is not of type but of degree. In fact, all tests can be placed along a continuum with more discrete-point items at the one end and more functional items at the other.

III. CHANGES OF SCOPE AND PHILOSOPHY: FROM TESTING TO ASSESSMENT

As was mentioned above, for nearly half of a century, various forms of language tests with different aims dominated the field of language testing and teaching. Most of such tests consisted of large-scale tests with strong emphasis on statistical analysis. Tests' scores were considered as the only true indicator of testees' performances without any attention to the process of learning and teaching. School practices remained in fact largely conditioned by the traditional vision of assessment characterized by tests, examinations, selection, grades and marks. However, there was a strong need for language testers to rethink their assumptions about language testing and consider tests as a fruitful activity yielding significant results concerning both the processes of teaching and learning.

Assessment developed historically for the purposes of selection and certification—particularly, selection for further educational opportunities beyond the minimum state provision and for employment (Torrance, 1995). The pressing need to find a mechanism of selection that would be socially acceptable and would identify the 'best' candidates led to a premium being put on assessment techniques that appeared to be fair and objective, and had high levels of reliability (Broadfoot, 1995). According to Torrance (1995) assessment experts have for the past couple of decades recognized and argued in favour of assessment as an essential component to learning. This theoretical shift away from 'measuring' learning and towards assessment that is explicitly designed to promote learning came primarily in response to our growing understanding of learning as a meaning-making process in which, contrary to our prior understanding that knowledge can be passed directly from one head to another, much depends on the learner's constructions of his or her own experiences. Another contributing factor was the realization of the multiple ways in which the still ubiquitous presence of the traditional forms of assessment—namely, tests and examinations—in contemporary educational systems affects negatively the teaching–learning environment.

In spite of the public acceptance, Gipps (1994) contends that the fact remains, however, that the traditional assessment model hinders learning in multiple ways. The very essence of traditional assessment, especially within the confines of the classroom, rejects the foundations of a quality education that would ultimately benefit both individuals and society at large. If we widen our understanding of the fact that everyone has the capacity to learn and is worthy of the best possible investment in his or her education—it becomes unsustainable to continue using an assessment model that has traditionally developed to focus on selection, certification and accountability. In particular, it is recognized that assessment is now required to achieve a wider range of purposes which includes supporting teaching and learning, providing information about students, teachers and schools, and driving the curriculum and teaching. This fact has increasingly rendered the traditional model underpinning assessment theory an inadequate framework and has necessitated the development of a new theory to further our understandings of, and practices in, educational assessment (Gipps, 1994). This new reconceptualization of assessment, which is educationally promising, will be discussed through the following sections.

IV. WHAT IS DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT (DA)?

As it was mentioned through the lines above, for a couple of years traditional forms of assessment were dominant in the field of language testing. According to Garb (2008, cited in Xiaoxiao & Yan, 2010) traditional summative assessment attempts to summarize students' learning at some point in time, say the end of a course, but cannot provide the immediate, contextualized feedback useful for helping teacher and students during the learning process. He describes DA as a way of assessing the true potential of children that extends the interactive nature of leaning to the process of assessment. The teacher and the students come into a dialogue to find out the students' current level of performance on any task and share with each other the possible ways in which that performance might be improved on

a subsequent occasion. This deliberate and planned meditational teaching and the assessment becomes an integral and continuous process. In DA the teacher acts as an improvement promoter and provides immediate and situated feedback during the whole procedure; moreover, the focus of DA is students' future development, not the outcome of the past development (Garb, 2008, cited in Xiaoxiao & Yan, 2010).

Moreover, as Lidz (1978, p. 99) state DA challenges conventional views on teaching and assessment by arguing that these should not be seen as separate activities but should instead be fully integrated. This integration occurs as intervention is embedded within the assessment procedure in order to interpret individuals' abilities and lead them to higher levels of functioning. The unification of assessment and instruction is grounded in Vygotsky's understanding of development.

According to Haywood and Lidz (2007, p. 1) the dynamic assessment website defines DA as "an interactive approach to conducting assessment within the domains of psychology, speech/language, or education that focuses on the ability of the learner to respond to intervention." They maintain that what is the major component of definitions provided so far for DA is "active intervention by examiners and assessment of examinee's response to intervention." (p. 1)

Haywood and Tzuriel (2002, cited in Haywood & Lidz, 2007, p. 2) define dynamic assessment as "a subset of interactive assessment that includes deliberate and planned meditational teaching and the assessment of the effects of that teaching on subsequent performance."

V. THEORETICAL BASIS OF DA

The theoretical roots of DA lie in Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory of child development, (Vygotsky, 1986) in which the role of the parent, carer, teacher, sibling, or peer, in interacting with the individual child, is seen as fundamental to the formation and growth of cognitive skills, which are culturally mediated through these interactions. Cultural mediation is essential in the development of intelligence. For cognition development, sociocultural theory argues that the unit of analysis for the study of development is not the individual acting alone, but the interpersonal functional system formed by people and cultural artifacts acting jointly. As Wu (2006, cited in Xiaoxiao & Yan, 2010) states according to the sociocultural theory, human learning is mediated leaning. Through mediation, usually in the form of dialogue, human cognition develops from other-regulation (the assistance from other significant people, for example a teacher) to self-regulation (independent completion of a given task).

One of the key branches and constructs of Vygotsky's (1986) sociocultural theory is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). The ZPD is defined as the extent to which a child can perform with assistance what they cannot perform alone. In ZPD, the whole picture of learners' development not only includes their actual level of development, but also their responsiveness to mediation which can provide insight into their future development. Vygotsky's (1978) conceptualization of a zone of proximal development (ZPD) suggested that learning can be greatly facilitated in interactions between students and a more knowledgeable and experienced person. Furthermore, students develop the mental functioning required in social interaction within ZPD (Brown, 2004).

Although DA is based on the theory of ZPD originated from Vygotsky's socio-cultural approach, it has not been used by Vygotsky himself. In fact, it is a notable contribution of Feuerstein's work. As Xiaoxiao and Yan (2010) state, Feuerstein regarded DA as a way of assessing the true potential of children that differs significantly from conventional tests. DA is an interactive approach to psychological assessment that embeds intervention within the assessment procedure. According to Xiaoxiao and Yan (2010) the most important two characteristics of DA are: 1) inseparability of assessment and instruction, 2) construction of future development. Thus in fact DA is a future-in-the-making model where assessment and instruction are dialectically integrated as the means to move towards an always emergent future rather than a fixed end-point.

Pena et al. (2001) mentions that the mediated learning experience (MLE) is designed to teach the child problem-solving strategies to achieve successful test-taking performance. The four mediation components include intentionality, transcendence, meaning, and competence. The mediator intends to teach (*intentionality*), and he/she links the immediate task to events in the child's experience (*transcendence*). The mediator enhances the child's awareness of why the task is relevant (*meaning*). Finally, helping the child carry out strategies for approaching a task fosters *competence* (Lidz, 1991; Pena et al., 2001).

Seen in its theoretical context, DA is a broad approach, not a set of specific tests. The psychologist's goal is one of identifying what cognitive skills need developing and strengthening in a child (and this can be conveyed, for example, in the format of an Individual Education Plan), the cognitive requirements of given types of task (which can inform differentiation of the curriculum for the child) and advising upon and supporting the teaching of the child. This will be direct teaching of cognitive skills, as well as of traditional curriculum content. This micro-analysis focuses on the three 'partners in the learning process': the child, the task and the mediator (typically parents or teachers). DA aims to help optimize, through understanding the interplay of these essential elements, the match between the learner and the curriculum on offer (Stringer et al., 1997).

VI. MODELS OF DA

There are different models of dynamic assessment based on which the nature of the assessment procedure varies between these models. A typical DA procedure may involve three phases, a pre-test, teaching, and post-test, in which interaction takes place in the teaching or learning phase. Jitendra and Kameenui (1993) have proposed five models of DA each one will be discussed briefly below.

The fist model is the *test-train-test assessment*, which is based on a psychometric model of assessment developed by Budoff in 1974. This procedure, they explained, yields a post-test score which is an individual's "optimal" level of performance; this can be utilized to plan instruction based on an individual's cognitive strength.

The second model examined is Feuerstein's (1979) *Learning Potential Assessment Device: Meditational Assessment*, which is based on a theory that a lack of mediated learning experiences (interaction between a human and an experience) results in cognitive deficiencies. An advantage of this model is that it allows an examiner to frame or select environmental experiences in a way as appropriate learning sets and habitats for the learner (Feuerstein, 1979).

The third model examined is the *Testing-the Limits Assessment* approach; this is based on the idea that intra-individual differences in processing information occur because of intellectual and personality factors. Jitendra and Kameenui (1993) pointed out that this approach has the advantage of incorporating the testing procedure or interventions directly into the test situation. In addition, these authors specified that procedures incorporated may vary and lead to higher levels of performance irrespective of level of intelligence, cultural or racial differences, or whether a student has a learning disability. Another advantage involves modifications embedded in the testing conditions. In other words, this approach does not require changes in the arrangement or content of traditional tests.

The fourth model examined is the *Graduated Prompting Assessment Approach*. An advantage here is that it utilizes a graduated prompting process and the ZPD to predict student's readiness to learn or benefit from instruction, and does not rely on making high-level inferences. A benefit of this gradation of prompts is that it yields a measurement of the minimum amount of assistance necessary to problem-solve a task; this in turn helps evaluate the student's learning or transfer efficiency.

The fifth model examined is *A Continuum of Assessment Model—Mediated and Graduated Prompting*, which includes mediation assessment that results in a brief, scripted instructional procedure and graduated prompting assessment. This DA model provides valuable information about learning. Another value of this model is its mediated assessment scripts, which can be used to bypass the difficulties encountered with training procedures and high-level inference; its static measures can also be used in conjunction with graduated prompting procedures. Students who perform below criterion can be provided with mediation dynamic assessment to increase independent task performance on tasks already taught. Other benefits of this procedure include generalization to a transfer task with the graduated prompting method, and greater generalization with the mediation (Jitendra & Kameenieu, 1993).

VII. CONCLUDING REMARKS

As it was discussed through this paper, conventional static language tests dominated the field of language testing for many years. The central purpose of such tests was to determine whether some pre-determined achievement level had been reached. Traditional static assessment was limited because it did not directly aim to stimulate learners into becoming independent knowledge constructors and problem solvers. In reaction to traditional language testing there was increasing interest in Dynamic Assessment (DA), which saw language learning as knowledge construction and as being the outcome of an interaction between students and teachers. This approach derived from Vygotsky's (1986, 1978) concept of ZPD-- the idea on how child's cognition develops. Dynamic Assessment (DA) posited that learners' potential is a reliable measure for predicting learners' possible improvement in future, that is, learners' responsiveness to instruction was seen as a measure of learners' potential (ZPD).

Dynamic assessment is recommended as a valid and useful assessment approach which could serve maximized instruction across age groups (Banks & Neisworth, 1995). When working with diverse populations, practitioners can utilize DA, which focuses on the learning process and utilizes meditational approaches that are more closely related to learning process in school and other life contexts (Haywood & Lidz, 2007). Dynamic assessment, though still in the developmental stages, shows strong potential as a language evaluation approach for distinguishing differences from disorders in minority children (Ukrainetz et al., 2000). This alternative assessment provides a solution to the traditional problems of cultural insensitivity inherent in normed tests, and is used to describe psycho-educational assessment procedures (not specific tests or instruments) characterized by a sequence of testing, including pretesting, teaching, and post-testing (Banks & Neisworth, 1995).

Moreover, with regard to the characteristics of DA as well as its utility for diverse learners, some implications can be drawn for its practitioners. First of all, standardized test scores can still be reported, because test administration is not modified, and the student's increase in test scores (as well as their test scores following teaching) may be considered as important as initial test results (Pena et al., 2001). Secondly, DA provides more valid measures of ability. Thirdly, mediated learning experience helps children understand the test tasks with which linguistically-diverse learners are unfamiliar. These students become more aware of labels and the need to use labeling in their daily activities. When they learn linguistic strategies, they can transfer mediated skills across tasks. Therefore, mediated learning experience reduces test bias and improves standardized scores (Pena et al., 2001; Pena et al., 2006). Fourthly, dynamic assessment not only indicates possible educational placement for linguistically-diverse learners, but also suggests effective

directions for instructions (Lidz & Pena, 1996). Finally, dynamic assessment is a multidimensional assessment procedure that can be used across disciplines (e.g., educators, speech and language pathologists), settings (e.g., school, home, and community), and diverse populations (Banks & Neisworth, 1995).

Every new paradigm and theory, concerning its applications and implications has some advantages and disadvantages. Considering the merits of DA, it has been suggested that DA may be especially useful in assessing bilingual children, as well as those from a variety of cultural and ethnic backgrounds (Usmani, 1999). Indeed, in a number of situations, including disability and disadvantage, in which individual functioning poses challenges to school provision, DA is intuitively appealing as educational psychologists search for approaches that seek to explore learning potential rather than confirm poor current performance (Usmani, 1999).

On the other hand, considering its demerits, it should be mentioned that the field of DA as a whole still lacks a substantial body of empirical studies. What has been presented so far is a body of literature trying to elucidate the theoretical foundations and concepts of DA; however, not many practical investigations have been done in the area of language teaching and testing. Adequate training and support would seem to be essential if educational psychologists are to have a real choice of approaches to assessment and, in particular, if DA is to be critically evaluated. In fact, as a newly emergent instruction pedagogy grown up from a well-developed set of theories, DA is not yet widely practiced and is still virtually unknown to many psychologists and educators. According to Thorne (2005, p. 399), DA, a procedure that "unites the goals of better understanding a learners' potential through structured sets of interactions and fostering development through those interactions, is just emergent into social-cultural-based L2 language research" (Cited in Xiaoxiao & Yan, 2010). Except for quite few preliminary DA theory introduction (Tang, 2004), discussion of the strategies for how to practice DA (Peng Jinding, 2004) and the prospect of application of DA in general education and special education (Wang & An, 2005), no practical experimental application has been mentioned in foreign language teaching classroom (Cited in Xiaoxiao & Yan, 2010).

On the whole, we can affirm that the paradigm of dynamic assessment is useful not only in the field of general cognitive performance but also in such curricular domain as EFL learning. At the same time one should be aware of those characteristic features of the dynamic assessment procedure that impose certain limitations on the generalizability of the results. Any dynamic assessment that includes an element of intervention depends on the quality of mediation provided by the assessor. In this respect dynamic assessment is closer to a situation of instruction rather than examination.

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Translation Manipulated by Ideology and Poetics—A Case Study of *The Jade Mountain**

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Abstract—Beyond the traditional linguistic analysis in translation studies, this paper goes further to look into the relationship between translation and history, society, and culture. According to André Lefevere, translation is a rewriting or manipulation of an original text and all rewritings reflect a certain ideology and poetics. This paper takes Witter Bynner's translation *The Jade Mountain* as an example to elaborate how ideology and poetics manipulate poetry translation, including the choice of theme and translation strategy. Generally speaking, if translations are not in conflict with culture's ideology and dominant poetics, they are easier to be accepted. That's the reason why *The Jade Mountain* has received great popularity both as translations from the Chinese and as English poetry in the West.

Index Terms—manipulation, ideology, poetics, translation, *The Jade Mountain*

I. THEORETICAL REVIEW

Translation studies have set foot in many different areas up to now. As the linguistic-oriented studies of translation have declined, the cultural-oriented descriptive approach has been prominent over the past decades. The descriptive approach has its origin in comparative literature and Russian Formalism. The idea of literary polysystem shows that different literatures and genres, including translated and non-translated works, compete for dominance. André Lefevere (1946-1996) moved away from polysystem terminology to examine translation as "rewriting" and consider the role of ideology, poetics and patronage in the system of translated literature. Lefevere dismisses the kinds of linguistic theories of translation, which "have moved from word to text as a unit, but not beyond" (Lefevere, 2005, p.87) without considering the text in its cultural environment. Instead he goes beyond the limitation of language and focuses on the interaction between translation and culture. The kennel of Lefevere's translation theory is the theory of manipulation or rewriting. According to him, any work is not translated in vacuum, which is certainly manipulated or rewritten in a certain form for a certain reason. Ideology and dominant poetics are two main reasons influencing the translation. In addition, he introduced the concept of patronage, which also plays an important part in the translation. According to him, there are two control factors in literary system. The first, within the literary system, is represented by the "professional", including critics, reviewers, teachers and translators. The second, outside of the literary system, is called "patronage". Patronage is usually more interested in the ideology of literature than in its poetics, while professionals are more concerned with poetics.

By "ideology", Lefevere understands, "a set of discourses which wrestle over interests which are in some way relevant to the maintenance or interrogation of power structures central to a whole form of social and historical life" (Shuttleworth, 2004, p.136). If translations are not in conflict with culture's ideology (standards for acceptable behavior in the target culture) (Shuttleworth, 2004, p.87), they are easier to be published. While if the source text collides with the ideology of the target culture, translators may have to modify or leave out the offending parts. Ideology is the most important consideration, which refers to the translator's ideology which he/she willingly accepts or the ideology imposed upon the translators by patronages. Different ideology may produce different translations, because most translators would state their culture's ideology to make their translations published easily. Translators are always caught in the paradox between his ideology and his status as a professional. They can't produce a text opposite to their ideology, at the same time they must convince other professionals that they are worthy of being a translator. Nobody can escape one's own ideology, which suggests that claiming objectivity is "dishonest" (Gentzler, 2004, p.138). "Faithful translation is often inspired by a conservative ideology" (Lefevere, 2005, p.51), but it is utopia to be thought as the only translational strategy possible or allowable, because translation always takes place within a certain ideology and poetics.

Dominant poetics is taken into consideration by Lefevere to examine the concrete factors that systemically govern the reception, acceptance or rejection of literary texts. He analyzes dominant poetics into two components: literary devices and the concept of the role of literature. The former includes the range of genres, symbols, leitmotifs and prototypical situations and characters and the latter is the relation of literature to the social system in which it exists (Munday, 2001, p.129). The first component exerts more conservative influence on the literary system; while the second component tends to exert more innovative influence, which is closely tied to ideology in the social system and

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influences the selection of the theme relevant to the social system if the work is to be noticed. He sees the dominant poetics as tending to be determined by ideology. Translations, deeply "affect the interpenetration of literary systems" (Lefevere, 2005, p.38) not only by creating the image of one writer or work in another literature, but also by introducing new things into the first component and paving the way to changes in its second component. Translations play an important part in the evolution of the literary system, because "the struggle between rival poetics is often initiated by writers, but fought and won or lost by rewriters" (Lefevere, 2005, p.38). Translation is "as important as original writings in the establishment of the poetics of a literary system". (Lefevere, 2005, p.28)

II. INTRODUCTION TO *THE JADE MOUNTAIN*

The Jade Mountain is an English version of *Three Hundred Poems of the T'ang Dynasty* translated by Witter Bynner (1881—1968), an American writer, poet and scholar, in collaboration with the Chinese scholar Kiang Kang-hu (1883—1954). The source anthology was compiled in 1763 by Sun Zhu (1711—1778) in Qing Dynasty, by far the most popular and classical anthology of Tang poems in China due to its refined selection, rational organization, and complete poetical forms. The original anthology contained 310 poems by 77 Tang poets, arranged by subdivisions of the form, including ancient verses of five or seven characters, regular verses of five or seven characters, quatrains of five or seven characters and folk songs. This anthology are planned to be a textbook for children and to be useful until one's hair is white. The common saying is almost known to every household in China— Learning three hundred Tang poems by heart, you can chant poems though you know not the art. This anthology has remained the most popular anthology of Tang poetry and may possibly be the best way to gain a preliminary conception of ancient Chinese literature. Bynner regarded it as "a collection of far wider popularity in China than, say, *The Golden Treasury* in America". (Bynner, 1978, p.6)

Bynner and Kiang chose this anthology right due to its lasting popularity and great influence on Chinese literature and culture, instead of basing their choice of the source text on their interest which is traditionally the main inspiration for most western translators as to translating Chinese poems. The name of *The Jade Mountain* derives from "Is either the tip of earth's Jade Mountain, or a moon-edged roof of paradise" (Bynner, 1978, p.108) translated from the lines written by Li Bai, the most famous poet in Tang Dynasty. Before the anthology of translations was first published in 1929 by Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., many of them had been published piecemeal in various magazines and newspapers, either dominant or not at that time, such as *Little Review, Asian, The China Review, The Literary Review, Bookman* and *Literary Digest*. The anthology was rearranged, according to the alphabetical order of the poets' surnames rather than the poetic forms in the original, "since the prosodic differences that distinguish the various categories of the original are largely obscured in translation" (Watson, 1978, p.17). *The Jade Mountain* has been widely accepted in the western world and has been reprinted again and again and now even becomes the authorized English version of *Three Hundred Poems of the T'ang Dynasty* in electronic library. According to Biography of Witter Bynner in Gale Databases, *The Jade Mountain* was the first complete volume of Chinese poetry to be translated by an American. As Divid Lattimore says, "*The Jade Mountain* was and is the only complete rendering, in any Western language, of a standard Chinese anthology, combing readability and poetic feeling with better than average accuracy and enjoyed enduring favor in college courses devoted to world literature or to East Asian civilization. But its appeal is not limited to the classroom. Tributes to it by Arthur Waley and Kenneth Roxroth have probably helped to maintain its position as an influence on modern Anglo-American poetry" (Lattimore, 1978, p.309). As Burton Watson says, this book "stood up over the years both as translations from the Chinese and as English poetry". (Watson, 1978, p.15)

III. MANIPULATION OF *THE JADE MOUNTAIN* BY IDEOLOGY

Before the early 20th century, most eastern countries were still considered inferior to the western world. It's no wonder that eastern literature was always ignored and treated as "low" literature, since ideology is one of the main factors influencing literary system. However, the first decades in the 20th century, when *The Jade Mountain* was translated, is the prosperous period for the Chinese poems translated and accepted in America for some ideological reasons.

First, during the first two decades, the world experienced great changes in political and economic structure, which led to changes in other aspects of life including changes in literary system. The most important event was the First World War (1914-1918), which had a profound impact on the whole society. Shortly after the war there appeared an economic boom, but the unexpected economic crisis befalling America in 1929 fragmented many people's dream, so that "excitement and enthusiasm subsided to make way for disillusionment"(Chang Yaoxin, 1990, p.217). Western faith is closely connected with Christianity. After the First World War, all forces seemed to be pulling apart. It seemed that "there was no mythical center with god expelled from the universe… with nothing to mediate between man and his cosmos" (Chang Yaoxin, 1990, p.217). When the loss of faith was intensified, a new remedy must be found to eliminate people's chaotic and fragmented sense of life and keep the stability of the whole society. As Bynner said, "Tang poets, living their Taoism, had eased meship into the whole current of life itself, no god or man intervening". (Bynner, 1978, p.4) Against the burdens of life, the Tang poets could find "an inner peace and a good will toward men" and in the Tang poems permeates the sense of "oneness in man, nature and eternity" (Bynner, 1978, p.4). As mentioned before, the

selection of the theme is relevant to the social system. All of the spirits reflected in Tang poems could help to revive westerners' confidence in simplifying, cleansing and strengthening their lives, which may be considered as a prerequisite for Tang poems including *The Jade Mountain* to be translated and well accepted in America.

Second, After the First World War, America broke through its isolation geographically and proved its economic and political power in the world. American intellectuals were eager to broaden their vision and took great curiosity in learning the society outside, especially the mysterious eastern civilization. An understanding of people in the Orient has arisen and oriental thought and art has reached the West. Chinese civilization, "to be not only the oldest civilization still vigorous but to be a civilization profoundly informed as to lasting values"(Bynner, 1978, p.11) aroused great interest in western world. Ezra Pound's *Cathay* (1915) and Amy Lowell's *Fir-Flower Tablets* (1921) triggered the upsurge of the English translation of Chinese poems in America. Though Pound's translation received great popularity in America, but *Cathay* only contained nineteen poems, from which English readers couldn't appreciate the complete picture of Chinese poems. Lowell's translation was criticized by Bynner "for the exaggerated use of root-meaning in Chinese characters, so that under their hands what was natural, direct, every-day expression in the orient would become in English odd or complex or literary" (Bynner, 1978, p.7). In comparison with the two anthologies mentioned above, the brevity of *Three Hundred Poems of the T'ang Dynasty* is an appropriate choice as an introduction to English readers in Bynner's times, "when they had little or no knowledge of Chinese poetry" (Watson, 1978, p.17). More importantly the source anthology *Three Hundred Poems of the T'ang Dynasty* is a classic anthology which had gained great popularity in China. This anthology contains the essence of Chinese literature and culture, undoubtedly worthwhile introducing to the western readers. Bynner and Kiang made their decision to translate it into English, right fit for the temper of the age.

Meanwhile translator's ideology is well reflected in Bynner's choice of translation strategy. For example, in translating names of person and place, Bynner thinks for readers in English it is better to eliminate or use only seldom the names of place and persons not highly important to the sense of a poem. However, in a country as old as china, place names naturally come to have rich historical or legendary associations and "their mere mention in literature is sufficient to call up scenes of departed glory, fierce battles, the excitement of a bustling city, or the loneliness of the frontier" (Watson, 1971, p128). When translating such names, Bynner tried to make a careful adjustment in order to completely reproduce the original as well as to make it easier understood by western readers. He substitutes more general geographical terms for specific place names in the original, for example, in Du Fu's poem "Both Sides of the Yellow River Recaptured by the Imperial Army", Bynner translates the lines as "Back from this mountain, past another mountain, / Up from the south, north again----to my own town!". Bynner uses the general geographical terms "this mountain", "another mountain", "south", "north" instead of four specific place names in the original: "Ba Xia", "Wu Xia", "Xiang Yang, "Luo Yang". It is reasonable for Bynner to translate in this way since western readers are unfamiliar with these places, but to the disadvantage the translation only locates the place so roughly that target readers can't feel the sharp shift from water route to land route as Chinese readers can. In addition, Bynner replaces some current names for their ancient use. For example, "Jin Ling" is translated into "Nan-King", "Guang Ling" into "Yang-chou", "E Zhou" into "Wu-ch'ang" and "Tu Bo" into "Tibetan". According to Bynner, it will do well to the scholars' studies on Chinese ancient geography; meanwhile make it more acceptable among the American readers in his times. In regards to translate names of persons, Bynner makes occasional unimportant omissions. Bynner has omitted the "ninth-born" or "nineteenth-born", frequently added in the original to names of persons, meaning the ninth or nineteenth child in a family. In translating the names unfamiliar in the Occident, Bynner often employs the name and qualities of some other familiar ones. Taking the translation of instruments as an example, he translates "Hu Jia "(a kind of ancient instrument used by ancient people in the northern border of China) into "Flageolet", and translates "Bi Li"(another kind of ancient instrument in China) into "Reed-pipe". Some other translators translate the two kinds of instrument both into "Tartar Pipe". Clearly "Flageolet" is a kind of western instrument, which completely changes the atmosphere of the original poem. "Reed-pipe" shows the quality of the instrument, while it misses its culture-loaded meaning. In the article "Poetry and Culture" Bynner commented, "Whenever possible, I have avoided phraseology which, natural and familiar in Chinese, would be exotic or quaint in English; I have hoped rather to accent in these Tang masterpieces the human and universal qualities by which they have endured"(Bynner, 1978, p.44), which clearly reflects the translator's ideological manipulation of the translation.

IV. MANIPULATION OF *THE JADE MOUNTAIN* BY POETICS

At the end of the 19th century, most American poets still imitated their past masters. Traditional English poetics was characterized with "its iambic pentameter, its verbosity, and extra-poetic padding" (Chang Yaoxin, 1990, p.219). Especially during the Victorian period, the dominant poetics of poetry writing was the strict regular form, such as iambic pentameter. Dominant poetics is closely tied to ideology in the social system. The new age demanded proper literary form to express the temper of the age, so the conventional dominant poetics was confronted with the challenges of a new verse form to suit the great social changes. In America Walt Whitman published his *Leaves of Grass* by using free verse, which challenged the conventional dominant poetics to a great degree. After the First World War, more and more modern poets began to use free verse so as to develop a rich rhythm and splendid thoughts, such as the poets W. H. Auden and T. S. Eliot.

Free verse is indeed a term describing various styles of poetry without using strict meter or rhyme, but that are still

recognizable as "poetry" with a certain form. Free verse "went as far back as Milton, but it was with the imagists that it became a legitimate poetic form" (Chang Yaoxin, 1990, p.221). An early usage of the term appears in 1915 in the preface to an Imagist anthology, which states, "We do not insist upon 'free-verse' as the only method of writing poetry. We fight for it as for a principle of liberty" (Chang Yaoxin, 1990, p.221). In the first years of 20th century, a group of English and American poets came together to write poetry in a new way, to express themselves through a series of clear, exact images. They were greatly inspired by the Chinese classic poetry, as Marcus Cunliffe said, "In Chinese and Japanese verse, they found the perfect reticence: word distilled" (Cunliffe, 1986, p.248). Ezra Pound, the leader of Imagism, who borrowed heavily from Chinese ideograms and Japanese *haiku* to change a system overburdened with metrical forms by breaking through obsolete themes, abstract preach, verbose expression and constrained form. Obviously since the modern English poetry movement the dominant poetics of English poetry writing tended to shift from regular form to free verse.

In a literary system, the dominant poetics in the native literature may influence the poetics of translation greatly. In the early 20th century, modernism dominates the world of arts and literature. Traditional metrical poetic form was questioned and rejected by modern poets, which varied the trend of poetry translation correspondingly. Even those influential translators, such as James Legge, Herbert A. Giles and W. J. B. Fletcher were challenged on their metrical translation strategy (Zhu Hui, 2008, p.81). On the contrary, free verse translation boomed during this period, such as Ezra Pound's *Cathay* (1915), Arthur Waley's *170 Chinese poems* (1918), Amy Lowell and Florence Ayscough's *Fir-Flower Tablets* (1921). Ezra Pound's *Cathay* received great popularity in the west. As Xu Yuan-zhong said, "Almost all the earlier translators tried to translate classical Chinese verse into English rhyme. Ezra Pound (1885-1972) was the first to render Chinese poetry into free verse in his *Cathay*". (Xu Yuan-zhong, 1991, p.35) Another remarkable free verse translation was attributed to Arthur Waley (1889-1966), who develops an extremely successful type of free verse based on "sprung rhythm" that avoids redundancy of fixed-meter rhyming English prosody in order not to sacrifice sense to sound. As for Amy Lowell, she considered it more important to reproduce what she called "the perfume of a poem than its metrical form" (Bynner, 1978, p.38).

When Bynner began making translations from Chinese poetry around 1920, translation of Chinese poetry in English free verse had been popular in the western world. Bynner's translation was right fit for the dominant poetics of his times, that is, to follow the mainstream of free verse translation. Therefore it's no wonder that Bynner's translation received great popularity in his times. It is safe to say one of the principal reasons why Bynner's translations remain readable and exciting even today is that he translates these poems in the form of free verse by reproducing the meaning of the original poems beyond the limitation of the metrical form. On the other hand, Bynner's free verse translation was still faced with great challenges. In his times, free verse translation had not yet completely accepted, as Burton Watson said, "Free verse itself was still highly controversial, and its application to Chinese translation was deplored by many, as it continues to be in some quarters today"(Watson, 1978, p.25). Furthermore, "Free verse, despite its deceptive title, is an extremely difficult form to handle, particularly when applied to translation"(Watson, 1978, p.26), so it is a forbidden task for Bynner to translate an entire Chinese anthology into free verse, rather than to select merely those poems that he felt would come across well in English.

V. Conclusion

According to André Lefevere's Rewriting or Manipulating Theory, translation is manipulated by some extrinsic factors such as ideology, dominant poetics and patronage, among which ideology is the deciding one. Generally speaking, when the translation conforms to the ideology or dominant poetics in the receiving culture, it is easier to be accepted. While if it collides with the ideology of the target culture, translators may have to modify some parts to fit for it if he wants his translation to be published easily. Bynner's translation *The Jade Mountain* has received the great popularity in America since it was produced around 1920s, exactly because it serves as a new remedy to eliminate people's chaotic and fragmented sense of life after the First World War and caters to the western people's great curiosity in learning mysterious eastern civilization. Of course the translator's ideology also includes the one he/she willingly accepts except for the one imposed upon the translators by patronages. Translator's ideology is well reflected in Bynner's choice of translation strategy. For example, in translating names of person and place and the names unfamiliar in the Occident, Bynner removes some parts not highly important to the sense of a poem or replace the expressions which are natural and familiar in Chinese, but exotic or quaint in English. Obviously no one can escape his own ideology, so that the absolute "faithful translation" is utopia to be thought as the only translational strategy possible or allowable, because translation always takes place within a certain ideology and poetics. As we have said before, dominant poetics is the other main factor manipulating translators' translation strategy; meanwhile translation in return may enhance or overthrow the current dominant poetics because "the struggle between rival poetics is often initiated by writers, but fought and won or lost by rewriters" (Lefevere, 2005, p.38). Obviously Bynner's translation rejected the traditional poetics and followed the new trend of poetry writing and translation in the form of free verse, which also made a great contribution to the evolution of free verse in English world.

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Capitalism the Inhumane Form: A Lukacsian Comparative Reading of Capitalism in *The Mill on the Floss* and *Ulysses*

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Abstract—**For Marxists, capitalism is a real kick in the teeth. Capitalism, as Marxists affirm, is an inhumane, devastating form, because it is antithetical to Marxism, and because it encourages dishonest competition and the destruction of the small by the big. For much worse, it debases culture and transforms all things, even human beings into commodities. Generally most Marxists almost unanimously make this point that capitalism causes negative effects and they are still trying to show them. In this paper Capitalism and some of its effects on the societies depicted in *The Mill* and *Ulysses* will be assessed. The reader will learn that the rise of different classes in a capitalist society, according to Lukacs, is the result of the injustice; that these classes struggle and as a result, some of them will disappear along with their culture and civilization; that the capitalist system is barbaric because it turns human beings into animals, love into mere sexual desire; that capitalism has a bad influence on literature and turns it into a commodity; that economic necessity in a capitalist society determines everything.**

Index Terms—**capitalist society, class conflicts, division of labour, Lukacs, Marxism, modernist novel, realistic novel**

I. Introduction

One of the defects that Marxists point out to and firmly believe in it, is the 'inhumane' form of capitalism, which is the subject of discussion in this paper. They say that capitalism is brutal and subversive. But to perceive the genesis of this alleged atrocity, it will do the reader good to know the meaning of some key terms explicated by Karl Marx himself: division of labour, contradiction, alienation, property, and class.

As Harrison- Barbet (2001) says, in a capitalist society as the population and naturally productivity and needs augment, the division of labour becomes more distinct and intricate. The contradiction according to Selden (1993) "is expressed in the conflict of interest between capitalist and worker," because the means of production belong to capitalists and labourers who own their tools, at last have nothing to sell save their labour (p. 77). Property and class come from the concept of division of labour. "*Property* arises from the unequal distribution of labour . . ." and this in its turn gives way to the emergence of different *classes*. *Alienation* is the corollary of class conflict (Harrison – Barbet, 2001, pp. 264 - 65). Marxists emphasize upon alienation, which as a matter of fact, is the essence of brutality in a capitalist society. Hans Bertens (2001) puts it in this way:

Capitalism, Marxism tells us, thrives on exploiting its labourers… capitalists grow rich… because the labourers that work for them and actually produce goods… get less… Labourers have known this for a long time… What they do not know, however, is how capitalism *alienates* them from themselves by seeing them in terms of production… as objects rather than human beings (p. 83).

Some crucial elements have to be discussed at length in order to highlight the cruelty of capitalism as much as possible.

II. Class Struggle

As mentioned above, it is the division of labour that gives way to the rise of classes in a capitalist society. It implies that by no means can a capitalist society be a classless society. That is why the Russian democratic- revolutionary critics whom Lukacs (1964) puts on a pedestal, "center their investigations around the power of a writer to create types" (p. 115). They remind us that if characters like Hamlet, Don Quixote and Faust are still alive, and if the greatest values of the past have remained so far, it is because of the creation of such immortal and comprehensive types. Realists as these critics put forward should circumvent the position of mere isolated observers only through a clear understanding of the struggle of classes (Lukacs, 1964).

Lukacs (1964) contends that membership in a class is just about considered as "a biological… unchangeable, necessity, a fate" that must be acquiesced (p. 208). He continues:

The division between the personal individual and the class individual, the accidental nature of conditions of life for the individual, appears only with the emergence of class, which is itself a product of the *bourgeoisie*. This accidental character is only engendered and developed by competition and the struggle of individuals among themselves. Thus, in

imagination, individuals seem more free under the dominance of the *bourgeoisie* than before, because their conditions of life seem accidental, in reality, of course, they are less free, because they are more subjected to the objective compulsion. (p. 208)

Like Lukacs, Brecht also does count class struggle for much: "Problems of society have become problems of humanity, subsuming the inner conflicts and contradictions of the warring parties" (Mulhern, 1992, p. 238). Both *The Mill* and *Ulysses* depict bourgeois societies, which in a Marxist view have to contain classes and the writer should clearly show the conflict between them. Now it is better to compare these two novels in this case.

In *The Mill* George Eliot has created various types- hence class conflicts. A critic has referred to Eliot's dexterity in producing various classes giving Maggie's aunts as an example:

These sisters have married three men dissimilar enough in taste and temper to have each an individual and distinct existence, and yet with a general resemblance in the cast and level of their minds which stamps them as belonging to the same class and the same generations. There is nothing in which George Eliot succeeds more conspicuously than in this very nice art of making her characters like real people, and yet shading them off into the large group which she is describing. (Carroll, 1971, pp. 115-16)

This novel comprises a three- dimensional conflict between two different classes. The conflict happens to be between Mr. Tulliver (a landowner), Lawyer Wakem (a bourgeois), and aunt Glegg (another bourgeois). Of course there are other characters (uncle Glegg, uncle Deane) who can be classed as bourgeois but they are not directly embroiled in the conflict.

Someone called Pivart plans to divert the river from its natural channel, which will have dire results for Mr. Tulliver's family. Mr. Tulliver who emphasizes that "Dorlcote Mill's been in our family a hundred years and better, and nobody ever heard of a Pivart meddling with the river…", and knows "who's at the bottom of it; he's got Wakem to back him and egg him on", despite his wife and especially his sister's opposition who brilliantly says: "This Mr. Pivart's a rich man, by what I can make out, and the rich mostly get things their own way", he goes to the law and loses it (Eliot, 1985, pp.144-45). As a result he must transfer the land and the mill to Wakem. On the other hand a discussion occurs between Mr. Tulliver and aunt Glegg who is a usurer and has made a loan to Mr. Tulliver. She is dead set against Mr.Tulliver's decision on Tom's expensive education. She frets Tulliver family's prodigality will lead to bankruptcy and therefore her money will be in jeopardy. Mrs. Glegg's expression "There is folks I've lent money to, as perhaps I shall repent o' lending money to kin", implies that Mr. Tulliver should get her money back (Eliot, 1985, p. 68). Mr. Tullliver who is headstrong, rash, irritable, prejudiced, incompetent, proud, vindictive and inflexible makes up his mind that he should immediately pay her money back but of course he cannot afford this loan, Tom's expensive education, good money he has spent on law, and naturally Mrs. Glegg's prognostication comes true.

The bourgeois hostility towards landowners is obviously shown in this novel. For instance Mrs. Glegg who is a usurer skins other people by means of her loans and does the same thing with Mr. Tulliver and should be considered as one of the most crucial elements which conduce to Mr. Tulliver's ruin that in its turn symbolizes the extermination of landowners. Also, the reader can find an implicit relation between landowners and peasants. The reader realizes that Mr. Tulliver himself has made a loan to Mr. Moss, his brother in law, who is a poor peasant. Although despite his bankruptcy, Mr. Tulliver decides not to recall the loan from him, the reader deduces from this fact that Mr. Tulliver at least for a certain time has been exploiting Mr. Moss and may say 'tit for tat'. This symbolizes the oppression of the peasants by landowners.

In *Ulysses*, Joyce describes the capitalist Ireland of the twentieth century. Although it cannot be a classless society, the depiction of classes in *Ulysses* is not as distinct as it is in *The Mill*. This is one of the most important faults that Lukacs (1964) finds with modernist writers such as Joyce. He asserts that when writers condone the creation of types in their works they fail to crystallize the influence of social and economic forces in them and naturally their works lack the requisite objectivity. As a matter of fact *Ulysses* is not so classless as Lukacs thinks. Although vaguely, Jennifer Levine remarks the same thing in his essay on *Ulysses*. Speaking about 'Aeolus' in which several people meet and talk to each other in The Freeman Newspaper Office, he says: "No coincidence, perhaps, that the little drama being played out between J.J. O'Molloy and his fellow Dubliners repeats the larger drama of social mobility, of class and money…"(Attridge, 1999, p. 146).   At a glance the reader can at least clarify some loose classes. For instance she may class Myles Crawford, the editor, and Councilor Nannetti, the business manager for the Freeman's Journal, as the bourgeois and Bloom who works in the journal, as a working class man. Also, s/he should not forget the Dedalus family or Father Cowley as the poor and poverty-stricken.

Of course in a Marxist view the working classes are those who are remunerated for industrial work and usually exploited by the bourgeois. In comparison, Bloom is paid for work in a Journal and is egregiously oppressed by the bourgeois (Nanmetti and Crawford). Bloom wants to print an advertisement for the firm of Alexander Keyes but both the editor and the Counciller repeatedly put a spoke in his wheel because to them the exchange is a minor contretemps, but for Bloom the Keyes advertisement is his major commercial transaction of the day and a 'key' for him as the name Keyes suggests. When Bloom speaks to Nannetti about the ad, Nannetti reacts indifferently and inattentively. In addition, when he telephones the office to talk to Crawford about it, the editor tells professor MacHugh who happens to answer the phone, "tell him go to hell" (Joyce, 1961, p. 137). In another moment when Bloom is at the office and is informing Crawford of the conditions that Keyes has made for the publication of the advertisement, he curtly says: "He can kiss my royal Irish arse, … anytime he likes, tell him" (Joyce, 1961, p. 147). And leaves the office without telling Bloom what to do. As a rule,

in Lukacs's view these would not really be objective conflicts because Bloom is always passive. Simultaneously the reader should not be oblivious of this fact that Joyce has peopled his novel with ordinary non-hero characters and his world is a far cry from Eliot's.

III. DESTRUCTION OF CULTURE AND CIVILIZATION

According to Lukacs (1964), 'destruction of culture and civilization' is one of the wickedest atrocities that capitalism commits. He says: "This vision of an imminent cataclysm, of the imminent destruction of culture and of the world, is the idealistically inflated form which a presentiment of class extinction always takes" (p. 39). It means that destruction of culture and civilization happens when a class dominates the other. Both in *The Mill* and *Ulysses* the writers show this fact. The only nuance is that this destruction in *The Mill* transpires in a process which can be seen clearly from the beginning to the end whereas in *Ulysses* it is implied in some episodes which its distinction needs careful scrutiny.

In 'Telemachus', the first chapter of *Ulysses*, three characters are introduced to the reader: Stephen Dedalus (one of the main protagonists in the novel), Buck Mulligan (a medical student), and Haines (an English man from Oxford who studies Gaelic language in Dublin). They live on the stairhead of the Martello tower rented by Stephen. Haines as an English man symbolizes English capitalism that has been imposed on Ireland. Joyce uses this character to ironically crystallize how the British have destroyed the Irish culture. In the morning of the day June 16, 1904 in which *Ulysses* is narrated, an old Irish milk woman brings milk to the Martello Tower for Stephan and his friends. Haines speaks Gaelic to her but she does not understand: "Is it French you are talking, sir? The old woman said to Haines" (Joyce, 1961, p. 14). When she is told that it is Irish, the milk woman is stupefied and asks whether Haines is from west. Buck Mulligan ironically notifies her: "he is English, … and he thinks we ought to speak Irish in Ireland" (Joyce, 1961, p. 14). Joyce implies that even an old woman that belongs to previous generation does not know Gaelic language let alone the Irish youth such as Stephan. It was for the same reason that Joyce rejected the claims of an Irish cultural nationalism. The young Joyce found the latter -especially the recovery of the Gaelic language, occultism, and folklore-parochial and backward-looking… Joyce supplemented his studies with visits to the Capel Street Library in Dublin, whose new books introduced him to the brilliant Continental literature then published abroad. This reading provided an alternative to the imperialistic inflections of the English poetic tradition as Joyce would later represent it in *Ulysses*. (Norris, 1998, p. 4)

To extricate Ireland from the tyranny of the English culture, Joyce looked down on Irish culture as the vanquished and instead looked up to the Continent as the source of power and inspiration. It is mostly pertinent that Haines suffers from a kind of hysterical nightmare in which he sees a black panther. This black panther symbolizes destruction as Buck Mulligan later in *Ulysses* thinks about Haines: "Ah! Destruction! The Black Panther" (Joyce, 1961, p. 412)! In this way Joyce shows that the English capitalism has subverted the Irish language and culture. In addition, Stephan calls himself "a server of a servant", which spells out his relationship to Ireland, a country that is itself a servant to two foreign tyrants: England and Rome (Joyce, 1961, p. 11). To England, the dominant culture, because Ireland is a British colony and to Rome because Ireland's main religion is Catholicism.

In *The Mill* the reader witnesses a process which highlights the destruction of landowners by the bourgeoisie. A class dominates another as Lukacs contends. Mr Tulliver's demise symbolizes the annihilation of landowners. But for this, the writer does not solely blame the bourgeois group. She excoriates landowners too for their passivity, prejudice, incompetence, inflexibility and corruption which all embody in Mr. Tulliver's character. For example she depicts Mr. Tulliver as a usurer making a loan to and exploiting his poor brother in law. When landowners aimed only at maintaining their land and the current situation, the bourgeois planned to obtain everything. The landowners' strategy was to defend whereas the bourgeois strategy was to attack.

When Mr. Tulliver is on his deathbed he expresses a wish to Tom: "you'll try and get the old mill back" (Eliot, 1985, p. 326). Although Tom succeeds to get it back, by no stretch of the imagination can the reader say that it means the landowners will resuscitate because Tom has already changed into a bourgeois since he started working at the trading firm, Guest and Co. It was the firm, which bought Dorlcote Mill and appointed Tom as manager.

Also, George Eliot organizes a mordant stricture on the government of that time for its cooperation with the bourgeois which by itself typifies how far the bourgeois had influenced upon and taken control of the government. As a matter of fact, and as Lukacs (1964) says, "the bourgeois and the government are one and the same" (p. 32). In *The Mill* the reader observes the people's deep mistrust of the English law system. Although Wakem is a rascal, as Mr. Tulliver says, and after the exchange between Mrs. Tulliver and Wakem, the narrator's comment confirms Mr. Tulliver's assessment of Wakem's character, the bourgeois bureaucratic government after squandering Mr. Tulliver's good money announces Wakem as the winner. Then by the death of Mr. Tulliver at the end of the novel, Eliot implies the destruction of a culture, which belongs to landowners. Additionally, as it is clear she does not fail to elucidate the role of government in it.

IV. BARBARISM OF THE CAPITALIST SYSTEM

'Barbarism of the capitalist system', as Lukacs (1964) says is the corollary of the capitalist division of labour which "permeates all human relationships, it becomes the way of life, the decisive determinant of thoughts and emotions"; and causes human beings to be "transformed into parts of an inhuman machine" (p. 163). In his *The Meaning of Contemporary Realism* Lukacs (1979) contends: "The opposition of man as animal to man as social being leads straight to a glorification

of the abnormal and to an undisguised anti-humanism" (p. 32). Of course here he refers to those modern philosophers (such as Heidegger) who condoned the social aspect of human beings. Lukacs (1979) even transcends this and mentions that the conditions that capitalism brings about turn man into a beast.

A.   Animality

Both in *Ulysses* and *The Mill*, capitalism has changed some characters into human- like animals. Buck Mulligan, Haines, and Blazes Boylan in *Ulysses*, lawyer Wakem, aunt Glegg in *The Mill* may be included.

In *Ulysses*, Mulligan takes Stephen's money without any feeling of guilt. He is even going to make Stephen borrow money from Haines. Stephen has rented the Tower and the other two live in it like parasites. In 'Telemachus' Stephen submits the key to the tower to Mulligan and because these two scuffle in the 'Oxen of the Sun', Stephen realizes that it is impossible to return to the tower and sees Mulligan as a 'usurper'. Mulligan always tortures Stephan by reminding him of his poor mother whose request (when she was on his deathbed) that he pray for her like a Christian, was refused by Stephen. One day Stephen goes to Mulligan's house. His mother asks him who is in his room and Mulligan cruelly answers: "*O, it's only Dedalus whose mother is beastly dead*" (Joyce, 1961, p. 8) Also, Haines symbolizes English capitalism and Stephen is now both symbolically and literally homeless. He has been victimized by the tyrant Mulligan, just as his country has been spiritually 'usurped' and plundered by England (Haines).

In 'Crice' Joyce (1961) reiterates symbolically the brutality of English capitalism imposed on Ireland. In the brothel district Stephen states "But in here it is I must kill the priest and the king" (p. 589). Private Carr thinks that Stephan is menacing King Edward VII and attacks on him. Actually, Stephen is repeating the adage that Ireland is the captive of the double tyrants of the Roman Catholic Church and Britain. More symbolism is also apparent in Carr's attack on Stephen. The blow represents, symbolically, English oppression of a nearly defenseless Ireland.

Blazes Boylan treats Bloom brutally. Just like Mulligan and Haines, he is a usurper too. While Mulligan and Haines have usurped Stephen's house, as Goldman (1966) says, Boylan has warped Bloom's life by usurping his wife, Molly. Throughout the novel the reader sees Bloom think of Molly and Boylan that is one of the most salient themes of the novel.

In *The Mill* after Mr. Tulliver's bankruptcy, Mrs. Tulliver decides to "avert the result most to be dreaded, and prevent Wakem from entertaining the purpose of bidding for the mill" (Eliot, 1985, p. 225). Therefore, she goes to Wakem and modestly entreats him not to buy the mill, instead let Guest and Co buy it and put Mr. Tulliver as the manager. As a matter of fact, by this suggestion Mr. Tulliver goes out of the frying pan into the fire because it makes Wakem think up a wicked scheme. The following paragraph mentioned by the narrator (whom the reader may identify with Eliot herself) conspicuously shows Wakem's animality:

Wakem was not without this parenthetic vindictiveness towards the uncomplimentary miller; and now Mrs. Tulliver had put the notion into his head, it presented itself to him as a pleasure to do the very thing that would cause Mr. Tulliver the most deadly mortification… not made up of crude malice, but mingling with it the relish of self-approbation. To see an enemy humiliated gives a certain contentment, but this is jejune compared with… seeing him humiliated by your benevolent action or concession on his behalf. That is a sort of revenge which falls into the scale of virtue… and here was an opportunity of… making him his own servant. (Eliot, 1985, pp. 231-2)

When Mr. Tulliver is ill and on bed, the aunts and uncles gather together in his house as Mrs. Clegg puts it "to advise and consult about what's to be done in this disgrace as has fallen upon the family…" (Eliot, 1985, p. 190). Of course the sisters bicker and criticize and reveal only their triviality and selfish materialism. Eventually Tom who is present, musters all his courage and proposes that if they think it is a disgrace and their things must be sold up, they had better prevent it by letting them use the money which aunt Glegg and aunt Pullet think of leaving to him and Maggie. He is even ready to work in order to pay his aunts' money's interest, and in this way reveals his manliness. At this moment, aunt Glegg again shows her brutality and bourgeois essence by the rejection of Tom's Suggestion. Even in this tough situation she cannot bring herself to dispense with her interest and money as a usurer:

And my money… it's to go and be sunk in other folk's furniture, and encourage 'em in luxury and extravagance as they've no means of supporting… and my money's to go and be squandered on them as have had the same chance as me, only they've been wicked and wasteful… that isn't *my* sperrit. (Eliot, 1985, p. 196)

In *George Eliot The Critical Heritage*, David Carroll (1971) brings an unknown critic in who puts emphasis on the animality embedded in Maggie's aunts: "The Dodson family are stingy, selfish wretches, who give no sympathy and require none, who would let a neighbour starve, and let a brother be bankrupt when a very little assistance would save him from the disgrace…" p. 133). As it is clear, aunt Glegg does not have mercy on her own sister and nieces whose life is about to be destroyed let alone others.

B.   Love

Capitalism even brutalizes feelings including Love. In *The Historical Novel*, Lukacs (1989) has discussed this matter as such: "This brutalization of feeling manifests itself in literature to an ever increasing extent, most clearly of all in the description and portrayal of love, where the physical-sexual side gains growing ascendancy over the passion itself" (p. 194).

The best example can be given from *Ulysses*. Before going to Bloom's house in order to have sex with Molly, Blazes Boylan who is buying a present of fruit, wine, and perfume for her, refers to her as an invalid: "send it at once, will you? He said. It's for an invalid" (Joyce, 1961, p. 226). Also, he flirts with the clerk arrogantly: "Blazes Boylan looked into the

cut of her blouse. A young pullet" (Joyce, 1961, p.   228). Boylan all the time is obsessed with physical sexuality.

The affair between Molly and Boylan is one of the most crucial themes in the novel and Bloom is always obsessed with it. Throughout the novel the reader will understand that neither of them thinks highly of one another. Boylan thinks of sexual pleasure aggressively all the time and Molly has set her heart on Boylan's money. Once Bloom remembers what Molly told him after having a dance with Boylan: "Is that boylan well off? He has money. Why? I noticed he had a good smell off his breath dancing" (Joyce, 1961, p. 69). According to Boylan's characteristics implied by the writer, Joyce makes it clear that Boylan is a mere stud; he reduces everything to sex, and to him women are less than human.

There is a passionate love story in *The Mill* too. At first Maggie makes a mistake and declares her love for Philip but the narrator's implication that "It was one of those dangerous moments when speech is at once sincere and deceptive…" (Eliot, 1985, p. 306), elucidates that in fact, Maggie does not love but pities him. This fact then, switches Maggie's love to Stephen Guest. Of course this time it is a true love.

Stephen Guest compared to Blazes Boylan who stridently looks down on women, is unfaithful and dishonest. Although he criticizes Maggie to Lucy, the reader is cognizant that he is attracted to her. As a matter of fact, he tries to dupe Lucy and distract her attention from the developing love between him and Maggie. He is completely oblivious of morality. He proposes that they elope to Scotland. That is why when the narrator affirms that despite Philip's accusation, Stephen is not a hypocrite but experiencing a moral conflict, the reader impugns her. Even if the reader considers the narrator's comment true, s/he cannot condone his lack of morality and responsibility towards the others. K. M. Newton (1991) comments that Maggie has to be blamed too, because "by revealing her love-history with Philip, Maggie unwittingly tempts Lucy to see nothing of significance in the strange vibrations between Maggie and Stephen" (p. 73). But as the reader shall see Maggie at least possesses the temerity to compensate and take the responsibility for the consequences.

Unlike Stephan, Maggie complies with the standards of morality conspicuously. Maggie resists all Stephen's entreaties to marry him: "I must not, cannot seek my own happiness by sacrificing others" (Eliot, 1985, p. 409). One day when they are left alone, Stephen grasps the opportunity and urges Maggie to go rowing. They go a long way past the meeting point with Lucy and during their journey Stephen incessantly eggs Maggie on that they elope to Scotland. At first Maggie capitulates to Stephen but eventually after spending a night with Stephen on a Dutch steamer which is supposed to take them to Mudport, Maggie makes up her mind firmly that she should return to St Ogg's. In fact, her decision is a courageous self-punishing, because "she had brought sorrow into the lives of others-into the lives that were knit up with hers by trust and love" (Eliot, 1985, p. 429). Therefore, courageously she returns to St Ogg's and not only is treated cruelly by the people but is also disowned by her brother, Tom. Dorothea Barrett (1991) mentions some reasons for Maggie's return to St Ogg's. On the one hand she quotes Pauline Nestor's remark that George Eliot has embedded her own belief-that women in general suffer from the vulnerability that results from their greater capacity for love-in Maggie. Nestor says that this idea comes from the fact that women's sexual need is also the means of their oppression. Therefore to remove male domination from without they must first overcome the domination of sexual craving from within. That is, to enjoy freedom one should extricate her/himself from the desire for it and as Nestor reiterates, this is exactly what Maggie does. On the other hand Barrett (1991) quoting the narrator that "She had made up her mind to suffer" (Eliot 1985: 432), contends that Maggie's decision is not only a victory of self-assertion over male domination but also an act of masochistic self-repression (pp. 68-9).

It is obvious that Maggie's renunciation and swimming-against-the-current cause her not to be affected by repercussions of capitalism. In comparison, Stephen Guest and especially Blazes Boylan (both are bourgeois) do not or cannot resist this bad effect of capitalism. But it should be noted that by no means is Stephen like Boylan. Stephen loves Maggie but he is unfaithful and at the same time brutal towards Lucy and Philip. Both Maggie and Stephen agree that their love is natural, but unlike Stephen, Maggie sees also that faithfulness, pity and memory are natural too, and that loyal ties with others are at the heart of moral goodness and duty. On the contrary Blazes Boylan is depicted in *Ulysses* as a sheer animal. It seems that love is against the grain of him. The concept of love in which Boylan seems to believe is the same as the physical pleasure against which Lukacs in his *The Historical Novel* and T.S. Eliot as one of the greatest critics of the twentieth century, in his *The Waste Land* protest.

C. The Two Nations

The phrase 'the two nations' is not a new term. Benjamin Disraeli proposed it for the first time in the nineteenth century. For his novel *Sybil* (1845) Disraeli chose a suitable subtitle, *The Two Nations* dividing the England of the rich from the other nation, the England of the poor. Lukacs (1964) also believes that a true realist must depict "the inexorable division between the two nations", because it is not but the atrocious capitalism- and its division of labour- which makes a deep cleavage between the rich and the poor in the society (p. 147).

In *Ulysses*, Leopold Bloom is the most sympathetic character. Although thinking all the time of Boylan whose breath, as Molly says, implies that he is a man of means, Bloom is not inattentive to the other nation, the Ireland of the poor. Being a realist, Joyce (1961), through the meanderings of Bloom in Dublin, put these two nations before the reader's very eyes. In the 'Lestrygonians' Bloom who wanders through the center of Dublin spies Dedalus's daughter Dilly: "Good Lord, the poor child's dress is in flitters. Underfed she looks too" (p. 152). On the other hand in the newspaper office he sees Brayden the owner of the twin newspaper who is a bourgeois rich man and reveals his affluence in this way: "Welts of flesh behind him. Fat folds of neck, fat, neck, fat, neck" (p. 117). Somewhere else he notices two poor children: "By Brady's cottages a boy for the skins lolled, his bucket of offal linked, smoking a chewed fagbutt. A smaller girl with scars

of eczema on her forehead eyed him…" (p. 71). Also, Joyce (1961) organizes a few moving scenes in order to display the financial predicament of the poor Dedalus family: Maggie Dedalus's telling her hungry sisters that the pawn shop would not accept Stephen's books as well as her dishing out pea soup begged from a nun, and the drunken Simon trying to convince Dilly that he has no money to give her to buy some food for the family.

In *The Mill* the reader on the one hand witnesses lawyer Wakem, Stephen Guest, the Gleggs, and the Deanes as the England of the rich, and on the other hand the Moss Family as the England of the poor. Note how Mrs. Moss answers Mr. Glegg who tells her they should raise the money that they owe to Mr. Tulliver:

O sir, you don't know what bad luck my husband's had with his stock. The farm's suffering so as never was for want o'stock; and we've sold all the wheat, and we're behind with our rent… and I'd sit up and work half the night… but there's them poor children… four of 'em such little uns…. (Eliot, 1985, p. 198).

V. The Capitalization of Literature

Capitalism transforms literature into a commodity that can be bought and sold. It includes as Lukacs (1964) says, "the writer's ideas, emotions and convictions to the paper on which he writes them down…" (p. 49).   To crystallize this matter, Lukacs (1964) mentions *Lost Illusions*, an exemplary novel by Balzac, whose theme is the transformation of literature into a commodity. In this novel "the writers and journalists are exploited, their talent has become a commodity, an object of profiteering by the capitalist speculators who deal in literature" (pp. 49-50). Cliff Slaughter (1980) speaks about Baudelaire's similar ideas. He struggled passionately, as Slaughter says, to create against the conditions that the bourgeois had made. According to Baudelaire, the bourgeois society can make a writer, even at the height of his creativity, "a whore" (p. 189). Lukacs (1964) too, uses the term "prostitution of literature" (p. 51). Although the theme of neither of the novels, *The Mill* and *Ulysses*, has been mainly devoted to prostitution of literature, there are especially in *Ulysses* some implied streaks by which the writers highlight this subject.

Teaching in a class, Stephen makes a pun on a pier, that it is a "disappointed bridge" (Joyce, 1961, p. 25). Simultaneously thinking of Haines, he envisages that if he repeats it to Haines, he will simply place it among his collection of Stephen's bright sayings; once again Stephen will be labeled as merely a jester at the court of the English tyrant. Haines, a capitalist, who does not understand literature and Stephen as a poet, tries to exploit them for his own advantage. That is to say, he deteriorates literature into a laughing matter and the poet into a jester. Even if a loose symbol, at least it shows the writer's remonstrance with the English capitalism (Haines) that detracts from the value of the Irish literature and culture.

Lukacs (1964) quotes an interesting paragraph from Balzac's *Lost Illusions* in which an experienced journalist advises a tyro:

a fashionable author is haughtier and harsher towards the new generation than the most leech-like of publishers. Where the publisher sees only a loss of money, the fashionable author fears a rival: the publisher merely rejects the beginner, the fashionable author annihilates him. (p. 50)

This is what exactly happens in *Ulysses*. In chapter nine Stephen accompanies five principals in Dublin's National Library. The principals discuss an assembly of the Dublin literary intelligentsia at the domicile of the novelist George Moore. Although Mulligan has been invited by Moore and asked to bring Haines with him, Stephen has not been. It is not accidental that Joyce (1971) bitterly lampoons Moore in his *Pomes Peny- each*:

O lovely land where the shamrock grows!
(Allow me, ladies, to blow my nose)
……………………………………………
And a play on the World and Holy Paul
And some woman's legs that I can't recall
Written by Moore, a genuine gent
That lives on his property's ten per cent. (p. 43)

Also, the men mention: "Mr. Russell, rumour has it, is gathering together a sheaf of our younger poets' verses. We are all looking forward anxiously" (Joyce, 1961, p. 192). To this collection too, Stephen has not been suggested to contribute. Obviously the circumspect reader will realize that both the novelist George Moore and the editor George Russell whose newspaper Stephen (perhaps for the same reason) refers to as "The Pig's Paper", eye him as a rival (Joyce, 1961, p. 193). As a result, Stephen being a dangerous rival has to be eliminated.

George Eliot (1985) in her novel consciously or unconsciously remonstrates with that time's ruling ideology of literature. The bourgeois who controlled the market determined this ideology. The market-led economy obliged writers to write novels with endings in which as Maggie says "the blond-haired women carry away all the happiness" (Eliot, 1985, p. 302). These novels were thought to be attractive to buyers and as a rule highly marketable. Somewhere in (book Fifth) *The Mill* Maggie discusses a novel, *Corinne* to whom Philip has lent. To criticize this novel and actually the dominant literary ideology, the writer puts these fantastic words into her heroine's mouth:

'I didn't finish the book,' said Maggie. I shut it up, and determined to read no further. I foresaw that that light-complexioned girl would win away all the love from Corinne and make her miserable. I'm determined to read no more books where the blond haired women carry away all the happiness. I should begin to have a prejudice against them. If you could give me some story, now, where the dark woman triumphs, it would restore the balance. (p. 302)

But it is amazing to see that Eliot herself has capitulated to this ideology and organized her novel in such a way that her 'dark unhappy' heroine should die at the end. Perhaps it was for her capitulation to the public taste that as Pinion (1989) says many people including Princess Louise visited and extolled her.

This subject might be discussed biographically. Joyce's biography elucidates that as opposed to Eliot, he was neither praised nor encouraged by anyone. Especially publishers bullied him inordinately, merely because he was an unconventional writer and did not comply with the interests of the market. "Already he was showing a determination to face the facts of life,… and without the least regard for conventional ideas of ethics or for susceptibilities, or the slightest consideration for public taste"(Duff, 1932, p. 31). Joyce's letters to various publishers divulge the difficult labours it was necessary for him to undertake when he wanted to publish something. In a letter to a publisher (Mr. Cerf who eventually agreed to publish *Ulysses*) Joyce (1961) poignantly complains: "Publishers and printers alike seemed to agree among themselves… not to publish anything of mine as I wrote it" (p.   xiii).

One publisher, Grant Richards despite signing a contract to publish Dubliners, importuned Joyce for many changes and did not take the responsibility. But when *The Egoist* started publishing it successfully, Richards made certain of its reception and at last acquiesced in its publication (Norris, 1998). Some other publishers in Dublin who had made a contract to publish *Dubliners* broke it and burned the galleys of it. Outraged, Joyce (1971) published a famous sarcastic poem, 'Gas from a Burner', to take revenge:

This lovely land that always sent
Her writers and artists to banishment
And in spirit of Irish fun
Betrayed her own leaders, one by one. (p. 42)

In brief, it was Joyce who "showed the novelists how they failed as creative artists by giving the public what it wanted" (Duff, 1932, p. 32).

It was only Ezra Pound, the eminent poet and Joyce's friend, who abetted him to publish his works because perhaps he had realized the brutalization of literature by capitalism. A critic has pointed it out in this way: "Pound understood the difficulty of financing modernistic writing whose formal traits- simple, direct language enriched by resonant international erudition and cultural allusion- made it difficult to market to a general public" (Norris, 1998, p. 10).

Eliot also did not trust publishers and critics. Living in a patriarchal society whose literary ideology was specified by men she feared to divulge her real name and sex, lest they might deteriorate her works. Then a pen-name was necessary to shield her against biased criticism resulting from her irregular social status. As F.B. Pinion (1989) reports, a certain Mr. Liggins announces himself as the writer of *Adam Bede* and *The Scenes* and it "led to Marian's intervention, and the identity of George Eliot… had to be made public in the summer of 1859" (p. 29). Perhaps if this had not ensued she would never have revealed her identity.

VI. CONCLUSION

Although in this paper Marxism has been introduced as the opponent of capitalism, it is not its only enemy. Many people living in capitalist societies have lost faith in capitalism. Especially in Western developed countries, governments have realized that they should seek new economic theories. For example, when a depression period takes place, they might not comply with the capitalists' belief that government should keep out of economic affairs. The recent recession which made Obama administration introduce tougher measures to Wall Street testifies the fact. However, Marxism is a complex theory and there are lots of Marxist critics who hold different views, but in case of capitalism, almost all of them unanimously believe that capitalism is not a good theory and vitiates society. The only difference is that some of them including Lukacs consider capitalism as completely negative. For Lukacs "capitalism always represents above all a reign of 'reification', of fragmentation of humanity…" (Slaughter, 1980, p. 141). Simultaneously some including Fredric Jameson disapprove of capitalism in part. For Jameson "Capitalism destroys genuine human relationships, but also for the first time liberates human kind from village idiocy and the tyranny and intolerance of tribal life" (Mulhern, 1992, p. 176). As it was shown, all the above-mentioned elements put forward by Lukacs-class struggle, destruction of culture and civilization, barbarism of the capitalist system, the capitalization of literature, and economic necessity-exist in both novels. Although some of these elements such as destruction of culture and civilization have been even more beautifully depicted in *Ulysses* and the circumspect reader will confirm it, Lukacs would probably not endorse them because firstly, Joyce has expressed them in so an indirect way that the reader needs intellectuality and careful scrutiny to perceive them and secondly, in *Ulysses* subjectivity through the use of stream of consciousness has been foregrounded to both of which Lukacs is dead set against. Lukacs would confirm *The Mill* because of its direct, clear-cut, and traditional use of these elements. On the contrary, he would not acquiesce in the depiction of these elements in *Ulysses* because as opposed to Eliot, Joyce's method is indirect and vague, because Joyce looks more at the world inside or characters' minds rather than at the world outside. That every work of art should be written after the fashion of the 19th century novelists might be regarded as Lukacs's insensibility to the role of variety in literature.

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A Corpus-based Analysis of English Suffix
–*esque*

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Abstract—**Affixation is one of the most common and productive ways to form new words in English and forming words through suffix, an affix that is placed after a base, and is a significant component of affixation. Although numerous studies on common suffixes have been conducted, relatively little attention has been paid to the seemingly less used affixes, say the suffix –esque. A thorough analysis is conducted of the properties of the suffix –esque, specifically the etymology, the semantic meaning, the formation rules, the orthographic properties, the productivity and the stylistic tendency with the help of the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). The findings are helpful in English teaching or learning.**

Index Terms—**suffix, –*esque*, properties, COCA**

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Research Background

Morphology in linguistics is always referred to as "the systematic study of morpheme" (Hu, 2001, p. 61). It studies the internal structure of words, and the rules by which words are formed (Hu, 2001, p. 61). So the study of morphology can help people better understand languages and also the nature of language. With regard to language learning, the study on morphology and its results can greatly benefit the language learners, particular in learning words. That's why study on morphology by linguists from all over the world never ceased during the past two millennia.

One of the major research focuses in morphology is the word formation. Numerous linguists from both home and abroad have conducted investigations into the word formation rules in different languages particularly the affixation of English words. Nevertheless, former studies always focused on the common affixes, for example –*y*, –*ness*, –*ful*, –*ic/ical*, etc. Relatively little attention has been paid to the seemingly less used affixes, say the suffix –*esque*.

B. Research Purpose

It is generally accepted that learning new words with the help of affixes is a much easier and more efficient way in English teaching and learning. Thence the author conducts a thorough investigation into the etymology, the semantic meaning, the formation rules, the orthographic properties, the productivity and the stylistic tendency of the English suffix –*esque* with the help of the corpus in order to elaborate the properties of this suffix. The findings may be helpful in teaching or learning English.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Affixation and Suffix

Affixation is one of the most common and productive ways to form new words in English. It is so important that almost all linguists will first define the term of affix before givng an introduction on morphology or word formation rules. As is defined by Hu Zhuanglin, affix is "a collective term for the type of morpheme that can be used only when added to another morpheme (the root or stem)" (Hu, 2001, p. 62). Hu gives another definition in his book *Linguistics: An Advanced Course Book* as that "affixes are forms that are attached to words or word elements to modify meaning or function" (Hu, 2002, p. 132). Another linguist Ingo Plag defines affix as "the cover term for all bound morphemes that attach to roots", while roots are the central meaningful elements of words that some bound morphemes "must always be attached" to (Plag, 2002, p. 13). In his lectures, Andrew Spencer gives a definition of affix that it is "morphophonological element added to the right (suffix) or left (prefix) of a base".

Despite the subtle variance in these definitions given by different linguists, another term base should be introduced in order to understand affix. According to Hu Zhuanglin, base is "a form to which affixes of any kind can be added" (Hu, 2002, p. 132).

Considering their syntactic and semantic properties, affixes can be classified into two types, i.e. inflectional affixes

and derivational affixes. As is pointed out by Hu Zhuanglin, "inflectional affixes are generally less productive than derivational affixes", and inflectional affixes "often only add a minute or delicate grammatical function to the stem" (Hu, 2001, p. 63). Thus affixes in this paper refer to derivational affixes only. Meanwhile, according to their position with regard to the base, affixes can also be classified into three categories, namely, prefix, suffix, and infix. So a suffix is an affix that is placed after a base. According to the syntactical category of the derivatives, common suffixes can be further classified into nominal suffixes like *–ness*, verbal suffixes like *–ize*, adjectival suffixes like *–ive*, and adverbial suffixes like *–ly*.

B. Productivity

Although all affixes can be used to form new words, some are more commonly used while some are not. So the term of productivity is proposed in order to explain this phenomenon. Plag defined productivity as "the property of an affix to be used to coin new complex words" (Plag, 2002, p. 44). Thus some affixes can be said to be productive since they are more frequently used to generate new words, and to the contrast some are less productive.

As pointed out above, some affixes are more productive than the other, which implies that there must be some methods to measure the productivity of affixes. In his book *Word-formation in English,* Plag offers four different measures. First, "the productivity of an affix can be discerned by counting the number of attested different words with that affix at a given point in time" which is called the type frequency of an affix (Plag, 2002, p. 52). The more derivatives are attested at that point in time, the more productive an affix is. Second, instead of counting the number of type frequency of an affix at a given point in time, the productivity of an affix can be discerned by counting "those derivatives that were newly coined in a given period, the so-called neologisms" (Plag, 2002, p. 52). Similarly, the more derivatives are attested in that period, the more productive an affix is. Thanks to the fast development of technology particular computer science, investigations into languages especially words and affixes can make use of corpora to make the work easier and the conclusions more convincing. Therefore, the other two measures involve the use of corpora. So, third, the productivity of an affix can be measured by counting the number of types (i.e. the number of different words) with a given affix and their token frequency in a proper corpus (Plag, 2002, p. 53). If there are "large numbers of low-frequency words and small numbers of high-frequency words" derived from a given affix, the affix is productive (Plag, 2002, p. 54). Fourth, the productivity of an affix can also be measured by counting "ratio of the number of hapaxes with a given affix and the number of all tokens containing that affix". Hapaxes here simply refer to "words that occur only once in a given corpus". "The higher the number of hapaxes with a given affix", the more productive the affix is.

III. Methodology

A. Data

The paper intends to probe into the suffix *–esque* with the help of the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). So the author extracted all the derivatives that are derived from the suffix *–esque* in COCA, sorted and made a statistical analysis of these words.

B. Instrument

In order to observe the real use of the suffix *–esque*, and thus find its formation rules and measure its productivity, the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) is used to gather raw materials. COCA is the largest freely-available corpus of English, and the only large and balanced corpus of American English. It was created by Mark Davies of Brigham Young University in 2008, and it is now used by tens of thousands of users every month (linguists, teachers, translators, and other researchers).

The corpus contains more than 410 million words of text and is equally divided among spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic texts. It includes 20 million words each year from 1990-2010 and the corpus is also updated once or twice a year (the most recent texts are from the summer of 2010). Owing to its design, it is perhaps the only corpus of English that is suitable for looking at current, ongoing changes in the language.

The interface allows its users to search for exact words or phrases, wildcards, lemmas, part of speech, or any combinations of these. Users can search for surrounding words (collocates) within a ten-word window (e.g. all nouns somewhere near *faint*, all adjectives near *woman*, or all verbs near *feelings*), which often provides good insight into the meaning and use of a word. (quoted from the home page of COCA)

C. Procedure

1. Obtain a wordlist of all the words end with *esque*

After entering COCA, typing "-esque" into the column of "search string" and then click the button "search", the program offers a list of all the words end with *esque* in the right column. Altogether there are 714 types (the number of different words in the corpus) and 5375 tokens (the overall number of words in the corpus) in the wordlist.

Considering *–esque* is an adjectival suffix and has little inflectional changes, all the derivatives of *–esque* are included in the wordlist.

2. Eliminate the undesired words

The words in the list are not all the derivatives of –*esque*, for the corpus can only extract words with the string of letters corresponding to the suffix including words only sharing the string of letters but not the derivatives, namely simplex words accidentally end with *esque*. Therefore, it is necessary to search each entry of the list and eliminate the undesired words, namely, words which do not belong to the derivatives of the suffix of –*esque*.

Altogether there are 25 different undesired words, including 15 proper names end with the string of letters of *esque*, 5 nouns accidentally end with *esque*, 4 words that are not derived from affixation (specifically speaking, if assume these words are derivatives of the suffix of –*esuqe* in the first place, the meanings of these derivatives have nothing to do with meanings of their bases; thus it is reasonable and better not to treat them as derivatives of –*esque*), and also 1 word that is not English. To make it technical, 25 types and 732 tokens are eliminated from the wordlist. Thus, the modified wordlist of derivatives from –*esque* possesses 689 types and 4643 tokens.

3. Observe each entry to revise the wordlist

As long as there are any variances in the forms of the words, the corpus will treat them as different entries or types in the wordlist. However, this kind of categorization sometimes may seem too rash. So with further observation and assessment, the wordlist was refined and revised.

In some cases, several words have exactly the same spelling; except for some with a hyphen between the base and the suffix, while the others without, for example, *Chaplin-esque* and *Chaplinesque*. Such words in this paper are treated as same ones, thus belong to one type.

In some cases, for the suffix –*esque* begins with the letter *e*, when the suffix is attached to a base ending with the letter *e*, the letter *e* in the base will be deleted, for example, the derivative of the base *picture* becomes *picturesque*. To the contrast, the letter *e* at the end of some base words survives when the suffix is attached to them, for example, *palace* to *palace-esque*. What's more, sometimes both forms, with the letter *e* and without, exist at the same time, for example, *google* to *googlesque* or *google-esque*. Considering the two forms, with the letter *e* or without, possess exactly the same semantic meaning; they are regarded as one type in the wordlist.

Thence, in the revised wordlist, there are 642 types and 4643 tokens. The types and tokens of the three versions of wordlist are elaborated in the following table.

TABLE 1.
VERSIONS OF WORDLIST

version of wordlist	type	token
original	714	5375
modified	689	4643
revised	642	4643

4. Observe each entry of the wordlist to summarize the semantic meanings and the possible formation rules of the suffix –*esque,* and to analyze the orthographic properties of the derivatives of the suffix (elaborated in detail in section 4)

5. Calculate the productivity of the suffix –*esque*

As is mentioned in section II, there are four common measures of the productivity of affixes. In this paper, the author adopts the fourth measure to calculate the productivity of the suffix –*esque* after careful comparison of their advantages and disadvantages. The productivity is thus calculated according to the formula as following given by Plag (in which P stands for productivity, n_1^{aff} for the number of hapaxes with a given affix, and N^{aff} stands for the number of all tokens with that affix):

$$P=n_1^{aff}/N^{aff}.$$

(Plag, 2002, p. 54-57)

6. Observe the stylistic tendency of the suffix –*esque*

COCA allows its users compare the frequency of words by genre, namely, it allows comparisons of frequency between different contexts like spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic. With this program of COCA, the author compares the frequency of the suffix –*esque* between different genres of spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Etymology

According to Wiktionary, a free on-line dictionary, the suffix –*esque* originates from the French suffix –*esque* whose semantic meaning is similar to the English suffix –*ish* or –*ic*. If dated further back, the French suffix originates from the Italian suffix –*esco* which means like, in the manner of.

B. Semantic Meanings

According to Macmillan English Dictionary (a free English dictionary online created by teams of lexicographers who studied real spoken and written text, showing exactly how and when words are used today), there are mainly two semantic meanings of the suffix –*esque*, which was attested by the derivatives in the wordlist extracted from COCA.

The suffix *–esque* is always used with proper names, particular names of some people or places to make adjectives describing things relating to that person or their work or that place, for example, *Adamesque, Broadway-esque, Chicago-esque, Chomskeyesque,* etc.

The suffix *–esque* is also used with some nouns to make adjectives describing things that have a particular quality relating to that noun, for example, *champagne-esque, hell-esque, king-esque, picturesque,* etc.

Regarding to the derivatives extracted from COCA, there are 124 types and 3059 tokens whose bases are nouns, and 501 types and 1560 tokens whose bases are proper names, as is shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.
DISTRIBUTION OF THE BASES OF –ESQUE

base	type	token	Percentage of types (%)
nouns	124	3059	19.32
proper names	501	1560	78.04
adjectives	11	17	1.71
Numbers (actually nouns)	6	7	0.93
total	642	4643	100

C. Formation Rules

According to Macmillan English Dictionary, the bases of the derivatives of the suffix of *–esque* are always nouns, either common nouns or proper names of people or places. However, as is indicated by table 2, there are other forms of the bases apart from the above mentioned nouns and proper names. After examining all entries in the revised wordlist extracted from COCA, 11 entries with adjectival bases and 6 entries with numeral bases are attested. With regard to the semantic meanings in the context in which they are uttered or written, the semantic meanings of the derivatives are obviously related to those of their adjectival bases. Thus, it is not likely that the derivatives with adjectival bases are incorrectly used. In addition, the seemingly numeral bases like *007* and *1970s* are actually treated as nouns considering their semantic meanings in the context, which suggests such cases should not be treated as abnormal.

Therefore, it is reasonable to draw the conclusion that the suffix *–esque* has loose requirements for the syntactical categories of the base, while nouns and proper names are more common (altogether accounting for 97.36% of all uses) and adjectives sometimes are also acceptable (accounting only 2.64% of all uses). What's more, it is better to note that the most common used base words of the suffix *–esque* are proper names, either names of people or places or even festivals, for this category accounts for 78.04% according to the types of the derivatives.

D. Orthographic Properties of the Derivatives of the Suffix

1. Hyphen between the Base and the Suffix

As is mentioned in section 3.3, some derivatives add a hyphen between the base and the suffix *–esque* (with 294 types, accounting for 42.67%), for example, *Buddha-esque;* while some directly add the suffix to the end of the base without hyphen (with 395 types, accounting for 57.33%), for example, *picturesque.* Furthermore, derivatives both with and without hyphen sometimes also exist, for example, *Chaplin-esque* and *Chaplinesque.* Therefore, it is sound to suggest that hyphen is not a compulsory element in word formation of the suffix *–esque*, and one can add (or not) a hyphen at the end of the base as he or she likes.

2. The Letter *e* at the End of the Base

Among all the derivatives of the suffix *-esque* in COCA, there are altogether 261 derivatives whose bases end with the letter *e*, and 224 delete the letter *e*, accounting for 85.82%. The figures suggest that there is high tendency that the letter *e* at the end of a base will be deleted when the suffix *–esque* is attached to the base.

Furthermore, among the remaining 37 derivatives in which the letter *e* at the end of the bases survive, 32 have a hyphen between the base and the suffix, accounting for 86.49% (as is shown in table 3). This indicates that there is a high tendency that a hyphen will be added between the base and the suffix in the rare cases where the letter *e* at the end of the bases survive.

TABLE 3.
LETTER *E* AT THE END OF THE BASE

		number of derivatives	percentage of all (%)	percentage of cases where *e* survives (%)
e deleted		224	85.82	--
e survives	with a hyphen	32	12.26	85.82
	without a hyphen	5	1.92	14.18
base end with *e*		261	100	

E. Productivity

The hapax frequency of the suffix *–esque* in COCA is 455 and the token frequency is 4643, as is shown in table 4. Thus according to the formula $P = n_1^{aff}/N^{aff}$ (in which P stands for productivity, n_1^{aff} for the number of hapaxes with a given affix, and N^{aff} stands for the number of all tokens with that affix), the productivity of the suffix *–esque* is 9.80%, which is relatively high according to Plag. This suggests that the suffix *–esque* is productive.

TABLE 4.
FREQUENCIES

item	number
type frequency	689
hapax frequency	455
token frequency	4643
productivity	0.097997

F. Stylistic Tendency

Clicking the button "chart", a chart of comparison of the frequency of the suffix –*esque* between different genres of spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic is obtained. The chart shows that there are 454 tokens of derivatives of –*esque* in spoken context, accounting for 8.24%; 1004 tokens in fictions, accounting for 18.22%; 1562 tokens in magazines, accounting for 28.34%; 1226 tokens in newspapers, accounting for 22.25%; 1265 in academic works, accounting for 22.95% (as is shown in table 5).

TABLE 5.
STYLISTIC TENDENCY

section	spoken	fiction	magazine	newspaper	academic
frequency	454	1004	1562	1226	1265
Percentage (%)	8.24	18.22	28.34	22.25	22.95

Here one thing must be pointed out before any conclusions are drawn. Since COCA can only provides statistics based on the raw linguistic materials which includes the words end with the string of letters of *esque, t*he frequency of derivatives of the suffix –*esque* extracted from COCA and listed in table 4 is also based on the raw materials. Considering the small number of words that are not derivatives compared with the whole picture (specifically 732 against 5375), it is reasonable to observe the stylistic tendency of the suffix –*esque* on the basis of the raw materials, and the results thus calculated are relatively approximate to the real ones. Therefore the conclusions thus drawn boast a high reliability.

Hereby the conclusion can be safely drawn that the suffix –*esque* is more common to form new words in formal contexts, for example, in fictions, magazines, newspapers and also academic works; while it is used relatively less in spoken context.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

A. Conclusions

On the basis of linguistic materials extracted from COCA and through careful statistic analysis, the etymology, semantic meanings, formation rules, orthographic properties, productivity and stylistic tendency of –*esque* are analyzed in detail and the following conclusions are drawn:

First, the suffix –*esque* originates from the French suffix –*esque* which means like, in the manner of.

Second, the suffix –*esque* mainly possesses two semantic meanings, one is used with proper names, particular names of some people or places to make adjectives describing things relating to that person or their work or that place, and the other is used with some nouns to make adjectives describing things that have a particular quality relating to that noun.

Third, the suffix –*esque* has loose requirements for the syntactical categories of the base, while nouns and proper names are more common and adjectives sometimes are also acceptable. What's more, the most common used base words of the suffix –*esque* are proper names, either names of people or places or even festivals.

Fourth, hyphen is not a compulsory element in word formation of the suffix –*esque*, and the letter *e* at the end of a base tends to be deleted when the suffix –*esque* is attached to the base. Meanwhile, there is a high tendency that a hyphen will be added between the base and the suffix in the rare cases where the letter *e* at the end of the bases survive.

Fifth, the suffix –*esque* is productive.

Sixth, the suffix –*esque* is more common to form new words in formal contexts, for example, in fictions, magazines, newspapers and also academic works; while it is used relatively less in spoken context.

B. Suggestions for Further Study

The analysis and research of the suffix –*esque* in this paper are based on a single corpus, COCA, which is of American English only. Thus the conclusions drawn on the basis of linguistic materials extracted from COCA in this paper may be constrained and confined. Therefore, the author offers a suggestion that further studies may be conducted based on British National Corpus (BNC) or on the two corpora.

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Markedness in Writing: A Case of EFL Students

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Abstract—**Theme is the element which serves as the point of departure of the message; it is that which the clause is concerned (Halliday, 1994). One of the themes in Halliday's (1994) model is marked theme in which there are some elements put in the theme position that frequently indicate notions such as validation of internal evidence; location in discourse time/space and writer viewpoint (Davies, 1989 as cited in Gosden, 1992). Such fronted elements, often at sentence boundaries, commonly have the function of textual organization by signaling changes and turns in real-world and discourse circumstances. This study made frequency and functional analysis of marked theme used in students' composition writings. This study was carried out on the corpus of 180 compositions come from narrating three pictorial by sixty students- 20 sophomore, 20 junior, and 20 senior- majoring in Teaching English as Foreign Language. Students narrated these stories in three sessions of 45 minutes. The gathered data, 180 compositions, were analyzed in terms of marked theme based on Halliday's (1994) model of thematic organization. The results illustrated significant differences between the three groups regarding their use of marked theme.**

Index Terms—**marked theme, thematic organization, academic experience**

I. INTRODUCTION

In EFL context, reading and writing are the two skills used for getting and producing language. Writing as channel of producing language has always been problematic for both teachers to teach and students to learn. According to Gabrielatos (2002) writing is of two levels: language and organization. In former level, the focus is on grammar and vocabulary used in the sentences. In the later level, lay out, punctuation, and method of organization are the concerns. EFL teachers spends most of their time on the language level by checking the students' writings for grammatical and vocabulary errors, and neglecting the organizational level. By staying at the sentence level, EFL teachers can't help the students to produce cohesive texts in which the sentences are well organized and well connected, because what comes first for students is to make grammatically correct sentences by using suitable words. By teaching writing in this way, the problem of writing cohesive and well-organized paragraphs will not be solved.

One way of achieving well-organized and cohesive text is through thematic patterning, proposed by systemic functional grammar. (Belmonte and MacCabe, 1998).

Systemic Functional Grammar and Theme

In Halliday and Mathiessen's word, grammar is part of language that can be interpreted from different viewpoints. In one view, language is a set of rules to specify structures; so, grammar as a subsystem of language is also a set of rules that specifies grammatical structures. In the other view, language is a resource that can create meaning through wording (1997, p. 1). Systemic functional grammar theory associated with the school of linguistics was first developed in the work of the grammar of Chinese and used in educational and computational contexts. Unlike the grammatics that is usually presented in school, "systemic-functional grammatics takes the resource perspective rather than the rule perspective" and shows "the overall system of grammar rather than only fragments" (Halliday & Mathiessen, 1977, p. 2).

In systemic functional grammar, the main focus is on clause, and as Halliday (1994, p. 19) states, the mode of interpretation in this approach is functional in which the grammatical structure is being explained referring the meaning and there is a general principle in language that larger units act more directly in the realization of higher-level patterns .

In the existing literature in Systemic Functional, researchers consider clause as made by a combination of three metafunctions (Halliday, 1985; Halliday & Mathiessen, 1997; Martin & Rose, 2007; Ping, 2003). These three metafunctions are as follows:

1. Interpersonal metafunction: Martin and Rose (2007) point out that interpersonal metafunction "is concerned with negotiation of social relations: How people are interacting, including the feelings they try and share" (p. 24). Halliday and Mathiessen (1997) emphasize that one of the major grammatical systems of this kind of metafunction is mood, the grammaticalization of speech function (p. 11).

2. Ideational metafunction: Martin and Rose (2007) say that ideational metafunction "is concerned with construing experience: What's going on, including who's doing what to whom, where, when, why, how, and the logical relation of

one going on to another" (p. 24). In Halliday and Mathiessen's viewpoint, transitivity, "the resource for construing our experience the flux of 'goings-on', as structural configurations, each consisting of a process, the participants involved in the process, and circumstances attendant on it, is one of major ideational metafunction's grammatical systems (1997, p. 11). As Halliday (1994) states, "transitivity structures express representational meaning: what the clause is about, which is typically some process, with associated participants and circumstances" (p. 179).

3. Textual metafunction: As Martin and Rose (2007) mention, textual metafunction "is concerned with information flow: The ways in which ideational and interpersonal resources are distributed in waves of semiosis, including interconnections among waves and between language and attendant modalities" (p. 24). Halliday and Mathiessen (1997) argue that theme is one of the major textual systems. It is the resource to set up a local context for a clause by selecting a local point of departure in the flow of information (p. 11).

Davidse (1987) argues that these metafunctions are both intrinsic and extrinsic to language. In the first place, they are separate components, or semantic organizing principles, of the grammar. But the ideational and interpersonal functions also finally refer to social reality. They represent the social uses to which language is put (p. 51). He also asserts that the metafunctions are a key concept in Halliday's theory since they explain the internal organization of language and are systematically related to the register variables of field, tenor, and mode (p. 57).

Matthiessen (2004) also mentioned that the textual mode of expression is based on degree of prominence. Prominence may be considered in one of three ways: 1) positionally by means of culminative placement at the beginning or the end of the clause; 2) segmentally by means of some prominence marker that emphasizes one element out of the other elements of the clause; 3) intonationally by means of tonic prominence (p. 549).

In Halliday and Mathiessen's (1997) mind, the textual metafunction-which, as stated by Gosden (1992), is manifested as *theme* in the clause- engenders resources for presenting interpersonal and ideational meanings as information organized into text that can be on goingly exchanged between producer and receiver. This involves transitions in the development of text (conjunctive relations) and the assignment of different textual statuses. These transitions and statuses enable the exchange of information; the producer is guiding the receiver in interpreting the unfolding text (p. 19).

Halliday (1985, p. 30) defines theme as an element which serves as the point of departure of the message and what the speaker has in mind to start with. It is the element in a particular structural configuration taken as whole, and it organizes the clause as a message. The remainder of the message is called the rheme. Therefore, a clause consists of a theme combined with a rheme and the structure is expressed by order. The order for this is theme followed by rheme. In the same line, Brown and Yule (1983) stated that one of the constraints on the speakers /writers is that they can produce only one word at a time when they are producing their messages. They have to choose a beginning point for their utterances in order to organize their messages. The initial point is important in the clause and also in the discourse. It influence the hearers/readers' interpretation of every thing that follows in the discourse since it constitute the initial textual context for everything that follows. What is placed in this initial position is called theme.

Fries (1992) also pointed out that both native and non-native English speaking students have difficulty ordering the words in their sentences. What is the difference between sentences such as (1) and (2):

1. They left their examination on the table yesterday.

2. Yesterday they left their examination on the table.

Clearly, the answer doesn't lie in the words being described in the two sentences but rather in the way that words are presented. We can say roughly that "yesterday" received focal attention in sentence (1), while "on the table" received focal attention in sentence (2). By the same token in these sentences, they set up a context in which the reminder of the sentence is to be interpreted. Words like "they" and "yesterday" which serve an orienting function are called theme.

The notion of thematicity has caught the eyes of many researchers during recent years. Most have addressed this issue across such different languages (Ventola, 1993; Jalilifar & Khedri, 2011); various disciplines (Whittaker, 1995; Ghadessy, 1999); within discipline (Martinez, 2003; Lores, 2004; Jalilifar, 2010); essay writing (North, 2005); and composition writing (Wang, 2007; Ebrahimi, 2008). Yet, despite a sustained interest in thematicity, little research has examined the use of theme in students' composition writings and its possible influences on the texts. One notable exception is Wang's (2007) study of the relationship between theme and rheme in the academic texts and in improving the textual cohesion in students' writing. The other exception is North (2005), which analyzed essays written by students from different backgrounds using systemic functional approach.

This scarcity is felt more when it comes to marked theme in EFL academic contexts. Therefore, bearing the important essence of theme; the crucial role that it plays in writing well-organized texts; and also extremely low done studies in this area of research in mind, this study aims to scrutinize the status of marked theme (one of the theme types proposed by Halliday, 1994) in EFL students' composition writings taking their academic experience into consideration.

II. METHOD

A. Corpus

This study was carried out on the corpus of 180 compositions written based on three pictorial stories by 60 EFL students- 20 sophomore, 20 junior, and 20 senior- majoring in Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL).

Sophomore students have received 128 hours instruction on English language grammar. Junior students beside the instruction on grammar, they have received 32 hours instruction on paragraph writing. Senior students beside the instructions on the grammar and paragraph writing, they have received 32 hours instruction on essay writing. To make sure about the homogeneity of the students within the three groups, they were given a test of homogeneity (Fowler & Coe 1976) and the average score of each group was above 70 percent.

B. Instruments and Materials

1) Three pictorial stories were used for data gathering. The rationale for selecting these pictorial stories was to control students' writing by giving the same ideas to them for writing composition. Three stories were assigned in order to check the use of marked theme in more than one context and to minimize the influence of single context on students' writing simultaneously; 2) To put the participants into appropriate levels, they were asked to take three homogeneity tests (Fowler & Coe, 1976). 3) And, in order to achieve a well-organized study, complete model is required for analyzing the data. To do this, Halliday's (1994) model of thematic organization was applied. The major rationale behind the selection of his model was twofold: 1) as Martinez (2003, p. 108) mentions, this model provides plausible and attestable mechanisms for determining the thematic structures of the texts correctly; 2) it is practical, reliable, and up-to-date model. Most of the studies that have been done in terms of thematic analysis have resorted to this model.

C. Procedure

At first, 90 students, (30 by each group), were selected and set for homogeneity test (Fowler & Coe, 1976) based on their academic experience. At the same time, their scores on English language grammar, paragraph writing, and essay writing were collected from the examination department. Students whose score in the homogeneity test and their average score on their courses was also above 70 percent were chosen for this study. To have equal number of students in each group, the top 20 students from each level were selected.

Second, after meeting the homogeneity in the groups, three pictorial stories were given to students to narrate. The stories only included some pictures without any caption or description given by the researcher and supposed to be narrated in three sessions of 45 minutes. Finally, the gathered data were analyzed based on Halliday's (1994) model of thematic organization and in order to check the significance of the differences between the groups regarding their use of marked theme, Chi-square was run on the data.

One problem with text analysis is that there is always the danger of making mistakes in interpretation. To increase the reliability in the analysis, nine compositions from the corpus were also analyzed by an experienced researcher in applied linguistics and agreement was made on the method of analysis.

D. Unit of Analysis

This study adopted t-unit as the basic unit of analysis. T-unit is defined by Fries (1994) as a clause complex which contains one main independent clause together with all the hypotactic clauses which are dependent on it. The rationale behind this selection was that**:**

Analyzing theme at the level of t-unit rather than the individual clause makes it easier to focus on patterns of thematic development in large amounts of text, and can also be justified on the grounds that the thematic structure of a dependent clause is often constrained by the independent clause. (Fries & Francis, 1992 as cited in North, 2005).

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Marked Theme in EFL Students' Writings

In all the three groups, marked theme was underestimated and used in small number. This result was comparable with Whittaker's (1995), Ghadessy's (1999), and MacCabe's (1999) findings, and in contrast with North's (2005), and Coffin and Hewings (2005) findings. Coffin and Hewings (2005) found (18.82%) marked themes in the students' writings (p.158). North (2005), in her study of thematicity in essay writing, found that (17.08%) of the topical themes was marked (p.11). This opposed the findings of the present study, where at most (9.90%) of themes was marked. The gained result indicates that most of the topical themes occupy both thematic and subject positions. Theme/subject compliance may also be indicative of structural simplicity of students' writings with different academic experience. The low portion of the marked themes in students' writings shows that students' writing is less argumentative in nature. Students in all the three groups allocated somehow identical percentages of all the theme types to marked theme. This similarity can be explained in terms of genre.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), texts belonging to the same genre represent a similar contextual configuration, that is, they show common characteristics in terms of field, mode, and tenor of discourse (p.46). As far as composition writing patterns the same family of genre, then this similarity in students' composition is not surprising.

So similarities in field, tenor, and mode engender similarities in textual choices and are reflected in the thematic choices preferred since the field, tenor, and mode can be realized in theme. Therefore, theme as one of the textual choices provides interesting insight into establishing similarities within and between genres. This is inline with other studies like Ghadessy's (1999), North's (2005), Ghadessy's (1995), and Whittakar's (1995) findings. These researchers suggested that different types of theme can reveal crucial characteristics of the texts regarding genre.

The result of chi-square analysis displayed interesting point regarding marked theme use in by the three groups. The analysis figured out that there is a systematic increase in the use of marked theme moving from sophomore to senior group.

There higher use of marked theme in senior group may suggest that senior students could distinguish between the definition and position of the theme. Halliday (1985) asserts that theme can be identified as that element which comes in the first position in the clause, but this is not how the category of theme defined. The definition is functional, as it is with all the elements in this interpretation of grammatical structure. Theme is one element in a particular structural configuration which, taken as a whole, organizes the clause as a message. Senior students in contrast to other two groups put those elements that organize the text as message in the theme position.

The discourse function of marked theme could be one reason behind its over-use by senior students. Looking at marked theme from functional view point, these students used this theme to put some elements that frequently indicate notions such as validation of internal evidence, location in discourse time or space, and writer view points into the theme position (Davies, 1989 as cited in Gosden, 1992). These elements, often at sentences boundaries, commonly have the function of textual organization, like signaling changes and turns in real world and discourse circumstances. It is recognition of these internal signals that help identify the rhetorical moves outlined by Swales (1981, 1990) (Gosden, 1992)

The small number of marked theme in sophomore group may be rooted in that these students, in this study, prefer to place theme in the subject position of the clause. By doing so, these students could make sure that their sentences are grammatically correct. This is the simple way of constructing canonical English sentences that follow NP VP pattern. They may think that English has a fixed word order and they need to be provided with sufficient input with different word orders by their teachers. They must be familiar with, that fronting as a powerful recourse to highlight adverbial or objects and that this fronting acts as the organizer of information in the sentence.

TABLE 1
MARKED THEME IN STUDENTS' WRITING

	SOPHMRE (%)	JUNIOR(%)	SENIOR(%)
MRKED	121 (9.05)	155(9.10)	197 (9.90)

TABLE 2
CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF MARKED THEME IN STUDENTS' WRITING

	SOPHMRE (%)	JUNIOR(%)	SENIOR(%)	CHI-SQUARE VALUE	DF	SIG.
MRKED	121 (9.05)	155(9.10)	197 (9.90)	18.380	2	0.000

IV. CONCLUSION

In EFL writing context, we often find that learners write compositions made of sentences and paragraphs which do not have textual organization. This results in creating a fuzzy text and finally getting the reader into trouble. They may not be aware of such cohesive devices as theme/rheme structures to focus on. Consequently, they will succeed, to some extent, in displaying the unfolding of the global structure of the text.

Bearing such a problem in mind, the aim of this study was to find out the marked theme used in EFL students' composition writings, and its possible relation to the students' academic experience. The data analysis indicated that this theme was manifested in the compositions written by the students of all the three groups. From frequency analysis, students in all the three groups allocated somehow identical percentage of their themes to this theme. This similarity could be attributed to the similarity in genre. The result of Chi-square analysis showed significant difference between the three groups regarding their use of marked theme. This difference could suggest the effect of academic experience on students writing. In this study senior students used this theme more than other two groups. These students may know, as stated by Gosden (1992), that using marked theme means bringing some elements into the theme position which commonly have the function of textual organization. These elements may signal changes and turns in real-world and discourse circumstances. It is by these elements that we could recognize the rhetorical structure of the text.

On the other hand lack of academic experience may cause sophomore students to use this theme in small number comparing to other two groups. These students by putting the subject in the theme position wanted to make sure that their sentences are grammatically correct.

The result of the present study will benefit the EFL students and English language instructors in general and English language students in composition writings in particular. Theme awareness, in this case marked theme, can help students to create textual piece of writing. The present study can also help the readers to comprehend the text. The readers need to be aware of the rhetorical structure through which the writer is presenting the information in the text. Generally speaking, this awareness can guide readers through the logical path constructed by the writers to comprehend the subsequent segment and help them to understand the text better.

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On the Variability of Interlanguage

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Abstract—The study of second language acquisition involves many aspects, among which interlanguage is an important one. Research on interlanguage and its various characteristics may make a great difference in the study of second language acquisition. This paper tends to explore one of the characteristics of interlanguage, its variability, so as to study its role in second language acquisition.

Index Terms—interlanguage, variability, second language acquisition

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept of interlanguage has been highly influential in the study of second language acquisition since it was proposed by Selinker (1972) in his seminal research paper *Interlanguage*, which provided the theoretical framework for interpreting second language acquisition as a mentalistic process and for the empirical investigation of interlanguage. Since then, the study of interlanguage and various aspects of it has never stopped. Let us first look at the definitions and characteristics of interlanguage.

II. INTERLANGUAGE

A. Definitions of Interlanguage

The notion similar to "interlanguage" was first seen in *The Significance of Learners' Errors* (Corder, 1967) as "transitional competence" to describe foreign language learners' linguistic ability which did not match that of native speakers. Selinker (1969) introduced the word "interlanguage", which was adapted from Weinreich's term "interlingual" to refer to the language system that the foreign language learner created based on the data he had been exposed to. Nemser (1971) referred to the same phenomenon in his term "approximative system", stressing the successive approximation to the target language. Corder (1971) used the term "idiosyncratic dialect" to suggest that the learner's language is unique to a particular individual, and that the rules of the learner's language are peculiar to the language of that individual alone. Selinker (1972) coined the term "interlanguage" to refer to the systematic knowledge of language which is independent of both the learner's native language and the target language. The term has come to be used with different but related meanings:

(1) to refer to the series of interlocking systems, which Corder (1967) called the learner's "built-in syllabbus" (Ellis, 1985).

(2) to refer to the system that is observed at a single stage of development ("an interlanguage").

(3) to refer to particular L1/L2 combinations (for example, L1 French/L2 English v. L1 Japanese/L2 English).

Interlanguage is neither the system of the native language nor that of the target language, but instead falls between the two. It is a system based on the best attempt of learners to provide order and structure to the linguistic stimuli surrounding them. By a gradual process of trial and error and hypothesis testing, learners slowly succeed in establishing closer and closer approximations to the system used by native speakers of the language.

Thus, the concept of "interlanguage" might better be understood if it is regarded as a continuum between the native language and the target language. At any point along the continuum, the learners' language is systematic, and any difference may be explained by differences in their learning experience (Larsen Freeman and Michael, 1991).

B. The Characteristics of Interlanguage

In his research paper *Interlanguage*, Selinker (1972) presented three main characteristics of interlanguage.

The first one is permeability. As he stated, the second language learners' language system is permeable, in the sense that rules that constitute the learners' knowledge at any stage are not fixed, but are open to amendment. In many aspects, this is a general feature of native languages. All language systems are permeable. Interlanguage differs from other language systems only in the degree of permeability.

The second one is that interlanguage is dynamic, i.e., interlanguage is constantly changing. However, a learner's interlanguage does not jump from one stage to the next, but rather slowly revises the interim systems to adapt new hypotheses to the target language system. This takes place by introduction of a new rule, first in one context and then in another, and so on. A new rule spreads in the sense that its coverage gradually extends over a range of linguistic contexts. The process of constant revision and extension of rules is a feature of the inherent instability of interlanguage and its built-in propensity for change.

The third one is that interlanguage is systematic. In spite of the instability of interlanguage, it is possible to detect the rule-based nature of the learner's interlanguage. The learner does not select accidentally from his store of interlanguage rules, but in predictable ways.

Apart from the above mentioned characteristics, variability is another characteristic that can not be neglected. At any one stage in his development, the learner operates according to the system of rules he has constructed up to that point. A crucial issue is why his performance is so variable. On one occasion he uses one rule, while on another he uses a different one.

It has been generally accepted that interlanguage is variable (Dickerson, 1975; Huebner, 1979). This variability is evident both synchronically and diachronically. Each learner's interlanguage contains alternative rules for performing the same function. As it has been mentioned, on some occasions, one rule is used; on others, a different rule. Also, in spite of the striking uniformity in the developmental profile of different learners, there are variations in the overall course of development that learners follow. Interlanguage constitutes an unstable system and is permeable to invasion by new linguistic forms; its dynamic quality is reflected in tremendous interlanguage variability and also in overlapping stages over development as one set of variable rules is revised in favor of another.

III. Variability of Interlanguage

Variability refers to cases where a second language learner uses two or more linguistic variants to express a phenomenon, which has only one realization in the target language. For example, Ellis (1985) reports a learner of English as second language who uses two variants for expressing negation in contiguous chunks of speech: No look my card/ Don't look my card. In trying to explain the sources of such variability in second language acquisition, researchers have generally worked from an assumption, first elaborated in work by Labov (1972) on native speakers of English, that variability is a systematic function of factors like the degree of formality of the context of utterance and the nature of the surrounding linguistic context.

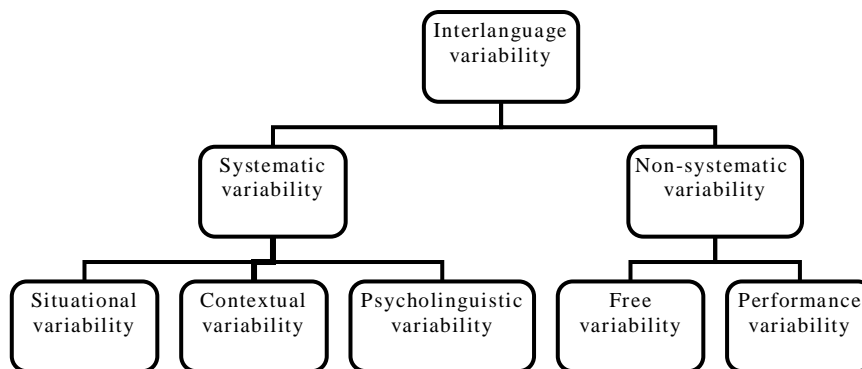### A. Study of Interlanguage Variability

Studies of interlanguage variability have typically focused on the phenomena in which second language learners vary. As mentioned above, Ellis (1985) cited the case of a Portuguese-speaking boy learning English who, while playing a game, produced the following utterances within the same stretch of speech: No look my card/ Don't look my card. Here the learner is varying between No and Don't as negators in a way which native speakers would not. Another example of interlanguage variability where native speakers would not vary is provided in a study by Dickerson (1974), who looked at a number of features of the English pronunciation of ten Japanese speakers on three tasks: reading a list of words, reading a dialogue and free speech. Taking just one of the phonological phenomena studied by Dickerson, prevocalic /r/, as in *run*, it was found that the accuracy of the subjects' pronunciation varied as a function of two factors: the nature of the task and the nature of the vowel sound following the /r/. The subjects were most native-like in reading the dialogue and least native-like in free speech. Furthermore, the pronunciation of /r/ was more native-like before mid vowels as in *run*, than before high vowels as in *read*.

Tarone (1982) has attempted to explain systematic variability by suggesting that second language learners have a series of overlapping mental grammars, which correspond to different contexts in which the second language is used. At one extreme learners have a grammar for informal or vernacular second language use (e.g. in spontaneous casual conversation). At the other extreme learners have a grammar for formal or careful use of the second language (e.g. in writing or classroom use of the second language). Between these extremes there are mental grammars for different levels of formality of use. Tarone refers to this set of overlapping styles as the interlanguage capability continuum. Learners acquire grammars on the continuum through exposure to the second language in contexts of different levels of formality.

An important element in Tarone's account is the idea that degrees of "attention to form" are what determine the particular grammar on the continuum which a second language learner accesses. The grammar for formal or careful speech requires the learner to pay a high degree of attention to form, whereas the grammar for producing casual or vernacular speech requires no attention to form. If this theory is correct, asking second language speakers to perform different tasks in the second language which requires different degrees of attention to form should produce variability.

B. Types of Interlanguage Variability

Language use is characterized by systematic and non-systematic variation (Ellis, 1982), so Ellis (1992) classifies interlanguage variability into different types.

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                                    ┌──────────────────┐
                                    │  Interlanguage   │
                                    │   variability    │
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                          ┌────────────────────┴────────────────────┐
                 ┌──────────────────┐                      ┌──────────────────┐
                 │    Systematic    │                      │  Non-systematic  │
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  │ Situational│ │ Contextual │ │Psycholinguistic│   │    Free    │ │ Performance  │
  │ variability│ │ variability│ │  variability   │   │ variability│ │ variability  │
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1. Systematic variability

Interlanguage is systematically variable, in the sense that although some of the variability observed is the result of relatively unpredictable factors regarding the state of mind and the emotional factors, other variability, particularly that deriving from the user's knowledge of how to use language appropriately , is systematic. In other words, at least part of the variability can be predicted and accounted for, as due to the effects of situational and linguistic contexts, psychological factors, etc. According to Ellis (1992), systematic variability can result from linguistic context, situational context and psychological context.

Linguistic context refers to the elements that precede and follow the variable structure in question. Variability in learner language that is induced by the effects of the linguistic contexts means that when the linguistic context changes, the learner's production of the target language also changes. The variability is evident at the phonological, morphological and syntactic levels of a language. Learners will make errors or mistakes in one type of sentence, but not in another type of sentence. When the linguistic context changes, the interlanguage also changes.

Situational context covers a whole host of factors. When any of the situational factors changes, the learner's performance will change. For example, when a learner is asked to answer the teacher's question in class, he will make mistakes which he will never make in grammar tests, for he is in urgent situation and has no time to make full use of his linguistic knowledge. Tarone suggests a style-continuum ranging from the vernacular style to the careful style in accordance with the demands of the situation. In the early stage of the stylistic study, it assumed that the careful style had been more correct, target-like variants than the vernacular style. However, some research by Beebe (1981) proved that learners do not always manifest the target-like variant in careful language use. The explanation for this may be that a learner's production is influenced by his first language or the awareness of his own identity, etc. Style-shifting is a complex process, and a learner's production of the target language is shifted by different style required. A number of factors influenced the styles, such as the learner's first language, the learner's stage of development, the difficulty of the target language feature, the social situation in question, whether the learner is sensitive to the social factors, etc. Style-shifting is designed to study interlanguage from the social linguistic aspect, and it explains to a certain extent why the learner's production of the target language varies according to different situations.

Psychological context refers to the extent to which the type of language use affords time for planning and encourages or discourages monitoring. In a psycholinguistic study, Hulstijn (1984) investigated the effects of time pressure, focus of attention and metalingual knowledge on accuracy. The results indicated that neither metalingual knowledge nor time pressure had an effect on accuracy, but time pressure did influence the other two aspects of the learner's performance, response duration and speech rate. If the learners use the planning time to focus on the linguistic forms, increased accuracy will result. But if they use the time to plan and organize informational content, accuracy is less likely to achieve. Thus in a given task, if time requirement is a variable, it can serve as one element in interpreting the various language production of the learners.

The study of the linguistic context, situational context and psycholinguistic context suggest that interlanguage can be a systematic whole, though it has a great number of unforeseeable factors.

2. Non-systematic variability

Interlanguage is also characterized by non-systematic variability, which is of two types: performance variability and free variability.

Performance variability is the result of some failure of performance, including slips of tongue, false starts, derivation from rules, changes of mind and so on. Hochett (1948) refers to these as lapses. They may be the effect of the learner's psychological and emotional factors. According to Chomsky (1965), this type of variability is not part of the language user's competence. It occurs when the language user is unable to perform his competence. A typical example in English would be: "That is the problem which I don't know how to solve it" (Reibel, 1969). Sentences like this are normally readily correctable by the speaker himself. However, not all non-systematic variability is of this type. It is of great interest for understanding second language acquisition.

Free variability refers to the phenomenon that the learner possesses two or more forms, which he uses to realize the same range of meanings. It is the result of competing rules in the learner's competence. It is not difficult to find examples of free variability, although the examples are likely to be idiosyncratic. For example, native speakers may use

pairs like /iy/ and /ay/ for *either, who* and *that* in restrictive relative clause. However, in native-speaker speech, such free variability is limited. Interlanguage, in contrast, is marked by a high level of free variability, a characteristic that is important for explaining how interlanguage evolves.

C.   The Role of Interlanguage Variability in Second Language Acquisition

From the point of view of systematic variability, Tarone (1983) argues that one way, in which second language acquisition can proceed, is by forms which are initially part of the learner's careful style to spread to his vernacular style. It has been noted that the careful interlanguage style contains more target language forms than the vernacular style. Development does not consist of sudden jumps, but of the gradual extension of regularities from formal to progressively informal styles on the one hand, and from simple to increasingly complex linguistic contexts on the other. In this sense, second language acquisition involves a gradual reduction in the degree of variability as non-target language variants are eliminated in a steadily growing range of environments.

Ellis (1985) is especially impressed by the high degree of free variation in interlanguage. In his opinion, second language acquisition involves two stages: the assimilation of new forms and the sorting-out of form-function correlations. Assimilation results from the learner's being "open" to forms occurring in the input and operating on these by means of one or more interlanguage strategies. Then the learner forms an initial hypothesis regarding the target language rules. Irrespective of whether correspondence does or does not exist, new forms will continue to be assimilated until in two or more forms being used in free variation. Unless alternative forms can be justified by allocating them to different functions, redundant forms will be eliminated from the interlanguage. The learner will try to maximize his linguistic resources by creating a system in which different forms serve different functions. The first stage consists of forms used in free variation, but subsequent stages involve the progressive sorting of forms in to functional pigeon holes. It is likely that the first sorting out will not establish the form-function correlations of the target language. This may take several sortings, and many learners may never fully achieve it. The sorting process is a continuous one as long as new forms are assimilated, as each new form will require further functional reorganization in order to resolve the attendant free variability.

Therefore, it is not difficult to see why two types of variability arise in interlanguage. Non-systematic variation occurs when new forms are assimilated but have not yet been integrated into the learner's form-function system. Systematic variation occurs when the new forms have been accommodated by the existing form-function system.

IV. IMPLICATION TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

The aim of studying interlanguage variability is to explore the natural rule of language learning to provide theoretical basis and implications for classroom instruction, choices and arrangements of teaching materials. The factors that influence the changes of interlanguage may have an essential impact on language teaching. In fact, interlanguage variability is rule-governed, systematic, but its varieties also prove that this system can be changed by employing different teaching methods, creating different linguistic contexts and social contexts which can either facilitate language teaching or hinder language teaching conversely. Based on the research, language teachers and researchers are required to make a close study of the factors resulting in variability of interlanguage in order to take the language teaching tasks into moderate control. As the students vary from each other in many aspects, the study of variability turns out to be very tedious and demanding. One thing that should be mentioned is that the study of variability itself is not important, while what is important is how to make sufficient use of the study results to guide language teaching and research in practice, such as causing thorough changes in the teachers' attitude, resulting in making good use of the factors to improve the quality of language teaching and research. So far, some tentative conclusions have been drawn. The more language teachers are aware of the variability of interlanguage and its various factors, the more they may be conscious of its importance and thus may be efficient in their teaching practice, and the better they can make use of the conclusions of the study.

The study of interlanguage variability makes teachers who always see the incorrect productions by the learners in the bad light more tolerant of errors and more acceptable of errors, and this can be seen as a breakthrough in language teachers' attitude. Over-criticizing students when they make mistakes can only result in the students' losing interests, low motivation, and repulsion, etc, reducing their chances of achievement. Many teachers have discovered that some active language learners employ hypothesis testing to gain the recognition of the target language, but passive learners are more likely to refrain from learning, and given more time, a learner is likely to perform better.

When it comes to judging students' achievement of learning target languages, many factors should be taken into consideration, for example, the students' social and psychological, emotional, strategical factors. Some psycholinguists also illustrate that sometimes something wrong happens to the utterance only because the prescribed time is limited, or the speaker is too excited, or too angry, or they lack noticing or attention to what he is saying, or the speaker simply thinks that it is unnecessary for him to correct the previous mistakes. Be the errors in written form or in oral form, there will always be some psycholinguistic elements in them. As an internal factor in language production, psycholinguistic elements are likely to be influenced by various external factors, so while teaching the second language, language teachers should stick to the hypothesis of teachability (to teach what is teachable at a very suitable stage, not too hard, nor too easy), and input in the students the ideas of learning what is learnable according the hypothesis of learnability.

Learning or teaching too hard materials can only make the learners feel frustrated, upset and uneasy. To prevent the students from forming some negative psychological complex, teachers should be very careful when preparing the syllabus, organizing the activities, after-class curriculum, etc. The learner's attitude, emotion, motivation, personality, etc. which influence learning are called affective variables, and more people like to treat them in a more broader sense as psychological factors. They are invisible, too abstract to detect, but proper controls over them are possible by way of adjusting teaching methods. The affective variables change, so does interlanguage.

A point that interlanguage variability challenges the traditional teaching is that interlanguage encourages the teachers to use as much the target language as possible. As interlanguage changes quickly and naturally, the more the learners are exposed to the interlingual situation, the more quickly interlanguage will change and progress to the target language. The exposure to correct forms of a target language provides the students with a bridge get to the target language and consolidate the correct forms, abandoning the incorrect forms. This converges with Input Hypothesis of Krashen at the juncture that the more input of correct language forms, the better the learners will be at producing the target language. The realization of it further results in the elimination of traditional reading-traslation teaching method and the decrease of fixed, limited pattern drill models in foreign language textbooks, on the other hand, more and more communicative activities are being supplied to encourage the students to be more productive in their second language.

In fact, the attitudinal changes that interlanguage has to language teaching can be of the most elementary importance. In a broad sense, applied linguistica refers to the subject which studies the relationship between linguistics and other subjects, but here applied linguistics mainly refers to language teaching in the narrow sense, so it interwines closely with many other branches of study concerning language teaching, such as language testing which is one of the most essential subject. Interlanguage theory explains to the teachers and researchers why it is impossible for the learners to have the perfect mastery of the pronunciations, morphemes, intonations, etc. at the very beginning of learning in most cases, for the learners are likely to relate the target language to their native language, resulting in mistakes in every aspect. The expananion makes it possible for the teachers to evaluate the students' progress in a more scientific and tolerable manner; this also makes the teachers understand that: to cover the distance between first language and second language, it takes time; and the theory makes the teachers look at the students' varieties of mistaken linguistic forms with an eye for improvement.

V. CONCLUSION

Second language acquisition is a creative construction, during which the learners are consciously or unconsciously constructing a language system which enable them to understand and produce utterances in the target language. This interlanguage system is flexible, dynamic and approximative. Learners are processing language on the basis of their own interlanguage, a system lying between the native language and the target language. Second language acquisition involves a series of evolving systems which comprise the interlanguage continuum. Each system is considered to be initially consistent and rule-governed.

Like all natural languages, interlanguage is variable. This variability is both systematic and non-systematic. Systematic variability is determined by both the linguistic and the situational contexts. Learners systematically vary their choice of interlanguage forms according to whether they require a vernacular style in unplanned discourse or a careful style in planned discourse. Their choice of forms is also influenced by the nature of linguistic environment. The key to this pattern of variation is the extent to which the learner monitors his own language. Heavy monitoring is likely to result in the learner's careful style; whereas, a low level of monitoring will result in the vernacular style, which is more natural and more systematic.Non-systematic variability is also common in second language acquisition. It is of great importance to the study of second language acquisition.

Findings like these provide some insights into the study of second language acquisition, revealing the way form-function relationships in interlanguage evolving over time. Nonetheless, such findings are far from enough. This is only a starting point. To do research in second language acquisition, we still have a long way to go.

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Rethinking Convenience Sampling: Defining Quality Criteria

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Abstract—Convenience sampling is one of the most commonly used sampling procedures in second language acquisition studies, but this non-random sampling procedure suffers from a lot of problems including the inability of controlling for initial differences between experimental and control groups. The present study tries to introduce conditions and criteria which enable researchers to account for these drawbacks and at the same time make validity claims. Individual scores and group statistics are compared with regard to a group of essential factors known to be important for the purpose of the study. The overall value calculated for essential factors is then used to make judgments about the groups' comparability. The contribution of this method to the current procedures of sampling arises from its factual accuracy which is supposed to enhance the validity of findings obtained from studies employing non-probability sampling procedures.

Index Terms—convenience sampling, comparability, conditions, criteria, outlier

I. INTRODUCTION

Convenience or opportunity sampling is the most common type of sampling in L2 studies where the only criterion according to Dörnyei (2007) is the convenience of the researcher. But, in convenience sampling or in working with intact groups, there is a high probability that the two selected groups will constitute "low-set" and "high-set" groups, to borrow a few words from Muijs (2004), or will be different in other ways not allowing us to conceive of them as comparable. Groups chosen by convenience sampling are conducive to self-selection, administrative decision, time of the class, number of the years of exposure and many other polluting influences. Sometimes, the difference in the composition of the two groups is so grave that undermines the overall validity of the research. Yet, in most cases these shortcomings either remain unnoticed by researchers or are simply winked at as if something natural has happened.

Another issue related to sampling is the presence of outliers. This problem is particularity relevant to the non-probability sampling, of which convenience sampling is a notorious one. This is because of the high self-selection possibility in non-random sampling. Outliers are cases which would make our findings subject to suspicion. The statistics computed from samples are often used to draw inferences about population parameters. Outliers adversely affect sample statistics and decrease the precision of estimates about population. Therefore, to approach the true parameters of population as closely as possible or, in other words, to make the best possible estimates, we have to control for the effect(s) of outliers. If reliability and validity are important and if generalizations are to be made, it seems reasonable to think of a way for accounting for the presence of outliers and defining similarity in precise terms.

This article addresses these two issues and tries to identify conditions and criteria that can be applied to convenience sampling to make its precarious status a bit more stable. The conditions and criteria are mainly related to imposing limits on the individual scores and group statistics. The comparability of groups and the degree of their similarity will be determined by reference to these individual scores and the relevant statistics such as means and standard deviations calculated for these groups. The suggestions are not made to approach the principles of laboratory studies or exert stricter control upon the sampling procedures but they are made for the sake of transparency and factual accuracy. Comparability is an elusive concept which can be interpreted in different ways. There seems to be an urgent need for this term to be clarified adequately so that the interpretations converge among the consumers of research results.

When we compare two groups and make claims on the basis of our findings, it should be clear what our groups' compositions look like. Though, two truly comparable groups should be exactly the same concerning all aspects to be able to make strong claims, this state of affairs is only an idealization far removed from reality in educational studies. Variegation is a norm in studies of second language acquisition. Accepting the impossibility of uniformity, however, researchers should be alert to the aspects and degrees of dissimilarities. Measures and standards should be defined to let the researchers decide confidently if the two available groups, with all the apparent limitations, are comparable or not.

The conditions and criteria introduced below provide us with a clearer picture of the groups' make up and the degree of faith we should put on the findings. Conditions are related to individual scores and determine whether they should be

included in the study or not. Criteria are related to group characteristics and qualify whether two groups are comparable based on the limits set on their statistics or not. The overall value calculated in each study is a function of the number of essential factors taken to be important for the essence of the study. The difference between two groups with regard to each essential factor is quantified based on a 10 point scale. If this value exceeds the number of essential factors multiplied by ten the two groups will be regarded as incomparable. If this value falls below this limit the groups will be regarded as comparable, but the comparability increases as the value approaches 0.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

There are a lot of people who may well fit the design of our research, but it is a hard fact that, except for case studies and nationwide headcounts, we can never examine all the people fitting our research design. Mangal (2002) points out that it is quite impractical and inessential to approach every person fitting our research design. The convenient as well as practical solution, according to Mangal, lies in estimating the population parameters from sample statistics. Brown (1995) states that few researchers in applied linguistics are in a position to study an entire population. That is why they are usually forced to work with samples drawn from population. But, we often hope to be able to generalize our research findings with samples to broader contexts from which they are drawn. Otherwise, our findings will not be of much practical value.

A sample is defined by Tailor (2005) as a subset of a population or universe. However, a word of caution is in order here as population is often taken by many to refer to people only. Population, as Walliman (2011) puts it, does not necessarily mean a number of people. It can also refer to total quantity of the things or cases which are the subject of our study. Robson (1993) also talks about non-people-related sampling like where and when interviews take place. However, he stresses the point that particular attention needs to be given to the selection of 'people sample'. But what guarantees the applicability of our findings? One way that Hatch and Lazaraton (1991) suggest is to obtain a representative sample through random selection.

Sir Ronald Fisher is credited with the design of experiments with random sampling. The justification for randomizing is that it maximizes the internal and external validity of the findings by giving an equal chance to every single subject to be assigned to either experimental or control group and thereby leveling group differences off. Another strategy adopted by some is to enlarge the size of the sample in addition to randomizing. The assumption underlying both augmenting sample size and randomizing is that, these two techniques reduce the effects of extreme scores and extraneous factors to a negligible amount. Of these two techniques randomizing is, of course, more important because without randomizing even with big groups of subjects there is a high probability of having very different groups. The problem of subject variation is hard to surmount with small groups even with randomizing. Whereas, Hatch and Farhady (1981) maintain that randomizing allows the researcher to have two truly comparable groups prior to the start of the experiment, Robson (1993) asserts that random selection does not guarantee that the two groups, even if they are big, will in fact be equivalent. According to him, there are also practical and ethical problems when randomizing is applied to people.

From what was said it is clear that, randomizing is a remedial action, which even along with increasing sample size is not capable of completely removing uncertainties regarding the comparability of the two groups designated as experimental and control groups. But, even if we accept the idea that randomizing assures the soundness of subject selection, as it is the case with Fisherian hypothesis, in most experimental studies in educational and similar areas like psychology and social sciences, which are mainly dealing with human beings, researchers cannot afford satisfying the requirement of randomizing. Furthermore, this is an impossible line of action to be taken in qualitative and descriptive studies which do not lend themselves to manipulation and artificial categorization. The worse that happens, therefore, is the use of intact groups or convenience sampling without employing any clear criteria suggesting the similarity and therefore comparability of groups. Neither is any criterion available as to the degree of similarity.

The purpose of presenting this background to sampling is not to review the history of different types of sampling and their merits and demerits. Rather, the purpose of the study is to grapple with one major but problematic category of sampling which frequently figures in the literature, i.e. convenience sampling. The problems with convenience sampling are so acute that Robson (1993) calls it as a cheap and dirty way of doing research. Who gets sampled, according to Robson, is determined by all kinds of unspecifiable biases and influences introduced to the sampling procedure. This does mean that most experimental findings' validity is subject to attack.

Convenience sampling is a kind of non-probability or nonrandom sampling in which members of the target population, as Dörnyei (2007) mentions, are selected for the purpose of the study if they meet certain practical criteria, such as geographical proximity, availability at a certain time, easy accessibility, or the willingness to volunteer. Dörnyei further explains that, "captive audiences such as students in the researchers' own institution are prime examples of convenience sampling." Mackey and Gass (2005) point out that the obvious disadvantage of convenience sampling is that it is likely to be biased. They advise researchers that the convenience sampling should not be taken to be representative of the population.

Still, there is another problem of great concern related to intact groups or convenience sampling, i.e. the problem of outliers. Because of the high self-selection possibility in non-probability sampling, the effect of outliers can be more devastating in this kind of subject selection. Outliers are cases whom Hatch and Lazaraton (1991) consider as not belonging to the data. Larson-Hall (2010) regards outliers as points which stand out as being different from the bulk of

the data and believes that they are very problematic for "classic statistics" in which normality of the distribution is an obvious prerequisite. According to Larson-Hall, "classic statistics" advises using graphic summaries to identify the outliers and then remove them by running the analysis both with and without them. However, she identifies that there are several problems with manually deleting outliers. The first is that, the deletion process is arbitrary and up to the discretion of the individual researcher. Moreover, eliminating one outlier may make another subject stand out as outlier. Best and Kahn (2006) consider outliers a problem for correlational studies. They believe that outliers can cause spuriously high or low correlations. When this occurs, these authors believe that, the researcher needs to decide whether to remove the individual's pair of scores from the data analyzed or not.

Outliers are, therefore, a constant threat to the homogeneity of our experimental and control groups on the one hand and to the reliability and validity of our findings on the other if they are not accounted for in a systematic manner. Of course, the presence of outliers does not impose as big a challenge on qualitative researchers as they do on quantitative researchers since these researchers are quite often interested in exceptional cases. For instance, a case study, according to McKay (2006) can be a single instance of some bound system although it can also encompass an entire community.

III. LOGIC OF THE STUDY

It is clear from many studies that there are some essential factors that affect any kind of learning. Of course, some of these factors are related to group characteristics and others to the characteristics of individuals participating in the study. In the case of language learning, studies suggest that age, gender, level of language proficiency, years of schooling, attitude, motivation, etc. affect the rate and amount of learning. It is also certain that people with different abilities reflect on linguistic problems and situations differently and approach them adopting different strategies. So, it is surprising that no criteria as yet have been proposed for controlling these variables in sampling, especially in non-random subject selection. The problem, therefore, is that while logic has brought the need for reevaluation of subject selection to the fore, there is not a reliable way to this day to make sure that non-random groups or subjects assigned to experimental and control groups are acceptably similar.

Of course, the issue of subjective or extraneous variables has long been identified by researchers. For example, Seliger and Shohamy (1989) suggest that steps should be taken before the experiment to choose subjects who meet some pre-established criteria. They also point out that, the increase in the comparability of groups depends on the specifics of the study. Dörnyei (2007, p. 117) similarly stresses that, "in order to be able to make causal claims based on a quasi-experimental study, the effects of initial group differences need to be taken into account." Unfortunately, however, Seliger and Shohamy do not propose any practical way for controlling these variables or factors. The procedure introduced by Dörnyei too is difficult to apply since it depends on a case-by-case matching of subjects in experimental and control groups. For example, he states that we should identify participants in the two comparison groups with very similar parameters, say, a girl with an IQ around 102 in both groups. The analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) too is not applicable at this stage. This statistical procedure can be applied to studies after they are completed to remove the confounding effects of variables. Also, the analysis of covariance removes the effects of single variables, but does not give us any measure of groups' overall initial similarity or comparability.

Neither is any clear know-how suggested in the literature as to how to deal with outliers after they are identified. The application of some statistical procedures mentioned above or trimming the groups too are directly dependent on individual investigator's intuition and the decisions made are arbitrary in most cases. It is important to note again that, outliers are not always the black sheep of research designs. In qualitative research, for example, researchers are largely interested in values which are inconsistent with the rest of the dataset and it is thought that their analysis would help clarify other more important issues. In fact, extreme case analysis is a procedure exclusively devoted to the identification and study of subjects with deviant scores. However, in experimental studies every attempt is made to choose groups which are as closely similar as possible.

For these reasons, it seems necessary to think of a way to control the essential factors affecting subjects' learning in any kind of research which uses non-probability procedures of sampling prior to the beginning of the study. In any study, according to Seliger and Shohamy (1981), decisions must be made as to whether and how to set limits on the scope or focus of the investigation which may confuse the interpretation of results. To put it more simply, we cannot select any two groups at our disposal as our experimental and control groups, as the different kinds of differences have differential effects on the rate and amount of learning. The initial difference between groups prior to their involvement in the study is an issue that researchers should take account of. These differences if big can undermine the internal validity of our study and because of this, great deviations in groups' attributes should be ruled out before the study begins. Otherwise, the users of research results should be cautioned about the reliability and validity of the outcomes.

The issues related to the reliability and validity raised here are largely relevant to the preparatory stage of a research project. It is clear that there are some other factors that may affect these two important quality criteria of any research during the study. For example, the inadequacy or unsuitability of data collection method, research environment, time spent on the treatment, teacher variable, and the irrelevant immediacy or undue delay in administering post tests all can have deteriorating effects on the value of findings. But, most of the polluting factors affecting the study during its operational stage can be kept under control if they are identified in time by the researchers. For example, teacher variable can be controlled if the same teacher teaches both experimental and control groups. In the same way, the time

element can be accounted for if both classes are taught at about the same time of the day. Needless to say that, like initial differences, researchers should be on their guard against these kinds of threats to the reliability and validity of their study as well.

As to the presence of outliers, we cannot arbitrarily include subjects in or exclude them from the study. For example, if the differences in language proficiency and age are more than what are considered to be acceptable levels, the findings of the study would be the result of these factors at least to some extent rather than the teaching method employed. To control the essential factors and to identify outliers at the preparatory stage, then, we have to define legitimate boundaries for the differences within which individuals are qualified for the groups and the groups are considered as similar and therefore comparable. It is falling within the defined limits for similarity which in fact, qualifies two groups to be considered as comparable. The narrower the ranges defined for similarity the more similar the groups will be regarded to be. The broader the ranges, on the other hand, the more variety in subjects' attributes and, therefore, the less the reliability and validity of the findings will be. At the same time, the boundaries identified for individual characteristics will tell us which students should be included in the study or excluded from it.

So, any research of this kind should first and foremost employ groups whose scores, for example on a proficiency test, are restricted to the predetermined limits in order to eliminate outliers from the study. Concurrent with this restriction, the mean scores for affecting factors should also fall within the defined ranges for mean scores. Therefore, more than anything else, the main concern of researchers should be starting inquiry with groups that are more similar with regard to the essential factors which are believed to be affecting the performance of groups.

From what was said it is clear that, the purpose of the following heuristic study is to explore the issue of convenience sampling and the use of intact groups in some detail and introduce a set of conditions and criteria which can be applied to most research work in the field. These conditions and criteria will determine the acceptable ranges for subjects' scores and groups' essential factors and the way the groups' similarity is measured. The procedure introduced here is claimed to be applicable to educational field in the first instance. Its extension to other fields is a matter which prospective researchers should decide on with regard to their particular area of interest.

IV. CONDITIONS AND CRITERIA

In this procedure, depending on the study, a number of conditions and criteria are taken into account. Conditions are mainly related to the range of scores within which the individual subjects' scores should fall. Criteria are, however, related to group statistics. For example, in the educational field the mean and standard deviation of the groups obtained from a test of language proficiency, age, language background, years of schooling, and gender are considered to be essential for most studies. The number of essential factors, of course, can be more or less than this depending on the description of groups by the researcher or how rigorous the researcher wishes to be. The smaller the range of individual scores and the bigger the number of essential factors the more controlled our sampling procedure will be. However, it is obvious that controlling all factors is neither possible in practice nor wise. The kind and number of essential factors, therefore, should be supported by logic and the criterion of practicality.

If we accept that the above six factors are essential in the context of language learning and should be kept in check, the first step will be deciding on the acceptable ranges for scores and relevant statistics where these are available. For example, for proficiency test we can decide the range for subjects' scores to be between 30 and 70 and the range for mean scores between 40 and 60. The first range will be used to either include students into or exclude them from the study. The range defined for mean scores is but a factor which will be used in comparing groups. The overall score calculated for similarity criterion, however, will be obtained only by putting together the difference values calculated for all essential factors. Therefore, using a 10 point scale for each factor, we will consider the groups to be similar or comparable if their difference regarding each factor is not more than 10 and the total difference score does not exceed 60 (since we have decided on controlling for six essential factors).

It is also possible, to assign weightings to factors and categorize them from the most to the least important or at least tell our readers which factor or factors have been more important to us. It should not be forgotten that, the ranges defined for more important factors should be narrower than the ranges defined for less important ones.

Suppose we want to start convenience sampling or select two intact groups for a study which is designed to investigate an issue related to SLA. Let us assume that we have decided on the above six elements, i.e. mean and standard deviation of language proficiency test, age, language background, years of schooling, and gender as essential factors. To identify our groups, first we should decide on the degree of acceptable variation in scores. The second step will be applying the same 10 point scale to the differences in mean scores obtained from comparing differences in essential factors between groups. The final judgment as to whether the groups qualify as similar and therefore comparable or about the degree of their similarity, therefore, will be made based on four types of information:

1. whether the scores of all subjects in experimental and control groups fall within the ranges defined for subjects' scores,

2. whether the mean values of essential factors fall within the limits defined for mean scores,

3. whether the differences calculated for nominal variables like gender and language background fall within the defined ranges, and

4. whether the overall value calculated for similarity criterion exceeds the maximum number possible or not.

If our groups are substantially big, we can comfortably exclude subjects whose scores are not within the range to homogenize our groups. Excluding a few subjects from big groups will not do much damage to the reliability and validity of our study. So, the regulation that the scores of all subjects for essential factors should be within the defined ranges does not mean that we should relinquish studying if there are a few outliers. With relatively small groups reporting the values for ranges will help the readers of our research results know the circumstances within which the results were obtained. A detailed report of values obtained for each essential factor will give our readers some idea of the aspects of groups' makeup and the extent of their similarity.

It is clear that, every researcher has an idea about the level of language proficiency and the amount of variation in the groups he/she wants to study before leaping into the inquiry. Therefore, not every pair of mean scores, even if they are the same, can be useful. The mean scores may be too high or too low, though equal, for the purposes of our study. Clearly, it is possible to define wider ranges for the scores if we want to include more students in our study or have a wider standard deviation. If so, however the similarity criterion will suffer to some degree and the validity of our findings will diminish since we are not comparing two closely similar groups. The more the range of subjects' scores approaches the number of points on the scale, the more rigorous our study will be, but in actual experiments this will be a very hard-line approach to adopt.

A thorough example would clarify this. If the range of our accepted mean range is 45 − 55 in a 100 point proficiency test, knowing that all students' scores are within the range defined for scores, for example 30 − 70, we can assign 1 negative point to each difference point in the mean values of our experimental and control groups. So, two groups can be considered as similar if the subjects' scores are within the range, i.e. between 30 and 70, and the groups' mean values are not smaller than 45 or bigger than 55. The ideal situation is where both groups have the same mean score within the expected range. But if the mean scores differ, 1 negative point will be given per each point of difference to the groups' similarity criterion originating from the essential factor of mean scores. If the mean scores have decimal points, the numbers can be rounded off to the closest aggregate numbers and then the values be assigned.

For the standard deviation, we follow a similar path. We may decide that the acceptable standard deviation for our groups, to be considered as similar, is within +/- 1 SD. Again, groups whose standard deviation fall out of this range cannot be considered as similar since the dispersion of scores in the groups is not analogous for them to be considered as similar. The degree of similarity will be determined, as with mean scores, by assigning negative points to the differences. We divide the distance between -1 and +1 standard deviations to 10 points and compare the groups accordingly. Therefore, if, for example, our experimental group has a SD of -0.80 and our control group a SD of +0.80 the negative score given to their similarity criterion will be 8.

The age factor is another important factor which researchers largely wish to control in educational research. The same procedure will be applied to the essential factor of age. For example, if our expected age range is between 18 and 30, first, all the students should fall within this range and the outliers be excluded from the study. The second step would be checking if the mean values calculated for age in experimental and control groups are within the range, say, 22 to 27. A negative point, then, will be given to the similarity criterion for each half a year of difference between the average age numbers of experimental and control groups.

Language background may be taken to be another defining or essential factor. On some occasions the mother tongue of all subjects, in both experimental and control groups, is the same. Or, the compositions of groups are so that each group has a similar number of subjects belonging to particular linguistic backgrounds. On most occasions, however, subjects would come from different linguistic backgrounds. The former situation is the ideal state which enables the researcher even to ignore language background as an essential factor. The latter, nevertheless, should be subjected to the above procedure of assigning negative values against the criterion of similarity. That is, per each linguistic background in the experimental or control group with no parallel in the corresponding control or experimental group one negative point should be given to the similarity criterion. Thus, if our subjects in the experimental group, for example, come from three linguistic backgrounds, but our subjects in the control group are from seven linguistic backgrounds five of which are different from the linguistic background of our subjects in the experimental group, 5 negative points will be given to the similarity criterion. It is clear that two classes with completely different linguistic backgrounds are not comparable in this sense unless the purpose of study is to investigate only this aspect of difference and its possible effect(s) on the performance of subjects.

Years of schooling is another important factor that according to many may affect the subjects' linguistic gain. Subjects, especially adult second language learners, at higher educational levels, who have spent longer years in educational environments in their home countries, are generally faster and more adept in learning a second language. Therefore, it is necessary to take this defining factor into account. The number of years, as in other defining factors introduced above, is a matter of taste and depends on the purpose of the study, but our 10-point scale will be applied to all essential factors uniformly. Therefore, if we limit the mean years of schooling to 12.5-17.5 for example, we will assign 1 negative point to each half a year of difference in the groups' mean years of schooling. It is obvious that the years of schooling for all students in both groups should be restricted to the defined number of years of schooling, as with the range of scores on proficiency test or subjects' age, and the outliers be excluded from the study. So, a group will make a comparable group with another if its mean years of schooling is not more or less than the upper and lower limits defined for mean years of schooling and none of the students' years of schooling falls out of the predetermined

range for subjects' educational experience. If these two conditions are met and a group's mean years of schooling is not equal to the other group's mean years of schooling, a negative point will be assigned to the criterion of similarity for each half a year difference in mean years of schooling. The fractions, if there are any, as before, can be rounded off to the closest aggregate numbers.

Deciding on a scale for gender is a somewhat thorny issue since it is a dichotomous variable. However, in the current study, we are not dealing with the gender factor as a dependent or an independent variable. Like linguistic background, we are mainly concerned with the composition of our groups at this stage and simply take into account the number of male or female students in each group. The ideal situation is where the groups are all-male, all-female, or mixed groups with equal numbers of male and female subjects. In these cases the difference number or the value assigned against the similarity criterion will be 0. As with language background, this state will convince the researcher to overlook this factor as an essential factor and look for other important factors that may bias the results. But, the hard fact is that, seldom equal combination of males and females is available. This is while, the equal proportion of male or female subjects is essential for the design of many studies in educational field. That is why, most researchers, to exclude the moderator factor of gender, limit their subject selection to one gender only. With this procedure, however, it is possible to address the issue of gender by again assigning negative points to any difference in the number of males and females between our experimental and control groups. Then, there is no need for restricting our groups to one gender only. If our groups are constituted of 15 subjects each and, say, the experimental group has 13 males and 2 females, but the control group has 10 males and 5 females the negative points to be given to the similarity criterion will be 3 regardless of whether we count males or females.

But, on many occasions the number of subjects in the experimental and control groups are not the same, i.e. the groups are not balanced. What shall we do in cases like this? One solution may be to define ranges for the differences in subjects' gender. Another way out of the dilemma would be to find the percentages of male and female subjects in each group and assign negative points to the differences in percentages instead of the simple frequency of students. The first step, then, would be deciding on the acceptable range of difference in percentages. If we happen to decide on this range to be 20%, for example, we can give 1 negative point per each two percent of difference in the composition of the groups. The second step is to compare the actual groups and assign relevant negative point(s) to the similarity criterion. Let us adopt the second procedure here, not to make the number of essential factors unwieldy.

For example, if we have 15 subjects of 10 males and 5 females in our control group and 19 subjects of 11 males and 8 females in our experimental group, it will be easy to determine the percentage of males and females in each group and then compare the percentage values to assign necessary negative point(s) to the similarity criterion. If we work through the control group the percentages for the males and females in this group will be obtained as follows:

100 : 15 = 6.6
6.6 x 10 = 66   male out of one hundred subject
66 : 100 = 66%   percentage male
100% - 66% = 34%   percentage female

The percentage values for the experimental group will be:

100 : 19 = 5.3
5.3 x 11 = 58   male out of one hundred
58 : 100 = 58%   percentage male
100% - 58% = 42%   percentage female

Whether we look at the percentages of males or females in the two groups makes no difference; in any case the difference value calculated will be the same. This difference value will tell us which negative value to assign to the similarity criterion if, of course, this value happens to be within the range. For the above percentages the negative value to be assigned to the similarity criterion will be 4, since the difference adds up to 8%.

Violating each of these ranges would mean our groups are dissimilar and therefore not comparable. However, this does not mean that researchers should desist studying simply because the numbers they have calculated for essential factors contradict predetermined values. If the numbers of subjects in both control and experimental groups are big enough, which is the favorable situation, as it was said above, we can simply exclude students who do not meet the requirements of this procedure from the study. If we have a limited number of subjects, on the other hand, reporting the values would suffice for our readers not to go astray in their interpretations. The conclusions that we draw based on our research findings, on the other hand, should be very cautious and not claimed to be obtained from comparing similar groups. These kinds of findings would only suggest tentative possibilities which need to be approved by studying more similar groups.

Another point which comes to mind is that, replication is a relative term. The more similar our experimental and control groups are in repeated measures of the same dependent variable or variables with the same instrument the more the possibility of obtaining similar results and the higher the reliability and internal validity of the findings will be. It is obvious that, in humanities exact replications are impossible. But, with less similar groups with outcomes similar to the initial study our external validity will increase. So, if like similarity we think of replication as a continuum, we can say that close approximation of groups' attributes is what is desired particularly in situations where the findings are controversial. With less controversial issues we can feel relatively relaxed using less similar groups. In any replication,

therefore, the study can be repeated with different groups or in different settings, but depending on the purpose of study we can approach the reliability and internal validity end of the continuum with manipulating very similar groups or the external validity end with less similar groups. Findings obtained from comparing both more and less similar groups, which correspond each other closely, will be highly reliable and will have internal and external validity both at the same time. In both cases, but, the essential factors affecting the performance of subjects should be within the defined ranges and the values calculated for essential factors and similarity criterion be reported to project a clear picture of circumstances in which the study was conducted.

It seems reasonable, therefore, to recommend researchers firstly to choose as big groups of samples as possible for their research purposes of which outliers can be excluded without doing much damage to the research design and secondly, replicate studies with maximally and minimally similar groups to be able to generalize their findings. This does not apply, however, to those researchers whose research objectives necessitate working with smaller groups or even individuals as in case studies.

Accepting the differentiations made above, we can say that we will have six scales of ten for educational studies with a total difference number getting at 60 and we will accept groups to qualify for convenience sampling if they fall within the ranges defined for these factors. So, even if two groups gather an overall number which is smaller than 60 but violate one or more ranges defined for essential factors we will not be able to consider them to be comparable, unless the students falling above or below the limits are excluded from the study. Looking at the overall number obtained for the similarity of our experimental and control groups, we can say to what extent they are similar. Actually, we can look at the similarity criterion too as a continuum of the most to the least similar. The smaller the overall number calculated, the more similar the groups will be. The bigger the number, on the other hand, the less the groups will resemble each other. This is a number which will give us a rough idea about the reliability and validity of our study as well, since the more similar the two groups are, the more confident the researchers will be in the claims they make. The diagrammatic representation of the similarity criterion can be shown as below:
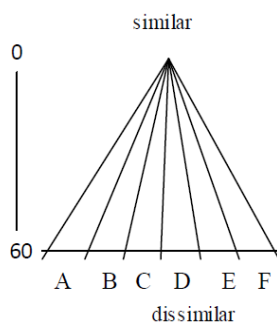

Figure 1. Similarity Continuum

In Figure 1, the more we go up toward 0 the more similar the groups will be. And, the further we approach the base of the diagram, the more our groups will diverge to the extent that after 60, our groups cannot be considered as similar. Drooling for the dreamy value of 0 might be an unrealistic expectation. Nonetheless, our attempt as researchers in the educational field should be approaching this value to the extent possible if we want to have reliable and valid outcomes at the same time.

Another point we understand from Figure 1 is that the essential factors are all of the same importance or weight to the researcher. If, as it may be the case, a researcher desires to attribute differential importance or weightings to the essential factors, the lengths of A, B, C, D, E, and F, which represent essential factors, will change depending on the importance assigned to them. It is clear by now that, shorter distances will be indicative of higher importance of the factors. Even, we can assign hierarchical importance to our essential factors and arrange them from the most to the least important. Obviously, our scale should not change, even if the lengths differ. We will divide each distance between two limits of a factor by ten points despite the limitation put on the range to be able to uniformly assign negative values against the similarity criterion. Figure 2 shows a situation in which the researcher has assigned hierarchical importance to different essential factors.
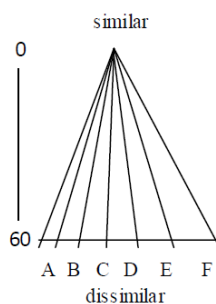

Figure 2. Differential hierarchical importance assigned to essential factors

At first glance, the application of this method to convenience sampling may seem daunting to most researchers for the limitations it imposes upon their work. But, applying this procedure in practice does not appear to be very difficult. On the other hand, the resulting confidence build up regarding the findings makes it worthy of serious consideration. Two issues of prime importance in working with this procedure are:

1. Applying logic to the process of determining the number of essential factors and their ranges, and
2. Starting studies with big enough groups wherever possible.

The application of logic to the process of determining ranges is a matter which is directly related to the researchers' degree of meticulousness. The deliberation should not however, surpass the issue of practicality. In any case doing something for the sake of knowing is better than doing nothing under the excuse of inability in meeting the requirements. Starting with big enough groups will guarantee the success of the study to a great extent as it gives us the leeway to exclude from our study subjects whose presence would damage the homogeneity of our groups and the validity of our findings.

Deciding on the ranges at the beginning of the study, we can specify conditions and make tables like Table 1 below which will direct us all through the sampling process. This table will represent the degree of rigor that the researcher wishes to exert and will tell him or her which subjects to include in or exclude from the study. Additionally, readers will be able to decide on the degree of faith they should keep with the findings. Deciding on the conditions and criteria is the first step to be taken and precedes the construction of Table 1. For the above essential factors we can specify the following conditions and criteria where As stand for conditions and Bs for criteria.

TABLE 1.
RANGES OF ACCEPTABLE INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP SCORES

A. Range of individual scores on language proficiency: 30–70
B. Range of scores' mean on language proficiency: 40–60 → each two scores of difference = 1 negative point

B. Range of standard deviation: +/- 1 SD → each SD difference of 0.2 = 1 negative point

A. Age range: 18–30
B. Range of age mean: 22–27 → each half a year of difference = 1 negative point

B. Acceptable between-group difference in gender: 20% → each two percent of difference = 1 negative point

B. Language background range: 1–5 → each difference in language background = 2 negative points

A. Years of schooling range: 10–20
B. Range of years of schooling mean: 12.5–17.5 → each half a year of difference = 1 negative point

It is clear that for our groups to qualify as similar the first requisite is that conditions A are fulfilled. If these conditions are met for both experimental and control groups, then the fulfillment of criteria B will convince us of having two similar groups.

Table 2 below is made to obtain the overall degree of similarity (or dissimilarity) between two imaginary groups for which the above conditions and criteria apply. The degree of similarity is, of course, determined by the difference value which is presented at the rightmost end of the table bottom. Smaller difference values will be indicative of more similarity while a big value will be a sign of less similarity.

TABLE 2.
DIFFERENCES IN MEAN VALUES OF ESSENTIAL FACTORS

	mean language proficiency	SD	mean age	language background	mean years of schooling	gender	
experimental	52	+0.80	22	2	14	65% male	
control	48	-0.80	23	3	11	55% male	
Difference score	4	8	1	1	3	5	Total = 22

Since, all subjects in both experimental and control groups have gained or given scores which are within the defined ranges for essential factors, i.e. they have met conditions A, and the differences in the mean values for essential factors do not exceed the defined ranges, i.e. criteria B are fulfilled, and since the overall difference value obtained for these two groups is smaller than 60, we can confidently assert that these two groups are similar enough to be compared as intact groups.

Of course, some of these factors would not be considered as essential in other contexts. For example, in many EFL situations students generally come from the same linguistic background. It is clear that in situations like this linguistic background can be forgone, as mentioned above, and other important factors like aptitude be included in the list. In any case, deciding on the kind of essential factors is dependent on the individual researcher and the context in which the research is carried out. But, the number of essential factors is a matter that researchers can agree on. Our suggestion is that in any research using convenience sampling at least five essential factors be taken into account and the values calculated for them for both experimental and control groups reported.

Returning back to our discussion of randomizing and the claim that it minimizes the effects of extraneous and subjective factors, we want to say that this procedure, if employed properly, is even more capable of eliminating the effects of irrelevant factors from the study. Another advantage of this procedure is that, by reporting the values for conditions, criteria, and the overall difference the readers will be aware of the compositions of groups and the context in which the study was conducted and, therefore, the comparisons made between the research results will be theoretically sound.

V. CONCLUSION

Doing research in humanities has its own problems. Unlike physical sciences, in humanities and particularly in educational field we are not dealing with static materials or consistent states. Humans' abilities, states of mind, attitudes and motives are in constant change making the prediction of their behavior extremely hard. Applying the notion of subjectivity to testing, Bachman (1995) quotes Pilliner (1968) that language tests are subjective in nearly all aspects. The same is true about researching second language acquisition which uses tests as an instrument for data collection purposes. However, subjectivity in research does not originate from the subjective nature of tests only. The major problem in carrying out any research in educational field is the compromise that should be reached at and the balance that should be created between what happens in real-life and what would happen under controlled conditions. This kind of compromise is inevitable if we are not going to sacrifice internal validity for external validity or the other way round. However, an important point when it comes to research is what Maxwell (1992) calls descriptive validity. Although, Maxwell discusses the issue of validity in the context of qualitative research, leaving an audit trail, as Dörnyei (2007) puts it, should be an integral part of any kind of research. This audit trail is perfectly applicable to the sampling stage of quantitative research as well, especially where non-random groups are used for research purposes. Describing the conditions under which the investigation was carried out removes a lot of misinterpretations of or overreadings from the research results. The purpose of this article is not to support imposing uncalculated control on research projects. Its purpose, on the contrary, is to encourage reluctant researchers to conduct inquiries even though they feel that they do not have access to comparable groups. The only thing required, however, is to precisely report the circumstances in which the research was conducted. We believe that the guidelines suggested here are flexible enough to encourage interested researchers to give their ideas a good try. But, the choice of essential factors and the ranges within which the researcher will operate should be logically sound and defensible.

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On the Reconstruction of the Chinese American History in *China Men*

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Abstract—**Approaching from Michel Foucault's notion of history, mainly his counter-memory, the paper explores how Kingston reconstructs Chinese American history through the main strategy of counter-memory—talk-story. Through retelling how the male immigrants in her family participated in constructing America, rooted in America and served in the army, Kingston, with these transgenerational adventures as an archetype, discloses the discontinuity of American history and reconstructs an alternate Chinese American history from the perspective of Chinese Americans. The counter-memory in China Men highlights Chinese Americans' outstanding contributions, prowess and masculinity, thus helping to carve a place for Chinese Americans in American history, recreate the new images of Chinese Americans and subvert the stereotypical images of Chinese Americans as submissive, feminine, and lack of manhood and prowess.**

Index Terms—**China Men, reconstruct Chinese American history, counter-memory, talk-story**

I. INTRODUCTION

As is well known, the early Chinese Americans were the co-creators of American history, having done indelible contributions to the development and construction of the country. However, their experiences and conditions have rarely been presented and unjustly dealt with in American history, literary works and other cultural media. In the domain of American official history, early Chinese immigrants' contributions to the making of America are either minimized or obliterated. Some books of American history show that Chinese American history is not dealt with justly. Also, the images of Chinese Americans are rarely dealt with justly. Throughout the history of Anglo-American literature, there are almost no positive images of Chinese. They are only minor images used to serve as a foil to the white and usually depicted as submissive, feminine, inscrutable, coward, indifferent, and lack of manhood and prowess.

The silenced or distorted situation of early Chinese Americans in American history and literature arouses the indignation of Chinese American writers. A lot of them take up their pens to refute these stereotypes and reclaim a voice and position for these silenced ancestors in American history, among which, Maxine Hong Kingston (1940-), one of the most influential Chinese American women writers, is a typical representative.

China Men (1980) is another masterpiece following up *The Woman Warrior* (1976) by Maxine Hong Kingston, *China Men* is usually regarded as a collection of memoir, which records the immigration odyssey of the males in Kingston's family from the early sojourners and immigrants to the war generation four generations later. These undaunted, tenacious, and ambitious immigrants from China have their individual stories during their immigration course to America, which provide a prototypical history of all Chinese American immigrants

China Men is episodic, composed of six distinct but related principal stories about the men in Kingston's family. The first section "The Father from China" is the story about Kingston's father, in which Kingston tries to imagine the essential events of her father's life in China from his auspicious birth and through his education to his emigration to America. Then she relates how her father arrived in America and was betrayed by his laundry partners in New York. Following are two sections that recount respectively the adventures of her great grandfather(Bak Goong) and grandfather(Ah Goong). "The Great Grandfather of the Sandalwood Mountain" is about Bak Goong's experiences on the Hawaiian sugar cane plantation as a contract worker; "The Grandfather of the Sierra Nevada Mountain" tells of the heroic story of Ah Goong during the construction of the First Transcontinental Railroad. "The Making of More Americans" illustrates identity problem facing Chinese Americans. Each protagonist in this part for a time was plunged into a state of agony and indecision, yet they finally learned to establish their identity as Chinese Americans. Father returns in "The American Father" as the manager of a gambling house, a disheartened man sunk into depression after unemployment, then the owner of a New Port laundry, and finally a new American with a house and business. The book ends with "The Brother in Vietnam". This is a section devoted to the American-born generations who joined the American army and won the solid position for their family in America.

Kingston in *China Men* successfully rehabilitates the heroic images of Chinese Americans and reconstructs their history, but she does not rigidly adhere to the authentic records about Chinese Americans as traditional historians usually do. Instead, she reconstructs history through interweaving family stories, historical facts and myths. Approaching from Michel Foucault's notion of history, mainly his counter-memory, this paper focuses on exploring how Kingston reconstructs Chinese American history through telling her family stories.

II. RETELLING THE EPIC OF CHINESE AMERICANS

Traditionally, history is regarded as an intellectual discipline purporting to record the truth about the past. Thus what the historian writes in the history are unquestionable facts. However, at the turn of the 20th twentieth century, with the impetus of Deconstruction, the notion of history as an authority was challenged. Many philosophers, historians claim that history can never provide us with the truth or give us a totally accurate picture of the past events or the worldview of a group of people, because all histories are subjective, written by people whose personal biases affect their interpretation of the past. They insist that the traditional devices for constructing a comprehensive view of history "from discreet and apparently insignificant truths and according to a rigorous method" (Foucault,1977, p.53) must be systematically dismantled. These philosophers' propositions of rejudging and scrutinizing traditional history lead to the decline of the authority of traditional history as well as the possibility for the ethnic minorities to reclaim their suppressed voices in dominant history.

Michel Foucault, an eminent French philosopher, and a "historian of systems of thought", is the leading figure of this critical trend. In most of his works, Foucault shows his keen concern with history and most of his efforts in these works are to subvert the authority of traditional history and create "effective histories", in which various suppressed knowledge and discourse can be presented.

In his The Archeology of Knowledge and The Order of Things, Foucault rejects the traditional notion of history as a "straightforward narrative", "living continuity", "organic development" or "the project of existence", but points out that this history is full of "phenomena of rupture, of discontinuity", or "radical breaks" (Foucault, 1972, p.5-6). In other words, the traditional historical texts just simplify and theorize the vicissitude of actual history, ignoring the historical contingency. So, according to Foucault, the history which usually functions as truth or is taken as truth actually covers up countless deliberate or non-deliberate interstices or errors.

Foucault further enriches his views of history by putting it into a larger social and political context. In his collection of lectures, Power/Knowledge, he states that power and knowledge are deeply related. Knowledge is gained through power. Once one has obtained power, he or she then gains the knowledge that comes with it. Thus in a society where various forces or ideologies fight for presence, the dominant one always has in hand the power of truth, the power of disseminating and judging knowledge (Foucault 1980,p34). Judged against the ideology or the taste of the dominant power, some historical knowledge is turned into "subjugated knowledge" which is either "buried" or regarded as "disqualified" and "illegitimate" (p.81-83). Therefore, knowledge or discourse is just the result of the interplay of various powers. By applying this theory to the field of history, we find that history as a kind of knowledge or discourse is just the product of the operations of power. This indeed explains well why the history of ethnic minority is usually minimized, silenced or even distorted.

After revealing the nature of traditional history, Foucault puts forward his propositions of writing history. Influenced by Friedrich Nietzsche's genealogy, Foucault envisions the necessity of applying the genealogical analysis to history-writing so as to unveil the knowledge or discourse suppressed by grand narrative. Thus in his collection of essays, Language, Counter-memory, Practice, he raises the new concept of counter-memory. According to Foucault, memory is in the service of traditional history, of knowledge as transmitted, inscribed, sanctioned, and possessing the unmerited status of truth (Cheung, 1993, p.15). Conversely, counter-memory, defined as "a transformation of history into a totally different form of time" (Foucault,1977, p.160), is a radical practice to resist the supposed continuity of traditional history, and to dispel the notion of history as immutable truth and discourse (p.156). To counteract the traditional way of recoding history, counter-memory furnishes an "effective history", which "seeks to make visible all of those discontinuity that cross us" (p.162).

Thus Foucault's theory of discontinuity exposes the traditional history's pretense and its teleological reliance on continuities whereas his counter-memory renders a license for writing history in a radical way to refute the traditional history.

Examining Kingston' way of writing history in *China Men*, the author finds it is in accordance with this effective way in many aspects. Firstly, the counter-memory in the book brings to light that American history, in a sense, rests on layers of knowledge where discontinuity exists. Written to follow the rule that the history of American is Euro-Anglo centric, it contains discrimination, exclusion or even distortion of ethnic minority people and their historical experiences, especially of the Chinese Americans and their history.

Secondly, by typically presenting what Foucault calls "historical monuments" (Foucault, 1972,p.7), such as Hawaiian plantation, gold mine, railroad (especially the First Transcontinental Railroad), and other factual materials, the book retrieves Chinese American history from oblivion, and shows its idiosyncrasy from the perspective of Chinese American people. Moreover, the foreground of Chinese American's heroism and masculinity causes the collapse of various stereotypes imposed on Chinese Americans.

Thirdly, the revision of the past is profoundly inlaid with the present and future. While functioning as corrective to the orthodox history, counter-memory in *China Men* is to envision a bright future. It is conducive for the Chinese Americans to establish their culture and identity.

Counter-memory in *China Men i*s chiefly presented through recounting Kingston's family saga. So this paper elaborates on how Kingston rehabilitates the heroic images of Chinese men and excavates them from silenced nameless coolies to American pioneers whose names are worthy to be enshrined in American history by retelling her forefathers'

heroic stories in taming Hawaiian plantation, building the railroad, and partaking in the defense and construction of America.

A.   Highlighting the Heroic Feats of Chinese Americans

Kingston's talk-story retraces back to her great grandfather, Bak Goong, who worked in the Hawaiian plantation. Like many other Chinese laborers, Bak Goong was lured to Hawaiian plantation as contract laborer by the recruiter, who boasted of the golden chances of making money. Locked in the belowdeck and suffering vomiting for three months at sea, Bak Goong finally reached the island of Hawaii. However, Bak Goong found that the reality in Hawaii was completely different from the promises. "There was no farm, no sugarcane ready to tend", only "a tangle of trees so thick that they shut out sunlight" (Kingston, 1980, p.98). The work there was backbreaking. Bak Goong and other Chinese workers were forced to work each day from 5.00 a.m. to 5.00 p.m. under extreme heat or rain. Besides, they had to observe the absurd discriminatory rule of being forbidden to talk during work. Otherwise, they would be fined or punished.

Despite the harsh natural environment and stern restrictions, Bak Goong, a resilient and resourceful man, was not discouraged. Instead, he determined to conquer this patch of wilderness the day he amounted the island. Bak Goong's adventure in Hawaii fully demonstrates a pioneer's spirit. He endured long working hours, laboring diligently and well on the sugar plantation where daily he cut sugar cane twice the height of a man. He even managed to work when he was so ill that he had to embrace the cane stalks to stay upright. After several years of such unremitting efforts, Bak Goong and his peers "hacked a farm out of the wilderness" (p.98), making themselves the founding fathers of a place thousands of miles away from their homeland.

Compared with Bak Goong, Ah Goong's (grandfather's) work in constructing the railroad along the rugged Sierra Neveda valley was more dangerous and arduous. Ah Goong spent six years building the railroad, witnessing the agony and hardships that thousands of the Chinese experienced in this great project. After he and other Chinese workers blew up clear all tree trumps with gunpower, Ah Goong changed his job as basketmen to set dynamite charges down to the deep valley. This was a dangerous job. Ah Goong and other basketmen had to stay inside the wicker baskets that were lowered down one after another to the cliffs and sheer drops. Death became a frequent thing when dangling in the half sky because any unbalanced action would result in the turning of the baskets and the basketmen would be thrown into fathomless valleys. Kingston thus writes metaphorically that these men were digging and dynamiting their way into hells (p.137).

When the basketmen work was finished, Ah Goong then drilled the granite and inched forward strenuously in the tunnels for another three years. This was also a tough job. While wresting with this firm and stubborn granite, Ah Goong had to combat with the severity of the weather. The winter of 1866 was one of the hardest period Ah Goong and other Chinese workers experienced during the project. Because they were compelled to work through the heavy snow winter, many Chinese workers were frozen to death and their bodies only revealed when the snow melted the next spring.

With a deep sympathy for these Chinese who died silently in an alien land, Kingston wrathfully points out: "There is no record of how many [Chinese] died building the railroad. Or maybe it was the demons doing the counting and Chinamen not worth counting" (p.136).

Thousands of Chinese laborers like Ah Goong spared no efforts, including their lives, to build the railroad. They undertook most of the dangerous and hard job of the project, such as clearing trees, exploding cliffs and pounding granite to lay tracks. Undoubtedly, the First Transcontinental Railroad which is hailed as "the Greatest Feat" in the history of mankind crystallizes the Chinese laborers' sweat, blood, and lives. Kingston thus proudly declares, "They were the binding and building ancestors of this place" (p.144).

The two founding fathers, Bak Goong and Ah Goong, are prototypes of the family hero who are fashioned in the image of the valiant, long-suffering Promethus. Venturing into unmapped territory in search of adventure and opportunity, they carve tillable and habitable land out of the mountains, labor and survive on the frontier. Yet the real test of their manhood is based not so much on their lofty achievements as on the endurance of great physical danger and psychological stress. Throughout their adventures, they had to endure insufferable loneliness, illness, frustration, fought homesickness, lovesickness and institutionalized oppression.

Compared with great grandfather and grandfather's colorful adventures and glorious feats, father's story seems flat and obscure. Father came to America with a hope of rooting himself and his family in America. However, the American dream failed him, and the harsh reality destroyed his aspirations little by little. After the gambling house closed, father gradually lost not only his voice but also his humor. He would not break his silence except screaming and cursing in his dream. Father turned from an eloquent scholar and poet into a silent and angry abuser of his children and wife.

However, father cannot be labeled simply as a weakling and failure. Like his forefathers, he too undertook the epic journey, not once, but twice. First, he traveled a great distance on foot to sit for the imperial examination, and his successful performance earned him the rank of scholar. Then he crossed the ocean to the Gold Mountain. Owing to his daring ambition of taking root there, he had to face more obstacles and challenges. Baba's courage lies in his silent endurance in an adverse milieu as well as his shouldering the responsibility of raising a big family. In addition, to remain silent does not mean total submission. To a certain degree, it is a subtle manner to protest. When father had to deal with the demon police, he either kept silent or told lies to free himself out of trouble.

The greatness of father also lies in his final freeing himself from despair. He bought a new laundry and a big house in America, and started his new life in America. His passion, humor and voice were restored. He kept a variety of birds, raised animals, built roads, told stories, sang song, planted vegetables and trees, among which some "take years to fruit"—a symbol as a generalization of his life in America.

It is worth mentioning that while giving an account of her family saga, Kingston purposefully makes the adventures of her ancestors as representative as possible. For instance, she offers several different versions of her father's arrival in America, but does not clarify which one is true. By rendering the various ways a man like her father who sought entry into the United States, Kingston extends the parameter of her father's story to encompass the experiences of diverse China Men. Moreover, the mode of appellation in China Men is indicative of the generic character of all Chinese Americans. Each character in the book has his name, his own adventures, but all are referred to more frequently as "the father", "the legal father", "the illegal father", "the father from China", "the grandfather", "the brother". Throughout the book, the several generations of male members merge into the common maleness, and form an archetype of all the Chinese Americans.

Thus Kingston's excavating the heroic stories of her ancestors from memorial oblivion not only offers an archetype for Chinese American history, but also poses a challenge to the stereotypes. In the then popular American culture, Chinese American was depicted as a castrated or feminized group. Owing to lack of strength and courage, they were incapable of great undertakings, only did humble jobs in laundry and restaurant. Kingston's vivid account of their heroic feats, unusual courage in constructing America successfully shatters these stereotypes imposed on the Chinese Americans.

B.   Restoring the Masculinity of Chinese Americans

As introduced earlier, early Chinese men were depicted as coward, submissive and docile pet dogs, devoid of manhood or the traditionally masculine qualities. Jack London once observed, "I was familiar enough with the Chinese character to know that fear alone restrained them" (Yin, 2000,p.73). In essence, these stereotypes are an institutionalized identity invented by the dominant culture to humiliate the Chinese and underscore the prowess and manhood of the westerners. This ideological racism arouses the anger of Kingston. She takes pains to represent her male family members acting against these stereotypes. Thus in *China Men*, we see a gallery of rebellious heroes who are brave enough to counter the white superior in the face of adversity.

The daring and rebellious characteristics of China Men find strong expressions in Bak Goong's curses against the absurd discriminatory rule in Hawaiian plantation, in father's venting his hatred for discrimination by writing lines of poetry on the wall of Angel Island (Immigration Station located in San Francisco's North Bay), and in brother's remaining a pacifist while enlisted in the military. Kingston's China Men conscientiously fail to conform to the Occidental standards on Chinese. And above all, their courage, bravery and wisdom are typically presented in the episode of strike when building the railroad.

In building the First Transcontinental Railroad, Chinese workers shouldered the hardest and heaviest task of the project. However, the more unbearable was the extremely discriminating situation. Consistently throughout the construction period, Chinese worked from sunrise to sunset, several hours longer than the working day for white workers with a lower pay. Besides, they had to pay for their own food supplies. To accelerate construction, the white official decided to extend China Men's work-hour from 8 to 10 by adding 4 dollars a month. Failing in bargaining, Ah Goong and other Chinese workers were determined to launch a strike to fight for their rights at the risk of going to jail. Inspired by a historical precedent that "the time and place for the revolution against Kublai Kan had been hidden inside autumn mooncakes"(p.140), the strikers wrapped the notes of the strike into the traditionally Chinese food Zongzi and distributed among them.

Though the strike ends in compromise, it is of great significance to the Chinese workers. As Henry David Hwang has stated: "….often, coolie laborers have been characterized in America as passive and subservient….The strike is important because it reminds us that in historical fact they were assertive men who stood up for their rights in the face of great adversity"(Chang, 2000,p.44).

While demonstrating Chinese Americans' courage and prowess, Kingston also makes a lot of efforts to redress the sexual stereotypes imposed by the white race. In American culture of that time, the Chinese American was not a normal man. They were a group with abnormal sexual desires, often portrayed as a "sexless camel" or gay. The popularity of literary Chinese characters, Fu Manchu and Charlie Chan, reinforce the emasculated stereotype of China Men. Fu Manchu, the incarnated genius of the "yellow peril", is suspected of being gay; Charlie Chan, by contrast, is a womanized humbling detective (Chang, 2000,p.25).

As Tang Ao's story in the preludial chapter of *China Men* indicates, the first and probably the most painful experience of Chinese men is sexual deprivation once they got to America. 90 percent of early Chinese immigrants were male, and antimiscegenation laws and other laws prohibiting Chinese laborers' wives from entering the United States forced these immigrants to congregate in a "bachelor society" of Chinatown, unable to father a subsequent generation (Cheung, 1993,p.104).

The pain caused by sexual deprivation is vividly dramatized in a moving episode about Ah Goong. Living a diaspora life for several years and suffering both homesickness and lovesickness, Ah Goong "felt his heart breaking of loneliness" at the thought why "the railroad he was building would not lead him to his family" (p.129). Instead, it ruined

his happy family life. To relieve his painful longing for home, Ah Goong developed a habit of lying under the sky and observing the constellation of the Cowboy and the Spinner (the Altair and the Vega), two stars which reminded him of his wife and homeland far, far apart. And the famous Chinese myth about the two stars—"The Cowboy and the Spinning Girl" (symbolizing the separated lovers who could not meet each other) —always touched the nerve of his emotion. Pretending that a little girl was listening, he told himself the love story about the Cowboy and the Spinning Girl. All his loneliness and lovesickness are inserted in his soliloquizing the legendary story.

However, even in such adversity, Ah Goong managed to demonstrate his masculinity not only physically but also sexually. He exhibited his manliness in cutting a tunnel through the granite mountains. When countering such a million-year-old mountain that "was locked against them and was not to be broken into", Ah Goong said, "A man ought to be made of tougher material than flesh. Skin is too soft. Our bones ought to be filled with iron." He thought he " had to slam with strength and will….He learned to slide his hand up the handle, lift, slide and swing, circular motion, hamming, hammering, hammering….He hit at the same spot over and over again" (p.134). Kingston's portrayal of Ah Goong may be interpreted as a western mythic figure with admirable strength and vigor. With his hammer, he counters against literally the granite and metaphorically the stiff discriminatory laws that exclude them. Besides displaying Ah Goong's physical strength, Kingston's descriptions here also involve sexual implication. According to Sigmund Freud, every concave image, such as a cup, cave, vase is a female symbol, and any image whose length exceeds its diameter, such as a tower, sword, knife or pen becomes a phallic or male symbol (Bressler, 1994, p.162). Thus applying Freud's theory into the case, we can interpret Ah Goong's hammer as a male symbol, the tunnel that he cut as a female symbol, and his swinging hammer in the tunnel symbolizing the sexual intercourse. Through his hammer, Ah Goong sexualized and feminized the American land, and put it into his possession in imagination.

The above assumption that Ah Goong's conquering the land is metaphorically an act of mating the land, which in his vision is a virgin, is further confirmed by his other more daring act. When Ah Goong's sexual longing intensified with time, "He took out his penis under his blanket or bared it in the woods and thought about nurses and princesses. He also just looked at it, wondering what is was that it was for, what a man was for what he had to have a penis for" (p.144). The emasculation and sexual discrimination from the white discourse did not thwart Ah Goong's faith in his sexuality. To defeat the feminization and castration project, which aims to suffocate the Chinese men, he began showing his masculinity in a defiant way: "One beautiful day dangling in the sun above a new valley, not the desire to urine but sexual desire clutched him so hard that he bent over in the basket. He curled up, overcome by beauty and fear, which shot to his penis. He tried to rub himself calm. Suddenly he stood up tall and squirted out into space. 'I am fucking the world,' he said. The world's vagina was big, big as the sky, big as a valley. He grew a habit: whenever he was lowered in the basket, his blood rushed to his penis, and he fucked the world" (p.133). By treating the sexuality of Chinese Americans with irony and humor, Kingston successfully shatters the stereotypes of the effeminate Chinese men and recuperates their sexual prowess. In addition to sexuality, this humorous ejaculatory act of Ah Goong also demonstrates Chinese Americans' resilient and indomitable spirits to survive under the adverse conditions. As Cheung acknowledges, "Ah Goong's defiant act of impregnating the world underscores both the insufferable deprivation of China Men and their strategies of survival through grandiose imagination" (Cheung,1993,p.104).

C. Breaking Silence

The historical experience of the Chinese in the United States is largely a history of prejudice and discrimination. Ever since their emigration to the United States, Chinese Americans have faced serious racial discrimination. Anti-Chinese prejudice, economic and social repression have never ceased throughout the history of Chinese immigration to America. All these discriminatory restrictions aim at disfranchising and silencing Chinese Americans, depriving their voice before driving them out of America. Just as the editors of Aiiieeeee: An Anthology of Asian Writers put it in discourse, "The minority's reaction to racist policy is acceptance and apparent satisfaction. One measure of the success of white racism is the silence of the minority race and the amount of white energy to maintain or increase that silence…." (Chin, et al.1974,p. XXV-XX VI).

To survive the hostility, Chinese Americans had no choice except for silence. They had to watch every step in case the white racists would take advantage of their "wrong-doings". Therefore, silence had been a part of the price that Chinese Americans had to pay to survive in a country that hated them, particularly those who entered the country under false or "paper" names. Suffering this long-standing imposed silence, Chinese Americans were deprived of language to express themselves. Their voices were suppressed, their contribution to America was erased. They became "linguistic orphan" (Frank Chin's word). However, to remain silent is to risk erasure. The inability to assert oneself, to tell one's story is to adopt a position of weakness and passivity. Just as Karl Marx said, "They cannot represent themselves, they must be represented" (Said, 1978, epigraph). Language is an instrument used by western cultural imperialism to exclude or marginalize minority groups. Language also plays an important role in establishing one's identity in a society. So, for the minority writers like Kingston, the appeal to language to break silence is a fundamental step to fight against the inferiority that is imposed upon his or her community.

Therefore, silence-breaking is a recurrent theme in *China Men*. China Men is composed to challenge her father, a man whose habitual reticence is punctuated with misogynist curses, a man with "no history, no past, no China" (p.14): "I will tell you what I suppose from your silences and few words, and your can tell me that I'm mistaken. You'll just have to speak up with the real stories if I've got you wrong"(p.15). And through decoding her father's silence, Kingston

turns the silenced history of her heroic ancestors into a collective Chinese American epic. If we say that The Woman Warrior concerns with the young narrator's growing up from wordlessness to eloquence by breaking the silence imposed by both racism and sexism, we find in *China Men* the mature narrator begins to rupture the silence in which her ancestors have been enveloped for nearly a century. Besides Kingston herself as a silence breaker, we see that Kingston purposefully underscores her ancestors' ability and efforts to utter their voices throughout the book. So, like *The Woman* Warrior, *China Men*, is rich in heroic images of individuals who strenuously find their voice, and recover their ability to vocalize stories, among whom Bak Goong is a typical representative.

The great grandfather is gifted with language. Therefore, the rule that the Chinese laborers were not allowed to speak while working on the plantation is so absurd and annoying to him: "I wasn't born to be silent like a monk….If I know I had to take a vow of silence, I would have shaved off my hair and become a monk" (p.100). Bak Goong here related the deprivation of language to sexual castration. He "withstood the hours, did the work well, but the rule of silence wrought him up whenever a demon rode by. He suddenly had all kinds of things to say" (p.100). Bak Goong attempted to resist the imposed rule the day he arrived on the plantation. He first tried to convert talk into a song, "Work. Work. Work. Eat. Eat. Eat. Shit and Piss" (p.100), so as to break their monotonous mode of life, but was whipped. Then when he complained to the paymaster demon that the pay was "too little", he was fined (p.102). Bak Goong's anger was as fierce as the fire they set on trees, and he did not give up. Finally he learned to let out his curses disguised as coughs. When the demons howled to work faster, he coughed in reply, "Get-that-horse-dust-away-from-me-you–dead -white-demon. Don't-stare-at-me-with-those-glass-eyes. I-can't-take-this-life"(p.102). The deep long coughs, barking and wheezing were almost as satisfying as shouting. He felt better after having his say. Since then, Bak Goong became a talk addict. He told stories to make the work easier. He even adapted a folk tale to make fun of the missionary ladies. Eventually when all the men fell ill, lying in bed, he diagnosed their illness: "Uncles and brothers, I have diagnosed our illness. It is a congestion from not talking, what we have to do is talk and talk" (p.115). Bak Goong then told his fellow workmates an ancient folk story which concerned a king with a secret—his son has cat's ears. Years went by, and when the king could not contain his secret any more, he scooped out a hole and shouted into it, "The king's son has cat ears. The king's son has cat ears". The king felt relieved after shouting his secrets into the hole and burying it.   Inspired by the story, the next day, instead of plowing straight furrows at work, the men dug a hole in a circle, then threw down their tools and plopped on the ground with their faces over the edge of the hole and their legs like wheel spokes. Suddenly all their hidden, repressed emotions and unspoken wishes rushed out like flood into the "ear of the world" which is "literally a receptable for the muffled voices of China Men and figuratively an orifice for their pent-up sexual desire"(Cheung, 1993,109): " 'Hello down there in China.' 'Hello, mother.' 'Hello, my heart and my liver. I miss you.' 'I've being working for you, and I hate it.' 'Sometimes I forget my family and go to clubs. I drink all night.' 'I've coming home by and by.' 'I want to be home.' Bak Goong shouted, 'I want home.' 'I want my home.' The others follow him, yelling, 'I want home. Home. Home. Home. Home' " (p.117).

Far from docile and willing slaves, these men here were assertive, bold, and threatening. And the shout party is so effective that it not only cures Chinese men's congestion, but also intimidates the white demons to such an extent that "in cutting season, the demons no longer accompanied the knife-wielding China Men into deep cane"(p.118). From that day on, Bak Goong talked and sang at his work, never being afraid of fine and whip.

Talked out, the men buried their words, and planted them. Kingston thus writes poetically, "Soon the new green shoots would rise, and when in two years the cane grew gold tassels, what stories the wind would tell" (p.118). The author indicates here just as the wind blowing through the grass over the spot where the king had planted his secrets spread the news throughout the land the next year, the wind blowing through the sugar cane will eventually carry the stories of China Men and make it known throughout the world. Quite purposefully, several decades later, Kingston, a brave silence breaker as well as a willing listener, went to the land of men to listen to the stories told by wind, and sung by the islands, then wrote the book. As Fa Mulan successfully entered the men's world of battle and revenged her family with sword, Kingston gets into this men's land and creates this men's work which effectively dispels the wrongs that the white autocracy has committed against her ancestors, realizing what she has said, "the reporting is the vengeance" (*The Woman Warrior*, p.54).

The assertiveness of Chinese Americans also demonstrates in Ah Goong's shouting out his disdain into the Sierra Nevada sky, in father's muttering imprecations at the ironing table, in brother's solemn self-defense that he was an American when suspected by one official in the army. And these various voices become the bearers of history, self-hood, and identity, for as these marginalized fathers and brothers move from silence to voice, from wordlessness to eloquence, they begin to recover themselves and develop their Chinese American cultural identity.

While appreciating these ancestors' defiant act of breaking silence, we cannot neglect the fact that Kingston's writing of *China Men* is another brave way of breaking silence in her own terms. During her childhood, Kingston suffered from a prolonged period of muteness. This keenly felt pain of being silenced makes her realize the importance of gaining a voice: "If you don't talk, you can't have a personality" (*The Woman Warrior*, p.53). Thus the silenced situation of her ancestors fires the author with anger. As she understands, being silenced, whether self-imposed or externally imposed, is to be stifled as a human being and erased from history. She feels obligated to retrieve the voices for these silenced forefathers, and counter the erasure of Chinese American history from mainstream American history.

Kingston consciously does many efforts to search for the voices of her ancestors. She went to Hawaii and stood

alongside the highway at the edge of the sugarcane and listened to the voices of the great-grandfathers; she took a transcontinental train and past the Sierra Nevada Mountains to find the message left by the grandfathers; she visited her uncles and relatives to listen to their stories. With her persistent efforts, Kingston does give voice to these silenced forefathers in this book. Compared with her forefathers' voice which was forced into a hole and waited to be unearthed, Kingston's voice is resonant and effective as manifested in Alfred S. Wang's comment that "the history of Chinese male in America has not been dealt with honestly or profoundly in literature until the publication of Kingston's China Men" (Wu, 1991,p. 95). While Ah Goong had to masturbate and "squirted out into space" of Sierra Nevada valley, Kingston is "fertilizing the world with words" (Ling, 1997,p.324). Inheriting her father's poetic temperament which her father lost in his laundry, she becomes a Chinese American Ts'ai Yen and "a Fu Mu Lan of the pen instead of the sword"(Goellinicht,1992,p.203), tearing into shreds the American grand narrative in her radical way of rewriting history.

III.   CONCLUSION

In the preceding parts, this paper explores how Kingston reconstructs Chinese American history through the main strategy of counter-memory—talk-story. Kingston's task to retrieve the past is not an easy one since time is irrevocable, and man is cut off from the past. There is no means for man to return to his past. Instead, the past can be reclaimed through memory, story, imagination, archival works, legend and myth. So Kingston's chief strategy to reconstruct the past is to retell the story of the male immigrants in her family and turn it into an archetypical history of all Chinese Americans. Depicting her male forefathers' immigration stories as a transgenerational epic, Kingston focuses her epic narrative on her forebears' adventures in cultivating the Hawaii plantation, building the First Transcontinental Railroad, serving in the American army and sweating in the laundry and restaurant. By highlighting their heroic feats, their manhood, their rebellious acts, their intellectual ingenuity and spiritual endurance, their achievements against enormous odds and requiring great physical strengths, Kingston reconstructs the heroic past of Chinese Americans which counters the stereotypes of the Chinese as coward, passive, submissive, feminine, and unfolds an oppositional voice to official American history in which her forefathers were distortedly represented or totally effaced.

Also Kingston stresses the importance of silence-breaking, and deems the loss of language as an important factor of China Men's loss of manhood, history and identity. Thus in *China Men,* Kingston takes pain to rehabilitate their ability to utter voices, and depicts a series of heroes who courageously ruptured the imposed silence even with mumbles, curses and coughs, and unremittingly claimed their rights to vocalize stories when facing the danger of being disfranchised and erased. As Linda Ching Sledge commented, "Kingston's greatest achievement in China Men is her transmogrification of her forebears' language into a heroic tongue"(Sledge, 1990,p.308).

Thus by interweaving personal and national events, fantasy and facts, talk-story and myth, Kingston presents another version of Chinese American history to expose the bigotry of history monopolized by the dominant American culture. Kingston's version does not intend to finalize the truth of history, but to exhibit the various aspects of history, so that it can demystify the authority of monologic history, and carve a place for Chinese Americans in American history.

However, Kingston's writing is not merely a process of confrontation, subversion. It is also a process of discovery and creation of cultural identity. Her efforts in China Men is not just to claim America for her silenced forefathers, but to envision a bright future for young generations of Chinese Americans. In one of her interviews concerning the relationship between history-writing and identity formation, Kingston stated, "Understanding the past changes the present, and the ever-evolving present changes the significance of the past" (Rabinowitz,1990,p.316). Kingston here means that re-reading history and establishing identity are interactive. She hopes that young generations, in search of their identity, trace back to their past. Only by knowing their history and realizing the value embodied in it can they establish their full identity as ethnic minority and hold their future in their hands in multicultural America.

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Single and Multiple Sluicing in Persian

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Abstract—This article discusses the syntax and LF properties of the phenomenon of sluicing as ellipsis of the sentential complement to an interrogative complementizer hosting a wh-phrase in Persian. The main purpose of this paper is to explore sluicing in Persian as a real wh-in-situ language that displays optional *wh-*movement, with a special focus on multiple sluicing. Built on focus movement analysis rather than wh-movement, we examined the movement-plus-deletion approach and the role of focus fronting in moving the remnant out of the deleted constituent in Persian sluicing to a position where it can be stranded. Finally, we also looked into possibility of non-interrogative sluicing and non-d-linked wh words and briefly put forward our proposition about wh the hell phrases in Persian.

Index Terms—single sluicing, multiple sluicing, wh-fronting, wh-movement, focus fronting

I. The Phenomenon of Sluicing

Sluicing, first explored by Ross (1969), is ellipsis of the sentential complement to an interrogative complementizer hosting a wh-phrase. Different parts of a sluicing construction are illustrated in 1 and 2:

1) Mary wrote something, but I do not know [$_{CP}$ what [$_{TP}$ ~~Mary wrote~~]].

2) Ali ye chizi xarid, nemidunam [$_{CP}$ chi [$_{TP}$ ~~Ali xarid~~]].
   Ali one thing bought.3SG NEG. know.1SG what ~~Ali bought.3SG~~
   'Ali bought something, I don't know what.' Persian

The interrogative phrase <what > is *remnant*. The deleted TP <Mary wrote> is the *target*. The TP <Mary wrote something> to which the target clause is identical is called *antecedent*. The constituent <something> that corresponds to the remnant is *correlate*. The remnant and the target compromise the *sluice*. Similarly in Persian we have <chi> as the remnant, <Ali xarid> as the target, <Ali ye chizi xarid> as the antecedent, <ye chizi> as the correlate and <chi Ali xarid> as the sluice. Looking at these examples, sluicing in Persian seems to be identical on the surface to sluices in English.

Within structural approaches to the syntax of elliptical structures, there are two main lines of investigations:

1. One strand of research, presented by Lobeck (1995) and Ludlow (2005), posits a plethora of null elements (3.b) or a single null element (3.a) replaced by some operation of structure copying at some level of representation (LF-copy) or interpreted in some semantic or pragmatic component (null-anaphora) (3.c).

3) Mary ate something, but
   a. I do not know [$_{CP}$ what [$_{TP}$ e]] (spell-out)
   b. I do not know [$_{CP}$ what [$_{TP}$ e$_1$ e$_2$ e$_3$]]
   c. I do not know [$_{CP}$ what [$_{TP}$ Mary ate t$_3$]]

2. The other line of investigations posits syntactic structure subject to some kind of deletion (FL-deletion). This approach ranges from the traditional theory of Ross to more recent proposal of E-feature by Merchant (2001). Lasnik (2005) reappraise Ross's analysis in a minimalist setting. Under this wh-movement + deletion approach, the syntax of an ellipsis site is just the same as the syntax of its non-elliptical counterpart, but subject to some kind of operation which leads to non-pronunciation.

Ross (1969) assumes that the wh-phrase has been moved from its usual position to the beginning of the clause, to Spec CP out of the missing TP. This operation which is triggered by the usual mechanism of wh-movement in questions is then followed by phonetic deletion of the rest of the clause. Merchant (2001) assumes that the ellipsis of TP or PF deletion is licensed by the presence of a triggering feature on a head called E, rather being the result of a freely operating deletion which is also active in other elliptical constructions.

E localizes ellipsis identification and enables us to postulate "a global, late, well-formedness condition" imposed just on the structures containing ellipsis. The E-feature is the repository of syntactic, semantic and phonological information about the ellipsis. Just looking at (4.a), we can see that the original site of the moved wh phrase <what> is inside the

unpronounced sentential node. There is no need to generate it in spec CP. C is the licensing head for sluicing and the [E] feature is added to the feature matrix of it as schematized in (4.b):

    4) a. Something drove him crazy, but I don't know what.

        b.
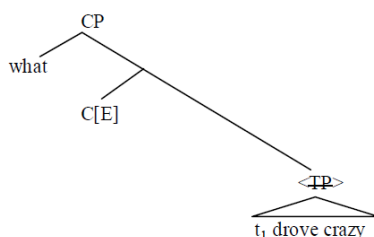
Structural approaches to ellipsis are based on connectivity effects, i.e. some part of the clause that contains the ellipsis shows connectivity to some unpronounced part. Merchant (2008) explores locality effects, the distribution of complementizers, of infinitivals and of predicate answer as a set of facts as evidence for unpronounced structure for ellipsis and some kind of data as the evidence against structure in ellipsis.

In the next section, two arguments will be discussed: 1. The interrogative phrase like chi <what> does not raise to Spec CP and escapes deletion. 2. The interrogative phrase like chi <what> raises to the specifier of a focus projection (Toosarvandani, 2008).

II. SLUICING IN PERSIAN

Toosarvandani (2008) argues that sluices in Persian like English cannot be assimilated to stripping and due to a lot of restrictions on the pivot of a cleft do not hold of the remnant in a sluice; sluices cannot be derived from a cleft. We can think of two arguments for syntactic movement of the remnant in sluicing. The weak evidence for movement comes from the position of the remnant with respect to the verb (Merchant, 2001). In Persian with SOV word order, CP arguments of the verb occur to the right (5) and the remnant in a sluice can only occur to the right of the verb (6).

    5) a. midunam [$_{CP}$ ke [$_{TP}$ Ali   nemitune   biy âd.]]
        Know.1SG   that   Ali   NEG.can   come.3SG
        'I know that Ali can't come.'
      b. * [$_{CP}$ ke [$_{TP}$ Ali nemitone   biy âd]]   midunam.
        that   Ali NEG.can   come.3SG   know.1SG
    6) a. ali ye   chizi   goft   vali   nafahmidam   chi.
        Ali one thing   said.3SG   but   NEG.understood.1SG   what
        'Ali said something, but I didn't understand what.'
      b. *ali ye   chizi   goft   vali   chi   nafahmidam.
        Ali one thing   said.3SG   but   what NEG.understood.1SG

The strong evidence for movement, according to Merchant (2001), can be discussed under the rubric of FORM-IDENTITY-GENERALIZATIONS based on which "the remnant behave just like its non-elliptical." It should obey the usual constraints on movement if it undergoes movement to arrive at its position. Case-marking and preposition stranding are two form-identity-generalizations. Since Persian like English is not very strong in its case morphology, this evidence is not very helpful. However, the object marker *r â* that occurs on specific object DPs and realized as *o* or *ro* in colloquial speech can be examined. As shown in (7), the presence of *r â* is obligatory, while in the corresponding sluice in (8) it is optional.

    7) a. ki-o   polis <ki-o> dastgir kard?
        Who-OBJ   police   arrested.#SG
        'Who did the police arrested?'
     *b. ki   polis <ki> dastgir kard?
        Who.OBJ police   arrested.#SG
    8) polis   ye   nafar-i-o   dastgir kard vali   nemidunam   ki(o).
      Police one   person-IND-OB   arrested.3SG   but NEG.know.1SG   who (OBJ)
      'The police arrested someone, but I don't know who.'

The optionality of this presence cannot be considered as evidence against the movement-plus-deletion analysis of sluicing.

Preposition stranding generalization can be regarded as the strongest evidence for a movement + deletion account sluicing (Merchant, 2001). Boeckx (2006) uses this generalization as the crucial evidence for this fact that sluicing cannot repair anti-locality violations. In languages such as English which allow wh-phrase to strand a preposition under wh-movement, it is possible to omit the preposition of a PP correlate of a DP remnant (9). (Examples taken from Merchant 2001). In Persian as a pied-piping language, retention of the preposition under sluicing is obligatory (10).

    9) a. Peter was talking to someone, but I don't know (with) who.

b. Who was he talking with?

10) a. <bâki> Ali bâ ki harf mizad?
    Ali with who speech hit.3SG
    'Who was Ali talking to?'
   b. *ki Ali bâ <ki> harf mizad
    who Ali with speech hit.3SG

11) ali bâ kesi harf mizad, vali nemidunam *(bâ) ki.
   Ali with someone speech hit.3SG but NEG-know.1SG with who
   'Ali was talking to someone, but I don't know who.' (Toosarvandani, 2011)

Merchant (2001) finds this correlation true for a large number of languages. As a matter of fact, if a language shows preposition stranding in non-elliptical structures, it will show preposition stranding under sluicing. According to Abels (2003) prepositional phrases have a special requirement that forces any extraction out of them to proceed through Spec PP. The ban on prepositions in Persian conflicts with the requirement that movement must at least across a full phrase category so the complement of the preposition should move through Spec PP. The conflict is solved if preposition stranding does not occur and the preposition is pied-piped under wh-movement.

Toosarvandani proposes that sluicing in Persian is derived by movement of an interrogative phrase to the Spec of a focus projection; then the sister of F, TP, is deleted (at PF) (12). The proposal is schematized in (13).

12) parvin ye jâi raft. Nemidunam [FP kojâ [Parvin < kojâ> raft.]]
   Parvin one place went.3SG. NEG.know.1SG where Parvin <where> went.3SG
   'Parvin went somewhere. I don't know where.'

13)
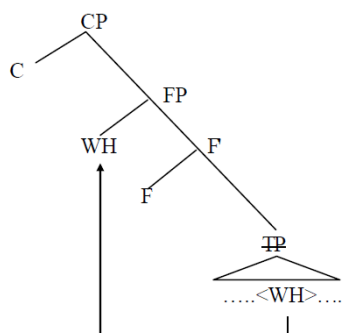
The first syntactic evidence that the remnant in Persian sluicing is in Spec FP comes from the behavior of complementizers in Persian. The focus phrase is located above TP but below CP. The complementizer *ke* can appear in a sluice and TP is deleted so there should be another node, Spec FP, on which the remnant is located.

14) midunam ke Ârash ye ketâbi xund vali nemidunam ke chi.
   Know.1SG that Ârash one book read.3SG but NEG.know.1SG that what
   ketâb-i-o Ârash <che ketâb-i-o> xund.
   bokk.IND.OBJ Ârash read.3SG
   'I know that Ârash read a book, but I don't know what book he read.'

15) vali nemidunam ke……
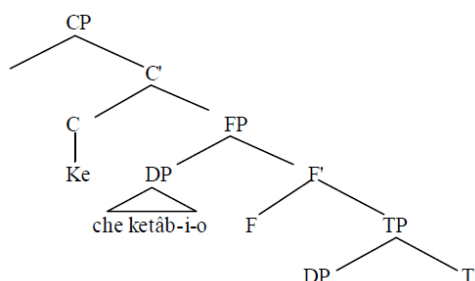
The presence of the complementizer in sluicing is counter to the SLUICING-COMP-GENERALIZATION in which no non-operator material may appear in COMP in sluicing (Merchant, 2001). This generalization holds only when the remnant of the sluice is in Spec CP as in English, the generalization does not hold in Persian; therefore, interrogative phrases raise to Spec FP.

In sum, interrogative phrases undergo the same information-structure-driven movement processes that non-interrogative phrases do. Focus fronting is responsible for moving the remnant out of the deleted constituent in Persian

sluicing to a position where it can be stranded. Consequently, when an interrogative phrase raises to Spec FP, it must stand in a contrastive relationship with another phrase of the same type.

III. MULTIPLE SLUICING

In languages such as Persian, Japanese and Bulgarian where multiple wh-fronting is possible, multiple sluicing is acceptable. Multiple sluicing can be simply defined as construction with two or more remnants. Nishiguchi (1998) believes that this construction involves a multiple occurrence of *wh*-phrases in Spec CP, and that an LF Copying analysis is well-motivated and necessary.

16) a. john-ga.   [dareka-ga   nanika-o   katta   to] it-ta.
     John-Nom someone-Nom something-Ace bought that said
     'John said someone bought something.'
   b. mary-wa   [dare-ga   nani-o   ka]   siri-tagat-te iru.
     Mary-Top   who-Nom what-Acc   Q   know-want is
     'lit. Mary wants to know who what.' Japanese (Takahashi, 1994)

17) ye   kasi   be pedar ye chizi   goft.
     One person to father one thing said.3SG
     'Somebody said something to the father.'
     vali   nemidunam   (ay â⁄yani/∅)   ki   chi-o.
     but NEG.know.1SG   (Q marker) who what-CASE
     'lit. but I don't know who what.' Persian

Takahashi argues that in a sentence like (16.b) two wh-phrases are adjoined to each other in Spec CP and they are licensed by the C head which dominates the Q marker *ka*, with TP being deleted.

English is anon-multiple wh-fronting so we expect English not to allow multiple sluicing. Takahashi (1994) asserts that in English only one wh-phrase can appear as the remnant.
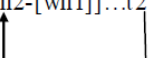
18) *Someone bought something, I don't know who what.

Example (18) is ungrammatical; however, we find sentences like (19 and 20) that are acceptable:
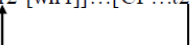
19) I know that in each instance one of the girls got something from one of the boys. ? But which from which. Bolinger (1978)

20) I know that in each instance one of the girls got something from one of the boys. ? But they didn't tell me which fro which. Nishiguchi (1998)

21) I know that in each instance one of the girls got something from one of the ys. * But they didn't tell me which fro which got. Bolinger (1978)

Nishiguchi (1998) does not consider these as genuine examples of 'multiple sluicing' in English, that is they are not cases of ellipsis involving multiple occurrences of wh in Spec CP in a pre-spell-out representation. Rather, they are similar to Gapping in that one *wh* occupies a non-CP position while the other *wh* presumably is in Spec CP. By contrast, Richards (1997, 2001) argues that some of the non-interpretable features on CP driving wh-movement are weak. It drives movement out of what will become an elliptical site. In this case PF only has to consider a single position for pronunciation (the head of the chain), since nothing in the ellipsis site will be pronounced. If the TP containing the trace is not deleted like (21) , the defective feature is present at the PF interface, so the derivation crashes.

Takahashi considers the ECP to analyze the multiple sluicing and proposes that it involves clause mate restriction among wh-phrases ,i.e. the wh-phrases must originate in the same clause prior to deletion. The lower wh adjoined to the higher wh formulates an amalgamated wh unit that subsequently moves to Spec CP.

22)
a. [CP[IP….wh1…wh2…]]
b. [CP[IP….wh2-[wh1]]…t2…]]

There cannot be a clause bounding between the two whs. Since it forms a barrio to A-movement, crossing CP, the movement is illicit.

23)
[CP[IP….wh2-[wh1]]…[CP…t2…]]

Nishiguchi (1998)

IV. SYNTAX OF WH-FRONTING IN PERSIAN AND MULTIPLE SLUICING

To shed lights on multiple sluicing in Persian, we prefer to look into the phenomenon of wh-fronting. Persian as a pro drop, wh-in-situe language allows multiple wh-fronting that is not obligatory and occurs for the sake of focusing. In Persian, wh phrases do not need to move overtly from the position in which it is base-generated, but due to focusing discourse-related reasons, wh-fronting is possible. Multiple wh questions in Persian, like Japanese, should involve

either a single-pair or a pair-list interpretation (Bošković, 1998). However, according to Lotfi (2003) Persian seems to pattern with English rather than Japanese and seems to have only pair-list interpretations in multiple wh questions.

There can be a correlation between multiple sluicing and pair-list interpretation. The failure of multiple sluicing correlates with the failure of pair-list interpretation in multiple wh question. However, the presence of pair-list interpretation is not enough for multiple sluicing.

In English wh-phrase should raise to CP to fulfill feature checking. This overt movement is obligatory because wh-feature is strong. A strong feature has two properties: it triggers an overt operation before spell-out, i.e. overt movement and it induces cyclicity, i.e. a strong feature cannot be passed by α that should satisfy it and later checking by β. In multiple wh questions, when a wh-phrase which is closer to C is attracted and [wh] and [EPP] features are checked and deleted, there is no need for the other wh-phrase to move. The landing site is already occupied and the movement is not economical. If it moves, the derivation will crash.

24) They met Ali there.
   [$_{CP}$ who did [$_{TP}$ they meet where?]]
   *Who where did they meet?
25) [$_{CP}$[$_{TP}$ Âram chi goft?]]
         Âram what siad.3SG
   'What did Âram say?'
26) [$_{CP}$[$_{TP}$ chi Âram t$_1$ goft?]]
         what Âram siad.3SG
   'What did Âram say?'
27) nemidunam ke ki-o Ali did?
   NEG.know.1SG that who.OBJ Ali saw.3SG
   *'I don't know that who Ali saw.'

In (25) <chi> remains in situe and wh feature is attracted into CP covertly. We cannot say in (26) <chi> moves to CP covertly; wh feature cannot be weak sometimes moving overtly and some other time moving covertly as a strong feature. Lotfi (2003) also argues that wh phrases in Persian move to focus phrase not CP and it is a pragmatic requirement rather than a morphological one. In other words, Persian *wh*-phrase can optionally move to a focus position in the left periphery at spec, FP for emphasis, but there is no "*wh*-movement" to spec, CP (Kahnemuyipour, 2001). On the other hand, we can use complementizer *ke* and the remnant *ki* together (27). In Persian wh feature is still non-interpretable but weak; therefore, we cannot attract wh-phrase and movement will be covert so it moves to focus phrase. (Examples taken from Lotfi 2003)

Persian multiple wh-fronting, despite its problems called riddles by Lotfi, can explain multiple sluicing. For instance, as shown in (28) and (29), the accusative case of the object wh-phrase shown by direct object particle r â (cliticized as ro/-o) makes certain superiority violations possible. Since in Persian wh phrases move to focus phrase and the motivation is pragmatic, we can move as many as wh words a we want; it, however, has "mysterious" restrictions that are problematic in multiple sluicing too. In Persian, using conjunctions and between two wh phrases is also favorable. (See the examples)

28) Âram koj â chi xarid?
   Âram where what bought.3SG
   'where did Âram bought what?'
29) a. *Âram chi koj â xarid?
   b. Âram chi-o koj â xarid?
30) a. ki koj â chi xarid?
      Who where what bought.3SG
      Intended:' who bought what where?'
   b. *ki chi koj â xarid?
   c. ki chi-o koj â xarid?
   d. Chi ki koj â xarid?
   e. Chi-o ki koja xarid?
31) a. Ali ye j ãi ye chizi xarid vali nemidunam koj â chi.
      Ali one place one thng bought.3SG but NEG.knoe.1SG where what
      'Ali bought something somewhere, but I don't know where what.'
   b. Ali ye j ãi ye chizi xarid vali nemidunam chi-o koj â
   c. *Ali ye j ãi ye chizi xarid vali nemidunam chi koj â
   d. …. vali nemidunam chi va kojâ
      ….. but NEG.know.1SG what and where
      '…. but I don't know what and where.'
32) a. Ye nafar ye chizi ye j ãi xarid vali nemidunam ki koj â chi
      One person one thing one place bought.3SG but NEG.know.1SG who where what
      'Someone bought something somewhere, but I don't know who where what.'

    b. …. * vali nemidunak ki chi kojâ

    c. ….vali nemidunam ki chi-o koj â

    d. ….*vali nemidunam chi ki kojâ

    e. …vali nemidunam chi-o ki koj â xarid

    f. …. vali   nemidunam   ki va kojâ va chi

    …. but NEG.know.1SG who and where and what

    …. 'But I don't know who and where and what.'

Persian allows non-d-linked words (Pesetesky, 1987) as remnants (33). In English the non-d-linked wh words, referred to as wh the hell phrases by Den Dikken and Giannakidou (2002), are considered negative polarity items that cannot act as remnants and cannot occur in situ and do not support non echo readings when occurring in root multiple questions. In spite of this, Toosarvandani (2008) argues that Persian allows only wh remnants. He believes that some of the tests proposed by Merchant (2001) to distinguish pseudosluicing from real sluicing are not applicable to Persian. Accordingly, aggressively non-D-linked wh-phrases occurring as the pivot in a cleft (see example 34 taken from Toosarvandani, 2008) but not the remnant in a sluice do not exist. He concludes that Persian does not have swiping (see example 35 taken from Merchant, 2001) as well, the phenomenon in which a wh-word inverts with a preposition under sluicing. However, as our informants accepted sentences (36) and (37) with non-wh-phrase remnants as well-formed structures.

    33) ye   j â rafte bud, mix âm   bedunam kodum jahanami

    One place went.3SG want.1SG know.1SG where   hell

    'He went somewhere, I want to know where-the-hell.'

    34) Who the hell was it (that left the door open)?

    35) Bees are getting into the house, but we can't figure out where from.

    36) s âr â be   yeki qar âr miz âre vali fekr   nemikonam b â Ali

    Sara with someone date make.3SG but thought NEG.make.1SG with Ali

    'Sara dates someone, but I don't thing with Ali.

    37) mix âd m âshin bexare vali fekr   nemikonam be in zudiy â

    Want.3SG car   buy.3SG but thought NEG.make.1SG to this soon

    'He wants to buy a car, but I don't think that soon.'

Consequently, there might be non-interrogative sluicing in Persian. Furthermore, based on our analyses, we can have non-d-linked wh words in Persian as well. As this argument requires widely accepted tenets of grammatical analysis, we rather discuss it in another paper after collecting more data to support our proposal.

V. Conclusion

It can be concluded that sluicing as ellipsis of the sentential complement to an interrogative complementizer hosting a wh phrase describes the connection between certain types of constituents and kinds of interpretation associated with those strings. Despite differences worth considering, this syntactic configuration is similar in Persian and English in some respect. The implication of our arguments is that focus fronting is responsible for moving the remnant of the deleted constituent in Persian sluicing to a position where it can be stranded. The possibility of wh fronting in Persian and its problematic nature with all restrictions could help us explain the phenomenon of sluicing. Besides, sluicing is not simply the by-product of syntax in a language, but it has a syntax of its own. It also suggested that looking outside the domain of syntax, we can put sluicing into further investigations from semantic and pragmatic perspectives. Definitely these analyzed examples and proposed ideas could shed light on some but not all of the relevant facts. They aim to pave the way for further research about swiping and wh the hell phrases that have remained one of the most mysterious syntactic aspects in the sluicing arena in Persian.

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Review of Mediation from the Social Constructivist Perspective and Its Implications for Secondary School EFL Classrooms in China

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Abstract—This paper critically highlights the survey of the body of literature in favor of social constructivism to look at the changing views of teacher classroom performance, from which it seems more challenging for a teacher to help students construct knowledge than to instruct directly. The history of mediation is discussed with Feuerstein's 12 mediated learning experience features incorporated into Vygotsky's zone of proximal development on the basis of social constructivism. To address the proposed question, a methodological triangulation (i.e., observations & interviews) was applied for data collection regarding language teacher mediative practices. Based on the findings, a conclusion is drawn that most English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers among secondary schools in China are unable to mediate students' learning due to the deficiency of mediation and the fact that most Chinese EFL learners are weak at communicative competence in the target language. An EFL teacher's command of mediation knowledge plus his/her abilities to overcome situational constraints might result in the successful implementation of mediation strategies.

Index Terms—mediation, social constructivism, secondary school, implication

I. INTRODUCTION

From the perspective of learners' education quality facilitation, this study is expected to be important since most secondary school English as a foreign language (EFL) learners in China are exposed to limited linguistic knowledge attaching importance to language grammar and fail to express themselves orally and literally in EFL (Ye, 2007). The most successful foreign language teaching programs, however, should "involve the whole learner in the experience of language as a network of relations between people, things, and events" (Savignon, 1987, p. 236, cited in Chen, 2005, p. 3). Mediation provides learners with more opportunities for them to practice EFL systematically and render the language learning more effective (Williams & Burden, 2000). In this regard, the implementation of mediation should take priority in language instruction (Feuerstein, 1990).

II. LITERATURE

People are accustomed to talking about constructivism in two forms: individual constructivism and social constructivism (Woolfolk, 2004). Individual constructivist approaches are related to how individuals establish elements respecting their cognition and affection derived from their psychological organ (Phillips, 1997). Thus, individual constructivism is known as psychological constructivism, of which Piaget is a preeminent representative (Paris et al., 2001). By contrast, social constructivism concerns the formation of communal knowledge of distinct schools and how the process of people's common cognition about the world is conveyed to other individuals of a socio-cultural community (Woolfolk, 2004). Vygotsky and Feuerstein are two dominant figures in the school of social constructivism (Palincsar, 1998).

A. Vygotsky's Social Constructivism

Vygotsky's "Three Principal Assumptions" is known as his greatest contribution to social constructivism (1978). The first assumption is that the community and its internal members play a central role by interacting with the individual in that individual's view of the world (Vasireddy, 2007). The second is the assumption that the tools, whose type and quality determine the pattern and speed of cognitive development, are involved in the surrounding culture and language and important adults (Vasireddy, 2007). The zone of proximal development (ZPD) is viewed as Vygotsky's (1978) third principal assumption, conceptualized as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by

independent problem solving and level of potential development as determined through solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86).

According to the ZPD, at the outset of a learning process, the teacher is to undertake most of the task before the teacher and students assume the collaborative duty (Schunk, 2000). The teacher gradually reduces the help as scaffolding until students can perform alone since they become more capable (Campione et al., 1984). "Students are challenged to learn within the bounds of the ZPD, which is altered as they develop capabilities" (Schunk, 2000, p.245).

B. Feuerstein's Mediation

Not each interaction involving a task, learner, and mediator possesses a quality of mediated learning experience (MLE), so a system of the MLE criteria is developed to distinguish levels of MLE interactions (Feuerstein, 1980). Feuerstein proposes 12 indispensable parameters for evaluating the quality of MLE interaction as shown in Table 1, in which he believes that the 12 criteria represent 12 different ways of mediation for the teacher to conduct. The first "three criteria are also considered *universal*, in the sense that they can be present in all races, ethnic groups, cultural entities, and socioeconomic strata" (Seng et al., 2003, p. 36). By contrast, "the remaining nine criteria are considered *situational* because they need not always be present in every MLE" (Seng et al., 2003, p. 36). Given the need of this study, the operational definitions of *universal mediation* and *situational mediation* are drawn on, referring to the first three MLE criteria and the remaining nine respectively.

TABLE 1
FEUERSTEIN'S MLE CRITERIA (1980)

Parameter	Conceptualization
1. Significance	The teacher makes students realize the importance of a learning task so that they can look at the significance of the task to their own and in a broader cultural context.
2. Purpose beyond the here and now	Explains to learners how conducting a learning activity will help them in the future beyond the moment and situation at present only.
3. Shared intention	In presenting a task, the teacher must make instructions clear and ensure the intention is understood and reciprocated by learners.
4. A sense of competence	Fosters learners' feelings of competence and capability of learning.
5. Control of own behavior	Encourages students to be autonomous by self-controlling their learning procedure.
6. Goal-setting	Teaches learners how to establish achievable targets and to locate approaches for the purpose of realizing them.
7. Challenge	Helps learners to develop internal needs to face challenges and to seek for new challenges in life.
8. Awareness of change	Stimulates learners to monitor changes in themselves and to understand the fact that humans are changeable all the time.
9. A belief in positive outcomes	Urges learners to assume there is always the possibility of finding a solution, even when faced with an apparently intractable problem.
10. Sharing	Invites learners to share behaviors and to perceive that it is advisable for some problems to be addressed collaboratively.
11. Individuality	Helps learners realize their individual characteristics in terms of their unique aspects.
12. A sense of belonging	Aids learners to establish a consciousness of pertaining to the whole class community in the process of the completion of the task.

C. Missing Link: From Vygotsky to Feuerstein

Vygotsky (1978) and Feuerstein (1980) seem to facilitate each other in effectively important manners as regards their works since Vygotsky utters the ZPD, a location where the probability of enhancement of a learner's abilities is able to be seen. Lantolf (2000) asserts that the ZPD is where social forms of mediation are performed and realized. Feuerstein's MLE describes what comes about within the ZPD centering on a mediator's helping learners get through this special zone and obtain their competence development in the zone eventually. Once students receive high-quality mediated learning in the school setting, they will have some grasp on how to learn for the future, at least tacitly and imperceptibly (Feuerstein, 1980). Vygotsky believes that human "higher mental processes are functions of mediated activity" (cited in Seng et al., 2003, p.6), but even then "the role of the human mediator is not fully elaborated within [Vygotsky's] theoretical framework" so that the theoretical gap is bridged with the help of "Feuerstein's (1990) theory of mediated learning, which assigns the major role to a human mediator"(Kozulin, 1994, p.284, cited in Seng et al., 2003, p.7). The application of mediation incorporated into the ZPD is expected to be the strongest rationale to explore its implications for EFL classrooms in China respecting the execution of mediation.

III. THE PROBLEM

China is historically an authoritarian society, and the classroom is heavily influenced by the Confucian model of the explicitly stratified social hierarchy, for which EFL instruction is teacher-centered, textbook-centered, and grammar-centered (Liao, 2003). Most secondary school EFL teachers in China notice that their students come across numerous obstacles in speaking and writing (Kang & Wang, 2003). This phenomenon is ascribed to the insufficiency of proper instructional strategies applied in the language classroom (Ng & Tang, 1997). It is assumed that this study could push the current pedagogical reform by identifying EFL teachers' implementation of mediation for theoretical verification and empirical support of students' all-round development. This conduct, for one thing, adapts to the requests of China's

new *National Standards of English Curriculum for Basic Education* (hereafter referred to as *Curriculum Standards*) established on the rationale that the school role is no longer limited to instruction since teachers should undertake responsibilities and obligations in other possible aspects apart from teaching duties (Ministry of Education of China [MOE], 2001). For another, as teachers are decision-makers in handling the class process, the teacher role is viewed as a crucial issue to be addressed regardless of whatever educational settings, potentials, and problems (Brown, 2001). As such, this study tries to fill in the gap in the existing literature on the extent of teachers' adherence to desired requirements in EFL instruction.

IV. QUESTION

This paper aims to explore the potential effectiveness of mediation on secondary school EFL classrooms in China. To fulfill this target, one question that follows is proposed: How does mediation impact on secondary school EFL teacher roles in China?

V. PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON MEDIATION

Previous research indicated that most language teachers had little knowledge of mediation, which affected their implementation of mediation in the classroom (e.g., Grosser & Waal, 2008; Guo, 2004; Sun, 2007). In such studies, teachers' desire for the role of mediator was strong as they were aware of the effectiveness of mediation (Sun, 2007). However, they tended to focus their attention on knowledge transmission, and students were dissatisfied with teachers' mediation activities (Guo, 2004). Much research on mediation has been conducted to compare the consistency between teachers' attitudes towards mediation and their classroom practices (e.g., Cheng, 2011; Grosser & Waal, 2008; Shen, 2008). Researchers adopt Williams and Burden's (2000) *Mediation Questionnaire* to testify teachers' attitudes and behaviors based on the 12 MLE tools. In most cases, the difference is significant between teachers' attitudes and behaviors with reference to the means in the scale of the 12 MLE features. Then, teachers and students are observed and interviewed so that their classroom practices and attitudes towards mediation can be further confirmed.

While exploring teachers' implementation of mediation, researchers have revealed the existence of a gap between teachers' behaviors and students' feelings about mediation. H. T. Yang (2006) reports in his research that "as for teachers' mediative classroom behaviors, teachers' self-assessment is overtly above students' evaluation to them" (p. 83). Students anticipate that EFL teachers can help them develop self-confidence to learn English well, teach them effective learning strategies, set their own learning goal, and facilitate their social enhancement (Lai, 2004). Students are inclined to learn autonomously with the help of teachers' mediation in the classroom (Guo, 2004).

VI. INSTRUMENTS

A. Observations

A purposive sampling technique was administered in this study. Three EFL teachers were non-randomly selected for the field observations who got informed that the observation was to recognize what happened in their classroom rather than a performance evaluation. An observation worksheet (Appendix A) was designed identifying the extent of the teacher's execution of the 12 MLE features in the Likert-type scale. A technician was employed to video-record the observations and the subsequent interviews with the participants. In process of the observations, the researcher played the role of non-participant observer, and the video-recorded observations were then fully transcribed to identify focal themes (Creswell, 2005).

B. Interviews

Interviewing was seen as an opportunity for the teachers to utter opinions related to their profession, which was a crucial approach for the researcher to check the accuracy of the impressions he had gained through the observation (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2007). A semi-structured interview protocol (Appendix B) was guided by a set of open-ended questions as loosely structured questions allowed participants more freedom to relate more of what was significant to them (Y. Li, 2004). Opinions by a related panel were sought to verify the interview accuracy and appropriateness. To eliminate potential barriers by EFL, the participants were interviewed in Chinese, the mother tongue of both the interviewees and the interviewer. The interviews were video-recorded and partially transcribed to highlight the main subjects in relation to this study.

VII. PARTICIPANTS

The target population of this study composed of all China's secondary school EFL teachers to which the researcher prefers to generalize is rarely achievable (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2007). The research was conducted in Henan province located in eastern central China for the accessible population. In the case study, generalization is not the ultimate target to pursue, so purposeful sampling seems an ideal alternative in discovering, understanding, and obtaining the most effective insights (Merriam, 1998). Qualitative research via maximum variation sampling with rich accounts on participants' experience "may be epistemologically in harmony with the reader's experience" (Stake, 1978, p. 5) and

insightful as "maximum variation sampling can yield detailed descriptions of each case, in addition to identifying shared patterns that cut across cases" (Hoepfl, 1997, p. 52). The selection was characterized by the rich background of three participants with respective pseudonyms---Alice, Jane, and Moor as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
IDENTIFICATION OF THREE PARTICIPATING TEACHERS

Name	Gender	Age	Degree	Teaching years	Grade	Class size	School site
Alice	Female	44	Bachelor	22	Jr. grade 1	70	Suburb
Jane	Female	41	Bachelor	17	Jr. grade 2	50	City
Moor	Male	24	Bachelor	3	Sr. grade 3	51	Suburb

VIII. FINDINGS

A. Case Study of Alice

The text of the first observed lesson Alice taught was Section B, Topic 3, Unit 3 of *Project English* 1A for junior grade one students with the title "What would you like to drink?". The text focused on functional items like "having meals" and "ordering food and drinks". It was composed of four segments with the subtitles 1a "Look, listen, and say", 1b "Pair work", 2a "Listen, read, and say", and 2b "Pair work". The text of the second lesson was Section B, Topic 2, Unit 4 of *Project English* 1A with the title "Would you like to go for a picnic?". It consisted of five sections with the subtitles 1a "Listen, read, and say", 1b "Pair work", 1c "Work alone", 2a "Listen, read, and say", and 2b "Work alone".

The activities Alice conducted have indicated the focus of interest in this case study. The observation worksheet (Appendix A) aimed to detect the extent of the teachers' execution of the 12 MLE features in the Likert- scale from *not at all* to *very much.* Possible mediative parameters manifested in Alice's lessons were analyzed subsequently except that "significance" and "purpose beyond the here and now" were not much displayed.

1) Shared intention: Alice made her instructions clear while presenting tasks to ensure that her intention was fully understood by asking the students "Are you clear?" repeatedly. Not until the students made an affirmative answer did she continue with the contents.

2) A sense of competence: In the class, Alice encouraged her students to participate by drawing on possible stimulating measures. The whole class as well as the teacher clapped for the volunteer respondents. By doing so, Alice was making the students perceive themselves as capable of learning. As Williams and Burden argue (2000),

If learning is to be successful, it is crucial that teachers establish in their classrooms a climate where confidence is built up, where mistakes can be made without fear, where learners can use the language without embarrassment, where all contributions are valued, and where activities lead to feelings of success, not failure. (p. 73)

3) Control of own behavior: Alice offered her students revision summaries to develop their regulating learning abilities the moment they learnt new knowledge. She also gave them adequate opportunities to recite the dialogues promptly. In this manner, Alice intended to push her students to control their own learning after being exposed to new knowledge so that they would become not only effective but independent learners. In Williams and Burden's words,

Feelings of competence are necessary but not sufficient for learning to be effective; learners also need to become competent, that is, they need to learn the necessary skills and strategies in order to take control of their own learning. (p. 73)

4) Goal-setting: Alice assisted her students in setting short-term and long-term goals for themselves in the process of conducting learning activities, like the above-mentioned short-term memory of the dialogue learnt minutes before. She likewise set goals for the backward students to catch up with the more advanced ones. However, "children who set their own goals in any learning activity are more likely to achieve those goals than ones that are set for them" (Werkhoven, 1990, cited in Williams & Burden, 2000, p. 74). Hopefully, Alice can mediate her students' learning better by making them set their own goals in the future.

5) Challenge: Alice encouraged the students to volunteer for the activities, which seemed challenging to them when there were some visitors. As was noted, it was also a challenge for Alice's students to recite the dialogues within minutes. At this point, Alice encouraged the shy and less confident students to face the challenges like this:

Who will have another try? Is there anybody else? (Pointing to one side of the class) Just now, some pairs of students on this side performed very actively, and they could all raise hands constantly. Hence, (pointing to another side) the students on that side of the class cannot fall behind. Be brave and voluntary to answer my questions. Okay, Liu Yue and your partner, please. (Alice, Observation Video-recording 1, October 9, 2009)

From this excerpt, it seems to be deduced that the challenges of Alice's students were "within their current capabilities" since they managed to accomplish the tasks through efforts (Williams & Burden, 2000, p. 75). More importantly, Alice intended to have all the students involved in the collaborative activities. As Williams and Burden suggest,

No matter how much information a teacher may have about a group or even individual learners, it is virtually impossible to match each learner with the right level of task without involving the learners themselves in the process. Since the ultimate goal of mediated learning experiences is to produce independent learners and problem solvers,

increasing the involvement of the learners in all aspects of the learning process should be encouraged at every opportunity. (p. 75)

6) Awareness of change: Alice attended to the students' self-development when helping them set goals regardless of surpassing themselves or others, implying that she focused on the students' change at all times. For this sake, Alice tried to present the students' changeable characteristics worth noticing as shown in the following account:

While Guangchao is hurt in the arm, he insists on studying in school. His attitudes towards studies are really positive. He is studying harder and has made greater progress in studies recently. In the past, I praised him several times, but he is still worth praising as I think his learning spirit praiseworthy. (Alice, Observation Video-recording 2, October 29, 2009)

When mentioning Guangchao's change, Alice highlighted his academic advances and learning attitudes. However, it could be better for her to help the students self-assess changes in themselves as it was viewed "as equally important to foster the ability to self-evaluate if we are to produce autonomous learners" (Williams & Burden, 2000, p. 76).

7) A belief in positive outcomes: Any criticism to the students from Alice was never heard since she approved any trivial progress they made, even when they gave incorrect answers. Alice was always listening to the students' responses with a smile and fixing her believing eyes on the respondents. This could empower the students with confidence. She taught them to preview the related contents ahead of the class from which they could reap due benefits. Even if the students encountered intractable problems, she convinced them that there would be positive outcomes so long as they did their best.

8) Sharing: Alice's students had sufficient opportunities to accomplish pair and group work, during which they learnt approaches to solving problems. It could be said that the interaction between the teacher and students or among the students became the soul of Alice's class. This led to the students' recognition that team work was indispensable in their future studies since "sharing and working co-operatively are a vital part of our social existence, the absence of which can result in cognitive difficulties and a very idiosyncratic view of the world" (Williams & Burden, 2000, p. 77).

9) Individuality: Alice was acquainted with her students and assessed the performance of the individuals with a clear aim. In Alice's words,

There are 70 students different in personality in the class. I am used to getting each of them involved in interactions between the teacher and students to fulfill the activities designed with reference to their personal characteristics. If they answer correctly, it will help them to perform better next time. They will also build self-confidence and catch up with other more advanced mates gradually. (Alice, Interview 2, October 29, 2009)

In the first observed class, Alice required her students to discuss their likes and dislikes about food and drinks, counting as an approach for the students to display their own uniqueness. Alice seemed to keep in mind the file of each of her students through the frequent exposure with them in the classroom and office. She allowed each of the students adequate opportunities to display their uniqueness by expanding the coverage of the students' participation. As Williams and Burden suggest (2000),

The language classroom is a place where this sense of individuality can be fostered in various ways through the tasks given, the teacher's actions and the climate created. Learners can be encouraged to express their own individuality through the foreign language. (p. 79)

10) A sense of belonging: Alice's students had a strong sense of belonging to the whole class which was observed to work as a team all the time. Alice often said "Girls, come on" or "Boys, don't fall behind" to get the whole class involved and to help foster their sense of belonging. She was trying to encourage a sense of belonging in her students by pushing them to contribute to the accomplishment of the task. Alice, however, would be able to mediate her students a bit better should she make the students' sense of belonging become their internal need. Williams and Burden (2000) recommend:

It is important to remember that the impetus for a community feeling must come not only from the teacher but from the learners as well. An example might be engaging in a whole-class project like a class newspaper where everyone has a contribution to make and no one is left out. (p. 79).

To sum up, Alice mediated a large class by (a) helping the class carry out pair/group work, (b) conducting the lessons skillfully, (c) managing the classroom effectively, (d) arousing all the participations' enthusiasm, and (e) applying rich body language. All these made it possible for her students to cooperate actively. Alice performed better in executing "shared intention", "a sense of competence", "control of own behavior", "challenging", "a belief in positive outcomes", "sharing", and "individuality". The implementation of "goal-setting", "awareness of change", and "a sense of belonging" remains to be improved. Alice was thus playing a situational mediator by and large.

B. Case Study of Jane

Jane provided the current study with two lessons applying the third volume of *Project English*. The text of the first lesson was Section C, Topic 1, Unit 2 of *Project English* 2A for junior grade two students titled "You had better see the doctor". The teaching aims were to (a) describe an affair with the information provided by the pictures and the words, (b) write a note for leave, and (c) remind the class to care about their safety in daily life. The second was the revision lesson of Topic 2, Unit 2 with the title "I must ask him to give up smoking" of *Project English* 2A, in which there were two revision sections concerning the key phrases and synchronous writing about Topic 2 without the teaching requests or procedure.

Based on the teaching plan notes and transcripts of Jane's observed lessons, it could be seen that Jane seemed to conduct "shared intention", "control of own behaviour", and "individuality". However, Jane preferred to give instructions in Chinese sounding a little harsh like orders. While Jane's students understood her instructions, it was impossible for her to mediate the students' EFL learning in the Chinese context. As Williams and Burden (2000) put it,

One challenge to the language teacher, therefore, is to find ways of conveying clear intentions through the target language, and, equally importantly, of checking that these intentions are understood and reciprocated. Common ways of doing this are demonstrating while explaining, asking learners to repeat instructions, or asking a group to demonstrate while the teacher explains what to do. (p. 72)

Unfortunately, Jane did not apply other ways to "share intentions" but to speak Chinese only. She "mediated" the students' "control of own behaviour" by assigning them homework to accomplish out of class. The students had to follow her strictly in terms of the requirements of their work, which went against the cultivation of their autonomous learning. Jane seemed acquainted with her students but failed to treat them differently according to their respective personalities. Instead, in her words, "I often divide all the students into small groups according to their seat order rather than their levels in English, considering that the students do not need to move their chairs or desks to and fro" (Jane, Interview 2, October 29, 2009). This would generate a growing polarization between the advanced and backward students. It was not surprising that the backward students in Jane's class wanted to abandon EFL learning.

The two lessons Jane taught were therefore traditional and featured by teacher-centeredness and grammar-centeredness to be illustrated in the following account.

1) Teacher-centered instructor applying Chinese as a medium of instruction: Jane tended to incorporate interactions into her teaching, but these were practiced in a mechanical way. Jane was experienced in presenting the language points, but she failed to show the awareness of the students' individuality. She appeared too eager to correct their errors before they finished replying, so her students were obedient and inactive. Many of them were not really involved in the teaching activities. In the class, Jane was relied on as the main source of academic learning in which the students had no opportunities to regulate their learning. There was no lack of activities and learning tasks which, however, were entirely taken in Jane's hands for the completion of instructional contents. Feuerstein (1980) claims that "mediation involves interaction between mediator and learner, and that the learner is an active participant in the process" (cited in Williams & Burden, 2000, p. 68). There was no really effective exchange of information since Jane controlled the whole class and made them passive knowledge-receivers (Yang, 2003).

In addition, Jane could not speak English fluently nor correctly sometimes. She almost talked in Chinese throughout the class except a little classroom English like "okay/very good/sit down, please".

2) Grammar-translation-based spoon-feeder: Jane was skilled at interpreting language structures and functions via grammar-translation, keeping the students exposed to literacy materials and translating English into their mother tongue (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). So the students learnt how to read and write English through grammar-based translation at the cost of listening and speaking (Chen, 2005). Jane viewed that she was performing better than other colleagues in this regard since she helped the students review the knowledge they had learnt before. As she put it,

The other teachers in my school seldom conduct revision lessons. Their students make notes each time they conduct a new lesson and write the main contents on the blackboard. The students then revise the notes that they have taken in the class for the coming examinations. (Jane, Interview 2, October 29, 2009)

On the whole, Jane was a grammar-translation-based knowledge spoon-feeder in the observed lessons as she was "spoon-feeding" knowledge to the students viewed as the "containers" or "warehouses", "accepting knowledge passively without thinking" (Lewin et al., 1994, p. 170).

C. Case Study of Moor

Moor's first lesson was on the revision of the text "Chuck's friends" in Unit 1, Book 1A of *Senior English for China*, which tells a story on a manager who is occupied with his work all day and fails to spend time with his friends. After a flight accident, he begins to rethink his life and understands real friendship. However, Moor did not explore humanistic implications from the text theme "Good friend". In the second lesson, Moor summarized the uses of the seven words in Units 7-8 of Student's Book 1B and then dealt with the synchronous exercises designed on the use points of the seven words. He interpreted the key words clearly without referring to the teaching plan. Moor could have availed himself of this opportunity to help the students form learning strategies, for instance, how to summarize word functions and revise language points just like he performed in this lesson, but he did not.

Moor was teaching what the grade three students had learnt two years before. The two observed lessons should have been the revision series. Moor, however, was observed to be like teaching a new text. For example, he need not have introduced the background of the text "Chuck's friend" in the revision class. While Moor was a green hand, his instruction was rigid as he confined his roles to a spoon-feeder, knowledge transmitter, and non-standard bilingual speaker as illustrated in the coming account.

1) Spoon-feeder: In the first lesson, like the case of Jane, Moor was observed to be spoon-feeding knowledge to the class, for he controlled everything happening in the classroom. An excerpt of the transcript of the first lesson is expected to show evidence:

…

T: There is a question for you: "What happens to Chuck?" You can get the answer from the first paragraph. Huang Zhi, please.

S1: "Chuck is on a flight across the Pacific Ocean when suddenly his plane crashes."

T: Look at the second paragraph. I have another question for you: "What does Chuck learn about himself?" You may spend one minute finishing this task. (About 20 seconds later) Fan Mengchen, please.

S2: "He realizes that he hasn't been a very good friend because he has always been thinking about himself."

T: Another question for you: "What does Chuck learn about friendship?" You can get the answer from the same paragraph. Okay, also one minute for you. (About 30 seconds later) Wei Yang, please.

S3: "Chuck understands that friendship is about feelings and that we must give as much as we take."

T: Okay, sit down, please.

…

(Note: T = teacher; S = student)

(Moor, Observation Video-Recording 1, October 8, 2009)

As an impatient answer-giver, Moor failed to perceive students' thinking was indispensable for their learning process and that giving students' thinking time was necessary for the best development (Fisher, 2005). Instead, Moor was too anxious to tell the students the ranges of the answers before they tried, so his students gradually became "outsiders" of learning.

2) Grammar-based knowledge transmitter: In the second lesson, Moor taught with a revision exercise-book designed as per the requests of the mandatory textbook. He seemed to play the role of transmitter through grammar-translation due to the two factors that follow. First, Moor focused his attention on teaching vocabulary only "in the form of lists of isolated words" (Prator & Celce-Murcia, 1979, p.3, cited in Brown, 2001, p.16), which is among "the major characteristics of grammar-translation" (Brown, 2001, p. 16). The information exchange between Moor and the students was ineffective with no information gap as the interactive questions originated from the exercise book whose answers Moor and his students had known beforehand (Johnson & Morrow, 1981). Moor's teaching centred on the precise and elegant uses of EFL, but the entire instruction never went "beyond transmitting knowledge" (Mok, 2001, p.161, cited in Zeng, 2005, p.43). Second, Moor's teaching design was almost identical with the exercise book except for a few example sentences. Moor, in a sense, was transmitting knowledge from the exercise book to the students.

3) Non-standard bilingual speaker: Moor did not speak standard Chinese or English. The application of grammar-translation contributed to his poor pronunciation in English since "little or no attention is given to pronunciation" in the grammar-translation classroom where "classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language" (Prator & Celce-Murcia, 1979, p.3, cited in Brown 2001, p.16). For the most part, Moor talked in Chinese and translated his English instruction orders into Chinese. He preferred classroom English like "okay/good/thank you/sit down, please". Interestingly, in the class, most of Moor's students liked to speak the local Chinese dialect.

The field notes, observation sheet, and transcripts regarding Moor's extent of mediation implementation show Moor partially mediated "shared intention" and "goal-setting". Nevertheless, Moor failed to really share his intention with the students since he preferred to give instruction orders in Chinese. It was impossible for him to mediate the students' EFL learning in the Chinese context. As regards "goal-setting", Moor remarked that he was ready to help the students establish goals outside the class occasionally, which was weak in the evidence since he was observed not to.

IX. DISCUSSION

A. Alice's Role of Situational Mediator

Alice was experienced in managing the classroom and had abilities to involve each of the students in the tasks. She was encouraging and showed positive attitudes towards teaching her students. She acted as the role of mediator in many ways such as helping the students share and develop a sense of belonging and a strong belief in positive outcomes. She also gave more positive feedback rather than criticisms respecting the students' performance. Even when she was correcting their errors, she could draw on a more reasonable and acceptable manner. She designed the adequate tasks for the students to participate in by allowing them opportunities for collaborative learning. As well, she showed much concern for the individuals and offered them constructive suggestions and realistic goals.

Based on the correct cognition of situational mediation and no obvious situational constraints, Alice played a situational mediator better due to not mediating "significance" and "purpose beyond the here and now" perfectly. Of the 12 mediative tools, Alice mediated best the students' "shared intention", "sense of competence", "control of own behavior", "challenging", "belief in positive outcomes", "sharing", and "individuality".

B. Traditional Roles of Jane and Moor

Jane and Moor held favorable attitudes towards mediation and possessed partial knowledge of situational mediation, but they were traditional instructors owing to the situational constraints related to the current education system, students, and teachers themselves. Moor was the youngest of all the three teachers, but it seemed difficult to find any highlight concerning the current educational reforms in his classroom practices as he instructed the students most conservatively and traditionally. Table 3 summarizes the traditional teaching roles Jane and Moor played.

TABLE 3
TRADITIONAL ROLES OF JANE AND MOOR

Teacher	Teacher Roles	Main Characteristics
Jane	1) Teacher-centered instructor applying Chinese as a medium of instruction 2) Grammar-translation-based spoon-feeder	1) Jane tried to control the whole class and make her students "submissive" so that most of them had no opportunities to regulate their learning. She failed to speak English fluently and employed Chinese as the medium of instruction. 2) Jane was skilled at presenting the language points via grammar-translation, but the class could only write and read English through grammar-translation by sacrificing their listening and speaking.
Moor	1) Spoon-feeder 2) Grammar-based knowledge-transmitter 3) Non-standard bilingual speaker	1) Moor controlled the class and eagerly gave the students answers before their attempts. The students entirely received knowledge passively. 2) Moor argued the students could acquire EFL if he transmitted grammar to them. 3) Moor's poor pronunciation in Mandarin and English was one of the reasons for his not executing a mediator.

X. IMPLICATIONS

This study is to explore the potential effectiveness of mediation on secondary school EFL classrooms in China for further approaches to make the EFL classroom more mediative. The findings show that most teachers' situational constraints involving the lack of knowledge of mediation prevented them from implementing mediation. The following account suggests solutions to situational constraints the participating teachers encountered from the perspectives of (a) EFL teachers' training programs and (b) the enhancement of students' academic proficiency in EFL.

A. Implications for EFL Teacher Re-education

From the case studies of three teachers, the two traditional instructors (i.e., Jane & Moor) were desirous to be trained as mediators since their insufficient knowledge of mediation resulted in the failure of their implementation of mediation. Teachers' re-education is indispensable in conducting mediation since the correct knowledge of mediation was among the prerequisites for the teachers to conduct mediation. Given the findings of the study, updating teachers' EFL proficiency and knowledge of mediation seems to hold great importance.

1) Promotion of teachers' EFL proficiency: China is taking measures to facilitate the re-education of EFL teachers in order to continuously raise the holistic quality of instructional power (National Curriculum, 2000). In 1999, the MOE proposed the execution of teachers' continuing education project for China's secondary schools, whose goals "are to train all the teachers in order to meet the needs of quality education, particularly the training for implementing the new national curriculum…and improving the pedagogical practice" (National Curriculum, 2000, p. 18). Upgrading the subject and pedagogical knowledge of 572,000 secondary school EFL teachers would be expensive and time-consuming, so normal re-training would be short-term intensive seminars and workshops (NBSC, 2008).

The teacher training institutions are mainly composed of in-service teacher training institutes and schools employing teachers (National Curriculum, 2000). This project affected around 550,000 secondary school EFL teachers in China (NBSC, 2008). Post-training teachers' classrooms, however, are still characterized by teacher-centeredness as "teacher colleges/universities are accustomed to copying comprehensive universities, and taking care of developing discipline knowledge and research, and paying little attention to pedagogical knowledge and abilities" (National Curriculum, 2000, p. 18). In this study, the case of Moor failed to mediate the students' learning though he had been trained for the new *Curriculum Standards*.

2) Training of MLE knowledge: In the current research, the teachers' knowledge of mediation determined their correct implementation of mediation. It is the first time that mediation theory has been applied in the secondary school *Curriculum Standards* (MOE, 2001). Previous research has shown that most EFL teachers have little or no exposure to knowledge of mediation (e.g., Grosser & Waal, 2008; Guo, 2004). For instance, Moor, in this study, who claimed to have learnt mediation at college, was unable to implement mediative functions.

In China's educational setting, "it is not only necessary but also crucial in language teacher education programs to be conducted in the EFL context to achieve an understanding of language teachers' knowledge base to get a sense of where they are, to comprehend their teaching context, and to know their professional development needs" (Cheng & Wang, 2004, p. 4). Fisher (2005) views teachers' pedagogical knowledge on the implementation of mediation as this "knowledge base" (p. 144). A good command of the 12 MLE tools contributes to teachers re-examining their roles as:
- facilitators for learning content knowledge
- facilitators for learning the process, heuristics, and strategies of learning a particular knowledge field
- mediators of knowledge sources
- mediators of lifelong learning
- mediators of life-wide learning
- designers of the learning environment (Seng et al., 2003, p. 16)

At this point, the challenge for teachers is to use good mediation to design new learning environments, for "as designers of the learning environment, teachers engage students in learning beyond the boundary of the classroom and the immediate human interactions, thus fostering in them independence and a higher level of interdependence" (Seng et al. 2003, pp. 16-17).

B. Implications for Students' Development in EFL Proficiency

In this research, the participating teachers complained their students failed to understand their learning tasks assigned in English. They had to talk bilingually, and their students communicated in Chinese. In most cases, the students only listened and took notes when the teacher talked in the class.

The *Curriculum Standards* encourages students to learn actively and try reducing passive learning through teacher-centeredness (MOE, 2001). "So compared to before, teachers talk less during class time", and "this change made some students who were used to relying on teachers' lectures feel that learning had become more difficult" (J. Li, 2004, p. 227). China is a large agriculture-based country with about 70% of the population living in rural areas, "while members of the *Standards* writing group and textbook writers are all urban residents" (J. Li, 2004, p. 227). These writers are comparatively acquainted with urban students and ignore the situations and demands of rural students, and even "some teachers have suggested the MOE should provide alternative curricula to teachers of rural students" (J. Li, 2004, p. 227). In this study, for example, most of Moor's students were from rural areas, and the inappropriateness of the *Standards* contributed to the students' poor English. Probably, the existing curriculum contents need to be developed to relieve the constraints of conducting mediation caused by students' low proficiency in EFL.

In the cases of Jane, many of the students were observed to perform passively towards EFL learning. Brown (2001) suggests as follows:

It seems intuitively clear, nevertheless, that second language learners benefit from positive attitudes and that negative attitudes may lead to decreased motivation and in all likelihood, because of decreased input and interaction, to unsuccessful attainment of proficiency. Yet the teacher needs to be aware that everyone has both positive and negative attitudes. The negative attitudes *can* be changed, often by exposure to reality--for example, by encounters with actual persons from other cultures. (p. 169)

Ideally, if there are more foreign teachers employed from English-speaking countries, it might be an effective measure to stimulate students' positive attitudes towards EFL learning. Nevertheless, "qualified native English speakers are not common among the teachers of EFL, and Chinese teachers with near-native competence are still not in the majority" (Tang & Absalom, 2000, p. 124, cited in Y. Yang, 2006, sec. 3). China still has a long way to go in the case of the application of the foreign teacher resource.

In summary, the value of mediating children's learning can never be overemphasized through which the power of children's modifiability should be recognized (Seng et al., 2003). In view of the current instructional environment, many elements restrict teachers' implementation of mediation. These deserve to be lessened until overcome through deeper educational reforms, teachers' efforts, and students' motivation to learn EFL proficiently.

XI. CONCLUSION

This paper investigated the implementation of mediation among secondary school EFL teachers in China via case studies. Based on the findings, a conclusion is drawn that most secondary school EFL teachers in China were unable to mediate students' learning due to situational constraints caused by the current education system, students, and teachers themselves. In the present educational setting, implementing mediation is theoretically acceptable and practically feasible as illustrated in the case of Alice, but it is challenging for teachers to administer it smoothly because most Chinese EFL learners are weak at English language communication competence. An EFL teacher's command of mediation knowledge plus his/her competence to overcome constraints might result in the successful implementation of mediation strategies in the language classroom. It is proposed that EFL teachers re-orient their roles from traditional instructor to mediator to adapt to the progress of current society.

APPENDIX A OBSERVATION WORKSHEET

Extent of the Teacher's Execution of MLE Features

Key: A = Not at all	B = Little	C = Partly	D = Much	E = Very much

Category	Tick & Comment
1. Significance	A B C D E Comment:
2. Purpose beyond the here and now	A B C D E Comment:
3. Shared intention	A B C D E Comment:
4. A sense of competence	A B C D E Comment:
5. Control of own behavior	A B C D E Comment:
6. Goal-setting	A B C D E Comment:
7. Challenge	A B C D E Comment:
8. Awareness of change	A B C D E Comment:
9. A belief in positive outcomes	A B C D E Comment:
10. Sharing	A B C D E Comment:
11. Individuality	A B C D E Comment:
12. A sense of belonging	A B C D E Comment:

APPENDIX B TEACHER INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Semi-structured Interview Questions

1. Please tell me about the observed lesson mainly from the perspective of your own teaching role.

2. Have you received any particular training that supports you to plan in this way? Could you describe it more accurately?

3. Describe, if applicable, your teacher education program from the perspectives as follows:

a. Any central learning that you brought with you from the program into your classroom related to teaching roles.

b. How much of what you know, if any, concerning the mediation role that you learnt as a result of your teacher training, either pre-service or in-service.

4. If, beginning tomorrow, students in China were no longer expected to be confronted with the rigorous entrance exam competition, would you still mediate your EFL classroom, if any, or begin to do it? If so, why and how? If not, why?

5 Could you tell me any difficulties which prevent you from playing the mediation role in the classroom if you are not playing the mediator at present?

6. In what environment do you think EFL learners learn best? Could you offer me some suggestions on how to most effectively implement the role of mediation in China's settings?

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The Effect of Generic Features of Task on L2 Learners' Oral Performance

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Abstract—**A growing body of research in the past decade has been devoted to the investigation of various aspects of Task-based language teaching (TBLT) (Ellis, 2003, 2005; Foster & Skehan, 1996, 1999; Skehan & Foster, 1997, 1999; Tavakoli & Foster, 2008; Rahimpour, 1999, 2008, 2010; Robinson, 2001, 2007, Salimi & Yousefi, 2009; Salimi & Dadashpour, 2011; Dadashpour, 2011). Having reviewed the studies conducted on tasks, it was revealed that there is gap in the literature on the effects of generic features of tasks on L2 learners' oral and written performance. This paper aims at investigating the effect of generic features of tasks on L2 learners' oral performance in EFL context. The participants of the study were 30 intermediate learners of English as a foreign language. The participants were asked to perform on three tasks with different generic features. Their oral performance on the tasks were recorded and analyzed according to the measures introduced by Ellis, 2008. ANNOVA was employed as the statistical means of analysis. The statistical analysis of the collected data revealed the generic features of task have no significant effect on the performance of L2 the learners in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity. The paper carries significant implications for SLA researchers, syllabus designers, and language teachers.**

Index Terms—**task-based language teaching and learning, accuracy, fluency, complexity, genre**

I. INTRODUCTION

Recently task-based language teaching and learning has attracted many SLA researchers, testers, teachers, and syllabus designers' attention and consequently a lot of studies have been conducted in the field (Ellis, 2003, 2005; Foster & Skehan, 1996, 1999; Skehan & Foster, 1999; Tavakoli & Foster, 2008). Task-based approaches to second language teaching focus on the ability of a learner to perform target-like tasks without any explicit teaching of grammatical rules (Rahimpour, 2008). Task-based L2 performance is an interesting subject in itself and worthy of empirical investigation, but as tasks are widely used in language teaching and language exams, learning more about their impact might have practical value (Tavakoli & Foster, 2008).

Genre analysis has attracted so much attention since the early 1980. Genre, which has traditionally been a literary concept, has recently become a popular framework for analyzing the form and rhetorical function of non-literary discourse (Hyland, 2002). Linguistics and language teachers have tried to apply genre-centered-approaches to the analysis of written and spoken discourse in order to provide satisfactory models and descriptions for academic and scientific text and also help non-native speaker students to enhance their ability of understanding and proper production of text (Dudley- Evans, 1986). Swales (1990) asserted that genre analysis essentially is based on two central assumptions. First, the feature of a similar group of text depends on the social context of their creation and use. Second, those features can be described in a way that relates a text to other texts like it. Hyland (2003) introduced three broad, overlapping schools of genre theory: New Rhetoric approach, ESP approach, and Sydney School. From among these three approaches to genre, the present study is based on the ESP approach since it is more linguistic than the others.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Task-based Language Teaching

Task-based language teaching and learning has become an important area of research in second language research. Many scholars and researcher have investigated different aspects of TBLT (Ellis 2003, 2005, 2009; Foster & Skehan 1996, 1999; Long 1985, 2007; Robinson 1995, 2001, 2007; Rahimpour 1997, 2002, 2008, 2010, 2011). According to

Rahimpour (2010)TBLT focuses on the ability to perform a task or activity without explicit instruction of language forms. It is also argued by many SLA researchers that TBLT creates more favorable condition for the development of SL (Long & Crooks 1992; Robinson 1995, 2001; Rahimpour 1997, 2007, 2008, 2010).Ellis (2009) defines TBLT as:

An approach for teaching second or foreign language that seems to engage learners in interactionally authentic language use language by getting learners to perform a series of tasks. This approach aims to enable learners to acquire a new language system as well as to proceduralize their existing knowledge. In other words, this approach tries to force L2 learners to use their own linguistic resources to learn a new language

B. Genre Analysis

The last decade has seen increasing attention to the notion of genre and its application in language teaching and learning. This interest has been driven by a dual purpose. The first is a desire to understand the relationship between language and its context of sue. That is, how individuals use language to orient to and interpret particular communicative situations and the way these uses change over time. The second is to employ this knowledge in the service of language and literacy education. This second purpose both complements research in New Literacy Studies, which regard literacy as social practice (Barton & Hamilton, 1998; Gee, 1996), and encourages us to explore language and pedagogies in ways that move beyond narrowly conceived formal and cognitivist paradigms (Hyland, 2002). According to Bhatia (2002) genre analysis can be viewed from two different perspectives: it may be seen as a reflection of complex realities of the world of institutionalized communication, or it may be seen as a pedagogically effective and convenient tool for the design of language teaching programs, often situated within simulated contexts of classroom activities. Genre analysis has always been a multi-disciplinary activity attracting attention not only from linguists (both applied and computational), discourse analysts, communication experts and rhetoricians, but also from sociologists, cognitive scientists, translators, advertisers, and plain English campaigners.

C. Schools of Genre

Hyland (2003) introduced three broad, overlapping schools or approaches of genre theory: a) The New Rhetoric Approach, b) Sydney School, c) ESP Approach. The ESP approach to genre is more linguistic in orientation and sees genre as a class of structured communicative events employed by specific discourse communities whose members share broad social purposes. These purposes are the rationale of a genre and help to shape the ways it is structured and the choices of content and style it makes available. This approach steers between these two views. Like the New Rhetoricians, it employs Bakhtinian notions of intertextuality and dialogism, but it also draws heavily on Systemic Functional understanding of text structure and, more sparingly, on Vygotskian principles of pedagogy. In fact, with its emphasis on communicative purpose and the formal properties of texts, the ESP approach might be seen as an application of SFL (Bloor, 1998), although it lacks a systemic model of language and does not make extensive use of a satisfied, metafunctional grammar. Genre here comprises a class of structured communicative events employed by specific discourse communities whose members share broad communicative purposes (Swales, 1990). These purposes are the rationale of genre and help to shape the way it is structured and the choices of content and style it makes available (Hyland, 2002).

D. Definition of Genre

Swales (1990) offered a definition of genre from ESP approach. He defined genre as:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. Communicative purposes are both privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived narrowly focused on comparable rhetorical action. In addition to purpose, exemplars of genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content, and intended audience. If all high probability expectations are realized, the exemplar will be viewed as prototypical by the parent discourse community. The genre names inherited and produced by discourse communities and imported by others constitute valuable ethnographic communications, but typically need validation (Swales, 1990, p: 58).

E. Task Studies

Several studies have been conducted to investigate the effects of different aspects task and task characteristics on L2 learners' oral and written performance (Crooks 1989; Bygate, 1996; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan & Foster, 1999; Yuan & Ellis, 2003; Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005; Rahimpour, 2007, 2008; Dadashpour, 2011; Salimi & Dadashpour, 2011). Skehan & Foster (1999) investigated the effects of task structure and processing load on L2 learners' performance on a narrative retelling task. The results of the collected data showed that the structured task generated more fluent speech in all four conditions. The complexity of language was influenced by processing load; greater complexity was attained when a non-simultaneous condition (fourth condition) was involved. For accuracy, neither task nor condition showed significant effects. Tavakoli & Skehan (2005) conducted a study in which they explored the influence of planning time conditions, task structure and language proficiency on task performance. Results indicated that the structured tasks generated more accurate and more fluent language than the unstructured tasks. Rahimpour

(2007) studied the effect of task complexity on L2 learners' oral performance. The results showed that there-and-then task (complex task) led to more accuracy while here-and-now task (simple task) led to more complexity. In terms of fluency, here-and-now task led to more fluency than there-and-then task.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESES

On the basis of the above literature review, the following research question and hypotheses were addressed in this study:

R.Q 1: What is the effect of generic features of task on L2 learners' oral performance?

H0: There is no significant difference between generic features of task and learners' accuracy, fluency, and complexity in oral performance.

H1: Generic features of cause/effect task would lead to less accuracy in L2 learners' oral performance than the generic features of narrative and descriptive tasks.

H2: Generic features of descriptive task would lead to more fluency in L2 learners' oral performance than the generic features of narrative and cause/effect tasks.

H3: Generic features of cause/effect task would lead to more complexity in L2 learners' oral performance than the generic features of narrative and descriptive tasks.

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The Participants of the study were 30 English language learners. They were both male and female and they were studying English at Iran National Language Institute in Miyandoab, West Azerbaijan, Iran. They aged between 17 and 30. To ensure about their homogeneity and their proficiency level, a pre-test was administered to the students of the intermediate level. The participants of this study were selected randomly on the basis of their performance on the pre-test.

B. Materials

In task studies carried out so far, the most frequent and common task used in the studies has been the narrative task (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan & Foster, 1999). According to Tavakoli & Skehan (2005) narrative tasks refer to those stories based on a sequenced set of picture prompts which are given to participants to elicit language performance. In this study narrative task was used along with descriptive and cause/effect task to fulfill the purpose of this study. The tasks were chosen because they have different generic features. Attempts were made to find those picture series which were clear enough and had a suitable length, weren't too challenging for the learners at intermediate proficiency level, and were interesting and culturally familiar for the participants. Finally, the task used in the study was chosen as the data collection instrument because it mostly fit the purpose of this study and it could be used for the three tasks with generic features, i.e., narrative, descriptive, and cause/effect tasks.

C. Procedure

For collecting the data, the participants were asked to perform the tasks as following. First, they were asked to perform the narrative task. They were asked to look at the picture and tell the story of the pictures. Then, they were asked to perform the second task, descriptive task. At this phase, they were asked to describe the pictures. They participants were asked to give a description of what they saw in the pictures. Finally, they were asked to perform the third task, cause/effect task. The researcher asked them some questions about the pictures and the participants answered them orally. The collected written data were analyzed in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity measures introduced by Ellis (2008).

V. RESULTS

The collected oral data from the participants were measured according to three elements of oral performance namely accuracy, fluency, and complexity. In order to test the hypotheses of the study and find the way the generic features of task affect L2 learners' oral performance in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity, the raw scores of the participants were fed into computer software SPSS (version 16) for more analysis. ANOVA was employed to compare the means of the raw scores between and within three groups.

A. Comparison of the Means of Accuracy, Fluency, and Complexity in Cause/Effect Task

Table 4.1 shows the mean differences between accuracy, fluency, and complexity of L2 learners' oral performance in cause/effect task.

TABLE4.1.
COMPARISON OF THE MEAN OF ACCURACY, FLUENCY, AND COMPLEXITY IN CAUSE/EFFECT TASK

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Accuracy	30	0.3563	0.15144
Fluency	30	89.8183	17.66381
Complexity	30	36.6840	3.96053
Total	90	42.9529	38.27395

According to table 4.1, the mean of L2 learners' written production in fluency (89.81) is more than the mean of accuracy (0.35) and complexity (36.68). In other words, the generic features of cause/effect task have the most effect on fluency.
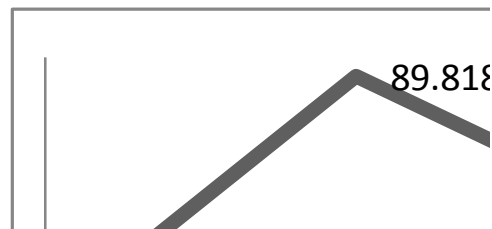
Figure 4. 1. Comparison of the means of L2 learners' oral performance in cause/effect task

Figure 4.1 clearly presents the mean difference of L2 learners' oral performance in cause/effect task in terms of three linguistic domains of accuracy, fluency, and complexity.

B. Comparison of the Means of Accuracy, Fluency, and Complexity in Narrative Task

Table 4.2 presents the means of L2 learners' oral performance in narrative task.

TABLE 4.2.
COMPARISON OF THE MEAN OF ACCURACY, FLUENCY, AND COMPLEXITY IN NARRATIVE TASK

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Accuracy	30	0.4287	0.18825
Fluency	30	87.4033	18.21603
Complexity	30	38.7867	3.86347
Total	90	42.2062	37.33418

According to table 4.2, the mean of fluency (87.40) is more than the means of means of accuracy (0.42) and complexity (38.78). In other words, the generic features of narrative task have the most effect on L2 learners' oral fluency.
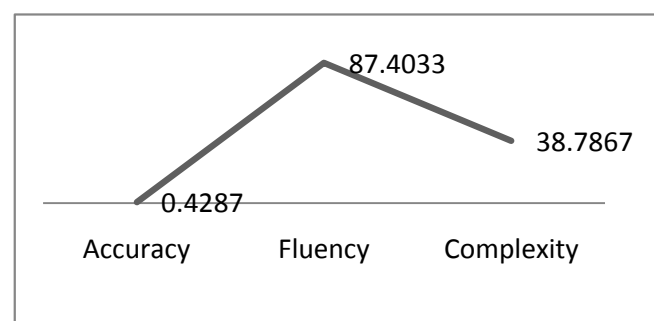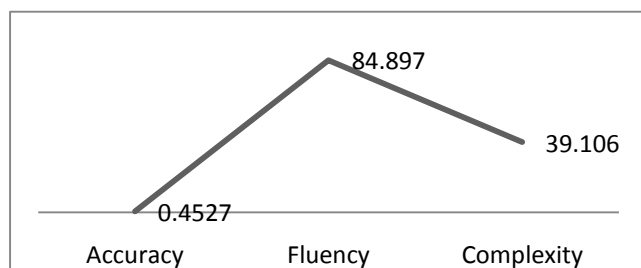

Figure 4.2. Comparison of the means of L2 learners' oral performance in narrative task

Figure 4.2 clearly presents the mean differences of l2 learners' oral performance in narrative task in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity.

C. Comparison of the Means of Accuracy, Fluency, and Complexity in Descriptive Task

Table 4.3 clearly shows the means of L2 learners' oral performance in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity in descriptive task.

TABLE 4. 3.
COMPARISON OF THE MEAN OF ACCURACY, FLUENCY, AND COMPLEXITY IN DESCRIPTIVE TASK

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Accuracy	30	0.4527	0.17370
Fluency	30	84.8970	16.13980
Complexity	30	39.1060	3.58614
Total	90	41.4852	35.96902

According to table 4.3, the mean of fluency (84.89) is greater than the means of means of accuracy (0.45) and complexity (39.10). That is, the generic features of narrative task have the most effect on L2 learners' oral fluency.

Figure 4.3. Comparison of the mean of L2 learners' oral performance in descriptive task

Figure 4.3 presents the means of accuracy, fluency, and complexity of L2 learners' oral performance in descriptive task.

VI. DISCUSSION

Regarding the effects of generic features of task on L2 learners' written production in terms of accuracy, the results of this study showed that generic features of task did not have a significant effect on L2 learners' written accuracy. The findings of the in terms of accuracy are in line with the findings of the study conducted by Skehan & Foster (1999) and Rahimpour & Mehrang (2010). However, the findings of this study are in contrast with the findings of the studies like Iwashita, et al. (2001) and Tavakoli & Skehan (2005). Skehan and Foster (1999) found out that accuracy of the performance is affected by task structure only if learners have the opportunity to engage in some kind of pre-task activity prior to task performance. As a result, it can be concluded that task structure had no effect on the accuracy of the performance in the current study because the participants were not involved in any kind of pre-task activities before they performed the tasks.

Considering the effect of generic features of task on L2 learners' written production in terms of fluency, the results of the data analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between generic features of task and L2 learners' written production in terms of fluency. The finding of the present study in terms of fluency is consistent with Iwashita et al. (2001), Tavakoli & Foster (2008), and Rahimpour & Mehrang (2010). However, the finding of the present study in terms of fluency ran against the findings of studies such as (Foster & Skehan, 1996, 1997; Skehan & Foster, 1999; Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005) who reported that task structure led to the production of more fluent language.

Regarding the complexity of l2 learners' written production and the effect of generic features of task on this domain of written production, the findings of the study indicated that generic features of task did not have a significant effect on l2 learners' written production in terms of complexity. The findings of the present study in terms of complexity of written production are in line with the findings of the research conducted by Skehan & Foster (1999), Tavakoli & Foster (2008), and Rahimpour & Mehrang (2010) who found that task structure has no effect on L2 learners' oral performance in terms of complexity. The findings of this study in terms of complexity; however, ran against the findings of studies done by researchers like Tavakoli & Skehan (2005).

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Untranslatability and the Method of Compensation

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Abstract—This paper discusses the problem of untranslatability between Chinese and English, including linguistic and cultural untranslatability. English belongs to the Indo-European language family, and Chinese belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language family. The phonemic system, character structure and figure of speech are all completely different, and most of these in one language do not have equivalent in the other language. This causes linguistic untranslatability. But untranslatability is not absolute, we should understand the co-existence of translatability and untranslatability. Based on this, we can use some methods to compensate in order to reduce the barrier in translation and promote language and culture communication.

*Index Term*s—untranslatability, linguistic untranslatability, cultural untranslatability, method of compensation

I. INTRODUCTION

Untranslatability is a property of a text, or of any utterance in one language, for which no equivalent text or utterance can be found in another language J.C.Catford, a celebrated translation scholar of linguistics school, raised the issue of untranslatability in 1965.He argues that the linguistic untranslatability is due to the differences in the source language and the target language, whereas culture untranslatability is due to the absence in the target language of relevant situational features. Nida presents a rich source of information about the problem of loss in translation, in particular about the difficulties encountered by the translator when facing with terms or concepts in the source language that do not exist in the target language. Peter Newmark once has briefly talked about the deviation in translation." In China today, many translation experts and scholars have also discussed the problem in their papers. The problem of untranslatability is always a disputed issue. Nowadays, it is well accepted that translation is a possible and feasible task. However, there are still some language points that are difficult to translate, which is called the phenomenon of untranslatability. Linguistic and cultural differences, the two categories of untranslatability phenomenon are caused by different factors. These resulting from the linguistic differences will hardly change while those resulting from cultural differences may become translatable in the future by using the methods of compensation and the skill of translators.

II. LINGUISTIC UNTRANSLATABILITY

Professor Liu Biqing wrote in his Modern Translation Theories that "The structure of language commonly shows the characteristics of the language, these characteristics only can be found in relative language, the similar transfer is difficult to find in non-relative language, for it need to change the code completely." View from the etymology, English belongs to the Indo-European language, while Chinese belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language, so there exit the linguistic untranslatability, which includes the following aspects: phonology, character, figure of speech, and so on.

A. Untranslatability in Phonology

Any language has its own special phonemic system, which cannot be replaced by other language. There are large differences between Chinese and English, and most of the pronunciations in one language do not have equivalent in the other language. Therefore, they cannot be translated into the target language. For example:

(1)"石诗士施氏，嗜狮，誓食十狮……"

The author wrote the whole passage in homophone words. This is a typical example of untranslatability caused by phonemic system. See another example:

B. Untranslatability in Character Structure

Chinese words consist of characters carrying their meaning, but English words consist of alphabets that are meaningless. They are completely different in writing. Chinese has a writing skill of describing characters, for example: (3)"人曾为僧，人弗可以成佛，女卑为婢，女又何妨成奴"，"鸿是江边鸟，蚕是天下虫"，"琴瑟琵琶八大王，王王在上，魑魅魍魉四小鬼，鬼鬼靠边"。 They all use the special feature of Chinese characters to describe the character structure in poetry with their meaning. But English has no such structures in alphabetical system, so they are absolutely untranslatable. Some riddles that are relative to the structure of characters or English words are also untranslatable, for

example: (4)"田头长草" （苗），"What makes a road broad?"(The letter B). If the latter riddle is translated into:"什么使道路变宽？" （字母 B）Everybody will fell ridiculous, and no one can understand that.

C.   Untranslatability in Figures of Speech

Most of the languages have their own figures of speech. Just because of the existence of figure of speech, the languages become vivid and interesting. In translation practice, if the target language cannot show the figure of speech in source language correctly, it is not faithful to the content, thought and style of the source language. Although their meaning are similar, it will lessen the language influence of the source text. The people who speak Chinese and the people who speak English have large differences in the way of thinking and aesthetics, so when they express the same concept, they often use different figures of speech. These caused the untranslatability in Chinese- English translation. The following are the main aspects:

1. Puns

Pun means humorous use of a word that has two meanings or of different words that sound the same. Puns pack several meanings into one word, and it is extremely unlikely that any other language will pack into the same set of meanings, so it is difficult to translate into the target language. Example one:

(5)"杨柳青青江水平，闻郎江上唱歌声，东边日出西边雨，道是无晴却有晴"

Here"晴"is a pun, and it also means "情"，it is translated into "The willows are green, green, the river is serene. Thence is his song rafted to me. In the east the sun is rising, in the west the rain is falling. Can you see if it's fair or foul?" In this translation, the translator did very well, especially in "green, serene, fair or foul", but he can not translate the pun completely. Example two:

(6)"She is too low for a high praise, too brown to a fair praise, and too little for a great praise." The "low" and "fair" are all puns in this sentence. "Low" means short in height and low social status. "Fair" means pale skin, light in color and justice. There is no word or phrase in Chinese having the two meanings together, so the translator can not translate the two correctly into Chinese, only adopt one meaning, and lose the other meaning.

2. Alliteration

Alliteration is using the same letter or sound at the beginning of the two or more words in succession. It is a common figure of speech in English, especially in proverb, advertisement, novel and so on., and most of the alliteration are untranslatable. For example:

(7)To many parents, the three Gs, gays, guys, and gangs have replaced the three Rs as benchmark of school life. 对于许多父母来说，同性恋，枪支，帮派这三个词已经代替了读，写，算作为学校的基本尺度。

In this translation, the three Gs, gays, guys, gangs are alliteration, which emphasize the serious problems of the gays, guys and gangs, but after translating them into Chinese, we can not see this effect.

3. Malapropism

"Malapropism comes from Richard Sheridam's comedy The Rivals, a honored lady name Malaprop, who often speaks wrong words or pronunciation. Malapropism is a figure of speech using wrong words with similar pronunciation tension or intension to reach the humors effect." Malapropism brings difficulties in translation. For example:

(8)"我推开澳门，看到地上铺的是巴基斯坦，桌上摆的是刚果……"

This is a sentence from cross talk, Chinese people know the humors naturally, but if it is translated it into: "Pushing open the 'Macau', I saw 'Pakistan' paved on the floor and 'Congo' on the table. English readers can not accept that, for 'Macau' is not a door, 'Pakistan' is not a blanket, and 'Congo' is not fruit either. Most of the younger generation in China have heard this humorous sentence:"我手持郑伊健，脚踏温兆轮，翻过赵本山，穿过关芝林，跨过潘长江，来到周星池……"It is untranslatable too.

III.   CULTURAL UNTRANSLATABILITY

"According to J.C. Catford, instance of untranslatability can arise from two sources: one is linguistic, and the other is culture." Nida also mentions that words have meaning only in terms of the total cultural setting. And what is culture, Edward Taylor gave the definition the earliest in his the Primitive Culture: "Culture or civilization taken in its wide anthrographic sense is that complete whole which include knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, custom and other capabilities and habits acquired by a men as a member of society."Peter Newmark wrote in his A Textbook of Translation: "I define the culture as the way of life and his manifestation that are peculiar to a community that uses a peculiar language as its means of expression." Translation is a very important medium for cultural exchange between people using different languages. It is one of the most important tasks from translators and translation researchers viewing problems of translation from the angle of cultural exchange in order to increase the degree of cultural exchange achieved by translation as much as possible.

It is known to all that language is an important aspect of culture. Culture includes and affects language, it is this ground from which language grows and develops. All languages are the product of the culture as well as of the nation. They all have long historical background and various cultural connotations. The history, social system, natural environment, religion and customs are all shown vividly in their culturally-loaded words, proverbs, idioms, and so on.. In traditional practice, there are often no such words in target language, and the translators have to find the similar

codes or make some new codes to replace, so when these culturally loaded words are translated into another language, the cultural connotations are lost. Nida once pointed out that: "For the success translation, being familiar with two cultures is even more important than mastering two languages, because the language has its meaning only in the cultural background." Chinese culture belongs to eastern culture, while English culture belongs to the western culture. There are essential differences between eastern culture and western culture, so the untranslatability is understandable.

A.   Untranslatability Resulted from Culture Gap

  1. Material culture

Different nations live in different places, and will have different images for the same thing. We often hear some Chinese say: "走，喝酒去！"The word "酒"is difficult to translate. It includes liquor, spirit, alcohol, drink, beer, wine, and so on. These words are all "酒"，but the liquor and spirit means low quality, and the drinks include hard drinks and soft drinks, while the wine is often referred to the grape or fruit wine.

  In English, the daffodil is the symbol of spring and happiness, but in Chinese, it is only a kind of flower called "黄水仙"。In Chinese people's mind, the plum, orchid, chrysanthemum and bamboo are all the symbol of high spirit. But English people do not think so.

  2. Traditional culture

People live together in one country or region, and will form their own traditions, these traditions will pass from generation to generation. And other countries or regions people may not have these traditions, even they have, but in different meaning, thus making these traditions untranslatable. For example:

  (9) According to English tradition, the family will throw old shoes to the unmarried couples when they go out of the house, which means wish them luck, but if this tradition is translated into "扔旧鞋"，the Chinese people will misunderstand it. For in China, throwing old shoes to a woman means abuse her. For the traditional reason, a lot of appellations are untranslatable. The meaning of English uncle include such Chinese words as 叔父(father's younger brother), 伯父(father's elder brother), 舅舅(mother's brother), 姑父(father's sister's husband), 姨父(mother's sister's husband), 叔叔(father's younger brother or a friend or acquaintance about the same age as a young person's parent). It would be considered a terrible mistake in Chinese culture to refer to the father's brother as 舅舅，so if the relation is not clear in English, it can not be translated into Chinese.

  3. Religious Culture

In religion, translation becomes the mission. Chinese have translated in this field for a long time, but Chinese people do not have Christianity background. Thus many of the culture will make Chinese people misunderstand. For example: " End of the world" will make Chinese people think of the coming of great disaster, in which all the human being will die, and they will feel fear. But to the English people, it has nothing to do with disaster. It is the coming of the justice moment.

  4 . Historical culture

The history of a nation is the record of the social development. Idioms and legends provide ready support in this respect. "The main problems that idioms and fixed expression pose in translation relate to the two main areas: the ability to recognize and interpret an idiom correctly; and the difficulties involved in rendering the various aspects of meaning that an idiom or a fixed expression conveys into the target language." [10] An idiom or fixed expression may have no equivalent in the target language. One language may express a given meaning by a single word, another may express it by a fixed expression, and a third may express it by an idiom, and so on. So it is unrealistic to expect to find equivalent idioms and expression in the target language in all cases. The idioms and expressions may be culture-specific which makes it difficult to translate or is untranslatable. The expression such as Kangaroo Court, related to specific cultural background provides a good example. And the historical stories or legends also have their culture element, for example:"八仙过海，各显神通"，"三个臭皮匠，顶个诸葛亮"，"情人眼里出西施"。

B.   Untranslatability Resulted from Culture Conflict

  In translation, some words in one language are traditionally considered equivalent to other words in another language, but their connotations and even their referents are in effect quite different, they are so-called false friends. For example: (10) Chinese people view "龙"as a symbol of power or good fortune. Such as "望子成龙"，but the English people see the dragon as fierce and associate it with evil, cruelty and violence. so "望子成龙" can not be translated into "to expect one's son to be a dragon" for this cultural reason. Since the forms of the related items are the same, they are often misleading. For example, the brand name of a well-known Chinese battery"白象"is literally translated into "White Elephant". "白象"means fortune and good luck in Chinese. However, the translation elicit unfavorable reaction from English consumers, who use white elephant as an idiom to mean something costly but useless. Some words of color have conflict meaning as well. Take red for example,(11) it has the meaning of happy and festival as "红"in Chinese, such as "red-letter days". But the Chinese "红茶"is "black tea" in English, and the Chinese "红糖"is "brown sugar" in English. The English "in the red" is "亏损赤字".Culture is one of the great obstacles in the process of translation, along with the linguistic barrier that is responsible for untranslatability in translation.

IV. THE METHOD OF COMPENSATION

Compensation is a special method that is used to reach the equivalence when there is no equivalent concept and suitable expression in the target language. It is widely accepted that the language phenomenon of untranslatability is not absolutely untranslatable, especially in the cultural aspect. In translation practice, when dealing with this kind of phenomenon, the translator always makes great effect to get relatively satisfactory version, following are the methods often used by translators to compensate.

A. Adaptation

An "adaptation", also known as "free translation", is a translation procedure whereby the translator replaces a social, or cultural reality in the source language with a corresponding reality in the target language, this new reality would be more usual to the audience in the target language. This method aims at maintaining the elegance and intelligibility in the target language at the sacrifice of the form of the source language, but without changing the main cultural message of the original. For example:

(12)"很好，不用瞎担心了，我还有委员的福分呢！"

"么事的桂圆？"

"是委员！从前行的是大人老爷，现在行委员！你还不明白？"

"He give me very good news, we need not look for trouble. I have the possibility of being a member of committee!" "What's a common tea?" Asked the wife who vaguely caught the sound.

"A committee! Lords and esquires are out of date, and the prevailing nomination is to a committee. Don't you still understand?"

Here, the Chinese word "委员"(member of a committee) sounds quite like "桂圆"(longan, a kind of tropical fruit). In the conversation, the wife does not quite catch the word and mistake the "桂圆"for "委员". If the two words are translated literally, the reader will find the wife's mistake incomprehensible since there is no phonological similarity in English between the two items. The translator use the method of adaptation, turning logon（桂圆）into common tea. Now the form is change, but the function or effect is preserved. Common tea is phonologically related to committee. By using adaptation, this homophone untranslatability is turned into translatability.

B. Borrowing

Borrowing is a translation procedure that the translator uses a word or expression from the source language in the target language holus-bolus. Differences between cultures may mean that one language has expression and concepts that may not exit in another. For example, we have no ready-made equivalent for the English "model", "Coca-cola", "coffee", "logic", "sofa", "motor", "Brandy", "chocolate", "Benz", and so on. Face with such words and expressions, the translators are hard-pressed to convey the original meaning and are often left with no choice but to borrow the original lexical items. So these words come into Chinese :"模特儿", "可口可乐", "咖啡", "逻辑", "沙发", "摩托", "白兰地", "巧克力", "奔驰", and so on. And likewise, there are no English equivalent for some Chinese words, such as kang(heated brick bed), Guandi Miao(temple enshrining Guan Yu, a well worshipped ancient Chinese hero), Zongzi(a pyramid-shape dumpling made of glutinous rice wrapped in reed leaves that is eaten during the Dragon Boat festival), Qigong(a system of deep breathing exercise popular in China), Taiji Quan (a kind of traditional Chinese boxing), and so on. Some of these had been accepted by English people, and some will be accepted, and these words will come to English.

C. Translator's Note

A translator's note is a note (usually a footnote or an endnote) added by the translator to the target language to provide additional information pertaining to the limit of translation, the cultural background and any other explanation. "Nida also points out that the footnote can explain contradictory customs, identify unknown geographical or physical objects, give equivalent of weights and measures, provides information on plays on words, include supplementary data on proper names and add information which may be generally useful in understanding the historical and cultural background of the document in question." In a word, using this method can turn some untranslatability into a certain degree of translatability.

For example:

(13)道可道，非常道 ——《道德经》Laozi

The Tao①that can be expressed in words is not the constant Tao.

Note:①The Tao is absolute, in which all other things are relative, it is almighty and omnipresent. Its vastness or minuteness can not be compared with things of our understanding. The universe is embracing it."Here the Chinese character "道" is a word with very profound meaning, which finds itself no equivalent in the English language. It is almost untranslatable. Through the footnote, some of the culture messages have been transferred into the target language text."

D. Calque

Calque is a translation procedure that a translator translates an expression (or occasionally a word) literally into the target language, translating the element of the expression word for word. Peter Newmark refers it to as semantic translation. It is a method of translation that aims at preserving the most cultural message of the source text at the sacrifice of the formal element of the target language, and sometimes even the intelligibility of the target text. Such as translate "armed to teeth" into "武装到牙齿", translate "knowledge is strengths" into "知识就是力量", translate "hot dog" into "热狗", and translate "纸老虎"into "paper tiger". Maybe they seem ridiculer at the beginning, but they will be accepted by the target language speaking people and become a common word in their daily life.

E. Paraphrase

"Paraphrase is as extended synonym and inevitably an expansion and a diffusion of the original text. It is only justified when an item of terminology technical institutional cultural, ecological, scientific cannot be explained in any other way. E.g. by TL equivalent, transcription, neologism by reproducing the encyclopedic tenor for the linguistic vehicle." Sometimes, some words in their source language do not have equivalent in the target language, so it is difficult to use calques or other method to compensate. And what we can use is paraphrase, for example:

The Chinese idiom "一龙一猪", means one is very clever and capable, but the other is stupid and hopeless. If it is translated into "one is a dragon, another is a pig", English readers can not understand the meaning. And there are no similar idioms to substitute, so we only can use the method of paraphrase, and translate it into:"One is very capable, while the other is extremely incompetent."

V. Conclusion

For the differences in linguistic and culture, we should accept that there does exist untranslatability between English and Chinese. But we never neglect the fact that there are numerous language universality and cultural similarities. Such as integration, cultural diversity, network technology revolutionary, the world is getting smaller and smaller. We are sure to believe that the language and cultural communication will be more and more, and the barrier between languages will be less and less.

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Decolonization in Herman Melville's *Moby Dick*

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Abstract—**This study tries to show decolonization in Herman Melville's *Moby Dick*. Melville applies some narrative techniques which closely match those of the decolonization process. The narrative has a potentially representative content which opens one's horizons toward new sources of meaning and conceptual interpretation. The focal point, in this study, is to examine the decolonization level and its strategies as agency, abrogation, undermining and appropriation to see how tangibly these terms agree with the very context of the above-mentioned novel and to find out whether the purely abstract terms extracted from decolonization theory can be concretized in a practical form. Furthermore, this study aims at scrutinizing in detail the frequency and the possibility of the decolonization in the very fabric and texture of fictional narrative of the colonized nations in general.**

Index Terms—**abrogation, agency, appropriation, decolonization**

I. INTRODUCTION

The process of this study starts with a brief introduction to decolonization, its strategies, and a short analysis of Herman Melville's *Moby Dick*, which is followed by tracing decolonization in it.

II. DECOLONIZATION AND ITS STRATEGIES IN LITERATURE

As a process which is the very practical advantage of post-colonial discourse, decolonization is the only way of removing the heavy burden of empire colonization which has invaded colonized countries both culturally and naturally. But to perceive decolonization as the central point of the article, first it is deserved to answer the question of what decolonization is. Then, different kinds of decolonization (Early, Present, in Settlers and invaded colonies), strategies, and colonies will be presented. Consequently, decolonization in the settler colonies will be followed by analysis of Herman Melville's *Moby Dick* as an example.

A. Decolonization

Weather implicit or explicit, decolonization, in general, is a revolt, against imperial domination. In other words, it is a kind of awareness against oppression and inferiority like what was done in Marxist movement against master class by slaves (working class) or by Feminist against male-centered societies. Being different in early and present involvement and engagement, like them, decolonization can be divided into two phases: first or early phase, as will be referred to in the next parts, which was started by African decolonizers derived from the works of political theorists like Frantz Fanon (1959, 1961, 1967) and Albert Memmi (1965) who located its principal characteristic in the notion of the imperial–colonial (colonizer-colonized) dialectic itself. In this respect, The early involvement and engagement of decolonization as Ashcroft (2007) puts, is 'a profound complicity with the imperial powers from which they sought to emerge as free agents' (p.56), that is, freedom and emancipation as free subject. Fanon, writing in the 1950s during the Algerian struggle for independence from French colonial rule, through psychoanalysis of colonial subject produced the ways in which the colonial subject's identity is constructed by the colonist. In his famous and influential essay (Fanon, 1986, pp.109–40), Fanon shows the effects of racism on the construction of the subject and the production of identity. In this essay which is an interior monologue, Fanon (1986) uses the constructed identity of the oppressed narrator by the racist oppressors as:' "Dirty nigger!", "Negro!"' and eventually he puts this construction as the construction of an object among the other objects not a subject:

'I came into the world imbued with the will to find a meaning in things, my spirit filled with the desire to attain to the source of the world, and then I found I was an object in the midst of other objects. Sealed into this crushing objecthood, I turned beseechingly to others. . . .I stumbled, and the movements, the attitudes, the glances of the other fixed me there, in the sense in which a chemical solution is fixed by a dye. I was indignant; I demanded an explanation. Nothing happened. I burst apart. Now the fragments have been put together again by another self (p. 109).

On the whole, early decolonization seeks to invert the structures of domination and substituting the tradition of the colonized nations in place of imperial-dominated canon. Therefore, the early decolonization is dialectic of subject/object, self/other which is resulted in a national revolt and in Parry (1987) term 'nationalist liberationist narratives'…(p.37).

But in the present or advanced phase decolonization criticism is extended by Edward Said into the area of challenging and undermining absolute and axiomatic principles upon which the world classification into superiority of

the occident and inferiority of the orient are established. Such classifications in Said's (1978) view are man-made, not absolute (p. 5); therefore, they are used for domination by Europe. Thus, decolonization has turned away from simple inversions towards a questioning of forms and modes, to unmasking the assumptions upon which such canonical constructions are founded in a way that it moves first to make their cryptic bases visible and then destabilizes them as Ashcroft (2007) puts it:

'decolonization is the process of revealing and dismantling colonialist power in all its forms. This includes dismantling the hidden aspects of those institutional and cultural forces that had maintained the colonialist power and that remain even after political independence is achieved. Initially, in many places in the colonized world, the process of resistance was conducted in terms or institutions appropriated from the colonizing culture itself… (P. 56-7).

B. The Setter and Invaded Colonies

Complexity of imperialist strategies and different geographical location of colonized countries is resulted in various kinds of colonization and colonies. In other words, regarding its benefits and revenues, Imperialism invades some countries, while at the same times, as Ashcroft (2004) puts, it occupies the others:

'…the settler colonies and the invaded colonies. In the case of the settler colonies like the United States, Canada, New Zealand, and Australia, land was occupied by European colonists who dispossessed and overwhelmed the Indigenous populations…. invaded societies like those in India or Nigeria, where indigenous peoples were colonized on their own territories'…(p.24).

In both cases, empire imposes its own superiority and domination through its language. This triumph is achieved through introducing English as intermediate and standard language and the writers are the subjects upon whom empire does it. Explaining this phenomenon, Maxwell (1965) demonstrates it as:

'there are two broad categories. In the first, the writer brings his own language – English – to an alien environment and a fresh set of experiences: Australia, Canada, New Zealand. In the other, the writer brings an alien language – English – to his own social and cultural inheritance: India, West Africa. Yet the categories have a fundamental kinship. . . . (pp. 82–3).

However, empire knows how to control and invade each nation.

C. Decolonization in the Invaded colonies

Regarding the cases of invaded colonies, decolonization, as was discussed in previous parts, was at first a national movement against colonization by imperialism. Therefore, it was an anti-colonialism movement which was shared by all invaded colonies. Like other movements it was changing and taking many forms so that it could get the freedom of its agents. This procedure has been presented by Ashcroft (2007) as:

'…sometimes associated with an ideology of racial liberation, as in the case of nineteenth-century West African nationalists such as Edward Wilmot Blyden and James Africanus Horton (ideologies that might be seen as the precursors of twentieth-century movements such as **n égritude**). Conversely, it may accompany a demand for a recognition of cultural differences on a broad and diverse front, as in the Indian National Congress which sought to unite a variety of ethnic groups with different religious and racial identities in a single, national independence movement. In the second half of the twentieth century, anti-colonialism was often articulated in terms of a radical, Marxist discourse of liberation, and in constructions that sought to reconcile the internationalist and anti-élitist demands of Marxism with the nationalist sentiments of the period (National Liberation Fronts), in the work and theory of early national liberationist thinkers such as C.L.R.James, Amilcar Cabral and Frantz Fanon, …(p. 12).

All highlighted points of this quotation as ideology of racial liberation, recognition of cultural differences, radical, Marxist discourse of liberation are different faces of freedom and emancipation from domination of Imperialism. But the radical question here is that how such emancipation is possible? In other words, how can such nations get their radical liberation while domination of Imperialism is influential everywhere and in every field, that is, culture, tradition, rutine life and social conduct? The answer is, at first, implicit in a return to pre-colonial languages. Mostly, as Ashcroft (2004) refers to, in invaded colonized as: 'African countries and in India, that is in post-colonial countries where viable alternatives to english continue to exist, an appeal for a return to writing exclusively, or mainly in the pre-colonial languages has been a recurring feature of calls for decolonization' (p.29). Another important basis of decolonization or liberation from domination of Imperialism is recognition of cultural differences which is a kind of cultural and mental decolonization. This is the consequent of the return to pre-colonial language what is in Ashcroft's (2007) view 'a return to indigenous languages can restructure attitudes to the local and the indigenous cultures….Thus, decolonizing processes that have advocated a return to indigenous language use have involved both a social programme to democratize culture and a programme of cultural recuperation and re-evaluation (p.57).

D. Decolonization and in the Setter Colonies

As was discussed, in the settler colonies like the United States, Canada, New Zealand, and Australia, land was occupied by European colonists who dispossessed and overwhelmed the Indigenous populations. Therefore, in these colonies, decolonization which is possible through Agency, Nationalism, Appropriation and Abrogation is different from the invaded colonies. In such colonies, according to Ashcroft (2004),

'the first task seems to be to establish that the texts can be shown to constitute a literature separate from that of the metropolitan centre. A vast and impressive body of literary histories, thematic studies, and studies of individual literary traditions has accrued over the last one hundred and fifty years or so in the white cultures of settler colonies. The task of compiling a national literary history has usually been an important element in the establishment of an independent cultural identity' (p.131).

This decolonization which was the concern of early decolonizers can be seen in H.M. Green(1961); Carl F. Klinck (1965), a large body of text in the United State (Russell Reising, 1978), and many others. Thus, the early stage of decolonization is a kind of consciousness through which settler colonized people perceive themselves as individuals who can freely and autonomously initiate action and construct their own identity, that is, Agency, which in Ashcroft's (2007) view

'refers to the ability to act or perform an action. In contemporary theory, it hinges on the question of whether individuals can freely and autonomously initiate action, or whether the things they do are in some sense determined by the ways in which their identity has been constructed. Agency is particularly important in post-colonial theory because it refers to the ability of post-colonial subjects to initiate action in engaging or resisting imperial power' (p.6).

In the later stages some decolonizers try to develop their self-assertion through independent national literature in a controversial way as in L. Kramer (1981), W.H. New (1989), and Charles Brockden Brown (1799) in America. But, the problem to which they meet is lake of a national and local language as their own language. In other words, the language through which they want to establish and express a separated independent national cultural identity is metropolitan language:

'The colonial writer does not have words of his own….Try to speak the words of your home and you will discover – if you are a colonial – that you do not know them . . . perhaps our job was not to fake a space of our own and write it up, but rather to find words for our space-lessness . . . Instead of pushing against the grain of an external, uncharged language, perhaps we should finally come to writing *with* that grain' (Lee 1974, pp.162,163).

Therefore, the real concern is the control over the means of communication, that is, power of writing in the colonial situation as has been discussed in *The Conquest of America* by Tzvetan Todorov (1974). But how is it possible while the only dominant language as the medium of power is the language of the centre? In other words, post-colonial writing only can defines itself by seizing the language of the centre: 'The crucial function of language as a medium of power demands that post-colonial writing defines itself by seizing the language of the centre and re-placing it in a discourse fully adapted to the colonized place'(Ashcroft, 2002, p.37). It is because language is the medium through which a hierarchical structure of power is perpetuated, and conceptions of truth, order, and reality become established. Post-colonial writing is going to reject such power and; therefore, post-colonial writing is the process by which the language, with its power, and the writing, with its signification of authority, has been seized from the dominant European culture. Post-colonial writing does this through two process of

"the abrogation or denial of the privilege of 'English' involves a rejection of the metropolitan power over the means of communication" and 'the appropriation and reconstitution of the language of the centre, the process of capturing and remoulding the language to new usages, marks a separation from the site of colonial privilege. Abrogation is a refusal of the categories of the imperial culture, its aesthetic, its illusory standard of normative or 'correct' usage, and its assumption of a traditional and fixed meaning 'inscribed' in the words. It is a vital moment in the de-colonizing of the language and the writing of 'english', but without the process of appropriation the moment of abrogation may not extend beyond a reversal of the assumptions of privilege, the 'normal', and correct inscription, all of which can be simply taken over and maintained by the new usage (Ashcroft *et al*., 2004, p. 37).

Therefore, post-colonial text is itself a site of struggle for linguistic control which is resulted in the appropriating discourse. This struggle extends to the disputes concerning theme, form, genre definition, implicit systems of manner, custom, and value.

Now, the question is that may we say that language constitutes reality? Paradoxically, it should be said that yes! But where is the center of reality, that is, its axiomatic center according which the other realities by other languages are constructed? The answer is that there is not any centre of reality just as there is not any pre-given unmediated reality and control over the means of communication determines the center of reality; therefore, the colonized nations through appropriation of language of metropolitan centre-- 'to convey in a language that is not one's own the spirit that is one's own' (Rao, 1938, p.vii), or makes it 'bear the burden' of one's own cultural experience (Achebe, 1975, p. 62)-- and self-assertion abrogate its centrality and they define themselves as the centre and they may reconstruct reality according to their own pattern of conventions, expectations, and experiences, that is, establishment of the link between the received English and place or in Emerson's phrase, , their 'original relation with the universe' (Emerson, 1836,p.21).

In a sense, eventually, abrogation through appropriation, which was operated by some decolonizers, is a kind of deconstruction. Because, they use language in a way which disrupts its binary strurcturation. This pattern of binary structuration in European and many other languages, for such critics among whom Wilson Harris (1985) is well known, lies at the root of the continual pattern of conquest and domination that has formed the structure of human history; therefore, tracing *aporia* in such a pattern is possible.

III. Decolonization in *Moby Dick*

A. Ishmael as American Adam and American Agency

Among different themes of American literature, the theme which is the very projection of the archetypal tendency of the myth of Edenic dream or Dream land which is as old as the man's mind, is the notion of the American Adam, the mythic New World hero who is the very representative of independent American national identity, that is, American decolonization. In *The American Adam,* R. W. B. Lewis describes the type as:

"a radically new personality, the hero of the new adventure: an individual emancipated from history, happily bereft of ancestry, untouched and undefiled by the usual inheritances of family and race; an individual standing alone, self-reliant and self propelling, ready to confront whatever awaited him with the aid of his own unique and inherent resources" (p.5).

The above mentioned particular characteristics have been embodied in Ishmael whom Melville intentionally introduces in order to announce the very independent national American character, unlike early literary characters who are the followers and copy of European characters, who is self-reliant and achieves and proves his own American identity through some great deeds so that he could challenge European superiority and American inferiority which is because of their dependent identity. Ishmael announces his self-reliance and confirms his independent ways by telling us that he seeks no special rank aboard ship and would not want to be either a cook or a captain; he says he has enough responsibility just taking care of himself:

I never go as a passenger; nor, though I am something of a salt, do I ever go to sea as a Commodore, or a Captain, or a Cook. I abandon the glory and distinction of such offices to those who like them. For my part, I abominate all honorable respectable toils, trials, and tribulations of every kind whatsoever. It is quite as much as I can do to take care of myself, without taking care of ships, barques, brigs, schooners, and what not. (Ch. 1, p.3).

Moreover, Ishmael's bereft of ancestry is centralized in the very beginning of the novel when Melville employs biblical allusions as keys to clarify this notion. The biblical Ishmael (Genesis 16:1–16; 21:10 ff.) is disinherited and dismissed from his home in favor of his half-brother Isaac. The name suggests that the narrator is something of an outcast, a drifter, a fellow of no particular family other than mankind, that is, American Adam who 'untouched and undefiled by the usual inheritances of family and race', because we are not informed through the novel about his family. In other words, neither Ishmael nor Melville speaks of a family or even a last name for Ishmael. This is confirmed with the ending of the book in which only Ishmael survives, picked up by the whaling ship *Rachel*, which, searching his own missing children, finds only "another orphan" (Epilogue, p. 460) , that is, American Adam who, unlike European's, untouched and undefiled by the usual inheritances of family and race'. Ishmael as 'a radically new personality, the hero of the new adventure', another feature of American Adam, is the real quest in the search of truth because he is an open-minded character who is capable of change and growth. This change and spiritual growth, first, occurs when he links his questing and heroism to the great ancient myths as:

…as every one knows, meditation and water are wedded for ever…. Why did the poor poet of Tennessee, upon suddenly receiving two handfuls of silver, deliberate whether to buy him a coat, which he sadly needed, or invest his money in a pedestrian trip to Rockaway Beach? Why is almost every robust healthy boy with a robust healthy soul in him, at some time or other crazy to go to sea? [consciously experience of Archetypal tendency of heroism, that is, Mythology] Why upon your first voyage as a passenger, did you yourself feel such a mystical vibration, when first told that you and your ship were now out of sight of land? Why did the old Persians hold the sea holy? Why did the Greeks give it a separate deity, and own brother of Jove? Surely all this is not without meaning. And still deeper the meaning of that story of Narcissus, who because he could not grasp the tormenting, mild image he saw in the fountain, plunged into it and was drowned. But that same image, we ourselves see in all rivers and oceans. It is the image of the ungraspable phantom of life; and this is the key to it all. …fifty years ago did Nathan Swain (Mythical Biblical name) kill fifteen whales between a sunrise and a sunset (p.2-3).

Reasoning his archetypal tendency through linking it to the Mythology of the civilized nations as old Persians and Greeks… to justify his initiation and metaphysical investigation as a model of American hero or aspiring mind of Chistopher Marlow's Dr. Faust, Ishmael is Melveil's establishment and introducing the American Archetype of Heroism. In other words, Melveil is going to depict American Myth through heroism exactly like Ferdosie's Rostam who was fighting with a Serpant or Giant or Humer, Virgil, Spenser….; thus, Moby Dick is the Myth of America. In other words, he tries to undermine the very axiomaticly dominant European Character through showing independently American practically archetypal tendency in parallel to the other nations as well as his open mind as superior to Europe.

Correspondingly, Ishmael justifies his questing and heroism through advocating the role and importance of the whaleman in the history and he, for example, alludes to Alfred the Great (849–99 A.D, king of Wessex 871–99) who ended the Danish conquests in England and promoted English culture:

'It was the whaleman who first broke through the jealous policy of the Spanish crown, touching those colonies; and, if space permitted, it might be distinctly shown how from those whalemen at last eventuated the liberation of Peru, Chili, and Bolivia from the yoke of Old Spain, and the establishment of the eternal democracy in those parts. That great America on the other side of the sphere, Australia, was given to the enlightened world by the whaleman'….'the whale no famous author, and whaling no famous chronicler? Who wrote the first account of our Leviathan? Who but mighty Job! And who composed the first narrative of a whaling-voyage? Who, but no less a prince than Alfred the Great, who,

with his own royal pen, took down the words from Other, the Norwegian whale-hunter of those times! And who pronounced our glowing eulogy in Parliament? Who, but Edmund Burke' (Ch. XXII, p.86).

Finally for Ishmael, however, there is a significant pride in being a whaling seaman. He wants his readers to be aware that great men such as Hercules, Jonah, and even the Hindu god Vishnu are associated with whales; in addition, he is fairly certain that St. George himself actually fought a whale rather than a dragon (Ch. LXXVI, pp. 291-2-3).

Another change and spiritual growth of Ishmael occurs when he first meets Queequeg, in a bed they share at the Spouter-Inn. He sees the South Seas islander as a stereotypical "heathen" and fears that he is about to be killed by a cannibal. Just the opposite is true. Ishmael soon learns that Queequeg is one of the finest men whom he has ever known—caring, kind, generous, loyal, courageous, and wise. The discovery of Queequeg by Ishmael is resulted in some universal truths which are the signs of Initiation of Americanhood or very agency which is indirectly abrogating European selfishness and superiority to the other nations. In their first morning confrontation, Ishmael concludes that

'Queequeg, under the circumstances, this is a very civilized overture; but, the truth is, these savages have an innate sense of delicacy, say what you will; it is marvelous how essentially polite they are. I pay this particular compliment to Queequeg, because he treated me with so much civility and consideration, while I was guilty of great rudeness; …Nevertheless, a man like Queequeg you don't see every day, he and his ways were well worth unusual regarding. But Queequeg, do you see, was a creature in the transition state —neither caterpillar nor butterfly. He was just enough civilized to show off his outlandishness in the strangest possible manner (Ch.3, p.22).

Under Queequeg's influence, Ishmael is opening his mind to the nature of mankind and the values to be found, that is, initiation of Americanhood or agency. Moreover, Ishmael walks about New Bedford, the port city, which offers him more opportunities to observe people from other cultures: sailors from around the world, country dwellers, even real cannibals (Ch. 6, p.26). He is beginning to enjoy the diversity of this world; therefore, he depicts the initiation of Americanhood whom Melveil is purposely introduces as the high capacity and melting pot in which all people are regarded as well as discovering the positive aspects of them to establish cross-culturality.

As 'the hero of the new adventure', Ishmael goes to the Whaleman's Chapel where he notices numerous memorial tablets honoring men who died at sea (Ch.7, p. 26). Ishmael thinks about death and immortality. At the chapel, Ishmael's thoughts turn to death and the question of what is important about life—what, if anything, survives after death (p. 27). Because this little church primarily serves whalers, it prominently displays a number of memorial tablets honoring men killed at sea. Ishmael considers his own mortality and wonders if he will meet the fate of these men. His spirits rise, however, when he concludes that his physical self is not the real Ishmael at all. It is a shadow; and his shadow, his spirit, is his true substance [a really spiritual quester]. He concludes that we humans are like oysters at the bottom of the sea, limited in our view of reality. We are confused about what is important (p. 28). In that frame of mind, he awaits the sermon and it is initiation of opening his mind.

B. White Whale as Melville's (American) Autotype Archetype

Melville produced a great novel, but the plot of Moby Dick was not his invention. It was a well-known mythic narrative long before he immortalized it as tragic novel. 'Moby Dick, the strange, fierce white whale that Captain Ahab pursues with such relentless fury, was already a legend among the whalers, who knew him as "Mocha Dick"(Reynolds, 1839).' Melville rebuilt it by adding a poetic or moral significance to it. Both the myth and the novel contain a number of familiar archetypes.

James Baird in *Ishmael: a Study of the Symxpebolic Mode in Primitivism* tries 'to find an archetypal key to the multilayered meanings of *Moby Dick*….He finds this key in primitive mythology, especially in the myths of Polynesia to which young Melville had been exposed during his two years of sea duty in south Pacific (…cannibals of Taipi) (Guerin, 1999, p. 185).

Thus he purposely tries to establish the very prototype or American original Archetypes which are the elements of national cultural identity and declaration of national cultural identity, that is, decolonization or abrogation of European cultural domination. He does it through fusion of archetype and autotype; therefore, his literary primitivism is authentic because, as 'says Baird, he had absorbed certain Asian archetypes or "life symbols" and then transformed theses creativity into "autotypes"(that is, individualized personal symbols)' (Guerin, 1999, p. 185). In other words, Melveil establishes American independent archetype to achieve its own identity.

Moby Dick as the creative fusion of archetype and autotype by Melville is elaborately combination of Asian archetypes of great fish or whale and whiteness, as his own creative unique symbol (autotype), as Baird put it:

throughout Asian mythology, the "great fish" …as symbol of divine creation and life; in Hinduism,…, the whale is an avatar(divine incarnation) of Vishnu, the "the preserver contained in all being of Brahama….*Whiteness* is the archetype of the all encompassing, inscrutable deity, the "white sign of the God of all being who has borne such Oriental names as Bhagavat, Brahama- the God of endless contradiction." (Guerin, 1999, p.185).

To perceive the very archetypal or 'universal symbolic'(Guerin, 1999, p. 160) notion of the whiteness, Ishmael refers to its general meanings as purity, mystery, and terror among different nations. In the case of purity, he refers to

beauty, as in marbles, japonicas, and pearls; and even the barbaric, grand old kings of Pegu placing the title "Lord of the White Elephants" the modern kings of Siam unfurling the same snow-white quadruped in the royal standard great Austrian Empire, Caesarian, heir to overlording Rome, having for the imperial color the same imperial hue; significant of gladness, for among the Romans a white stone marked a joyful day; , noble things—the innocence of brides, the

benignity of age; among the Red Men of America the giving of the white belt of wampum,was the deepest pledge of honor; though in many climes, whiteness typifies the majesty of Justice in the ermine of the Judge even in the higher mysteries of the most august religions it has been made the symbol of the divine spotlessness and power; by the Persian fire worshippers, the white forked flame being held the holiest on the altar; and in the Greek mythologies, Great Jove himself made incarnate in a snow-white bull…(Ch. XL, pp.154-60)

In short, in that whiteness, Ishmael sees innocence and evil, glory and damnation; therefore, Melville introduces American archetype of white whale or Moby Dick which falls, based on different interpretations, in the scope of Ishmael's purity, mystery, and terror. To Starbuck, Moby Dick is just another whale, except that he is more dangerous (terror). In Chapter 34, Starbuck calls it "blasphemous" to seek revenge on a "dumb brute . . . that simply smote thee from blindest instinct!" If Starbuck sees anything beyond that in the whale, it is that Moby Dick represents the captain's madness and a very serious diversion from the ship's proper mission. To Ahab, "There would be great glory in killing him, I know that; and? Ishmael grants that Ahab views the whale as an embodiment of evil, that is, Jungian shadow or Ahab's failure of individuation. In chapter 34, there, the captain says he sees Moby Dick as a "mask," behind which lies a great power whose dominance To Ahab, we might conclude, the White Whale represents that power which limits and controls man in the novel(p. 131). On the whole, Melveil tries to undermine and abrogate European domination and he announces mythological part of American identity and culture, that is, decolonization.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this study, a number of decolonization techniques were applied to Melville's Moby Dick respectively to see how decolonization can be accounted for in terms of literary development.

In Moby Dick, the decolonization as proposed by Said and recently by Ashcroft, was strategically and essentially used. The important point is that the novel is metaphorically replete with independently announcement of American literary identity from Europe as in the preface to his novel, Charles Brockden Brown (1799) announces that the field of investigation, opened to us by our own country, should differ essentially from those which exist in Europe (p.29). Therefore, decolonization at least can be applied to this early American novel.

Ishmael's heroism as mythic American Adam is purposely challenge of European axiomatically superiority in the novel by Melville in a way that thoughtful readers will notice its significance as soon as they start reading the novel. In this heroism temerity, boldness, and impetuosity of American and the Americanhood has been depicted.

To actualize abrogation of the absolutely centrality of Europe, we traced the very mastery of Melville in creativity of independently American autotypes in the masterly spiritual and physical heroism and the high capacity of Ishmael as the embodiment of melting pot in the novel.

The important point is that this American character, different from European's, is raised and matured as a self-reliance character. This genius task is the rite of initiation of self-reliant American character as the archetypal model for American characters whom Melville differentiates from European Character, that is, abrogating and undermining European literature and characters as the universal superior literature and characters or declaration of independence of America through literature.

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Motivating Chinese Students by Fostering Learner Autonomy in Language Learning[*]

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Abstract—**Autonomy in language learning is a relatively new field and research on learner autonomy started in 1970s. However, as the theory and practice of language teaching enters a new century, the importance of helping students become more autonomous in their learning has become one of its more prominent themes. Nowadays, autonomy is widely accepted as a desirable goal in education. A common theme in justifications for autonomy, especially in general education but also in language learning, is that autonomous learners become more highly motivated and that autonomy leads to better, more effective work. This paper is aimed to investigate the link between motivation and learner autonomy, especially how motivation and autonomy can mutually reinforce each other with the emphasis on how the development of learner autonomy through developing negotiated syllabus helps to motivate students in language learning. We trust when we shift the power of making decisions for their own learning through negotiations into students' hands, they will become highly motivated and whole-heartedly involved and take on greater responsibility for their own learning.**

Index Terms—**learner autonomy, motivation, negotiated syllabus, language learning**

I. INTRODUCTION

Learner autonomy has attracted more and more attention in education especially in the western world since 1970s. Autonomy can be broadly defined as the capacity to take control over one's own learning (Benson 2005, p. 2). As a teacher and researcher who has been involved with the promotion of the idea of autonomy for a number of years, Benson (2005, p. 2) claims that autonomous learning is more effective than non-autonomous learning and the development of autonomy implies better language learning. A common theme in justifications for autonomy, especially in general education but also in language learning, is that autonomous learners become more highly motivated and that autonomy leads to better, more effective work (Dickinson 1995, p. 165-74). But how can we motivate learners to be more autonomous? The idea of learner autonomy has been promoted largely by western teachers and academics, will Chinese learners' autonomy be easily fostered and developed in China? How can we motivate Chinese learners to be more autonomous? What is the link between autonomy and motivation? Does motivation lead to learner autonomy or learner autonomy precede motivation? Or can motivation and autonomy mutually reinforce each other? This paper is aimed to investigate the link between motivation and learner autonomy, especially how motivation and autonomy can mutually reinforce each other with the emphasis on how the development of learner autonomy through developing negotiated syllabus helps to motivate students in language learning.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Autonomy in language learning is a relatively new field and research on learner autonomy started in 1970s. However, as the theory and practice of language teaching enters a new century, the importance of helping students become more autonomous in their learning has become one of its more prominent themes. Nowadays, autonomy is widely accepted as a desirable goal in education, and "few teachers will disagree with the importance of helping learners become more autonomous as learners" (Wenden 1991, p.11). Modern education places great value on the development of the learners' humanistic qualities and "humanistic education is based on the belief that learners should have a say in what they should be learning and how they should learn it, and reflects the notion that education should be concerned with the development of autonomy in the learner" (Nunan 1988, p. 20). Developing from moves towards communicative language teaching, recent innovations in classroom practice have emphasized the value of collaborative learning, learner-centeredness, autonomy and shared decision-making in the classroom. "One corollary of learner-centeredness is that individualization will assume greater importance, as will the recognition that the autonomy of the learner is our

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ultimate goal" (Brookes & Grundy 1988, p.1).

The concept of 'autonomous learning' stemmed from debates about the development of life-long learning skills and the development of independent thinker in 1960s. By 1981 Holec (1981, p. 3) defined autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning". Dickinson (1987, p. 11) accepted the definition of autonomy as "the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for the decisions concerned with his/her learning and the implementation of these decisions". Little (1990, p. 7) suggests that learner autonomy is essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning. In Pennycook's (1997, p. 45) political-critical viewpoint, development of autonomy and agency must involve becoming "an author of one's own world". All the definitions of autonomy entail capacity and willingness on the part of the learner to act independently and in cooperation with others, so as to be a socially responsible person.

A common theme in justifications for autonomy, especially in general education but also in language learning, is that autonomous learners become more highly motivated and that autonomy leads to better, more effective work (Dickinson 1995). Autonomous learners draw on their intrinsic motivation when they accept responsibility for their own learning and commit themselves to developing the skills of reflective self-management in learning. To find the link between motivation and autonomy it is necessary to turn to the literature on motivation in general education, and especially the literature on cognitive motivation (Dickinson 1995).

Motivation is typically defined as the forces that account for the arousal, selection, direction, and continuation of behavior (Biehler 1993, P. 508) and the role of motivation in learning a second/foreign language is one of the important subjects in the study of second language acquisition. In the past decades, researchers have been conducting studies of language learning motivation from different perspectives. Gardner & Lambert (1959, 1972) investigate motivation from socio-psychological perspective. They considered the motivation to learn the language of the other community to be a primary force responsible for enhancing or hindering intercultural communication and affiliation. The current spirit in motivational psychology (and in psychology in general) is characterized by cognitive approach (Dörnyei 2005, p. 10). Current cognitive approaches place the focus on the individual's thoughts, beliefs, and interpretational processes that are transformed into action. The influential cognitive approaches to motivation are: self-determination theory, attribution theory, and goal theories. Deci and Ryan's (1985, 2002) self-determination theory has been the most influential approaches in motivational psychology. The main terms associated with self-determination theory are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Noels, Luc Pelletier and Robert Vallerand (2000) also specialize in self-determination theory. Their research has provided insights into how the main concepts: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation fit into the L2 field. Attribution theory became the dominant theory in the 1980s. Attribution theory explains how people perceive the causes of their actions and those of others (Weiner, 1985). It manages to link people's past experiences with their future achievement effort by introducing causal attributions as the mediating link. The study of goals within the field of motivation has a long history (Anderman & Wolters, 2006). Goal-orientation theory is the most prominent area in the study of goals. Goal orientation theorists are concerned with the reasons why students choose to engage in particular tasks. Pintrich and Schunk (2002, p. 242) have recently concluded, "currently, it is probably the most active area of research on student motivation in classroom and it has direct implications for students and teachers."

Whatever is stressed in the cognitive theories of motivation, it can be seen that people are seen as active and curious, searching for information to solve personally relevant problems, which corresponds to the theories of autonomy in language learning The fostering of autonomy requires a focus on the learner's perspective in regard to the goals and process of learning (Benson 2005, P. 20). Noels (2001 b) applies self-determination theory to the examination of the relationship of student autonomy and the language teacher's communicative style. This article has special significance in that it addresses an area, student autonomy and the relationship between learner autonomy and L2 motivation has also been recognized by several scholars (e.g., Spratt, Humphreys, & Chan, 2002; Ushioda, 1996). The study done by Spratt, Humphreys, & Chan (2002) aimed to assess students' readiness for learner autonomy in language learning by examining their views of their responsibilities and those of their teachers', their confidence in their ability to operate autonomously and their assessment of their level of motivation to learn English. It also investigated their actual practice of autonomous learning in the form of both outside and inside class activities. The findings lead the authors to conclude that motivation is a key factor that influences the extent to which learners are ready to learn autonomously, and that teachers might therefore endeavour to ensure motivation before they train students to become autonomous. Dickinson(1995, p. 173-4) argues that there is substantial cognitive motivational studies that learning success and enhanced motivation is conditional on learners taking responsibility for their own learning, being able to control their own learning and perceiving that their learning success and failures are to be attributed to their own efforts and strategies rather than to factors outside their control. Each of these conditions is a characteristic of learner autonomy as it is described in applied linguistics.

However, comparatively speaking, there are few specific studies that are conducted on the relationship between motivation and language acquisition(LA) and perspectives of the studies on motivation and LA are narrow and in China there is little or no study that has been done on the correlation between motivation and autonomy. The study of language learning motivation in China has a much shorter history. Since 1990s, the field of foreign language teaching and research in China has been treating motivation as an independent variable (Lu Min 2009, p. 62). Some Chinese researchers have tried to identify Chinese language learners' motivation types. Wu, Liu and Jeffrey (1993) took the

factor of motivation into account in their study of individual differences, finding that learning motivation of Chinese learners of English tended to be instrumental. Shi (2000) investigated the motivational types of Chinese learners and analyzed the relationship between motivation and learning achievement. He found out that the difference between the successful learners and less successful learners lies in that the former have stronger intrinsic motivation. Huang and Wen (2005) explored the components of motivation of non-English majors, finding that language valence is the greatest predictor of students' motivation. In addition, Chinese researchers have done correlational studies to investigate the relationship between motivation and leaning achievement (Zhou 1992), the relationship between motivation and learning strategies (Wen 1995, 2001, Wen & Wang, 1996, Wen et. Al. 2000). We can see that the correlational studies involve a couple of variables, but few studies have been conducted to explore the internal structure and the relationship among a variety of variables related to L2 motivation and little or no study has been done on the correlation between motivation and learner autonomy.

III. DISCUSSIONS

In the practice of my teaching in the past years I have found out through my observation and communication with students that the lack of intrinsic motivation is one of the key factors that prevent students from working hard on English or other subjects. Most Chinese learners are not highly intrinsically motivated and autonomous, because almost all the students are studying for the exams, which corresponds to Hua's(1998) investigation that getting a certificate is the major motivation of Chinese learners. For some students, once they enter college by doing successfully at the Entrance Exam, they lose their definite goals and orientations, because they have been driven too much by the exams and too dependent on the teachers. Even when they are at the college level, what they care most is still how well they can do in the exams. Therefore, in recent years I have been thinking about what can be done to help students develop their autonomy and how to promote their intrinsic motivation.

In the past eight years since 2004, together with a group of teachers in my department (College English Department, DaLian University of Technology), we have been doing research on how to improve learner autonomy through strategy training, developing our own teaching materials and setting up a self-access center; and in 2006, we began to focus on the research of developing a "process syllabus" in the language classroom through negotiation with students and negotiation between students. Process means taking students through the various stages of producing language and it emphasizes the value of collaborative learning, leaner-centeredness, learner autonomy and shared decision making in the language classroom. In traditional syllabuses, the content is prescribed by syllabus writers before a course begins, therefore, traditional syllabuses are predictive documents because they set out what is to be taught. These syllabuses are product-oriented, which focus on the outcomes of instruction, i.e. the knowledge and skills to be gained by the learner. However, process syllabuses focus on the skills and processes involved in learning language and the learning experiences themselves rather than on the end products of these processes. An important characteristic of the process syllabus is that it is an infrastructure rather than a learning plan, with the syllabus designer no longer pre-selecting learning content, but providing a framework for teacher and learners to create their own on-going syllabus in the classroom (Breen, 1987a, p.166), , thus allowing for changing abilities, learning needs, and perceptions in the learners, without specifying particular content, methodology, lexis, structure, or grammar (Breen, 1987a, p.168). The process syllabus is a radically analytic syllabus. In its strong form at least, not only the content but the materials, methodology and types of assessment used in a course are not pre-determined but are negotiated between the instructor and the learners throughout the course. That is, learners help select course content and materials and provide input on how they want to be taught and assessed. Process syllabuses have therefore evolved "as a means of planning, implementing and evaluating negotiation in the classroom, and the decisions to which teachers and students may jointly arrive" (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000, p.2). It distinguishes itself from conventional, content syllabuses by identifying classroom decisions as potentials for negotiation whereby teacher and students together can evolve and work through the actual curriculum of the classroom group (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000, p.29). The nature of a process syllabus is, through ongoing process of negotiation, to help students make clear of their alternative assumptions and interpretations, identify the range of achievements and difficulties in the work and reveal their preferences and alternatives in ways of working. We believe that negotiating a syllabus will help to take into account the wants and needs of the students and promote learner motivation, and more importantly it will encourage students to take much more responsibility for their own learning, in this sense, their learner autonomy will be greatly improved.

In China, working in the context of a centralized educational system which prescribes curricula, authorizes textbooks and sets external exams, students are used to taking the teacher as the authority and expert in handling the textbooks and making decisions about what they should learn and how they should learn. For teachers, it is easier to produce a well-planned, neatly packaged curriculum by deciding well in advance exactly what is to be studied and where and when and how it is to be presented. However, we trust that when students are involved in the process of decision-making, options and choices and when they can have their say through negotiation and when they become aware of learning procedures, they will learn best, which concurred with Curran, who expressed this as a belief that 'People learn best from utterances in which they have a strong personal stake or "investment"' (2000, cited in Pnina Linder). Therefore, it is important for teachers to provide the circumstances and contexts for learners to help them rather

than prevent them from exercising their autonomy so that they can take charge of the whole or part of their language learning.

Through the research on the development of process syllabus we found out that students are highly motivated through making decisions for themselves and are more responsible for their learning and motivation is a prerequisite for learning and responsibility development. The learner is not simply a passive recipient in the process. Knowles (1990) argues that adults should have a strong voice in their education and in the way they learn. They are likely to be-or to wish to be-self-directed learners and usually need to be assured about the purpose of the learning. He also argues that adult learners move from dependency to self-directedness and use their life experience to enhance learning. Furthermore, learners were also positive in accepting responsibility for their own learning. These were also the findings of Dam and Gabrielsen when they investigated the extent to which young learners were capable of making decisions about the content and processes of their own learning (Nunan, 1996). We believe that in the process of negotiation and collaboration with group members when they are making decisions about the aims, the content, the ways and the evaluations, especially when they are presenting something to another group/class, it called for greater responsibility to their own group and led to increased motivation and greatly improved accuracy. The success of each group's presentation was measured by the response and feedback of the other groups; thus there was a measure of in-built evaluation and a test of how much had been learned. We found out when learners are becoming more autonomous in making decisions concerning why to learn, what to learn and how to learn, the intrinsic motivation of learners is stimulated, they are able to identify with the goals of learning and more willing to take responsibility for the outcome. In turn, a large scope for student making decisions for themselves and autonomy generates intrinsic motivation.

IV. CONCLUSION

Conventionally, it is assumed that it is the teacher's role to make decisions with regard to purposes of the work, focus of content, ways of undertaking the work and evaluation of students' performances, both covertly as part of planning and classroom management and through overt instructions at key moments in a lesson. However, through two years' experiment and several years' learner autonomy research, there are several justifications for raising such decisions to the level of overt negotiation with students. Student-initiated teaching combined with syllabus negotiation brought all the learners to be more open-minded to other's ideas, thoughts, suggestions and even criticisms, because greater control over the learning process, resources and language cannot be achieved by each individual acting alone according to his or her own preferences. In the classroom group, genuine autonomy has to be exercised in an interdependent way. This practice of negotiated syllabus helps students to break out of the cocoon of dependence on the teacher. Once this has happened, negotiation inevitably becomes an ongoing process. It is thus that the foundations of autonomy are laid. The process of negotiation functions as managing teaching and learning as group experience and students are highly motivated when they are given the power to make the decisions, options and choices by themselves, when their wants and needs are taken into account and when they have their voices heard by others.

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Cognitive, Metacognitive, and Social/Affective Strategies in Listening Comprehension and Their Relationships with Individual Differences

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Abstract—This study tries to investigate the relationship between learners' listening strategy use, cognitive, metacognitive, social/affective, while they listen to the texts and some of their individual differences. In order to study this relationship, 40 Iranian university EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students were surveyed with four structured questionnaires and an ILTES listening test. The questionnaires were Listening strategy use (Vandergrift, 1997), learning style (Soloman and Felder, 2001), motivation (adapted from Laine, 1988), and the Revised NEO- FFI. In order to comprehend whether there is a relationship between variables, and to see which group of individual differences use which listening strategy more, statistical analysis of Multiple Regression analysis, Chi Square test, one way ANOVA, at the *p*< 0.05 level, were used. The results suggested that there was a significant relationship between the level of motivation and the listening strategies. After motivation, learning style, also, had some effect on the listening strategies use. The other variables had no significant effect on the use of the three listening comprehension strategies. In addition it should be mentioned that social/ affective strategy was omitted in the analysis because the mean of this strategy use was so low. It means that no individual groups used this kind of listening strategy. Finally, the aim of this article was to clarify on little-investigated area, namely, listening comprehension strategies and some individual differences, and the findings discussed in the area of English language teaching.

Index Terms—listening strategy, meta-cognitive, cognitive, social/affective, individual differences

I. INTRODUCTION

Listening comprehension is the most forgotten skills in second language acquisition. Unfortunately most often, it is supposed that listening comprehension is a passive activity, but contrarily, it is an "active process" because the listeners must recognize the differences among sounds, understand vocabularies and the grammatical structures, get the meaning of language input and other prosodic proof from the text, and they must save the information gathered long enough in their mind to interpret the context in which the communication take place. Shortly, listening is a complicated activity and difficult to understand that requires extremely a lot mental exertion (Holden, 2004, p. 257).

A mixed number of skills composed listening comprehension, and all of these skills according to Holden (2004) "play an important role in the process of language acquisition and the development of related language skills". So, having knowledge and the use of effective strategies in listening comprehension can help learners to understand most of language input to which they listen to. Although the number of studies in listening comprehension strategy instruction is limit but in these limited number of studies it is highly proved that learners can be taught the use of strategies and these strategies improved their listening comprehension (Liu, 2008). It is inferred from the strategies use by learners that the strategies develop learners' self regulated learning through learners selection of their goals, assign them (goals) in their learning, supervise their improvement of learning, and assess their learning results.

Among the strategies, O'Malley and Chamot's (1990, 1985) cognitive, metacognitive, and social-affective strategies, that are based on cognitive theory (Liu, 2008), seems to be the basic and three main category of strategies. It should be mentioned that although there are other strategies with other names (Griffith, 2004), but it doesn't mean that they differ in nature. They are just different in their names and in their classification that different researchers used them according to their survey's aims. And there are some learner's factors (individual differences) which affect their second language learning and their strategy choice (Azumi, 2008; Martinez, 1996). Accordingly, the researcher's purpose of this study

direct toward the investigation of the relationships between learners' listening strategy use, according to O'Mally and Chamot's (1990) strategy classification, and some of the individual differences.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Listening has an important effect on communication, and as it was estimated by researchers that adults spend 40-50% of their communication time on listening, 25-30% on speaking, 10-15% on reading, and about 10% on writing, (Holden, 2004). So it is logical to pay more attention on teaching listening comprehension in EFL educational program and SLA research.

Yaoko Matsuoka (2009) cited from Richards (2003) that in the history of listening, in the 1970s, listening was a capability among separate skills, and then, in the 80s and 90s, this idea changed to comprehension models in the field of cognitive psychology. Afterward, the difference between bottom up processing and top down processing was distinguished, and subsequently listening was considered as an explanatory process. Moreover, it was defined as the capability of understanding the spoken form of language that is used by native speakers. It was also more comprehensively defined by O'Mally, Chamot, and kupper (1989) that "listening comprehension is an active and conscious process in which the listener construct meaning by using cues from contextual information and from existing knowledge, which relying upon multiple strategies resources to fulfill the task requirement"(cited in Yaoko Matsuoka, 2009, p. 32).

In addition, listener must be able to process and guess the intended meaning of the string sounds of a spoken language in a particular discourse and condition. In other words, he must know "the illocutionary force of an utterance"(Matsuoka, 2009, P. 32).

The information processing in L2 or FL teaching and learning situation describe how learners deal with the information or the input that they encounter. Now, According to Liu (2008), Anderson (2005) divided the process of listening in to three stages within the area of FL/L2 teaching and learning: the perceptual, the parsing, and the utilization. During the perceptional process listeners concentrate consciously on the oral sounds of speech (e.g. intonation) and preserve them in their "echoic memory". But because of the limitation of the memory, listeners use their selective attention, and some parts of the information are lost by them. In order to understand the meaning of sounds, listeners' brain sends the information from echoic memory at once. In the second process, the parsing process, listeners put together the meaning of "the words of the original input in short term memory form meaningful mental representations". This meaningful information can be stored in short term memory. Finally in the last process, utilization, listeners' prior knowledge will be integrated with the incoming message, and if these two types of knowledge, the prior knowledge and the incoming message, match together, listening comprehension occurred. It should be mentioned that these three stages occur in a manner of repetition. It means that one stage change in to another stage and then back to the previous one again (p.86).

In addition, with considering the notion of processing, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and O'Malley *et al.* (1985) recognized three basic types of strategies, that is to say, metacognitive, cognitive, and social strategies, which will be explained in the following part.

The metacognitive strategies refer to the actions that learners use consciously while listening to a spoken text attentively. Metacognitive strategies deal with knowing about learning. It means that learners learn how to learn with metacognitive strategies. With the help of this language learning strategy, learners are involved in thinking about the process of learning while they are planning, monitoring, and evaluating their own learning, exactly like pre tasks activities (Holden, 2004). Learners check up and appraise their comprehension of the listening text by the use of metacognitive strategies. On the other hand, the cognitive strategies are separate learning activities and they are basically activities that are used by learners in order to understand the linguistic input and get knowledge. For example, when a learner finds a difficult word in a text and inferring the meaning of that word from the context, in fact he used the cognitive strategy. In addition, cognitive strategies are those that control the input or use a certain skill to complete a particular task (Holden, 2004; Meang, 2006; Grifith, 2004; Azumi, 2008; Martinez, 1996). According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), cognitive strategies are strategies that "reflect mental manipulation of tasks", such as practicing and analyzing, enable learners to understand and produce new language by many different ways. And the last one, social/affective strategies refers to strategies that learners use to learn by interaction with their classmates and questions that are asked from teacher to understand the special subject, or remove or lower their anxiety.

However, just a small number of researchers have tried to study the listening strategy use and L2 listening ability like Vandergrift (1997; 2003), Goh (2002) and Liu (2008).

A successful listener can focus on the subject he is hearing, design what to listen for, use both bottom-up processing (like textual cues) and top-down processing (like prior knowledge and experience). But unsuccessful listeners primarily use bottom-up processing, listen word by word, and use other strategies by chance. As Goh (2002) revealed in his research, more skillful listener adopts both cognitive and metacognitive strategies in order to understand most of the text that he listens for. He can also use his "prior knowledge of linguistic cues, and contextual information". Whereas less skillful listeners use just a number of strategies, and they frequently confused by unfamiliar words and phrases that they encounter in listening text (Liu, 2008, p. 87)

The problem that lies in the study of teaching and language learning strategies is that most researchers select those strategies that seem to be as GLL strategies and want their participants to use those strategies. But, there are a number of factors that affect learners' strategy choice, and researchers/teachers don't pay attention to them. As Willing (1981) recommended "any training process to develop learning strategies has to take all such factors into consideration" (Martinez, 1996, p. 107). Some researchers have identified factors that affect on L2 listening comprehension, and they were mentioned in Qui Bie (2006). For example, Rubin (1994) was a researcher who identified five factors affecting listening comprehension, and researchers believe that these five factors have great influence on listening comprehension. These factors are:

1) the characteristics of the text such as speech rate, hesitation, level of perception, stress and rhythm of text, L1 and L2 differences, redundancy, the complexity of morpheme, the order of words, discourse markers, visual support, and modification of syntax;

2) the characteristics of speakers such as language proficiency and gender;

3) the characteristics of task such as task type;

4) the characteristics of listeners such as their memory, age, gender, attention, level of language proficiency, background knowledge, and learning disability in L1;

5) the characteristics of process such as "top-down, bottom-up, and parallel processing, listening strategies, and negotiation of comprehensible input"(pp.197-198).

It was also found in Yao's (1995) study that the speakers' accent, speed, choice of vocabulary, and the listeners' interest and background knowledge influenced listening comprehension. Among all of these factors, the most important and influential factors that affect learners listening comprehension was the speakers accent and speed. It was found in the students reports of listening comprehension that clear pronunciation and speed affected their comprehension very much(Yao, 1995).

For the purpose of this study, factors that affected on listening comprehension are individual differences of listeners.

Ellis (1994) asserted that individual differences connect with each other. For example, the utilization of a special learning strategy in a successful manner possibly increase learners' motivation and lessen their anxiety level, personalities of learners may affect their views and "affective reactions", and so forth (Takayo Nitta, 2006, p. 7). It should be mentioned that the individual differences that were focused on in this study were listeners' age, gender, level of motivation, learning style, and personality traits. By investigating other studies, it was less evident in the use of cognitive, metacognitve and social/affective strategies in listening comprehension in relation with the individual differences of the listeners. But the results of Lio's (2008) study, who tried to find the relationships of learning styles and cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies in listening comprehension, revealed that communicative learners prefer to use cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective listening strategies "flexibly and actively", authority oriented learners preferred to use cognitive strategies, concrete learners used social/affective strategies more, and analytic learners again favored to use cognitive strategies more.

III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

As it was mentioned before, this study aims at investigating the relationships between listeners' age, gender, motivation, language learning strategies, and personality traits on the use of the three main strategies, cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies, in listening comprehension. Therefore this study tries to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any difference in the use of cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies in accordance with Individual differences of Iranian EFL?

2. Is there any relationship between application of these strategies and Individual differences of Iranian EFL listeners?

3. What are the predictors of individual differences in the use of cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies in listening comprehension?

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 40 upper-intermediate TEFL undergraduate students, consisting of 24 female and 16 male, and they were studying English in a nongovernment University. All participants were native speakers of Persian and ranged between 19 and 53 years in age. They formed up a representative sample of Iranian EFL learners. Furthermore, they learned English as a university subject for academic purpose – not for communicative purpose.

B. Instrument

There were five instruments that were used for collecting the data of this study: IELTS listening comprehension test, NEO questionnaire by Costa and McCrae (2004) for determining learners' personality traits, Soloman and Felder (2001) learning styles questionnaire, motivation questionnaire by Laine's (1988) to access learners' level of motivation, and another questionnaire for discovering learners use of cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies by

Vandergrift (1997). And finally, in order to know learners' age and gender, they were asked to write it down above the questionnaires.

IELTS Listening Test

This test consisted of 40 questions derived from Cambridge University press (2008) in order to determine learners' proficiency level of listen comprehension. There were fill-in-the-gap and multiple-choice questions, and the time that students need to complete it was about 30 minutes.

NEO Questionnaire

In this study, in order to determine learners' personality traits, NEO questionnaire with Persian adoption (Costa and McCrae, 2004) was used. The five aspects of personality that this inventory measured were Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness. It consisted of 60 questions and the choices reflect a number of five-point Likert-type scale and ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The participants selected the choices according to their preference toward the items. Each personality aspect was measured with 12 items. It should be mentioned that Garousi, Mehryar, and Ghazi Tabatabayi (2001) examined the reliability and validity of this inventory. "Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were between 0.66 and 0.87" and the validity was "between 0.65 and 0.76" (Zabihi, 2011, p. 3).

Soloman and Felder's learning styles questionnaire

Concerning the issue of learners' different learning styles, the material that was used to determining their learning styles was Soloman and Felder's (2001) questionnaire that consisted of 44 two choice items that identify eight distinct learning styles, but they are indicated by four pairs of mutual styles, that are active vs. reflective, sensitive vs. intuitive, visual vs. verbal, and sequential vs. global. This questionnaire was taken from Rahimi, Riazi and Saif (2008). They identified the reliability of the questionnaire within an acceptable range (.74)

Laine's Motivation Questionnaire

Another questionnaire that is used in this study check the motivation of the learners. It has been originally from Laine's (1988) model and adapted by Salimi (2000), but it was taken from, Riazi, Rahimi and Saif (2008). The participants choose a number of five-point Likert scales that represent the degree of their preference or tendency toward the items of questionnaire that are 36. Again, here the choices ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. In addition, the reliability of this questionnaire was determined by Riazi, Rahimi, and Saif (2008), and it was .80.

Vandergrifts' Listening Strategy Questionnaire

The last material was the strategy survey that determined learners' listening comprehension strategies that were applied by them. It consisted of 34 questions and they were designed to include metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective strategies. The questions were originally adopted from Vandergrift (1997). The scores were on a five-point scale with strongly agree, agree, no opinion, disagree, strongly disagree. It should be mentioned, too, that the statements from 1 to 10 determined Metacognitive strategies use preference, 11 to 29 determined Cognitive strategies use preference, and the remaining ones determined social/affective strategies use preference. The reliability of this questionnaire was measured by Liu (2008) with the use of Cronbach alpha test and it was .92.

C. Procedures

The data of this study was collected in two different phases and sections. In the first phase, the participants were asked to participate in the listening proficiency test to determine their level of proficiency in listening comprehension. In the second phase, they were asked to answer the questionnaires during 45 minutes. Participants were notified that the report of this research is nameless and the results of the inventory do not change their university grades. But in order to motivate the participants to cooperate with researcher, they were told to write their email address if they like to know about their individual results.

V. RESULTS

Distribution of and differences in the use of the strategies in accordance with individual difference (Research question 1)

To examine the distribution of independent variables across listening strategy use and to see whether there is a difference in the use of cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies in accordance with the learners' individual differences, Chi-Square tests were done. The results of the distribution and Chi-Square tests revealed there was no difference in the use of cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies, and the use of listening strategies between learners with some IDs, and the use of the strategies were in the same proportion. In other words, the sample of learners in different groups of age, gender, level of motivation, learning styles, and personality traits used these strategies not differently according to their IDs and all of them used cognitive strategies more than metacognitive and social/affective strategies. Even, the frequency of the use of social/affective strategies by the learners was zero. It means that none of the learners used social/affective strategies and metacognitive strategies were used just by 5% of the learners, with no differences according to their IDs. Also, in spite of individual differences of the learners, all of them used cognitive strategies more than metacognitive and social/affective strategies (95%).

Correlation between application of the strategies and individual differences of the learners (Research question 2)

In order to examine whether there is a relationship between the use of cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies in listening comprehension and the individual differences of the learners, Pearson product moment correlation was applied. The results show that there is a significant relationship between learners' level of motivation and the use of cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies (r = .276, p □ 0.01) and there is a negative correlation between the learners' age and motivation (r = -.284, p □ 0.01) but for other individual differences and the use of the listening comprehension strategies there was no relationships because p > 0.01(see table 1).

TABLE 1.
CORRELATION BETWEEN THE LISTENING COMPREHENSION STRATEGIES AND THE INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

	The listening comprehension strategies	Level of motivation	Gender	Learning styles	Personality traits
Level of motivation	0.276*	-	-0.117	-0.012	0.144
Age	-0.68	-0.284*	-0.61	-0.032	-0.088
Gender	0.81	-	-	-	0.01
Learning styles	-0.13	-	0.075	-	0.50
Personality traits	-0.73	-	-	-	-

*Show the existence significant relationship at the level of 0.01

Prediction of the listening strategies use by the learners' individual differences (Research question 3)

In order to analyze the data more, regression analysis was used. Regression analysis was used for proposing model, and the model predicts how much it can explain the variances in the dependant variable. In other words, it predicts which variables are important in predicting of the listening strategies (cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective). Our model explained 5.6% of the variance in the listening strategy use (Adjusted R^2=.56, p < 0.05) accounted for the independent variables. Moreover, the results revealed that only motivation and personality traits significantly predicted the use of the listening comprehension strategies. According to the table 2, motivation was the strongest predictor of the listening strategy use. It accounted for 29% of the variation (p □ 0.05), and it is significant unique contribution to the prediction of the listening strategy use.

TABLE 2.
THE RESULTS OF REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR LEARNERS LISTENING STRATEGY USE AND THEIR IDS

Predictors	T value	P	B
Age	0.012	0.904	0.011
Motivation	3.138	0.002	0.299
Learning styles	0.322	0.148	0.029
Personality traits	-1.458	0.748	-0.133
Gender	0.621	0.536	0.56

VI. DISCUSSION

All the three null hypothesizes expressed at the beginning and investigated empirically statistically supported. The results indicated that there was no difference in the use of cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies, and the use of listening strategies between learners with some IDs, and the use of the strategies were in the same proportion. The reason of such results may be due to the fact that the participants never instructed to use these strategies, especially cognitive and metacognitive strategies. In regard to social/affective strategies, the sympathy that should be existed between the learners and the teacher is not enough, so the learners may be shy or fear to ask their question from their classmates or teacher. Moreover, it can be said that the other reason of the result may be related to the learners' level of proficiency. As Liu (2008) realized that advanced listener use more combination of strategies, linguistic knowledge, and prior experiences.

In addition, the only variables, IDs, that related to the use of cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies of listening comprehension by the learners of this study was level of motivation, and it affects on the strategy use. To state the mater differently, higher motivated learners used these strategies more, and it had the highest correlation with the strategy selection (r =0.276, p □ 0.01). Rahimi et al (2008), also, revealed that there is a strong relationship between level of motivation and the use of strategies. This fact was also discovered by Oxford and Nyikos (1989) (Rahimi et al, 2008). It was also revealed that there is a negative relationship between the level of motivation and the age of the learners. It means that learners with lower age were more motivated, and the level of motivation related to the age of the learners.

Similarly, it was discovered that level of motivation was the best predictors of the selection of cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies which explained 29% of the variance in the strategy selection. So, it can be asserted that motivation is an important potential factor in an EFL context, and it can stimulate learners to persist both in L2 learning and possibly L2 listening comprehension. According to Dörnyei (2005), "motivation not only provides learners with driving force in language learning, but also can compensate for some personal or situational efficiencies faced by learners"(Peng, 2007).

So, in regard to the results of this study, teachers can teach EFL learners cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies in listening comprehension task regardless of their different personality traits, learning styles,

ages, gender, and want all of them to use   these strategies. In other words, these variables don't relate to the kind of these strategies selection, and as it was seen in the results, all the sample learners with the IDs used cognitive, metacognitive, social/affective strategies in a same proportion without any differences. But, as the last point, it should be said that much more researches need to be done in regard with individual differences and the kind of strategies that are used by learners, in a group with more students and other material of data collection.

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Allen Ginsberg and China

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Abstract—**After the Second World War, because of their dissatisfaction of the extreme materialism and industrialization and the indifference of the government, some American poets of the Beat Generation turned to the East, especially turning to China to learn the classical Chinese poetry and the philosophy of Lao Tzu and Chuang Tzu implied in the poetry, which advocates the harmonious relationship of human beings and the universe, and incorporated what they learned in their own poetry to stress humanity and harmony between man and nature. Allen Ginsberg is one of the most revered Beat poets. He is quite familiar with Chinese culture and has assimilated its essence into his own poems. Ginsberg not only uses the Chinese-style approach of image juxtaposition but exaggerates it to the most so as to express his indignation to the dirty society to his heart's content. The power of meditation of Buddhism and Ch'an has also transformed Ginsberg's poems from the angry "Howl" to the calm and tolerant "Wichita Vortex Sutra", and helped him reach the "beatific" spiritual realm.**

Index Terms—**classical Chinese poetry, the Beat Generation, Allen Ginsberg**

I. INTRODUCTION

Allen Ginsberg is one of the most respected and revered Beat writers. His works are definitely worth reading and worth researching as well even if the writers of this period are of little interest to certain readers.

Ginsberg was born in 1926 in Newark, New Jersey and received his B.A. from Columbia University in 1948. His father, Louis Ginsberg, was a socialist, but his mother, Naomi, belonged to the Communist Party. The long poem "Kaddish" expresses Ginsberg's deep affection to his mother and fury to the evil government which is responsible to Naomi's insaneness and death. Like Kenneth Rexroth and Gary Snyder, Ginsberg held a variety of odd jobs before becoming an established writer. He worked on various cargo ships, a spot welder, a dishwasher and he also worked as a night porter in Denver. He participated in numerous poetry readings, including the famous Six Gallery event that occurred in San Francisco.

In addition to the almost epic poem "Howl", Ginsberg has authored numerous books. Many of his writings were once interpreted as controversial and even obscene. The reading of "Howl" resulted in the arrest of Lawrence Ferlinghetti, the owner of City Lights Books, on obscenity charges. The authorities were angered by Ginsberg's openness towards his homosexuality as well as his graphic sexual language. Many of his other writings deal with subjects such as narcotics and his own experiences with them. However, many other prominent writers, including Jack Keroauc, William Carlos Williams, Kenneth Rexroth and Gary Snyder realized Ginsberg's importance. Ginsberg was greatly influenced by Kerouac and William Burroughs's spontaneous and carefree style and often worked in a stream of consciousness manner until he completed a work. Ginsberg was compared with the metaphysical poets, including William Blake, Thoreau, Emerson and Whitman. In addition to the greatest influence of William Carlos Williams (who respects Chinese culture too), Ginsberg's poetics and poems were also influenced by classical Chinese poems and thoughts.

In the early period of Ginsberg's writing, it was the desire to expand the mind and reach the spiritual that inspired Ginsberg to experiment with substances such as marijuana and Benzedrine. He claimed that many of his writings, including "Howl" were written while he was under the influence of drugs. Latter, under the influence of Ezra Pound, Kenneth Rexroth and Gary Snyder, he turned to the Eastern world, found his spiritual home in Buddhism, in Chinese Ch'an and Chinese poetics. As to how great the influence is, his own words in the poem "Improvisation in Beijing" written in China are most convincible:

I write poetry because Pound pointed young Western poets to look at Chinese writing word pictures.

…

I write poetry because young friend Gary Snyder sat to look at his thoughts as part of external phenomenal world just like a 1984 conference table.

…

I write poetry because this morning I woke trembling with fear what could I say in China?

…

I write poetry because Chuang –tzu couldn't tell whether he was butterfly or man, Lao-tzu said water flows downhill, Confucius said honor elders, I wanted to honor Whitman.

…

I write poetry because the Tibetan Lama guru says, "Things are symbols of themselves." (Ginsberg, 2001, p.204-207)

II. Exaggerated Image Juxtaposition

The poetic approach image juxtaposition, which originated in Chinese poems, is adopted by many western poets who are interested in classical Chinese poetry such as Ezra Pound, Kenneth Rexroth, Gary Snyder and others. Ginsberg is not only familiar with the translated Chinese poems by them, but also experienced the Chinese culture in person. He has read the classics of Chinese Buddhism and the works of Confucius, Lao Tuz, Chuang Tuz, etc. In addition to the poems of Li Po, Tu Fu, Su Tongpo, Wang Wei and Bai Juyi, the famous poets in the ancient China, he has read the works of modern Chinese poets such as Guo Moruo, Ai Qing, Shu Ting, and Bei Dao as well. Like Rexroth and Snyder, Ginsberg has also learned some Chinese verse skills such as image juxtaposition and employed them in his own poems.

He realized that Pound had achieved amazing effects through his ideogramic method. Fenollosa discovered that Eastern poets juxtaposed two events or observations to imply a relationship or insight which could not be separately stated. In all cases, the juxtaposition involves ellipsis—a pause or space between images in which something not literally shown or said is revealed. According to "Howl", "the alchemy of the use of the ellipse" permits "incarnate gaps in Time & Space through images juxtaposed" (Forster, 1992, p.103). So Ginsberg said he "tried to keep the language sufficiently dense in one way or another—use of primitive naïve grammar (expelled for crazy), elimination of prosey articles & syntactical sawdust, juxtaposition of cubist style images, or hot rhythm" (Forster, 1992, p.105). Of various means, perhaps the most important, aside from rhythm, is "the image juxtaposition". But just like his rebellious and innovative personality, he used the skill in an exaggerated way. It is known to all that in classical Chinese poems the poets always juxtapose some peaceful and beautiful images in nature to create mysterious and charming artistic senses. But in Ginsberg's poems, he juxtaposes many dirty and ugly images in the modern industrial society to create a kind of density and visual shock so as to arouse reader's antipathy to the modern civilization. The following poem "What the Sea Throws Up at Vlissingen——for Simon Vinkenoog" written on January 3, 1983 serves as a good example of this kind:

> Plastic& cellophane, milk cartons & yogurt containers, blue & orange shopping bag nets
> Clementine peels, paper sacks, feathers & kelp, bricks & sticks,
> Succulent green leaves & pine tips, waterbottles, plywood and tobacco pouches
> Coffee jartops, milkbottle caps, rice bags, blue rope, an old brown shoe, an onion skin
> Concrete chunks white pebbled, sea biscuits, detergent squeezers, bark and boards, a whisk-brush, a box top
> Formula A Dismantling Spray-can, a whole small brown onion, a yellow cup
> A boy with two canes walking the shore, a dead gull, a blue running shoe,
> A shopping bag handle, lemon half, celery bunch, a cloth net—
> Cork bottletop, grapefruit, rubber glove, wet firework tubes,
> Masses of iron-brown-tinted seaweed along the high water mark near the sea wall,
> A plastic car fender, green helmet broken in half, giant hemp rope knot, tree trunk stripped of bark,
> A wooden stake, a bucket, myriad plastic bottles, pasta Zara pack,
> A long gray plastic oildrum, bandage roll, glass bottle, tin can, Christmas pine tree
> A rusty iron pipe, me and my peepee. (Ginsberg, 2001, p.170-171)

Ginsberg makes a list of all the objects he saw on the shore of Vlissingen. The entire poem just juxtaposes these images in block omitting the conjunctional words, even without any complete sentence or explanation. In this way, the poem leaves much space for readers to fill by their own interpretation. While reading this poem, readers tend to be shocked by the sight of the sea full of garbage created by modern people and realize how seriously the environment is polluted and how evil the people are. Just like Gary Snyder's ecologic poems, the poem can also arouse people's consciousness of environmental protection. Meanwhile, the poem is also permeated with the breath of death. "A boy with two canes walking the shore, a dead gull" shows the damage on human beings and other creatures made by the modern industrial civilization and presents the dying of the conscience and virtue of mankind in a society which is controlled by machines.

In "Howl" the juxtapositions, like the rhythms, are generally violent. Much of the surreal quality of the poem derives from these extreme contrasts, giving it an obvious political force and suggesting regions of awareness that are not open to strict analysis or explanation. Any explanation, of course, deadens the power of the line. The poet must never state, in Ginsberg's words, the "relations themselves, just the images" (Forster, 1992, p.105). The effect is then direct, immediate—emotional as well as conceptual. "It is a visceral approach to poetry," Paul Portuges (1980) has written, "in which the mind rejects its own rational sensibility and undergoes a kind of organic alteration" (p.448).

III. The Transformation from "Howl" to Meditation

Allen Ginsberg, like Kenneth Rexroth, is an anarchist. He criticizes the politics, the government and the modern industrial civilization with his angry "Howl". For Ginsberg, following Kerouac, the only authority was the authority of the individual. All tyrannies, all ideologies should be swept away by what Ginsberg called "the supernatural extra brilliant intelligent kindness of the soul!" in "Howl". Louis Ginsberg, Allen's father, earned his living as a high school English teacher, but he was also a poet. Although he was associated with some of the more experimental and innovative writers of his time, his own work was relatively conservative. Ginsberg's early poems were in a traditional style because

of the influence of his father. But soon after his entrance in Columbia University, he changed to expose the reality and his own thoughts and view on life and politics in his own way because he believes "First thought, best thought." "In Society" written in the spring of 1947 cries out his angry about the society when he first stepped into it:

More company came, including a
Fluffy female who looked like
A princess. She glared at me and
Said immediately: "I don't like you,"
Turned her head away, and refused
To be introduced. I said, "What!"
In outrage. "Why you shit-faced fool!"
This got everybody's attention.
"Why you narcissistic bitch! How
can you decide when you don't even
know me," I continued in a violent
and messianic voice, inspired at
last, dominating the whole room. (Ginsberg, 2001, p.4)

Many of Ginsberg's poems contain a war theme. Subjects such as the Nazi gas chambers and Viet Nam are the topics of many of his poems. In his "Anti-Vietnam War Peace Mobilization" written on May 9, 1970, he also used the skill of image juxtaposition and non-English style sentences to express his antipathy to the war and the government:

White sunshine on sweating skulls
Washington's Monument pyramided high granite clouds

……

assembled before White House filled with mustached Germans
& police buttons, army telephones, CIA Buzzers, FBI bugs
Secret Service walkie-talkies, Intercom squawkers to Narco
Fuzz & Florida Mafia Real Estate Speculators. (Ginsberg, 2001, p.131)

In both Western and Eastern literature history, many poets turn to religion to search for the rest home of spiral when they get old. Ginsberg is no exception and became interested in Buddhism. Buddhism, the ancient and highly philosophical Asian tradition, is the religion of the Beats. It began to influence the lives of the major New York Beat writers in the mid-1950's, Kerouac and Ginsberg began their studies by reading books in libraries, but when they migrated to California they began integrating the religion into their lives, inspired by Gary Snyder and Kenneth Rexroth. In the early 1960s, he went to Eastern countries such as India to visit the famous Buddhist and learn Buddhism. In 1972, he took Buddhism as his religion. When he visited China in 1984, he enjoyed reading the poems by Bai Juyi because he found they had common sentiment in Ch'an Buddhism. Bai Juyi engaged himself with Ch'an and many of his poems contain the spirit and thoughts of Ch'an. "Reading *wakas* while free, facing incense while meditating. (闲吟四句偈，静对一炉香)" is the self-portraiture of Bai Juyi's own meditation of Ch'an. Ginsberg wrote a long poem named "Reading Bai Juyi" in China, which may show his respect to this great ancient Chinese poet. In the latter part this will be discussed further.

Many of Ginsberg's other poems in the late period take as their subject Buddhist Meditation and ideas. "Wichita Vortex Sutra" is a meditation on evil of war in America. Instead of cursing the war and the government, Ginsberg calls for love, calls for the beautiful things. But the war destroys them, so people like Ginsberg thinks in tears about how to speak the right language on the frosty broad road in the time of the war and to stop the evil of the war. The poem goes like this:

……

we call Love, want and lack--
fear that we aren't the one whose body could be
beloved of all the brides of Kansas City,
kissed all over by every boy of Wichita--
O but how many in their solitude weep aloud like me--
On the bridge over the Republican River
almost in tears to know
how to speak the right language--
on the frosty broad road
uphill between highway embankments
I search for the language
that is also yours--
almost all our language has been taxed by war. (Ginsberg, 2004)

Instead of angry howl, Ginsberg shows his meditation in the poem. His sectary Bob Rosenthal said, while America fell into chaos and outrage due to the Viet Nam war, Ginsberg's poems became meditated and gentle in contrast and became a method of controlling anger and enhancing the understanding of mind and spirit. Ginsberg also expresses his

rage in "Wichita Vortex Sutra", but unlike in "Howl", he hides the rage behind the calm and rational meditation.

IV. THE POEMS WRITTEN IN CHINA

Allen Ginsberg had yearned towards Chinese culture for a long time. He attempted many times to visit China. But due to the historical reasons in the period and his "notoriety" of homosexual and "mortal corruption", his journey to China was delayed until 1984. He came to this mystic ancient Eastern land eagerly even without his lifelong boyfriend's company, who always companied Ginsberg everywhere but was turned down by the Chinese embassy that time. In the autumn of 1984, Ginsberg visited China as a member of an American writer mission together with Gary Snyder for about two months. And after the other members of the mission went back to America, he stayed in China by himself for some time to have more communication with contemporary Chinese writers and a spiritual dialogue with great ancient Chinese poets. Meanwhile he went to many universities in Beijing, Shanghai, Baoding and Guiling to read and instruct his own poems and other western poets'. He received warm welcome from Chinese readers and students. In the period, he wrote more than ten poems, including "One Morning I Took a Walk in China", "Reading Bai Juyi", "Improvisation in Beijing", "I Love Old Whitman So", "Black Shroud", etc. In these poems Ginsberg depicts his endearment of China and its profound culture. And the poems have been praised as opening a window for western readers to understand China.

"One Morning I Took a Walk in China" records what Ginsberg saw when he was walking on Chinese streets in a morning. The poem draws vivid pictures of the daily life of Chinese people in the early 1980s without any comments. But there is a stream of peaceful thoughts floating under the plain words and common things the words record.

A white headed barber shook out his ragged towel, mirror hung on red nail in the brick wall

Where a student sat, black hair clipped at ears straight across the back of his neck

Soft-formed gritty coal pellets lay drying on the sidewalk and down the factory alley, more

black mats spread,

Long green cabbages heaped by the buildingside waiting for home pot, or stacked on

hand-tractor carts the market verandah a few yards away—

Leeks in a pile, bright orange carrots thick & rare, green unripe tomatoes, parsley, thin celery

stalks awful cheap, potatoes & fish—(Ginsberg, 2001, p.184)

Unlike the modern industrial urban life, the peaceful and simple life of Chinese people impressed Ginsberg's deeply and brought him a feeling of great intimacy. The picture of "A white headed barber shook out his ragged towel, mirror hung on red nail in the brick wall" is even hardly to see in China nowadays and can arouse our sweet memory of the simple but intimate early life, let alone a foreign visitor and poet. Maybe he also wants his country's life to return to those old days filled with great ease and little evil. Maybe at the time he remembered one of Bai Juyi's pastoral "Village in Night (村夜)", which unfolds a similar peaceful rural scene before us:

霜草苍苍虫切切，村南村北行人绝。

独出门前望野田，月明荞麦花如雪。

(Grass frosty, insects chittering

No passerby seen north or south of the village

Stepping out of home alone, watching the wild field

The bright moonlight, the buckwheat, and its snowy flowers.)

Also, in the poem "One Morning I Took a Walk in China" Ginsberg juxtaposes the common but fresh images such as "long green cabbages", "leeks", "bright orange carrots", "green unripe tomatoes, parsley, thin celery stalks awful cheap, potatoes & fish", etc. , which contain his affection to the life and create a serene artistic sense.

"Reading Bai Juyi" can be regarded as the most important poem among those written by Ginsberg in China. It is a long poem consisting of seven short sub-poems. It records Ginsberg's surgy feeling when he was reading the translated anthology of Bai Juyi poems "in a room with electric heat—A rare commodity in this country" ("Reading Bai Juyi") of a hotel in Shanghai.

As one of Ginsberg's most admired ancient Chinese poets, Bai Juyi (772-846) is one of the most famous poets in middle T'ang Dynasty. He was born in a poor family. Because of offending some dignitaries he was demoted to "Jiangzhou Si Ma" (a lower rank of official title) and sent to a remote area. Influenced by Ch'an poets Han-shan and Wang Fanzhi, who was a representative poet of vulgar poem school in the early period of T'ang Dynasty, his poetry is simple and straightaway with plain words and most of his poems reveal the luxurious life of the dignitaries and show his sympathy to the common people who were experiencing hardship. He believed in Ch'an Buddhism all his life. Many of his poems are permeated with the Buddhist thoughts. When he was demoted to be the governor of Hangzhou he wrote this poem to show his contempt towards earthly praise and insult:

置怀齐宠辱，委顺随心止。

我自得此心，于兹十年矣。

(Caring nothing about honor or disgrace

Which goes as it comes

Ten years have gone

Since the truth I have got.)

When Ginsberg was "Lying head on pillow aching" and "Still reading poems of Tang roads" ("Reading Bai Juyi"), he thought about his own unlucky experience, his antipathy to the administrative government and the vagabond life of the Beat Generation as expressed in the following:

Something Bai said made me press my finger

To my eyes and weep-maybe his love

For an old poet friend, for I also

Have gray on my cheek and bald head (Ginsberg, 2001, p.196)

At the same time, he was also dwelling on the questions about Buddhism and Ch'an meditation— "That So-Chan meditation's frowned on and martial health / Qi-Gong's approved by Marxist theoreticians" — although he didn't believe there was an afterworld after his death:

I don't believe in an afterworld of good or even

another life separate from this incarnation

Still I worry I'll be punished for my carelessness

After I'm dead—my poems scattered and my name

Forgotten and my self reborn a foolish workman

Freezing and breaking rocks on a roadside in Hebei. (Ginsberg, 2001, p.195)

"Since all of earthly trifles are nothing after my death / my poems scattered and my name forgotten / why not spending the life on a boat below a stone bridge for a thousand years like Jiang Ji?" —

…That down the alley

From the stone bridge at Suzhou where Jiang Ji spent

A sleepless night wakened by the bell of Cold Mountain Temple,

Water lapping against his boat a thousand years ago,

A teahouse stands with two-stringed violin and flutes

And wooden stage.   (Ginsberg, 2001, p.195)

The eremitic life of the ancient Chinese poets, the boat, the two-stringed violin, the flutes and wooden stage—all of these intensified Ginsberg's affection for Chinese culture, and he even was not willing to go back to his country if there was no compulsory returning because of his homosexuality, which could not be accepted in China at that time.

In the last part of "Reading Bai Juyi", he imitates Bai Juyi's poem "A Night in Xingyang (《信阳一夜》) to summarize his fifty-eight-years life and express his understanding of life that all things would disappear, only river flows "as they did before":

I grew up in Paterson New Jersey and was

Just a virginal kid when I left

Forty years ago. Now I'm around the world,

But I did go back recently to visit my stepmother.

Then I was 16 years old, now I'm fifty eight—

All the fears I had in those days—I can still see myself

Daydreaming reading N.Y. Times on the Chinese rug on the living room

Floor on Graham avenue. My childhood houses are torn down,

None of my old family lives here any more,

Mother under the ground in Long Island, father underground

Near the border of Newark where he was born.

A highway cuts thru the Fair Street lot where I remember our earliest

Apartment, & a little girl's first kiss. New buildings rise on that street,

All the old stores along Broadway have disappeared.

Only the Great Falls and the Passaic River flow

Noisy with mist then quietly along brick factory sides

As they did before. (Ginsberg, 2001, p.200-201)

V. CONCLUSION

The definition of the Beat Generation in *Reader's Digest Illustrated Encyclopedic Dictionary* (1987) offers a powerful support to the theme of this paper: "In the 1950's, a group of young Americans, including Jack Kerouac, Allen Ginsberg, and William Burroughs, who expressed disillusionment with Western values and turned for inspiration to Eastern religion, trying experimental literary forms and adopting a bohemian lifestyle" (p.158).

Allen Ginsberg, as well as other poets and writers of the Beat Generation, have found their last home for their anchorless heart in the classical Chinese poems and the Chinese thoughts and philosophy. And through their poems the essence of Chinese culture is also accepted and understood by many other Western people and influences their thoughts and life as well.

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Information Structure in Persian: A Comparison of Systemic Functional Grammar & Role and Reference Grammar

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Abstract—The aim of this paper is to compare the approaches to Persian information structure in two functional theories: Systemic Functional Grammar & Role and Reference Grammar. By selecting 400 data from scientific and educational texts, stories and newspapers we have analyzed the relationship between information structure in one hand, and phonology, semantics, morphology and syntax in another hand based on Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar & VanValin's Role and Reference Grammar. Also, advantages and disadvantages of the mentioned approaches in relation to information structure are investigated. After discussing what is meant by information distribution in each theory, we examine the classification of focus in each approach. Finally the obtained results of Persian data show that the relationship between information structure in one hand and phonology, semantics, morphology and syntax in another hand is not regular and rule-governed. Moreover, studies represent despite the different analytical methods and the shortcomings of each theory, the obtained outcomes in the framework of these two approaches have some in common because of similarity in functional nature of the both.

Index Terms—information structure, Systemic Functional Grammar, Role and Reference Grammar

I. INTRODUCTION

The study of information structure goes back to the beginnings of modern linguistics, to the work of the Czech linguist Mathesius in the 1920s. In recent years advances in understanding how information structure affects syntactic structure have been made by Firbas (1964,1974), Halliday (1967,1985), Kuno (1972), Chafe (1976,1987), Prince (1981,1992), Givon (1984), Lambrecht (1986,1987,1994), Vallduvi (1990,1992), Dryer (1996), VanValin & Lapolla (1997), and others. Nowadays, information structure is one of the crucial subjects in linguistics. In spite of accepting such structure by linguists, they do not have common ideas about the description of this structure and the determination of its categories. The two theories under scrutiny in the present paper Systemic Functional Grammar & Role and Reference Grammar, all make use of the concept of information structure. The continuity of such researches will provide researchers, trainers, and practitioners with valuable findings in comparing the approaches to information structure in two theories, more understanding the nature and application of information structure in Persian, codifying the comprehensive Persian grammar, decoding the complications of discourse comprehension in Persian, and making the opportunity for other discourse-based researches in Persian. The findings of this paper can be helpful for any research such as (translation, discourse analysis, Persian teaching to non-native speakers …). We shall first look at what is meant by information distribution and classification of focus in each theory. We shall find that in general SFG and RRG have some in common. We then examine data which highlight the similarities and differences, in order to assess the advantages and disadvantages of different approaches. In this research, by selecting 400 data from scientific and educational texts, stories and newspapers we have analyzed the relationship between information structure in one hand, and phonology, semantics, morphology and syntax in another hand. Information structure in both theories of SFG and RRG involves so much unsaid. The authors believe that using the outcomes of each approach can be helpful in completion of shortcomings of each one. The importance of information structure is in making correlation among syntax, semantics and pragmatics. SFG and RRG as a universal functional theories are able to analyze and justify Persian grammatical subjects from new viewpoint.

II. WHAT IS MEANT BY INFORMATION DISTRIBUTION?

A. Information Distribution in SFG

The approach to information structuring taken in SFG derives from Prague school ideas, but with one particularly

important difference. Whereas Mathesius writes of Theme as …that which is known or at least obvious in the given situation and from which the speaker proceeds (translated in Firbas, 1964, p. 268).

Halliday separates out two strands of meaning, each corresponding to one half of the Mathesius definition: 'that which is known or at least obvious in a given situation' is given information (information that is presented by the speaker as recoverable […] to the listener' (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 91) rather than new information (presented as non-recoverable), while that 'from which the speaker proceeds' is what is regarded as the Theme in SFG. Thus, the given / new distinction is listener-oriented, while the Theme / Rheme distinction is speaker-oriented (Halliday and matthiesen, 2004, p. 93).

Information focus, as defined in SFG, is concerned only with the given / new distinction encoded in prosodic phonology. An information unit can consist wholly of new information, though more usually there is some given information to act as an established background against which the new material is presented. Thus, the information unit is made up of an obligatory element with the function New and an optional element with the function Given (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 89). The element in the tone group bearing the main pitch movement (tonic prominence) is seen as carrying information focus, characterised by Halliday as follows:

Information focus reflects the speaker's decision as to where the main burden of the message lies. It is one of the many diverse phenomena referred to by speakers of English as 'emphasis'; […] information focus is one kind of emphasis, that whereby the speaker marks out a part (which may be the whole) of a message block as that which he wishes to be interpreted as informative. What is focal is 'new' information; not in the sense that it cannot have been previously mentioned, although it is often the case that it has not been, but in the sense that the speaker presents it as not being recoverable from the preceding discourse (Halliday, 1967, p. 204).

B. Information Distribution in RRG

The account of information structuring given in RRG (Van Valin & Lapolla, 1997) is based on the work of Lambrecht, who makes a distinction which has important consequences for the treatment of information distribution:

… a distinction between (i) the pragmatic states of the denotata of individual sentence constituents in the minds of the speech participants, and (ii) the pragmatic relations established between these referents and the propositions in which they play the role of predicates or arguments. It is the establishment of such pragmatic relations that makes information possible (Lambrecht, 1996, p. 49).

The 'old' information is the set of assumptions evoked by the understanding the utterance. We will now refer to this set of assumptions as the 'pragmatic presupposition' or just 'presupposition'. The part of the assertion which is not within the pragmatic presupposition we will call the 'focus' or 'focus of the assertion'; it is the part that is unpredictable or unrecoverable from the context (Van Valin & Lapolla, 1997, p. 202).

III. CLASSIFICATION OF FOCUS

A. Classification of Focus in SFG

In SFG the only classification of focus presented is between marked and unmarked information focus. SFG would classify the information focus in each tone group as unmarked, since it occurs on the last content item. If there is a focused non-deictic adjunct in final position in a tone group, SFG will treat this as an example of unmarked information focus. Since the intonational prominence is not on the last lexical word in the tone group, so that SFG must treat it as a marked information focus.

B. Classification of Focus in RRG

The classification of focus in RRG (Van Valin & Lapolla, 1997, PP. 206-210) is as shown in Figure 1.

Predicate focus represents the unmarked type and corresponds to the type of structure often referred to as topic-comment. Sentence focus is as a case of an 'all new' predication, there being no topic and indeed no pragmatic presupposition, the point of the sentence being to present a new situation. Narrow focus picks out a single clause constituent. According to Van Valin and Lapolla (1997, p. 209), narrow focus can be unmarked or marked, depending on its position with respect to the syntactic structure. In RRG, the syntactic structure of the clause is represented in terms of core and periphery. The core consists of the nucleus, containing the predicate, while periphery contains adjuncts and any non-central arguments. The unmarked position for focus in English is the last element of the core, which of course need not be the last element of the clause, if there are also post-core peripheral elements.

(1) a) Mâšinat chi šode?
    b) Mâšinam **xarâb šode**.   (Predicate focus)
(2) a) Chi šode?
    b) **Mâšinam xarâb šode.**   (Sentence focus)
(3) a) Mâšinat xarâb šode?
    b) Na, **motoram** xarâb šode.   (Narrow focus)

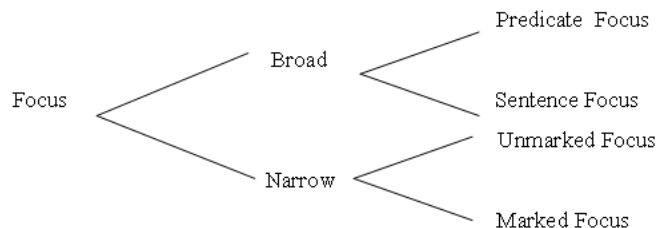Figure 1. Classification of focus in RRG.

IV.   DATA ANALYSIS IN SFG

1) Data analysis based on SFG shows that information structure is determined by the thematic structure. That is to say that, information status of theme/rheme is evaluated with respect to each other. For example, it can be a clause which its theme is older/newer than its rheme and visa versa. Therefore, having old/new information is a relative and gradable concept. Since the mapping of theme/rheme structure on old/new information in the Persian sentence has a high frequency, therefore, such structure is unmarked, whereas the mapping of theme/rheme on old/old information has a low frequency and this is a marked structure.
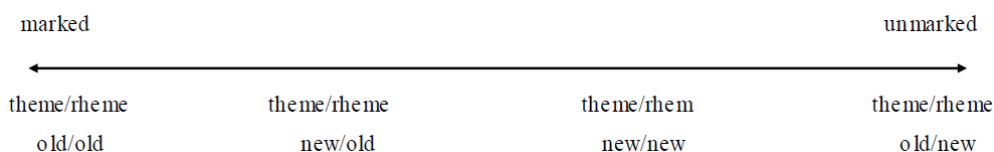
2) Statistical results (Table I) show that 72.33% of the theme/rheme structures have old/new information and 21.72% of them contain new/new information. Moreover, 4.03% of the theme/rheme structures have new/old information and just 1.92% of them have old/old information.

TABLE I.
FREQUENCY OF INFORMATION STRUCTURE IN THE THEME/RHEME DOMAIN

Thematic structure / Information structure	Theme/Rheme	Percentage (%)
old/new	413	72.33
new/new	124	21.72
new/old	23	4.03
old/old	11	1.92

3) In the theme and rheme domains, verbs contain focal stress with 37.08%, direct objects 23.84%, adverbs and adjuncts 16.78%, Wh–questions 13.69%, indirect objects 6.84% and subjects 1.77% (Figure 2).
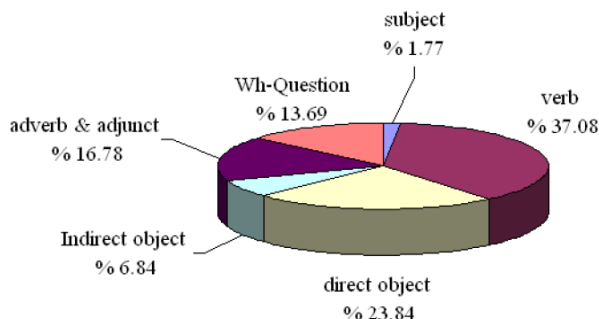
Figure 2 . Frequency of focal stress in the theme/rheme structure

4) In the theme domain with the old and new information, there are arguments (internal and external) with high frequency and there is not any predicate in this domain. In the rheme domain with the old information, there are predicates with 53.49% and arguments with 46.51%. In the rheme domain with the new information, the frequencies of predicates and arguments are 70.20% and 29.80% respectively.

5) The frequencies of lexical categories in the old theme domain are as follows: nouns with 88.72%, adjectives

6.29% and adverbs 4.99%. In the new theme domain, nouns contain 65%, adjectives 17.5%, adverbs 12% and Wh-questions 5.5%. In the old rheme domain, there are nouns with 54.24%, verbs 33.90%, adjectives 10.17% and adverbs 1.69%. In the new rheme domain, the frequency of nouns is 40.25%, verbs 38.07%, adjectives 13.20%, adverbs 7.83% and Wh-questions 0.65%.

6) In the theme/rheme domains with old/new information, the frequency of (Subject-Verb) is 53.63%, (Subject-Object-verb) 40.90%, (Object-verb) 3.60%, (Subject-verb-Object) 1.03% and (Object-Subject-Verb) 0.84%. In the theme/rheme domains with new/old information, the frequency of (Subject-Verb) is 33.33%, (Subject-Object-Verb) and (Object-Subject-Verb) each one 25%, (Object-Verb) 16.67%. In the theme/rheme domains with new/new information, (Subject-Verb) has 75.97% frequency, (Subject-Object-Verb) 16.27%, (Object-Verb) 5.43%, (Object-Subject-Verb) 1.55% and (Subject-Verb-Object) 0.78%. In the most marked types of information structure that is old/old in the theme/rheme domains, the frequency of (Subject-Verb) is 60 % and (Subject-Object-Verb) 40% (Figure 3).

V. DATA ANALYSIS IN RRG

1) The analysis of data based on RRG shows that determination of information structure in each clause depends on thematic structure of it. It means that the information status of the theme and rheme is evaluated with respect to each other. It can be stated that making presupposition and focus in the theme and rheme are evaluated in comparison with each other; therefore, they are relative and gradable concepts. Thus, there are four types of focus structure for sentences.

2) Also, markedness in relation to information structure is relative and gradable. It is possible to show all kinds of focus structures on markedness continuum. Since predicate-focus structures have 73.10% frequency so they are unmarked. There are Sentence-focus and unmarked narrow-focus structures with 21.95% and 0.88% frequencies respectively. Marked narrow-focus structures have 2.12% frequencies and the frequency of non-focus structures is 1.95% (Table II).

3) The study findings reveal that 30.50 % of the predicate-focus structures are topic-prominent and 69.50% of them are subject-prominent. In sentence-focus structures, the frequency of topic-prominence sentences is 43.55% and subject-prominence is 56.45%. In unmarked narrow-focus structures, the frequency of topic-prominent is 60% and subject-prominent is 40%. In marked narrow-focus structures, the frequencies of topic-prominent and subject-prominent sentences are 33.33% and 66.67% respectively. In non-focus structures, the frequency of topic-prominent sentences is 18.18% and subject-prominent is 81.81%. Wholly, Persian tendency to subject-prominent sentences is more than topic-prominent ones. Thus, 66.55% of the sentences are subject-prominent and 33.45% of them are topic-prominent.
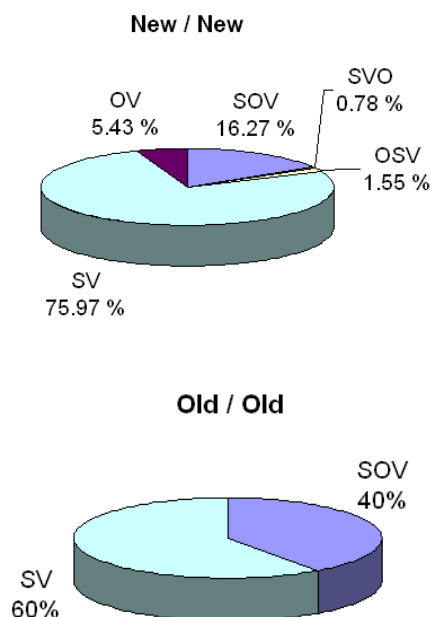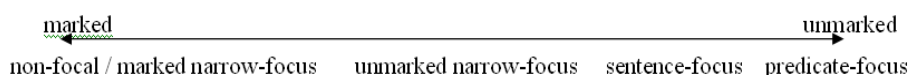
Old / New

OV
3.60 %

SOV
40.90 %

SV
53.63 %

SVO
1.03 %

OSV
0.84 %

New / Old

OV
16.67 %

SOV
25 %

SV
33.33 %

OSV
25 %
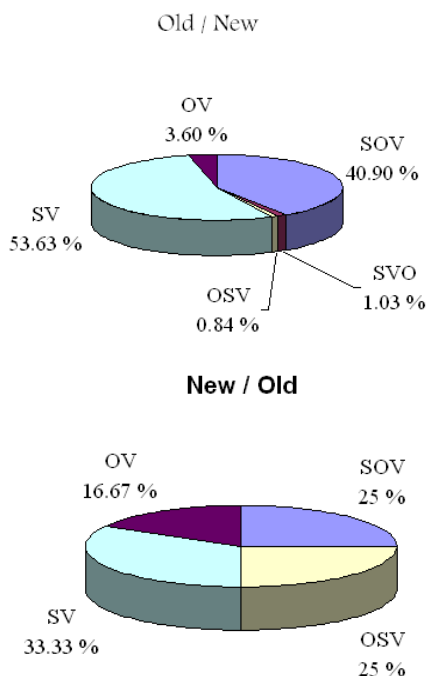
Figure 3 . Frequency of word order in the theme/rheme structure

TABLE II.
FREQUENCY OF FOCUS STRUCTURE

Focus structure	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Predicate-focus	413	73.10
Sentence-focus	124	21.95
Unmarked narrow-focus	5	0.88
Marked narrow-focus	12	2.12
Non-focus	11	1.95
total	565	100

4) Persian is a discourse-configurational language only with respect to topics. Since in Persian, topic is considered the first constituent of the sentence, therefore, it can be stated that topic is specified by word order and Persian is a topic-prominent language.

5) Persian shows that word order is flexible and the constituent structuring is relatively free. Since the entire main clause in Persian can be located in potential focus domain, therefore, it will be considered a discourse-non-configurational language with respect to foci and all the constituents can be focus potentially. Sentence focus depends on word order, stress place and morphology in Persian. The possibility of having focus in all constituents rejects the predictability of stress place. Thus, the place of sentence stress is not regular and rule-governed.

6) The results show that in the predicate-focus structures, the frequency of verbs containing focal stress is 49.01%, direct objects 26.33%, indirect objects 7.09%, adverbs and adjuncts 15.70% and Wh-questions 1.78%. In the sentence-focus domain, verbs contain focal stress with 46.52%, direct and indirect objects respectively 28.4% and 8.53%, adverbs and adjuncts 10.85%, Wh–questions 3.93% and subjects 1.77%. In the unmarked narrow-focus domain, direct and indirect objects contain focal stress with 63.94% and 36.06% respectively. In the marked narrow-focus domain, the frequencies of subjects, adverbs and adjuncts are 21.14% and 78.86%.

7) In predicate focus structure, the frequencies of predicates and arguments (internal and external) are 70.82% and 29.18% respectively. Whereas in sentence focus structures, the frequencies of predicates and arguments are 48.57% and 51.43%. It can be stated that in unmarked and marked narrow-focus structures, there are arguments with 100% frequency and are not any predicates.

8) To the frequency of lexical categories in the predicate-focus domain, there are nouns with 40.75% frequency, verbs 35.07%, adjectives 14.70%, adverbs 13.89% and Wh-questions 0.8%. In the sentence-focus domain, the frequency of nouns is 33.08%, verbs 32.57%, adjectives 17.43%, adverbs 13.89% and Wh-questions 3.03%. In the unmarked narrow-focus domain, the frequency of nouns is 100%. In the marked narrow-focus domain, we have nouns and adverbs with 21.14% and 78.86% frequencies.

9) In the predicate-focus domain, the frequency of (Subject-Verb) is 58.52%, (Subject-Object-verb) 37.78%, (Object-verb) 3.20%, (Subject-verb-Object) and (Object-Subject-Verb) each one 0.25%. In the sentence-focus, the
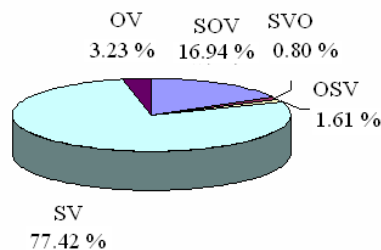
frequency of (Subject-Verb) is 77.42%, (Subject-Object-Verb) 16.94%, (Object-Subject-Verb) 1.61%, (Object-Verb) 3.23% and (Subject-Verb-Object) 0.80%. In unmarked narrow-focus domain, (Subject-Object-Verb) has 20% frequency, (Object-Verb) and (Subject-Verb) each one with 40%. In the marked narrow-focus domain, the frequency of (Subject-Verb) is 75%, (Subject-Object-Verb) 8.33% and (Object-Subject-Verb) 16.67% (Figure 4).
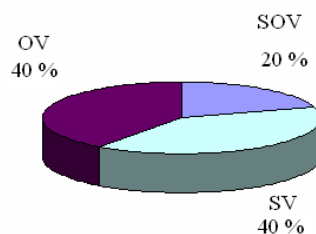
Predicate-Focus

OV
3.2 %
SOV
37.78 %
SV
58.52 %
OSV
0.25 %
SVO
0.25 %

Sentence-focus

OV   SOV   SVO
3.23 %   16.94 %   0.80 %
OSV
1.61 %
SV
77.42 %

Unmarked narrow-focus

SOV
20 %
OV
40 %
SV
40 %

Marked narrow-focus

SOV
8.33 %
OSV
16.67 %
SV
75 %
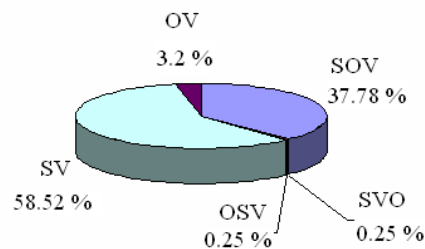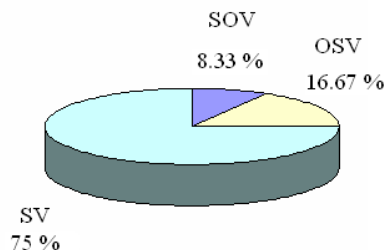
Figure 4. Frequency of word order in the focus structure

VI. CONCLUSION

After conducting a statistical analysis, it was found that information structure in both theories of SFG and RRG has so much unsaid. The authors believe that using the outcomes of each approach can be helpful in completion of each one's shortcomings. SFG and RRG as a universal functional theories are able to analyze and justify Persian grammatical matters from new viewpoint. Also, studies represent that relationship between information structure in one hand and phonology, semantics, morphology and syntax in another hand is not regular and rule-governed. Despite the different

analytical method and the shortcomings of each theory, the obtained outcomes in the framework of these two approaches have some in common because of similarity in functional nature of the both. Intonation, word order, morphology and focusing on co-text and context as an independent variables affect on information structure. In Persian, Stress, Morphology, word order or combination of these features are influential factors in markedness of information structure. Persian shows that any phonetic and semantic prominence can be the focus of sentence in this language. Because of scrambling and relatively free word order in this language, each constituent can be located as a sentence focus. Thus, the predictability pattern of stress and sentence focus in Persian faces difficulties. It is so difficult to draw a strict line between configurational / non-configurational languages in one hand and discourse configurational / discourse non-configurational languages in another hand. Therefore, this categorization should be considered hierarchically. In one hand Persian is located in the middle of this continuum syntactically and is considered a relatively non-configurational language, in another hand it is at the end of the continuum on the basis of focus structure and it is a non-configurational language.

APPENDIX A.   SAMPLES OF SFG ANALYSIS

Thematic structure / Sample	Theme	Rheme
1	Agar ø ø	**bexâhim tasviri az chehreye "zabânshenâsiye nazariye" emruz tarsim konim** **mitavânim be jor?at az se negareše mosallat dar in rešte soxan beguyim.**
2	In se negareš	**dar vâqhe se tafakkore qâleb dar zabânšenâsiye nazariye emruz-and,**
3	Be in ta?bir ke har kodâm	**tarafdârân va hâmiyâne qâlebe molâhezeyi râjazb nemude ast,**
4	**Be tori ke gruh- haye zabânšenâsi, ketâb-hâ, maqâle-hâ, resâle-hâ, majalle-hâ va hamâyesh-hâye elmi**	omdatan be mo?arrefi, paŽuheš va našre ârâ va afkâre naš?at gerefte az in negâreš-ha mipardâzand.
5	In negâreš- hâye mosallat	**ebâratand az: "zabânšenâsiye suratgarâ", "zabânšenâsiye naqšgara", "zabânšenâsiye šenâxti".**
6	Har yek az in negareš-hâ **Ke fasle moštarake ân-hâ**	**zirmajmu?e-hâyi râšâmel mišavad** **be tartib ebârat ast az talaqiye zabân be onvâne "nezâmi sâxt bonyân va riyâzi gune", "nezâmi barâye ijâde ertebât", va "nezâmi šenâxti.**
7	Be bayâni digar, in se negareš	**dar vâqe? se ruykard be zabân-and**
8	Be in ma?ni ke ø	**az se manzare moxtalef zabân râ ta?rif karde**
9	Va ø	**morede motâle?e qarâr dâde-and.**

APPENDIX B.   SAMPLES OF RRG ANALYSIS

Focus structure / Sample	Predicate-focus	Sentence-focus	Unmarked narrow-focus	Marked narrow focus
1	**Agar bexâhim tasviri az chehreye "zabânšenasiye nazariye" emruz tarsim konim** mitavânim be jor?at az se negareše mosallat dar in rešte soxan beguyim.			
2	In se negareš dar vâqe? <u>se tafakkore qâleb</u> dar zabânšenâsiye nazariye emruz-and,			
3	Be in ta?bir ke har kodâm tarafdârân va hâmiyâne qâlebe molâhezeyi râjazb nemude ast,			
4	Be tori ke gruh-haye zabânšenâsi, ketâb-hâ, maqâle-hâ, resâle-hâ, majalle-hâ va hamâyesh-hâye elmi omdatan be mo?arrefi, paŽuheš va našre ârâ va afkâre naš?at gerefte az in negareš-hâ mipardâzand.			
5	In negareš- hâye mosallat **ebâratand az: "zabânšenâsiye suratgarâ", "zabânšenâsiye naqšgarâ", "zabânšenâsiye šenâxti".**			
6	Har yek az in negareš-hâ **zirmajmu?e-hâyi râšâmel mišavad**			
7	Be bayâni digar, in <u>se negareš</u> dar vaqe? se ruykard be zabân-and			
8	Be in ma?ni ke az <u>se manzare moxtalef</u> zabân râ ta?rif karde			
9	**Va morede motâle?e qarâr dâde-and.**			

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  o Submission of extended version
  o Notification of acceptance
  o Final submission due
  o Time to deliver final package to the publisher

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