

Theory and Practice in Language Studies

ISSN 1799-2591

Volume 2, Number 5, May 2012

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Bridging Instructional Gaps in Preparing to Teach Millennial Language Learners

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Abstract—The United States Department of State issued a call for the need for “highly qualified” foreign/world language teachers in “critical need languages.” Three languages that fall into this category are Arabic, Chinese, and Russian. In response to this call our teacher education program has actively sought ways to comply by providing multiple pathways and opportunities to fill the paucity of teachers in these three languages. This paper is the third study conducted at our university examining carefully structured learning sequences including face-to-face and online blended communities of practice that provide critical methodological training in transitioning teachers to learner-centered instruction for today’s millennial learners. This study addressed the needs of 20 critical need language teacher participants in helping them bridge instructional gaps in preparing to teach millennial learners. Results indicated that teachers’ notions about teaching were greatly influenced by their own cultural and experiential backgrounds.

Index Terms—teacher education, millennial learners, critical need language teachers, professional development, teacher identity

I. INTRODUCTION

The United States Department of State issued a call for the need for “highly qualified” foreign/world language teachers in “critical need languages.” Three languages that fall into this category are Arabic, Chinese, and Russian. In response to this call our teacher education program has diligently sought ways to respond by providing multiple pathways and opportunities to fill the paucity of teachers in these three languages. There is an urgent need to expand the teaching force in these languages. The U.S. federal government recognizes the need to build our nation’s language capacity as these are crucial to our economic growth (Committee for Economic Development, 2006) and national security (U.S. Department of Education, 2008).

Our university is a large public institution with more than 30,000 full time equivalent (FTE) students, located just outside Washington, DC. The Graduate School of Education is part of the College of Education and Human Development in which the Foreign/World Language Licensure program offers PK-12 teaching licenses in eight languages: Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Japanese, French, Spanish, German, and Latin. Thanks in large part to two generous grants, one from the Freeman Foundation and the other from StarTalk, we have been able to sponsor four summer institutes (SI) for Arabic, Chinese, and Russian teachers. The fourth summer institute, 2011, is the focus of the present study. It is a follow-up and continuation of research reported in “Understanding the perceptions of Arabic and Chinese teachers toward transitioning into U.S. schools,” (xxxxx & Ferro, 2011).

This three week institute, “Bridging Instructional Gaps in Preparing to Teach Millennial Learners,” focused on learner-centered standards-based instructional practices and their advantages over traditional approaches. Further, examination was made of how varied approaches can be applied to language learning that will enhance teacher expertise, student performance, and lead to the creation of new materials for teaching Arabic, Chinese, and Russian.

The summer institute provided critical methodological training in transitioning teachers to learner-centered instruction for today’s millennial learners. Twenty teacher participants in Arabic, Chinese, and Russian engaged in carefully structured learning sequences including face-to-face and online blended communities of practice. This included approximately 98 hours of instruction with graduate credit availability, that took place over a three week period.

Week one examined such themes as: planning and standards-based, learner-centered language instruction; teaching multi-level classes and staying in the target language; integrating differentiation of instruction through various games and interactive activities for diverse learners; exploring skills, strategies, and dispositions for addressing the needs of today’s millennial learners, and alternative approaches to assessment. This week also included five days of professional development workshops designed to provide hands-on teacher training in the introduction and application of interactive approaches in teaching and learning that focused on today’s millennial learners. Participants received professional development in the morning, with individual sessions for Arabic, Chinese and Russian. These interactions were

followed by immediate engagement in the target language with a master teacher who also stressed topics such as the use of technology, curriculum development, assessment, culture and standards, learner-centered instruction and classroom management.

Day one featured the summer institute lead instructor who had three years of previous experience working with our summer institutes. She presented “Effective Planning for Millennial Learners Using Learner-Centered Instruction In a Standards-based Classroom.” Day two was led by two content experts who presented, “Interactive Games for Millennial Learners.” Day three highlighted the expertise of a noted world language educator in assessment, “Assessment: Providing Alternative Approaches for Today’s Millennial Learners.” This was followed on day four with a highly interactive workshop on “Teachers Acquiring Skills, Strategies, and Dispositions for Today’s Millennial Learners.” Day five was the culminating day of workshops that afforded teacher participants the opportunity to learn more about “Teaching Multiple Levels Simultaneously and Staying in the Target Language.”

During week two teacher participants partnered with two area public school districts’ StarTalk student programs and actively engaged in micro teaching simulations. These interactions offered immediate engagement in theory-to-practice focused on planning for millennial learners, curriculum development, assessment, culture and standards, learner-centered instruction and classroom management.

During week three of the institute teachers actively participated in a multimedia learning environment using the online platform, Ning. Ning is an online platform for people and organizations to create custom social networks. Ning offers educators the ability to create a community website with a customized appearance.

A significant component of the institute was the creation and maintenance of an actual learning community activity during which participants experienced the preparation, engagement, assessment, and reflection phases. The online segment of the summer institute provided rich insight into cultural and educational influences that shaped and informed these teachers’ attitudes and dispositions about teaching and learning. During this week participants worked in whole group discussions online across the three languages or participated in discussions by language with the three respective master teachers.

The literature on preparing foreign/world language teachers to work in today’s U.S. schools clearly documents the influences of identity, culture and experiential backgrounds. In the next section we highlight a brief review of this literature. We were also interested in covering information about today’s millennial learners in order to further expand the context of the present study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In “New dimensions in language teacher preparation: Bridging divides in critical need languages” (xxxxx et al, 2011) reported on two case studies that highlighted efforts to recruit and train teachers to enter U.S. schools as highly qualified Arabic and Chinese instructors. The two case studies illustrated efforts to address issues surrounding preparing teachers to transition into teaching in U.S. schools. These examinations helped illuminate the impact and importance of sound pedagogical training and on-going professional development opportunities.

According to Milner, Flowers, Moore, Moore, and Flowers, (2003) pre-service teachers often finish teacher education programs and enter the classroom without background knowledge regarding different cultures, religious practices, or different ethnicities. Many teachers foreign to the U.S. have never lived in or near a racially diverse neighborhood, not to mention attend or work in a school that is racially diverse. In light of this lack of exposure, pre-service teachers rely on stereotypical misconceptions and myths to influence their work as teachers.

To prepare foreign/world language teachers to meet the needs of today’s millennial learners, teacher education programs and professional development programs have shifted their foci. As Darling-Hammond and Richardson (2009) noted, “the most useful professional development emphasizes active teaching, assessment, observation, and reflection rather than abstract discussions” (p. 47). Wilbur (2007) found that though many foreign/world language teacher education programs have methods courses that focus on applying standards-based, learner-centered theory to practice, the transition for teachers is fraught with challenges. These challenges are further exacerbated for the majority of today’s critical need language teachers.

This is because teachers, even those with limited prior pedagogical training, have already established a set of preconceived notions of what teaching and learning will look like in U.S. schools (Zhan, 2008). These preconceived notions about teaching and learning are embedded over time through experiential and cultural influences. They become part of teachers’ identities and can be difficult to modify. Nonetheless, foreign/world language teachers, especially those formally educated outside the U.S., must learn how to relate to today’s millennial learners if they hope to become successful and competent teachers.

Zhao (2009) noted the culture of American education values individual differences and that there exists an ever-increasing attempt to protect one’s individuality and creativity. This culture of education is in contrast to the cultures of education in many Arabic-speaking countries, China, and those countries that comprised the former Soviet Union. In those countries a higher value is placed on the collective than on the individual (Richardson, 2004; Zhao, 2009)

Foreign/world language teaching can no longer be looked at as mainly a linguistic task, but the attainment of communicative competence, thus teachers need to be equipped with the knowledge and skills to accomplish this. There is a relationship between teacher belief and teacher practice. Sercu (2006) conducted a study that focused on

foreign/world language teachers' beliefs and cultural dimension of foreign/world language education. Two questions guided this research: (1) How can foreign language teachers' current professional self-concepts and language-and-culture teaching practices be characterized, and how do these self concepts and teaching practices relate to the envisaged profile of the intercultural foreign language teacher? (2) Is it possible to speak of an "average culture-and-language teaching profile" that applies to teachers in a number of different countries?

The findings indicated that teacher knowledge should include familiarity with not only the language and its culture but also the language and culture of the students being taught. One of the most salient outcomes of this study was the focus on investigating teachers' beliefs about teaching intercultural competence in foreign/world language education and the necessity for providing teachers with professional development opportunities that build on their existing beliefs and teaching practices. The findings of research on teachers' beliefs indicate that teaching and learning affect their conceptions of specific teaching situations and ultimately their teaching practice (p. 69).

Bejaard et al (2004) completed a longitudinal study that examined teachers' professional identity. *Identity* was defined as not a "fixed attribute of a person, but a relational phenomenon" (p. 108). As with the present study, these researchers focused on teachers' concepts or images of self as they were strong determinants of developing as teachers and attitudes toward educational change.

Millennial Learners

Characteristics of millennial learners vary by region, depending on social and economic conditions. However, according to Wikipedia (2012) it is generally marked by an increased use and familiarity with communications, media, and digital technologies. Christy Price, EdD, a psychology professor at Dalton State College, became interested in millennial learners when she noticed a gap between students' expectations for success and the effort they put forth in the classroom (Price, 2010). This prompted a qualitative analysis of narratives provided by more than a hundred millennial learners to get a more accurate picture of how to meet the needs of these learners.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study, based on previous StarTalk research from 2009 and 2010, set out to examine and explore the perceptions of Arabic, Chinese and Russian teachers towards teaching in U.S. classrooms; focusing specifically on the different critical considerations that directly influence the transitioning of these teachers to teaching in a learner-centered classroom with millennial learners. To examine the perceptions and transition of these teachers, the research questions were as follow:

1. What preconceived notions do Chinese, Arabic, and Russian teachers have about U.S. schools? For returning StarTalk Summer Institute (STSI) teachers, how have these notions changed or continue to be a challenge?
2. How do Chinese, Arabic, and Russian teachers define millennial Learners? How do they understand and address their needs?
3. What cultural backgrounds and teacher identities (understandings/expectations of teacher roles) do Arabic, Chinese and Russian teachers bring into U.S. schools?
4. In what ways has the online learning community helped to enhance professional development?

A. Procedures

After a careful analysis of our 2009 and 2010 research findings, the 2011 study was composed to extend the results and findings and to develop, grow and learn more about the perceptions, needs, and development of critical need language teachers. This led to the creation of instruments that would help this development; followed by the careful review of all the instruments; and finally obtaining the approval from the university's human subjects review board.

B. Participants

The participants for this study were all teachers attending the 2011 StarTalk summer institute (STSI) held in a large north-eastern university. Although participation in the study was completely voluntary, there were requirements for attending the STSI; these requirements included the number of StarTalk institutes attended, teaching status, and language(s) taught. Thus, the sample can be viewed as a purposeful, criterion based selection. Glesne (2006) explains careful selection, especially for qualitative studies, is done in order to select 'information-rich cases' that can lead to important issues to the research. The selection of participants for this study provided rich data to give the study depth (Creswell, 2005; Patton, 2002).

In the 2011 STSI there were a total of 20 Arabic, Chinese and Russian teachers (10 Arabic, 8 Chinese, and 2 Russian). For this study 11 of the 20 attendees participated in the qualitative portion of the research study, and 9 of those participated in the online surveys. The teacher participants were emailed a link to the consent form and the survey at the beginning of the summer institute.

All of the 2011 female teacher participants were either employed as Chinese, Arabic or Russian teachers at the time, or were interested in becoming a Chinese, Arabic or Russian teacher in the U.S. While some were U.S. born citizens, the majority were from a Chinese, Arabic or Russian speaking country.

Nine teachers participated in the online survey. Of those StarTalk survey teacher participants, five were employed as full time teachers in either public or private K-12 classrooms, with a few also teaching at college levels. Of the full time

teachers, one held a foreign/world language license, and two were doing coursework to meet that goal; (one Arabic and one Chinese). Four teachers were pre-service at the time of the research and one held a foreign/world language license (Chinese) while one was working toward earning her license (Chinese). Additional information on teacher participants can be found in the table 1.1 below.

TABLE 1.1:
STSI 2011 TEACHER PARTICIPANT INFORMATION

| | Arabic (n=4) | Chinese (n=5) | Russian (n=2) |
|-----------------------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|
| Highest Degree Earned | | | n/a |
| Bachelor | 4 | 1 | n/a |
| Master | | 2 | n/a |
| Doctorate | | 2 | n/a |
| Employment/Licensure Status | | | |
| In-service with license | 1 | | n/a |
| In-service no license | 3* | 1* | n/a |
| Pre-service with license | | 1 | n/a |
| Pre-service no license | | 3* | n/a |
| *Working on license | 1 | 2 | n/a |

During the second week of the summer institute the teacher participants split their time into two parts. One involved actively connecting theory to practice by presenting micro teaching demonstrations with StarTalk students in neighboring schools two days a week. These were followed by interviews conducted by the STSI lead researcher. The other time the teachers were involved with participating in an online discussion forum with the master language teachers from the STSI using Ning. During the third week, the teacher participants engaged in whole group discussions online during which they examined perceptions, expectations and concerns about working with millennial learners in U.S. schools. They also developed materials and actively became members of a community of practice. As mentioned earlier, 11 teachers participated in this portion of the study (4 Arabic, 5 Chinese, and 2 Russian).

C. Instruments

Pre and post-institute online surveys: These surveys were created using the online tool “Survey Monkey” that incorporated close-ended and open-ended reflection questions. Both the pre and post-institute surveys began with questions focused on collecting demographic data to account for any inconsistencies and fluctuation. This was followed by questions discussing teacher beliefs, learning theories, classroom roles, technology use, standards of foreign language learning, communicative modes, learner centered instruction, and general teacher concerns. The pre-institute survey ended with questions pertaining to what teacher participants hoped to gain from the institute and the online community; while the post-institute survey concluded with questions about their experiences and challenges in the StarTalk student programs and at the STSI. The pre and post-institute questions are provided in Appendix A.

Online discussion board Ning. During weeks two and three of the STSI, the teacher participants engaged in online discussions by responding to prompts posted by the master teachers and online facilitator. There were a total of 8 days of online whole group discussions with different prompts posted each day, as well as more focused prompts posted to each language group. Discussions during week two included perceptions and beliefs about teaching in U.S. schools, creating lesson plans in the target language, the sharing of ideas, and giving feedback on teaching materials posted by teacher participants. During week three, the discussions focused on learning and outcomes, motivation, target language use, assessment, cooperative learning, multiple intelligences, progress towards learner-centered instruction, as well as identifying prominent classroom challenges and how to overcome them.

These online discussions were an extension of questions in our pre-institute survey and allowed the collection of more specific and detailed descriptions of the participants' beliefs, perceptions, preconceived notions, needs, challenges and outcomes. The full list of the online discussion prompts is provided in Appendix B.

Group and individual interviews. The interviews took place immediately after the teacher participants conducted their micro-teaching demonstrations in participating StarTalk schools. Most of the teachers participated in the group interviews. One requested an individual interview, and one chose to hand write her answers during a group interview as she did not wish to be audio recorded.

The questions included teacher participants' thoughts and reflections on information learned from their micro teaching experiences, how the lessons were planned and implemented, what worked or did not work during instruction and the reasons for that, and what they might do differently with future implementation of these standards-based, learner-centered activities. The interview questions are provided in Appendix C.

D. Data Analysis

Several rounds of data analysis were conducted. The first round began before data collection for the present study and consisted of carefully examining data from our previous STSI to understand the research directions and gaps that needed to be addressed. Once data were collected, open coding of the pre and post survey data, interviews and online discussions began. This meant, that although organizational codes (Maxwell, 2005) had been created prior to

conducting the research, i.e. our research goals and interests, open coding allowed the substantive categories (Maxwell, 2005) to emerge, i.e. letting the data “speak for themselves” (Glesne, 2006, p.164).

This was followed by collapsing the data into broader categories and themes, thus connecting themes and finding relationships to create a whole (Patton 2002; Maxwell, 2005). Finally, constant-comparative data analysis took place (Creswell, 2005). This included the comparison of codes, categories and themes from all the data sources to eliminate redundancy and make further connections between themes. Throughout data analysis, research bias was addressed and accepted. By letting data speak for itself, and interacting with those themes, both researcher and participant voices came through. Addressing and accepting research bias also lead to what Maxwell (2005) describes as a search for more evidence to support findings.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this research was to build on previous StarTalk research from 2009 and 2010 and further gain a perspective on critical need language teachers’ perceptions towards transitioning into U.S. schools. From our previous research and experiences we have concluded that teachers who have had a limited learning experience in a Western educational context can have a difficult time in transitioning to U.S. schools. These include, but are not limited to: moving towards learner-centered instruction; working with culturally, linguistically, and cognitively diverse learners; classroom management and discipline; assessment; teaching multi-level classrooms; staying in the target language; and meeting the needs of today’s millennial learners, with the overall aim of becoming self aware, reflective teachers.

To understand this transition, we asked teacher participants to engage in daily reflection, participate in our surveys and share their thoughts and beliefs in the online discussion fora. The findings from these data sources shed light into this transition as well as the teachers’ preconceived notions, their feelings regarding their roles and identities and the benefits of the STSI. What follow are the findings from the data that addressed our research questions.

1. *Research question 1: What preconceived notions do Arabic, Chinese, and Russian teachers have about U.S. schools?*

The teacher participants were surprised and happy to find that the students were motivated, well behaved, and open-minded. “They were not crawling on the floor. I really had a different impression.” “They are willing to work. They want to work.” (Chinese, teacher interview) “I think they are easy to interact with, umm you know very friendly, and they are smiling... and they are quiet a lot and I really had a different impression, you know, but they actually wanted to learn, I was really surprised.” (Arabic teacher interview).

For returning STSI teachers, how have these notions changed or continue to be challenged?

The data show that the StarTalk summer institute had a positive impact on the teacher participants’ knowledge and understanding of millennial learners and how to address their needs using technology, student-centered activities, and one discussed her need to catch up to them. The pre-survey showed that only 25% of participants stated that they had heard of millennial learners and were familiar with their needs and how to address them. The findings also show that 100% of participants felt they knew about learner-centered instructional practices well enough to apply them to their teachings in the post survey compared to 37.5% in the pre-survey. The post survey data also showed that 100% of the teacher participants felt familiar enough with the Standards for Foreign Language Learning and the Communicative Modes to apply them to their teaching as compared to 62.5% in the pre- survey.

In the interviews the teacher participants discussed the theories and techniques they applied from the STSI to their micro-teaching demonstrations, as well as discuss others that had an impact on them and they plan to use in the future.

“You know I went to the first summer institute. From that I learned a lot and applied to my teaching, and this time I felt it’s different a lot... even in the lunch break when we chat we communicate and we exchange ideas. I learned a lot. You know we can talk about staying in the target language with the guest speakers since they are different and have different points of view.” (Chinese teacher interview)

“This is a life experience for me. What I learned last week I am doing it this week with real students.” (Arabic teacher interview)

When discussing their concerns, the teacher participants made a significant shift in the post-survey results after the summer institute as compared to the pre-survey. This included a positive attitude towards using and staying in the target language in the classroom; getting students motivated and interested in the class; dealing with behavioral problems; using technology and talking with parents. However, the results also showed that a great number (44.4%) still felt that assessment, both in creating an integrated performance-based assessment (IPA) and evaluating a performance based assessment, was of a moderate to a great concern.

The open ended questions in the survey focused on teacher roles, challenges during instruction and how to overcome them, millennial learners and the benefits of an online community (Ning), and concluded with what they would like to see in future StarTalk institutes.

2. *Research Question 2: How do Arabic, Chinese, and Russian teachers define millennial learners? How do they understand and address their needs?*

The survey data show that the StarTalk institute had a positive impact on the teacher participants’ knowledge and understanding of millennial learners and how to address their needs using technology, student-centered activities. The

pre-survey showed that only 25% of the participants knew something about millennial learners or were familiar with their needs and how to address them.

During the online forum, the teacher participants discussed their views and knowledge about millennial learners, explaining that they were facing a whole new generation of students who require a different way of learning and teaching. As one Chinese teacher discussed, "the biggest change of my view about millennial language learners is that they negotiate their learning and appropriate what they learn to their own purpose. In other words, it is not the teacher who decides what, when and how students learn."

Teacher participants also discussed the importance of technology in reaching and understanding the millennial learners. It is a new concept to many, as indicated in the survey, as one Chinese teacher discussed

The very concept of millennial learners itself has been truly illuminating to me in that I now understand the substantial differences in learning styles and instructional needs between the digital natives and digital immigrants. To meet their needs, I need to consciously come out of my comfort zone, to put myself into a constant mode of searching for ways to meet the millennial learners' needs.

"The very concept of millennial learners itself has been truly illuminating to me in that I now understand the substantial differences in learning styles and instructional needs between the digital natives and digital immigrants. To meet their needs, I need to consciously come out of my comfort zone, to put myself into a constant mode of searching for ways to meet the millennial learners' needs." (Chinese teacher on Ning)

"They can accept new stuff very quickly. They grow really fast both physically and psychologically." (Chinese teacher on Ning)

"I have come to understand that the millennial learners are a whole new generation and require very different ways of teaching." (Chinese teacher's view about Ning)

3. *Research Question 3: What cultural backgrounds and teacher identities (understandings/expectations of teacher roles) do Arabic, Chinese, and Russian teachers bring into the U.S. schools?*

The teacher participants discussed the different cultural backgrounds they bring into the classroom. Of particular interest was that the question of cultural background was never addressed directly, but many teachers compared their own education and background and the differences with that of U.S. education.

Collaboration was also a concern for other teachers, "You have to be very flexible and you have to be um it's a group lesson it's a team play. It's a team work so you have to be very flexible thinking about the focus. The focus is the lesson and so everybody will be contributing to that focus and then as a teacher you have to learn how to collaborate because it takes a lot of collaboration ... We are language teachers. We are trying to incorporate as much as possible but at some point you have to collaborate with other people so you have to learn. So the coordination is the most important thing, the most challenging thing and the most satisfying thing for the results, if you do well (laughs)." (Chinese teacher interview)

Both Chinese and Arabic teachers admitted that their educational backgrounds revolved around rote memorization and teacher-centered instruction. "The same as they teach us back home, ok teachers say 'listen and repeat,' 'listen and repeat.'" (Arabic and Chinese teachers' interview). One Chinese teacher was surprised and noted, "You have to be flexible with them, compared to in China, like when we were in the classroom you know teacher told us something we just follow, so whatever teacher tell us we just follow you don't ask questions you don't you know, but with American students they will ask questions."

"The biggest change of my view about millennial language learners is they negotiate their learning and appropriate what they learn to their own purpose. In other words, it is not the teacher who decided on what, when and how to learn." (Chinese teacher on Ning)

"'Learning is fun' is much embraced, while Chinese teachers and students would rather endorse the notion that 'learning is not fun' but a painful process which can exemplified in many Chinese household sayings, such as 'the sea of learning is boundless and only ship of adversities and diligence can tide you over'. (*Xuehai wuya ku zuo zhou*)(Chinese teacher on Ning)

"Most of the students I ever worked with in China are hard-working, and it seems that few teachers cared how to arouse their motivation and curiosity. In U.S., I found that it is teachers' responsibility to engage students, and to inspire students' desire to learn." (Chinese teacher on Ning)

Teacher's roles in the classroom:

When discussing the teacher's role in the post-survey, most teacher participants focused on the importance of being a facilitator and organizer of the classroom while keeping the students at the center of teaching and learning.

4. *Question 4: In what ways has the online learning community helped to enhance professional development?*

While discussing the online learning community the teacher participants were excited in the pre-survey to connect and learn from others as well as share lesson plans and resources. After using Ning during the summer institute the participants felt that the online community was very helpful in the sharing of ideas and resources, getting feedback from peers, as well as building strong relationships with other teachers. However, many felt that it could sometimes be overwhelming.

While discussing how Ning impacted their teaching, many believed that it could help them achieve their goal of student-centered instruction, using technology in the classroom and having an online form platform where students can stay connected.

In their online discussions teachers shared resources as well as continuously gave feedback to each other on materials and lesson plans posted (both in the target language and English). The following diagram (Figure 1) illustrates the usefulness of the online learning community:

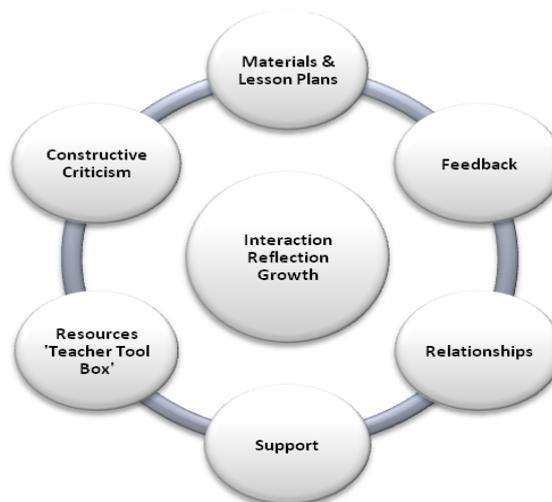


Figure 1: An online community building experience

Future workshops

Teacher participants were asked what they would like to see in future StarTalk workshops. The following are their responses:

| | |
|---|--|
| 1 | Classroom management methods |
| 2 | I want to see more intercultural elements in the teacher' development. Since students will become global citizens by learning a foreign language, how do we make sure that teachers have broad visions in cultivating students' intercultural awareness? |
| 3 | Technology, group work, feedback, summative assessments, rubrics in the target language |
| 4 | I would like to observe and study an entire teaching process of a master teacher in my TL area: from lesson planning/lesson plans to teaching/instruction/classroom management to assessment. While observing the entire process, I would like to have opportunities to talk to the master teachers to understand how and why and what he/she thinks/does... |
| 5 | Managing different levels in the classroom, more RUBRICS???? |

V. CONCLUSION

Arabic, Chinese, and Russian are three of 13 languages that have been designated as “critical need languages” by the U.S. Department of State. There is an urgent need to expand the teaching force in these languages. However, teaching Arabic, Chinese, and Russian in U.S. schools is challenging for teachers who were trained outside the U.S. and may not be familiar with millennial learners. The present study examined bridging instructional gaps in preparing to teach millennial language learners. We discovered that similar to our earlier findings (xxxx, Ferro, 2011) Arabic, Chinese, and Russian teacher participants hold two very different views on foreign/world language teaching and learning: First, their own language learning experiences greatly influence their current perceptions. For the majority of them, these experiences were in teacher-centered classrooms in which the goal was mastery of grammar and vocabulary, relying heavily on rote memorization. Second, these teachers readily acknowledged the importance of understanding the needs of today’s millennial learners. Further, they were open and receptive to not only gaining insight into accommodating today’s language learners, but sought meaningful ways to conceptualize ways to plan lessons and provide assessments that strengthened their teaching.

There are two additional noteworthy findings that emerged from this study: (1) There were teacher participants who came to the STSI with negative pre-conceived notions about teaching U.S. students. Their views were quickly changed during the workshop activities, working in the target language with a master teacher, actively engaging in the online learning community, and ultimately conducting micro teaching demonstrations with StarTalk student programs. (2) Introducing our teacher participants to an online learning community was challenging in that many were not familiar with this level of technology use. However, the added benefit was that teachers were able to communicate in either English or their target languages (TL). They were further supported by the three respective master teachers and these discussions were available for just one TL group or shared across all three language groups. Since many critical need language teachers can sometimes feel isolated in their schools or school districts, the online community provided a way for teachers to share ideas, resources, and build strong communities of practice.

We will continue our research in an effort to learn more about the needs of critical need language teachers and how we can best provide training in helping them to navigate the transition into teaching in U.S. schools. The research we report on in this paper grew out of our commitment to excel in providing leading, cutting edge preparation and training for critical need language teachers. Our teacher licensure program model can best be described as “additive” because we highly value the skills and dispositions our teacher participants bring. While our efforts are intended to help these individuals navigate the cross-cultural obstacles they sometimes encounter in preparing to teach in the U.S., we work tirelessly to ensure that their cultural and linguistic identities and backgrounds are not diminished.

End Notes

StarTalk

STARTALK is the newest of the component programs of the National Security Language Initiative (NSLI) announced by former President Bush in January of 2006. The initiative seeks to expand and improve the teaching and learning of strategically important world languages that are not now widely taught in the US. Other programs under the NSLI umbrella include Title VI/Fulbright Hays programs of the US Department of Education, The National Security Education program of the National Defense University, and study abroad and exchange programs of the US Department of State.

STARTALK’s mission is to increase the number of Americans learning, speaking, and teaching critical need foreign languages by offering students (K–16) and teachers of these languages creative and engaging summer experiences that strive to exemplify best practices in language education and in language teacher development, forming an extensive community of practice that seeks continuous improvement in such criteria as outcomes-driven program design, standards-based curriculum planning, learner-centered approaches, excellence in selection and development of materials, and meaningful assessment of outcomes.

The Freeman Foundation

The Freeman Foundation was established in 1994 through the bequest and in memory of the businessman and benefactor Mansfield Freeman, a co-founder of the international insurance and financial conglomerate American International Group, Inc., better known as AIG. This private and philanthropic foundation, based in Stowe, Vermont, with offices in New York City, is dedicated to augmenting international understanding between the United States and the nations of East Asia.

APPENDIX A PRE AND POST-INSTITUTE SURVEY

1. What is your home country?
2. What is your gender?
3. What is the highest degree that you have earned?
4. Do you have teaching experience? - yes - no
 - what subject(s) did you teach?
 - what grade(s)?
 - where (country)?
 - for how long?
5. Do you currently hold a foreign/ world language teaching license or certificate in the United States?
 - If you do not hold a teaching license in the U.S., are you currently working on the licensure requirements?
6. Are you employed as a language teacher in a U.S. school? - yes - no
 - public school
 - private school
7. What language(s) do you teach or will you teach?
 - Chinese
 - Arabic
 - Russian
8. [Post-Institute survey: Now that you have attended the STSI] Check the statement that best describes your familiarity with 'millennial learners'?
 - I have heard of millennial learners and am familiar with their needs and how to address them
 - I have heard of millennial learners but I am not sure how to address their needs
 - I have never heard of the term millennial learners
9. [Post-Institute survey: Now that you have attended the STSI] Check the statement that best describes your knowledge and understanding of learner-centered instructional practices:
 - I know about learner-centered instructional practices well enough to apply them to my teaching
 - I know about learner-centered instructional practices, but I am not sure how to apply them in my teaching
 - I have heard of learner-centered instructional practices, but I do not know much about them
 - I have never heard of learner-centered instructional practices

10. [Post-Institute survey: Now that you have attended the STSI] Check the statement that best describes your knowledge and understanding of the Standards of Foreign Language Learning (The 5Cs):

- I know the standards well enough to apply them to my teaching
- I know the standards, but I am not sure how to apply them in my teaching
- I have heard of the standards, but I do not know much about them
- I have never heard of the standards

11. [Post-Institute survey: Now that you have attended the STSI] Check the statement that best describes your knowledge and understanding of the 3 Communicative Modes (interpretive, interpersonal, presentational):

- I know the 3 Communicative Modes well enough to apply them to my teaching
- I know the 3 Communicative Modes, but I am not sure how to apply them in my teaching
- I have heard of the 3 Communicative Modes, but I do not know much about them
- I have never heard of the 3 Communicative Modes

12. [Post-Institute survey: Now that you have attended the STSI] Please rate the following concerns about teaching U.S. students:

| Not a concern for me | An occasional concern for me | A moderate concern for me | A great concern for me | |
|----------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------|--|
|----------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------|--|

- Using the target language during my instruction
- Motivating students to use the target language
- Getting students to care about my class
- Creating interesting activities for my students
- Talking to a student who is not behaving in class
- Using technology in my lessons
- Getting students to participate in small group activities
- Creating an integrated performance-based assessment
- Evaluating a performance-based assessment
- Talking to a parent/guardian about a student's grade

PRE-INSTITUTE:

13. What do you hope to learn/gain from this StarTalk workshop?
14. What do you hope to gain from an online community?
15. From your experience, what are some ways teachers can help students learn a language?
16. What do you believe a teacher's role is in the classroom?
17. What technology applications are you currently using in the classroom?

POST-INSTITUTE:

13. Please describe the learner-centered activities you were able to use with the students in the language camps.
14. Were your learner-centered activities connected to the standards? If so, how?
15. What were some of the challenges you faced while implementing learner-centered activities?
16. What did you do to overcome these challenges?
17. After teaching in the language camps, did your opinion change regarding
 - ▶ teacher role in the classroom? If yes, explain.
 - ▶ meeting the needs of millennial learners? If yes, please explain
18. What do you believe you need to do to further your professional development as a language teacher?
19. During Week 3 of the summer institute, you participated in many online discussions. What was the most helpful discussion during the online portion of the workshop? Why was this discussion so helpful to you?
20. What did you learn from the online community?
21. How will your experience on Ning impact your teaching?
22. What did you like and dislike about Ning?
23. What topics or themes would you like to see included in future workshops?

APPENDIX B THE WEEK 2 AND 3 ONLINE DISCUSSION QUESTIONS NING LEARNING COMMUNITY

Week 2: Two days working with master teachers

Day 1: Reflection on Week 1 Discussion Prompts (NOTE: MTs may use a graphic organizer to facilitate these online discussions.)

- i. Name at least 3 significant ideas that you learned during the interactive workshops last week.
- ii. How will these ideas help you meet the needs of millennial language learners?
- iii. What concepts or ideas from Week 1 workshops are unclear?
- iv. How will you use what you learned during the workshops in your teaching?

Day 2: Create one standards-based activity using any of the topic(s) presented during the Workshops. You may produce it in the target language and post it as an attachment to your response. In your response:

- i. Describe your standards-based activity and how it is age, grade level, and language-level appropriate.

- ii. Explain how it will meet the needs of a millennial language learner.
- iii. Review and comment on two other activities from your group.

Please use the following format:

- Which of the 5Cs apply to this activity?
- Which of the 3 modes apply to this activity?
- Here are some suggestions for improving this activity: ...

Week 3: Five days working with Online Facilitator

Day 1: Millennial Learners, Beliefs and Using the Target Language

Whole Group Questions:

During week 1, you experienced 5 days of professional development to help you better meet the needs of millennial language learners. Some of you have been working with millennial learners for several years and some of you have just had your first experience teaching millennial learners.

- What were your previous views of millennial language learners?
- How have your views of millennial language learners changed?

Some of you have been working with U.S. students for several years and some of you have had your first experience with teaching U.S. students in the last two weeks.

- What views/feelings did you have about teaching U.S. students before you ever worked with them? How have your views changed?

Small Group Questions: Target Language

- What worked well in your use of the TL during your lessons last week? What areas can you identify for improvement?

- Watch _____ video. How did the teacher use the target language to provide comprehensible input for the students? What would you do differently?

- What elements from the video can you incorporate into the lesson you used last week?

Post a revised lesson and provide peer feedback to at least one other group using the checklist provided:

- Which of the 5Cs apply to this activity?
- Which of the 3 modes apply to this activity?
- Here are some suggestions for improving this activity: ...

Day 2: Motivation and Millennial Learners

Whole Group Questions:

Why did you study a foreign language? What were your motivations?

What motivates students to learn a foreign language? How does their motivation influence your teaching style?

Small Group Questions: Motivation during Lesson

- What worked well in your first lesson last week? What areas can you identify for improvement?
- Watch _____ video. What worked well in the video? What would you do differently?
- What elements from the video can you incorporate into the lesson you used last week?

Post a revised lesson and provide peer feedback to at least one other group using the checklist provided.

Day 3: Classroom Management and Millennial Learners

Whole Group Questions:

In your experience, what aspects of classroom management (discipline, organization, record keeping, managing groups, teaching in the target language) are/will be challenging for you? What challenges would you like to address in the upcoming year?

Small Group Questions: Classroom management

- What worked well in your first lesson last week? What areas can you identify for improvement?
- Watch _____ video. What worked well in the video? What would you do differently?
- What elements from the video can you incorporate into the lesson you used last week?

Post a revised lesson and provide peer feedback to at least one other group using the checklist provided.

Day 4: Assessment and Millennial Learners

Whole Group Questions:

What are your challenges in using performance-based assessment? What areas or challenges would you like to learn more about as you move forward?

Small Group Questions: Assessment

- What worked well in your first lesson last week? What areas can you identify for improvement?
- Watch _____ video. What worked well in the video? What would you do differently?
- What elements from the video can you incorporate into the lesson you used last week?

Post a revised lesson and provide peer feedback to at least one other group using the checklist provided.

Day 5: Cooperative Learning and Millennial Learners

Whole Group Questions:

What aspects of cooperative learning are challenging for you? How are they different from your educational experience? How do you view the role of the teacher in setting up cooperative learning activities?

What would you like to learn more about as you move forward in your career?

Small Group Questions: Cooperative Learning

- What worked well in your first lesson last week? What areas can you identify for improvement?
- Watch _____ video. What worked well in the video? What would you do differently?
- What elements from the video can you incorporate into the lesson you used last week?

Post a revised lesson and provide peer feedback to at least one other group using the checklist provided.

APPENDIX C POST-TEACHING GROUP INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Questions:

1. Let's begin by introducing ourselves. Please tell us your name.
2. Could you share with us how you planned and designed your activities for your lesson today? For example:
 - a. Why did you choose your topic or theme?
 - b. What learner-centered activities did you have planned?
 - c. Can you tell us how your activities connect to the standards?
 - d. Do you think you were able to "connect" with millennial learners? How?
3. What worked well during your instruction? Why do you think/ feel it worked well?
4. What did not work so well during your instruction? Why do you think/ feel it didn't work so well?
5. What would you do differently the next time you try these kinds of activities?
6. How could you tell if the students were understanding and learning?
7. What did you learn about yourself as a teacher?
8. What did you learn about U.S. students?
9. Is there anything else you would like to say about teaching the students in the language camps?

Closing: Thank the individuals for their cooperation and participation in the group interview. Assure them that their names/identities will be kept confidential.

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Are They Right Participants for the Right Strategies? A Case Study in the Role of Levels of Language Ability in Strategy Use in Reading Section of TOEFL iBT

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Abstract—This paper investigates any significant differences in levels of language ability in employing the test-taking strategies. It is an exploration for the application of proper strategies for the intended item types and the effects on the test scores. A list of test-taking strategies which was involved Reading and Test-management strategies (suggested by Cohen and Upton, 2006) in a test of reading comprehension of TOEFL iBT was employed. A total of 22 items, two computerized reading comprehension passages, were administered to undergraduate students (26 males and 40 females) majoring in English language and literature in a computer site at University of Tehran, IR Iran. The participants were asked to do the tests in no longer than 45 minutes and then specify the strategies that they employed in doing each reading comprehension item. Before administering the test, participants became generally familiar with the test procedures and test taking strategies in a pre-test session. Non-parametric statistics were used to analyze the collected data. The results showed that there is no significant difference among test-takers with respect to different language abilities. However, the comparison of the amount of usage among participants with various language proficiencies showed that the Low and Medium group were out-performed in comparison with the High group. The results revealed that language learners tend to make use of different test-taking strategies in test of reading comprehension- whether the correct strategies for the correct item types or vice versa- in any levels of language abilities. Furthermore, it is concluded that the use of strategies- either appropriate or inappropriate- espoused directly on the learner's scores. And if the use of strategies are not directed it may cause unsuccessful result in the exams. Subsequently, some purposeful teaching of related strategies is suggested.

Index Terms—test-taking strategies, levels of language abilities, TOEFL iBT

I. INTRODUCTION

Mastering the English language appears to play a crucial role in post graduate studies. One common way of documenting the language ability of post grade students is presenting a score in an internationally known test such as Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), International English Language Testing System (IELTS), and Grade Recode Exam (GRE). Since the 1990s, along with the increasing use of computer technology in language education and the rise in the accessibility of personal computers, making use of computer technology in development of language tests have been the focus of researchers. The evolutions in multimedia and web technologies suggest a good number of possibilities for designing and developing computer-based tests that are more authentic and interactional than their paper and pencil counterparts (Bachman, 2000). This evolutionary process, as a result, in late 2005, *Internet-Based Test (iBT)* was introduced to the language education contents in general, and testing centers in particular. The root of the word strategy comes from an ancient Greek word *strategia*, which means “steps or actions taken for the purpose of winning a war. Hopefully the warlike meaning of *strategia* has faded away, but the control and goal-directedness remains in the modern version of the word” (Oxford, 2003, p. 8). In this regard, test taking strategies define those processes which respondents select in responding to test items they are conscious of, at least to some degree. The concept of strategy, in other words implies an element of selection. The recent focus on different strategies in education appears to change approaches to the teaching and learning process. The test-taking strategies have been referred to as “techniques, tactics, potentially conscious plans, consciously employed operations, learning skills, basic skills, functional skills, cognitive ability, language processing strategies, and problem-solving procedure” (Wenden, 1987, p. 7). Nitko (1983, p. 326) defines test-taking strategy as “a student’s ability to use the characteristics of both the test and the test situation to attain a higher score”.

It seems that the iBT being progressively replaced both Computer-based (CBT) and Paper-based (PBT) tests, although paper-based testing is still used in many areas around the world. Very little study has so far endeavored to examine using test-taking strategies regarding language proficiencies and gender in doing iBT. It seems that using test-taking strategies in reading comprehension of TOEFL iBT concerning different language abilities and gender needs more investigation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous Research on Language Proficiency and Strategy Use

Definition of construction of language proficiency is not a simple one. Referring to what exactly is meant by language proficiency is related to language competence, the ability to speak or listen, read, and write the language and metalinguistic awareness contextually in appropriate manner.

Over the years researchers have used some related terms to define language proficiency. For instance, Hymes (1972) made a distinction between *linguistic competence*, knowledge of the rules and systems of a language, from *communicative competence*, or knowledge of using language of social rules. Canale and Swain (1980), and Canale (1983), defined four subcategories of communicative competence: namely, linguistic (grammatical), discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence.

In this model, as Lee and Schallert (1997, p. 716) comment "linguistic competence refers to the mastery of lexical items and of the syntax of a language and is only one aspect of the competence required for appropriate L2 use". Thus the same type of competence is described by different researchers with different terms. As a result there is no clear cut definition and agreement over the construction associated with knowledge of language.

Alderson, Krahnke, and Stansfield (1987) provide a comprehensive review of reading comprehension tests. They have established tests with known valid and reliable tests such as the TOEFL (e.g., Perkins, Brutton, & Pohlmann, 1989), and the Michigan Test (e.g., Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll, & Kuehn, 1990) in order to study the relationship between L2 proficiency and other factors.

Numerous studies have investigated the relationship between the respondents' level of proficiency in using strategies, and their performance on the L2 tests. For instance, Purpura (1997, 1998) had a total of 1,382 test-takers from 17 language centers in Spain, Turkey, and the Czech Republic answer an 80-item cognitive and metacognitive strategy questionnaire, then take a 70-item standardized language test. The questionnaire was developed on the basis of Oxford (1990), O'Malley & Chamot, (1990).

Purpura used Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to examine the relationships between strategy use and Second Language Test Performance (SLTP) with high and low-proficiency test-takers. Whereas the metacognitive strategy and SLTP models were found to produce almost identical factorial structures for the two proficiency groups, the use of monitoring, self-evaluating, and self-testing served as significantly stronger indicators of metacognitive strategy, used for the low-proficiency group than they did for the high-proficiency group (Purpura, 1999).

Also, Purpura (1999) found that high and low-proficiency test-takers, while often using the same strategies or clusters of strategies, experienced differing results when using them. In further analysis of the data looking across proficiency levels, Purpura found that a continuum was produced from product-oriented to process-oriented test-takers. The results showed the more product-oriented test-takers were seen to be able to answer questions "quickly and efficiently by retrieving information from long-term memory, while the more process-oriented test-takers might be more prone to spending time trying to comprehend or remember test input, rather than simply answering the question being asked" (Purpura, 1999, p. 181). In the appraisal of the researcher, process-oriented test-takers, regardless of their proficiency level, would be disadvantaged in timed testing situations.

Other studies have compared the respondents' levels of proficiency of L2 learners in using of test-taking strategies through taking a listening comprehension test (e.g., Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Fifty-four Japanese college EFL students in Taguchi's (2001) study took an English listening test and completed a strategy questionnaire immediately after the test. The questionnaire consisted of 42 Likert-scaled items and four open-ended questions, addressed the students' perceptions of listening strategies used for recovering from comprehension breakdown, compensating for non-comprehension, and reducing testing anxiety. The questionnaire also asked about the elements that caused comprehension difficulty for the students.

Taguchi (2001) found a statistically significant difference between more-proficient and less-proficient listeners in their perceived use of top-down strategies and in their reported elements of listening difficulty, but no difference in the use of bottom-up strategies, repair strategies, or affective strategies. Analyses of the open-ended responses showed that proficient listeners also identified a greater range of strategies.

Purpura (1997) used a Structural Equation Modeling approach to investigate the relationships among strategy use, levels of proficiency, and levels of foreign language aptitude of Japanese university students learning English as a Foreign Language. The study looked at the text-processing strategies that learners reported using while they were engaged in reading or listening tasks in second language situations, typically classrooms and testing situations.

Instruments in Purpura's (1997) study included reading and listening strategy questionnaires, the Language Aptitude Battery for the Japanese (The Psychological Corporation, 1997), and the TOEFL. Three factors emerged from the factor analysis of the test-taking strategy data: 1) comprehension and monitoring strategies, 2) compensatory strategies

(translation and repair in reading, and elaboration strategies in listening), and 3) strategies related to attention and task assessment. The findings also revealed that there were developmental stages of strategy use as the learners' proficiency improved; partially findings were confirmed by Purpura (1997) that strategy use varied by different levels of proficiency.

Phakiti's (2003a) study was designed to identify test-taking strategies and the respondents' levels of proficiency in a large-scale in order to investigate the relationship between use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies on an EFL reading test and success on the test. The participants consisted of 384 students who enrolled in a fundamental English course at a Thai university. Students took an 85-item reading achievement test (with both multiple-choice cloze and reading comprehension questions), followed by a cognitive-metacognitive questionnaire on what they had been thinking while responding to test items. The questionnaire was similar to that of Purpura (1999), but adjusted to suit a reading test.

Phakiti (2003a) selected 4 highly successful and 4 unsuccessful participants for retrospective interviews, which also included a 10-minute reading test (a short passage and six M-C questions), in order to remind the participants to report their thoughts while performing such tests. Analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data revealed that the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies had a weak but positive relationship to the reading test performance. However, metacognitive strategies outperformed in comparison with cognitive ones. In addition, the highly successful test-takers reported significantly higher metacognitive strategy use than the moderately successful ones, who in turn reported higher use of these strategies than the unsuccessful test-takers.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION

The present study aims to answer the following research question:

Is there any significant difference in the use of test-taking strategies by test takers with different levels of language abilities?

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

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

B. Instrumentation

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

a. Reading Comprehension Test

The Next Generation TOEFL, a new, internet-based version of the Test of English as a Foreign Language developed by the Educational Testing Service (ETS), included both traditional (Basic comprehension) and new (Reading to Learn and Inferencing) item types. One section of the new test of TOEFL iBT specifically focuses on academic reading skills. Generally, reading section in the TOEFL iBT includes three passages, with thirty-nine questions. The passages are relatively lengthy (each passage is between 600 to 700 words) on academic topics.

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

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

b. A Check-list of Strategies

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

C. Data Analysis

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

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

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

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Test-taking Strategies and Levels of Language Abilities

With the intention of testing the first research question a series of Median test has conducted. The following analyses accompanied by tables attempt to explain any difference in the use of different strategies by the participants with different language proficiencies.

Fulfilling the requirements of research question made the participants divided into three groups. The participants were grouped into three based on the range of their scores and frequencies. In this case, a group which received scores, in the test of reading comprehension of TOEFL iBT, less than range of 33.33 was considered as the Low proficient group. The Medium group attained scores between the range of 33.33 and 66.66 and the group who gained more than 66.66 were put in the High-proficient group. Moreover, research involves two parts, Reading and Test-management strategies.

B. Reading Strategies and Levels of Language Abilities

The result of the non-parametric test for R1 (*plans a goal for the passage*) and R11 (*Identifies unknown sentence meaning, Uses of the passage and the main ideas to help in understanding*) revealed that there is significant difference in the use of reading strategy number one and eleven at the levels of .011 and .012 with chi-square levels of 9.089 and 8.858. Based on Table 1., the difference is significant just in the two strategies (R1 & R11); however, the remaining twenty six play almost an equal role among the three levels of proficiency. Therefore, the Median test revealed that there is no significant difference in the use of twenty six Reading strategies among participants with different levels of language abilities. Hence, in the case of Reading strategies the first null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

The results of the Median tests for every single Reading strategy will be shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
 MEDIAN TEST FOR READING STRATEGIES ACROSS LEVELS OF LANGUAGE ABILITIES

| | Median | Asymp.sig. |
|-----|-------------------------|------------|
| | Chi-square (χ^2) | |
| R1 | 7.372 | 0.02 |
| R2 | 0.437 | 0.80 |
| R3 | 0.525 | 0.76 |
| R4 | 0.27 | 0.87 |
| R5 | 0.088 | 0.95 |
| R6 | 2.085 | 0.35 |
| R7 | 4.052 | 0.13 |
| R8 | 3.32 | 0.19 |
| R9 | 0.751 | 0.68 |
| R10 | 4.28 | 0.11 |
| R11 | 8.858 | 0.01 |
| R12 | 0.176 | 0.91 |
| R13 | 1.754 | 0.41 |
| R14 | 1.83 | 0.40 |
| R15 | 0.27 | 0.87 |
| R16 | 1.373 | 0.50 |
| R17 | 2.416 | 0.29 |
| R18 | 3.21 | 0.20 |
| R19 | 3.29 | 0.19 |
| R20 | 2 | 0.36 |
| R21 | 4.815 | 0.09 |
| R22 | 0.33 | 0.84 |
| R23 | 3.232 | 0.19 |
| R24 | 2.04 | 0.36 |
| R25 | 2.062 | 0.35 |
| R26 | 1.341 | 0.51 |
| R27 | 4.334 | 0.11 |
| R28 | 2.953 | 0.22 |

* df= 2, and N = 66

C. Test-management Strategies and Levels of Language Abilities

Table 2. shows that all of the Test-management strategies acted almost identically among different levels of language proficiency. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is no significant difference in the use of Test-management strategies among Low, Medium, and High levels of language ability. The results of the Median tests for each Test-management strategies are presented in Table 2. .

TABLE 2
 MEDIAN TEST FOR TEST MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES ACROSS LEVELS OF LANGUAGE ABILITIES

| | Median | Asymp.sig. |
|-----|-------------------------|------------|
| | Chi-square (χ^2) | |
| T1 | 0 | 1 |
| T2 | 0.08 | 0.96 |
| T3 | 1.179 | 0.55 |
| T4 | 1.4 | 0.49 |
| T5 | 0.805 | 0.66 |
| T6 | 1.341 | 0.51 |
| T7 | 4.387 | 0.11 |
| T8 | 5.219 | 0.07 |
| T9 | 0.734 | 0.69 |
| T10 | 0.734 | 0.69 |
| T11 | 3.173 | 0.20 |
| T12 | 3.173 | 0.20 |
| T13 | 2.918 | 0.23 |
| T14 | 5.543 | 0.06 |
| T15 | 3.138 | 0.20 |
| T16 | 1.341 | 0.51 |
| T17 | 0.358 | 0.83 |
| T18 | 2.056 | 0.35 |
| T19 | 0.862 | 0.65 |
| T20 | 0.33 | 0.84 |
| T21 | 0.65 | 0.72 |
| T22 | 0.91 | 0.63 |
| T23 | 2.168 | 0.33 |
| T24 | 0.33 | 0.84 |
| T25 | 0.088 | 0.95 |
| T26 | 2.953 | 0.22 |
| T27 | 2.416 | 0.29 |
| T28 | 2.04 | 0.36 |

* df= 2, and N = 66

But the comparison of the amount of usage among the three groups showed that the Low and Medium group were out-performed in comparison with the High (see Tables 3. & 4.).

TABLE 3
COMPARISON AMONG DIFFERENT LEVELS OF LANGUAGE ABILITIES IN READING STRATEGIES

| Reading Strategies (R) | Levels of Language Abilities | |
|------------------------|------------------------------|--|
| | | |
| R1 | L > H > M | |
| R2 | L > M > H | |
| R3 | H > M > L | |
| R4 | M > L > H | |
| R5 | M = L > H | |
| R6 | M > H > L | |
| R7 | H > M > L | |
| R8 | M > L > H | |
| R9 | L > H > M | |
| R10 | L > M > H | |
| R11 | L > M > H | |
| R12 | H > M > L | |
| R13 | L > M > H | |
| R14 | L > M > H | |
| R15 | L > M > H | |
| R16 | L > H > M | |
| R17 | L > M > H | |
| R18 | L > H > M | |
| R19 | L > M > H | |
| R20 | L > H > M | |
| R21 | L > M > H | |
| R22 | M = L > H | |
| R23 | L > M > H | |
| R24 | L > M > H | |
| R25 | L > H > M | |
| R26 | L > M > H | |
| R27 | L > H > M | |
| R28 | L > M > H | |

* H (High), M (Medium), and L (Low) - proficient group

** Highlights show the most frequent structure

***M=L: Amount of using in Reading strategies is equally the same between Medium and Low group

TABLE 4
COMPARISON AMONG DIFFERENT LEVELS OF LANGUAGE ABILITIES IN TEST-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

| Test-management Strategies (T) | Levels of Language Abilities | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|--|
| | | |
| T1 | M = L > H | |
| T2 | L > H > M | |
| T3 | M = L > H | |
| T4 | H > M > L | |
| T5 | H > L > M | |
| T6 | L > M > H | |
| T7 | H > L > M | |
| T8 | L > H > M | |
| T9 | L > M > H | |
| T10 | L > M > H | |
| T11 | L > M > H | |
| T12 | L > M > H | |
| T13 | M > L > H | |
| T14 | L > M > H | |
| T15 | L > M > H | |
| T16 | L > M > H | |
| T17 | L > H > M | |
| T18 | H > M = L | |
| T19 | L > M > H | |
| T20 | H > M = L | |
| T21 | M > L > H | |
| T22 | L > M > H | |
| T23 | L > M > H | |
| T24 | *M = L > H | |
| T25 | *M = L > H | |
| T26 | L > M > H | |
| T27 | L > M > H | |
| T28 | L > M > H | |

* H (High), M (Medium), and L (Low) - proficient group

** Highlights show the most frequent structure

***M=L: Amount of using in test-management strategies is equally the same between Medium and Low group

With regard to the obtained results, it can be concluded that Low-proficient group (as it is bolded-italicized in the Table 3. & 4.) makes considerable amount of using Reading strategies in comparison with Medium and High-group. Moreover, the Low > Medium > High (L > M > H) structure is the more frequent one among others (they are highlighted in the Table 4.). Overall, the Low and Medium group out-performed in the use of Reading strategies. The same interpretation can be extended on the Test-management strategies as well.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The present study investigated any differences in language proficiency in the use of test-taking strategies in the reading test of TOEFL iBT. It has provided empirical evidence that although differences do not play a significant role in the use of Reading and Test-management strategies in the case of different language abilities.

A. Limitations and Delimitations

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

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

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

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

B. Suggestions for Further Research

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

C. Conclusions

The underlying goal of this study was to gain a better understanding of how reading and test-management strategies are used by test-takers in the reading section of TOEFL iBT (Cohen & Upton, 2006; Phakiti, 2003 a,b; Purpura, 1997, 1999). The focus was on the strategies that the participants (26 male and 40 females) used in producing answers of the reading section of TOEFL iBT. The basic assumption being made in this study is that the number of test-taking strategies was used differently with various language abilities. This appeared not to be the case on the basis of the study, and strategies were not used differently in levels of language proficiency. To summarize the findings of this study in terms of research question, the issue explored in this study was to investigate the difference in the use of different strategy types across different levels of language abilities. Overall, this was found not to be the case. Based on the findings from the statistical analysis, the strategies are utilized in all levels of language abilities. This finding supports the findings of other researchers e.g., Phakiti (2003a), Purpura (1997, 1999), Taguchi (2001), Oxford (1990), and O'Malley and Chamot (1990). Also, as the statistical analyses revealed that the Test-taking strategies have been largely used by Low and Medium group.

Regarding the results, there are some potentially important implications for EFL classes or TOEFL preparatory courses based on existing findings. The power of consciously using the Reading and Test-management strategies can help students, in any levels of language ability, to become aware of their strategy choices and make their learning quicker, purposeful, effective, and easier. Instructors of TOEFL courses can train and practice Test-taking strategies regularly in the classroom, by providing ample tasks (for further reading see Cohen & Apeh, 1979; Cohen & Upton, 2007; Cohen, 2002; Fransson, 1984).

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Foreign Language Anxiety on the Learner of French as a Third Language in Turkey

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Abstract—The aim of this study is to reveal how anxious Turkish learners of French as a third language become when they study French and the effect of anxiety on learning French. The study was conducted on 84 students (54 male and 30 female) that study in the department of French as a second language. There exist quite many studies on the anxiety especially when it comes to the effect of foreign language learning anxiety on the learners. These studies show that there is a huge amount of foreign language learning anxiety impact on the learners. The present study focuses on the influence of foreign language anxiety on the Turkish learners of French at Ataturk University in Erzurum, Turkey. The results show that the anxiety level is low and the level of achievement in French is quite high as the students already know a cognate language, English they have learned before learning French.

Index Terms—language anxiety, French, third language, foreign language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

A. French as a Third Language

In Turkey, French is taught at 23 universities as a foreign language in the department of French as well as in the department of language and literature. Those that study in these departments have knowledge in English before they start to learn French at the university. After they take baccalaureate at the end of high school, they get into these departments at different universities depending on their scores in the exam. As they do learn English from the 4th grade until the end of high school, from a psycholinguistic perspective, these third language learners are experienced learners thanks to Turkish and English learned before. These learners are bilingual and multilingual individuals who present different type of competence as compared to that of monolinguals (Grosjean, 1992; Cook, 1995; Jessner, 1999). Their anxiety level becomes even lower than that of monolinguals. When learners cannot recognize any similarity between the languages, they become more anxious.

The aim of this study is to reveal how effective the language anxiety is on the learner and whether it shows the same extent of effect on bilinguals. Compared to the previous studies on the effect of language learning anxiety on monolinguals, this study aims to explain also the anxiety effect on bilinguals. In our case, the learners that compose the sample of the study have knowledge in a foreign language before they start to learn the second one. Therefore, this paper is to contribute to the researches on foreign language anxiety.

B. Definitions

It is widely admitted that anxiety can be described as the situation of incentive that happens through physical, sentimental, cognitive changes when one is faced with a motive while foreign language anxiety is defined as the tension and apprehension related to the second language contexts (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1994). Anxiety is one of the most well-known and controversial concepts in psychology, which is regarded as a negative factor that has to do with feelings like fear, frustration, tension and insecurity (Arnold, 2006). Foreign language anxiety is not a personal characteristic and is not necessarily related to general anxiety (Dewaele, 2006). MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) in their studies have shown that anxiety has a great role in language learning. They imply that the self-confident students do not show foreign language anxiety and in case they do, the level is not too high to prevent them from learning (Brown, 2000). MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a; 1991b) found that students with high levels of French anxiety tended to experience more anxiety when engaged in activities specifically those involving the use of French.

In Turkey, there exists a tendency to regard teaching grammar as the equivalence of teaching language as all the language tests required by public institutions are grammar-based. Demircan (Demircan, 1988) in his study states that grammar though not explicitly explained by the teachers is easy to teach and assess. Horwitz (1986) and others (Horwitz *et al.*, 1986) prove that many are stopped mentally when they learn a foreign language. In this study, we try to find out the role of foreign language anxiety in the learning motivation.

Allwright and Bailey (1991) think that mother tongue has a role in the increase in the level of foreign language anxiety. They also believe that even in their mother tongue courses as in such courses as Turkish history, educational sciences and Turkish as a mother tongue, the students feel the anxiety in foreign language classes. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) advocate that the students get the feeling of anxiety from bad experiences, misbehaviour and prejudices created against

that language rather than start to learn foreign language with anxiety. Littlewood (1984) is of the opinion that foreign language is taught in natural environment otherwise this environment turns into the one that makes students feel negative about the language. In the classroom, if they can not pronounce well what they learn, they feel that they are ridiculed by their friends, criticized and corrected by their teacher. The language learners that feel diffident and anxious are psychologically introverted for communication in foreign language, which causes the interruption in learning unless this case stops. Indeed, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) found that French classes were rated as significantly more anxiety-provoking than mathematics or English classes.

MacIntyre (1995) states that anxiety affects listening, learning and comprehension which are second language activities and that students become concerned about miscomprehension or misinterpretation of language rules. Daly (1991) points out that the reason why language learners that feel anxious about language have difficulty in writing is that they get excited when writing just because they feel obliged to strictly obey the rules of proper writing. Öner and Kaymak (1986) state that culture has a great role in anxiety.

It has always become a widely discussed issue how and in what ways language is learned. There exist some factors that affect the way the people learn a second language; social environment, the level of interaction e.t.c which are external factors and language transfer, comprehension e.t.c which are internal (Doğan, 2008). Besides, Freeman and Long (1999) claim that individual differences have a lot of impact on language learning as in other subjects. Individual differences are age, gender, amount of experience in language learning and expressing own mother tongue correctly. Language competence, motivation, behaviour, learning strategies, anxiety, concern and the memory power are regarded as individual differences and affect language learning (Scovel, 1978). Horwitz et.al (1986) point out that the students that have anxiety in foreign language are forgetful and have difficulty in concentration. These students are reported to sweat during the course and deal with their dresses. They are late or never participate in the course, hand in their assignments in time, or be prepared for the course. It is observed that sometimes although they study hard, there is no considerable progress in their situation. Anxiety often brings about some physical symptoms like head-ache, nausea, stress, and inexplicable myalgia.

To put it in a different way, Gardner and MacIntyre stress that the students with anxiety regard learning a second language as a disturbing experience. Therefore, they do not willingly participate in the indoor and outdoor activities and they do think that they will get social pressure when they make mistakes. Many researchers like Horwitz and Cope (1986) believe that foreign language anxiety should be thought separate from that experienced in other courses. Allwright and Bailey (1991) claim that foreign language anxiety should differ from other kinds of anxiety. They explain that foreign language learning process consists of complicated experiences. The process requires the composition of their perceptions, beliefs, emotions and behaviour with classroom but it is not possible to claim it for children. As they are not aware of the rules when they use the language, they are not afraid of making mistakes. So, they easily adapt (Brown, 2000).

The aim of foreign language learning is not to help people acquire different conducts as in learning mother tongue. However, the learners of language find themselves in a different atmosphere in all aspects, which might be a threat to their identity and self-image. Hence, learning a language becomes an element of freight and anxiety rather than excitement. Generally, as second language learning or foreign language acquisition takes place in the class, the students get even more anxious. They feel nervous in this environment just because they think they lack knowledge in the pronunciation and the syntax of the language they learn. If people do not feel at ease in language learning environment, a psychological barrier to language emerges and if the amount of anxiety is more than a certain level, this situation becomes an important obstacle in language learning process (Littlewood, 1984). MacIntyre (1995) states that speaking activities increase the level of anxiety because by speaking the learners of foreign language have to interact with other people. Many researches in this respect have revealed that not only the speaking activities but also other skills like listening, reading and writing can all cause anxiety. Rogers (1989) points out that the reason why students feel anxious about writing in foreign language is that they feel insufficient to do so. Vancı (1996) is of the belief that learning a foreign language is an experience that reveals the anxiety for everybody. Kaya (1995) that studies the relation of foreign language learners' motivation, anxiety, self-confidence and therefore their introvert and extravert characters with their participation in classroom activities has revealed that the students having learned a foreign language, highly motivated, self-confident and extravert participate more in the classroom activities than others. It is indicated that the multilingual suffer very little from foreign language anxiety speaking in their first language. But this situation is contrary when one speaks a second language (Dewaele, 2006). Dewaele *et al* (2008) in his study for example show that foreign language anxiety has a significant negative effect on the recall of French L2 words. An anxious person would not necessarily suffer from anxiety when speaking a foreign language but a generally little anxious multilingual individual may suffer from foreign language anxiety when speaking a second language (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1994). Another fact is that advanced level learners show similar level of anxiety to that of the beginners (Aida, 1994). Students acknowledge that their anxiety about language results from personal reasons especially when they see speaking and writing skills negative, compare themselves with others and have higher expectations, misbeliefs about language learning. Anxiety results from the students' lack of self-confidence, being compared with others and from their views on the language. The discussions and researches on the effect of anxiety on foreign language learning sparkled by Horwitz and Cope (1986) still continue today. They discuss that it becomes more and more important to learn a foreign language nowadays in all areas and those that are aware of the fact are even more anxious. Ganschow and Sparks (1996) studied foreign language anxiety and mother tongue learning competences, the

effect of the attitudes toward foreign language on women's learning a foreign language. From this study, one can conclude that students' learning their own mother tongue and foreign language competences as well as their positive attitudes and behaviour toward foreign language affect the level of anxiety. The study also shows that the students whose level of anxiety about foreign language is low are more successful in learning a language.

C. Types of Anxiety

Several categories of anxiety are in psychology literature. Typically, anxiety as a personality trait is differentiated from a transient anxiety state (Horwitz, 2001). The type of transient anxiety brought on by situations involving threat is called state anxiety (Scovel, 1978) while another type, which is constantly felt by some individuals regardless of threats generated within their environment, is called trait anxiety. State anxiety is considered a normal feeling, whereas trait anxiety is identified as a personality trait that requires therapy and in which some are always anxious oblivious of the environment. Oxford (Oxford, 1999) states students may experience state anxiety in foreign language classes when they are asked to speak, but it diminishes as their foreign language skills and levels of learning increase. Some students develop this type of anxiety into permanent anxiety. Scovel (1978) proposed, based on several researches on the relation between anxiety and achievement, the "facilitating versus debilitating anxiety". Facilitating anxiety leads the learner toward challenging in the new learning environments by adapting approach behaviour while debilitating anxiety results in learner's adaptation of avoidance behaviour. Scovel states that an ordinary individual has both facilitating and debilitating anxiety at the same time and this type of anxiety warns or motivates the individual for any new phenomenon in language learning.

II. METHOD

In this study, the sample comprised 84 students whose 54 male and 30 female enrolled in French introductory course. The ages of the participants varied from 17 to 21. Anxiety Scale of French (Annex 1) was used in order to collect data. Before we conducted the scale on the students, we asked them all whether they learned English before they started to learn French. All of the students affirmed the question. The scale was prepared in accordance with 5 Likert type scale response anchors (Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree or disagree, Agree, Strongly agree) for 20 items of 33 on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety scale (FLCAS) instrument invented by Horwitz *et al.* (1986), a 33-item, Likert-type instrument that assesses the degree to which students feel anxious during language class. Horwitz *et al.* have conducted numerous validity and reliability studies on the instrument. The scale has been shown to be both reliable and valid, with an alpha coefficient of .93 and an eight-week test-retest coefficient of .83 (Horwitz *et al.*, 1986) (Horwitz, 1986) Validity has been established via significant correlations with communication apprehension, as measured by Personal Report of Communication Apprehension, and with test anxiety (McCroskey, 1970). In addition, Aida (1994) reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .94, using a sample of 96 students in a second-year Japanese course. Besides, the study by Ay (2010) was also benefited. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale whose reliability and validity was measured by Horwitz (2001) is today widely used in foreign language teaching and second language acquisition. As we were given by the department authorities only half an hour to conduct the research, we had to limit the number of items to 20. To protect the privacy of each student and prevent the impact of one student on the other, we asked the students to sit as separate as possible. SPSS 13.0 was employed for data analysis and the data were analysed by taking into consideration the frequency and percentage of the responses given by the students.

III. RESULTS

In this section, the findings obtained through the responses given by the students to the 20 item French Anxiety Scale were studied and interpreted. According to the results obtained through the answers of the students to the items, the following findings can be given. %41,5 of the students agree (% 39,2 agree, % 2,3 strongly agree), % 42, 8 do not agree (% 32,1 disagree, % 10,7 strongly disagree) %15,4 neither agree nor disagree on the item "I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in French language". From these responses, one can conclude that only a small number of students are confident in speaking French and their level of anxiety is intermediate because a grand proportion (%42.8) disagrees on the item.

% 45,1 of the students agree (% 41, 6 agree, % 3,5 strongly agree), % 46,3 do not agree (% 38 disagree, %8,3 strongly disagree), % 8,3 neither agree nor disagree on the item "I don't worry about making mistakes in French lessons". From these responses, one can conclude that the students have responded in parallel with the answers given above because the proportion of "Agree" and "Disagree" is close and it can be said that the students are partially anxious about making mistakes in French.

% 28,4 of the students agree (% 26 agree, %2,3 strongly agree), % 61,8 do not agree (% 39,2 disagree, % 22,6 strongly disagree), % 9,5 neither agree nor disagree on the item "I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in French lessons". From these responses, one can conclude that most of the students are confident in learning a foreign language and do not worry.

%26,2 of the students agree (%26 agree, %2,3 strongly agree), % 61,9 do not agree (%50 disagree, % 11,9 strongly disagree), %11,9 neither agree nor disagree on the item "It frightens me when I don't understand what my French teacher

is saying in the foreign language.” From these responses, one can conclude that the level of anxiety of the students is lower.

% 20 of the students agree (% 14,2 agree, %5,9 strongly agree), %68,9 do not agree (% 38 disagree, % 30,9 strongly disagree), %10 neither agree nor disagree on the item “In French lesson, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.” From these responses, one can understand that the students have interest in the course and are highly motivated and also the level of anxiety is lower.

% 60,7 of the students agree (% 50 agree, % 10,7 strongly agree), % 25 do not agree (% 14,8 disagree, % 1,2 strongly disagree), % 14,2 neither agree nor disagree on the item “I am usually at ease during tests in French lesson” From these responses, one can see that the students do not worry about French language exams.

% 49,9 of the students agree (% 39,2 agree, %10,7 strongly agree), % 32 do not agree (% 27,3 disagree, % 4,7 strongly disagree), %17,8 neither agree nor disagree on the item “I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in French lesson.” The results show that when the students are not prepared for the course, the level of their anxiety increases. Besides, it must be considered that the number of those that are indecisive has increased.

%30,9 of the students agree (%29,7 agree, %1,2 strongly agree), %55,9 do not agree (%42,8 disagree, % 13,1 strongly disagree), %13,1 neither agree nor disagree on the item “In French lesson, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.” From this fact, one can conclude that the students compared to other answers given for the other items trust themselves and the level of their anxiety is lower.

% 27,3 of the students agree (% 25 agree, % 2,3 strongly agree), % 60,6 do not agree (% 40,4 disagree, % 20,2 strongly disagree), %11,9 neither agree nor disagree on the item “It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in French lesson”. It can be concluded that most of the students are extremely self-confident and do not worry and some are diffident.

%52,3 of the students agree (%35,7 agree, %16,6 strongly agree), %34,4 do not agree (% 29,7 disagree, % 4,7 strongly disagree), %13,1 neither agree nor disagree on the item “I would not be nervous speaking French with native speakers.” We see that most of the students are confident in speaking French with natives and are never bored. Some students are diffident as seen in the item above.

% 38,1 of the students agree (% 36,9 agree, % 1,2 strongly agree), % 48,8 do not agree (% 36 disagree, % 11,9 strongly disagree), %13,1 neither agree nor disagree on the item “I get upset when I don't understand what my French teacher is correcting.” From this fact, we can understand that half of the students are not worried about not understanding what the teacher is correcting and are at ease and some are worried as well as introvert as in the other items.

% 40,3 of the students agree (%38,1 agree, %2,3 strongly agree), % 45,2 do not agree (% 35,7 disagree, % 9,5 strongly disagree), % 14,2 neither agree nor disagree on the item “Even if I am well prepared for French lesson, I feel anxious about it.” the responses given show that student are more anxious even though the number of those that disagree is more than the ones that agree. % 4,7 of the students agree (% 4,7 agree, % 0 strongly agree), % 86,8 do not agree (% 45,2 disagree, % 41,6 strongly disagree), % 8,3 neither agree nor disagree on the item “I often feel like not going to French lesson.” This item confirms that students enjoy taking French course.

%74,9 of the students agree (%57,1 agree, % 17,8 strongly agree), %11,9 do not agree (%10,7 disagree, %1,2 strongly disagree), %13,1 neither agree nor disagree on the item “I feel confident when I speak in French lesson.” These answers show that students in French feel comfortable and are not anxious.

% 23,7 of the students agree (% 16,6 agree, % 7,1 strongly agree), % 72,5 do not agree (% 51,1 disagree, % 21,4 strongly disagree), % 3,5 neither agree nor disagree on the item “The thought that my French teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make frightens me.” Therefore, it can be said that most students are not worried about making mistakes.

%17,7 of the students agree (%15,4 agree, % 2,3 strongly agree), % 67,7 do not agree (%40,4 disagree, % 27,3 strongly disagree), %14,2 neither agree nor disagree on the item “The more I study for a French language test, the more confused I get.” The responses show that most students are not worried about studying hard and have seized the importance of study.

% 58,3 of the students agree (% 47,6 agree, % 10,7 strongly agree), % 32 do not agree (% 26,1 disagree, % 5,9 strongly disagree), % 9,5 neither agree nor disagree on the item “I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language French lesson.” The results show that students are content with preparing for French course and are not anxious.

% 24,9 of the students agree (% 21,4 agree, % 3,5 strongly agree), % 60,7 do not agree (% 48,8 disagree, % 11,9 strongly disagree), % 14,2 neither agree nor disagree on the item “I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in French lesson.” The results show that most students are quite content with French courses and are not anxious.

% 35,7 of the students agree (% 25 agree, % 10,7 strongly agree), % 51,1 do not agree (% 41,6 disagree, % 9,5 strongly disagree), % 13,1 neither agree nor disagree on the item “I get nervous when I don't understand every word the French teacher says.” It is understood that most students are content with French while some are anxious.

% 47,6 of the students agree (% 35,7 agree, % 11,9 strongly agree), % 40,4 do not agree (% 32,1 disagree, % 8,3 strongly disagree), % 13,1 neither agree nor disagree on the item “I get nervous when French teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.” It is clear from the responses that when students are not ready for the course, their level of anxiety increases.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results of the study show that the level of foreign language anxiety of students taking French and studying at Ataturk University is low. The principal reason of this fact is the students' achievement in French courses and exams. Another reason is that students master already an Indo-European language which is also cognate to French. It is observed that the level of anxiety of the students is high only when it comes to 7th and 20th items.

% 49,9 of the students agree on the 7th item "I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in French lesson."; % 47,6 of the students agree on the 20th item "I get nervous when French teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance."

Taking into consideration the responses of the students, high level of anxiety is related to the fact that they are not prepared for the course. We suggest that the students should be given some time to get ready for the lessons about which they are informed beforehand in order to make students relaxed. Though some education experts state that this situation will lead students to tend to memorize or cannot be ready to speak spontaneously when they have to do so, they are supposed to inform their students beforehand thinking that the increase in the level of anxiety affects adversely students learning.

In this paper, it was found out that there was negative relation between foreign language anxiety and the students' achievement in French courses. It is indicated that foreign language anxiety is different from ordinary anxiety, proper to the situation, that it emerges in foreign language courses and affects students achievement adversely. It is widely accepted (Onwuegbuzie *et al.*, 1999) that foreign language anxiety has a negative effect on students achievement in foreign language courses.

We can suggest from these findings that those that are to teach French as a foreign language provide a classroom, which is reliable and relaxing for the students because if people do not feel at ease, as seen in Littlewood (1984), they start to have psychological barriers in their mind and if the amount of anxiety is over a certain level, this fact turns into an obstacle in learning process.

Besides, teachers are expected to give students, not being ready for the course, some time to get ready for the lessons about which they are informed beforehand in order to relieve their anxiety and make them relaxed. If teachers did so, they could prevent foreign language anxiety of their students and would facilitate their language learning and help them be away from the environment of anxiety. The learners of French as a third language having knowledge in English start to learn from the 4th grade until the end of high school and feel more relaxed when they see the similarity between both foreign languages. So, it is recommended that the similarities between two cognate languages should be shown and through these similarities make the learners aware of the fact that the language they are learning is not difficult. Dewaele (2007) suggests that quadrilinguals and trilinguals have lower levels of foreign language anxiety in their L2 compared to bilinguals. We suggest that bilingual sources like English-French ones should be consulted during French courses.

TABLE I.
THE ITEMS, FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF ANSWERS RELATED TO ANXIETY IN FRENCH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

| No | Item | V | SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|-----|------|------|------|------|
| 1 | I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in French language | f | 2 | 33 | 13 | 27 | 9 |
| | | % | 2,3 | 39,2 | 15,4 | 32,1 | 10,7 |
| 2 | I don't worry about making mistakes in French lessons | f | 3 | 35 | 7 | 32 | 7 |
| | | % | 3,5 | 41,6 | 8,3 | 38 | 8,3 |
| 3 | I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in French lessons | f | 2 | 22 | 8 | 33 | 19 |
| | | % | 2,3 | 26,1 | 9,5 | 39,2 | 22,6 |
| 4 | It frightens me when I don't understand what my French teacher is saying in the foreign language. | f | 6 | 16 | 10 | 42 | 10 |
| | | % | 7,1 | 19,1 | 11,9 | 50 | 11,9 |
| 5 | In French lesson, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course. | f | 5 | 12 | 9 | 32 | 26 |
| | | % | 5,9 | 14,2 | 10,7 | 38 | 30,9 |

| | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|------|------|------|------|------|
| 6 | I am usually at ease during tests in French lesson | f | 9 | 42 | 12 | 20 | 1 |
| | | % | 10,7 | 50 | 14,2 | 23,8 | 1,2 |
| 7 | I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in French lesson. | f | 9 | 33 | 15 | 23 | 4 |
| | | % | 10,7 | 39,2 | 17,8 | 27,3 | 4,7 |
| 8 | In French lesson, I can get so nervous I forget things I know. | f | 1 | 25 | 11 | 36 | 11 |
| | | % | 1,2 | 29,7 | 13,1 | 42,8 | 13,1 |
| 9 | It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in French lesson. | f | 2 | 21 | 10 | 34 | 17 |
| | | % | 2,3 | 25 | 11,9 | 40,4 | 20,2 |
| 10 | I would not be nervous speaking French with native speakers. | f | 14 | 30 | 11 | 25 | 4 |
| | | % | 16,6 | 35,7 | 13,1 | 29,7 | 4,7 |
| 11 | I get upset when I don't understand what my French teacher is correcting. | f | 1 | 31 | 11 | 31 | 10 |
| | | % | 1,2 | 36,9 | 13,1 | 36,9 | 11,9 |
| 12 | Even if I am well prepared for French lesson, I feel anxious about it. | f | 2 | 32 | 12 | 30 | 8 |
| | | % | 2,3 | 38,1 | 14,2 | 35,7 | 9,5 |
| 13 | I often feel like not going to French lesson. | f | 0 | 4 | 7 | 38 | 35 |
| | | % | 0 | 4,7 | 8,3 | 45,2 | 41,6 |
| 14 | I feel confident when I speak in French lesson. | f | 15 | 48 | 11 | 9 | 1 |
| | | % | 17,8 | 57,1 | 13,1 | 10,7 | 1,2 |
| 15 | The thought that my French teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make frightens me. | f | 6 | 14 | 3 | 43 | 18 |
| | | % | 7,1 | 16,6 | 3,5 | 51,1 | 21,4 |
| 16 | The more I study for a French language test, the more confused I get. | f | 2 | 13 | 12 | 34 | 23 |
| | | % | 2,3 | 15,4 | 14,2 | 40,4 | 27,3 |
| 17 | I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language French lesson. | f | 9 | 40 | 8 | 22 | 5 |
| | | % | 10,7 | 47,6 | 9,5 | 26,1 | 5,9 |

| | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|------|------|------|------|------|
| 18 | I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in French lesson. | f | 3 | 18 | 12 | 41 | 10 |
| | | % | 3,5 | 21,4 | 14,2 | 48,8 | 11,9 |
| 19 | I get nervous when I don't understand every word the French teacher says. | f | 9 | 21 | 11 | 35 | 8 |
| | | % | 10,7 | 25 | 13,1 | 41,6 | 9,5 |
| 20 | I get nervous when French teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance. | f | 10 | 30 | 10 | 27 | 7 |
| | | % | 11,9 | 35,7 | 11,9 | 32,1 | 8,3 |

APPENDIX A FOREIGN (SECOND) LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE

Directions: Each of the following statements refers to how you feel about your English language class. Please indicate whether you:

- Strongly agree = SA
- Agree = A
- Neither agree nor disagree = N
- Disagree = D
- Strongly disagree = SD

Indicate your feelings by checking the appropriate box next to each statement. Please give your first reaction to each statement. Please mark an answer for EVERY statement.

| | SA | A | N | D | SD |
|---|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in French. | | | | | |
| 2. I don't worry about making mistakes in French language class. | | | | | |
| 3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in French language class. | | | | | |
| 4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the French language. | | | | | |
| 5. During French language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course. | | | | | |
| 6. I am usually at ease during tests in French Language Class | | | | | |
| 7. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in French lesson. | | | | | |
| 8. In French lesson, I can get so nervous I forget things I know. | | | | | |
| 9. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in French lesson. | | | | | |
| 10. I would not be nervous speaking French with native speakers. | | | | | |
| 11. I get upset when I don't understand what my French teacher is correcting. | | | | | |
| 12. Even if I am well prepared for French lesson, I feel anxious about it. | | | | | |
| 13. I often feel like not going to French lesson. | | | | | |
| 14. I feel confident when I speak in French lesson. | | | | | |
| 15. I am afraid that my French teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make. | | | | | |
| 16. The more I study for a French language test, the more confused I get. | | | | | |
| 17. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for French lesson. | | | | | |
| 18. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in French lesson. | | | | | |
| 19. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the French teacher says. | | | | | |
| 20. I get nervous when French teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance. | | | | | |

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Hybridity as Instrument of 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, appropriation, multiculturalism and hybridity to see how tangibly these terms agree with the very context of the above-mentioned novel and to find out whether the purely abstract terms extracted from decolonization theory can be concretized in a practical form. Furthermore, this study aims at scrutinizing in detail the frequency and the possibility of the decolonization in the very fabric and texture of fictional narrative of colonized nations in general.

Index Terms—abrogation, agency, appropriation, decolonization, multiculturalism, hybridity

I. INTRODUCTION

The study starts with a brief introduction to decolonization, its strategies, hybridity and the analysis of Herman Melville's novel, *Moby Dick* by tracing the above mentioned elements as decolonization in it.

II. DECOLONIZATION AND ITS STRATEGIES IN LITERATURE

As the very practical advantage of post-colonial discourse, decolonization is the only process of removing the heavy exploitation of empire colonization which is the invaded of the colonized countries both culturally and naturally. But to comprehend decolonization as the central concern of the article, at first it is reasonable to discuss the notion of decolonization itself. Then, various kinds of decolonization including Early, Present, in Settlers and Invaded colonies as well as strategies, and colonies will be delivered. Consequently, decolonization in the settler colonies will be followed by analysis of Herman Melville's novel, *Moby Dick* as the embodiment of this process.

A. A Glance on Decolonization

Decolonization, in general, is a revolt, whether implicit or explicit, against imperial axiomatically legitimized 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 patriarchal societies. Being different in various involvement and engagement stages, like them, decolonization is divided into two waves: the early phase, as will be referred to in the next parts, which was put forward 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 wave 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 calls the necessary of 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 and Its Strategies in The Setter Colonies*

As was discussed, in the settler colonies like the United States, Canada, New Zealand, and Australia, land was occupied by European colonists, who dispossessed and overwhelmed the Indigenous populations. Therefore, in these colonies, decolonization which is possible through Agency, Nationalism, Appropriation and Abrogation is different from the invaded colonies. In such colonies, according to Ashcroft (2004),

the first task seems to be to establish that the texts can be shown to constitute a literature separate from that of the metropolitan centre. A vast and impressive body of literary histories, thematic studies, and studies of individual literary traditions has accrued over the last one hundred and fifty years or so in the white cultures of settler colonies. The task of compiling a national literary history has usually been an important element in the establishment of an independent cultural identity (p.131).

This decolonization which was the concern of early decolonizers can be seen in H.M. Green(1961); Carl F. Klinck (1965), a large body of text in the United State (Russell Reising, 1978), and many others. Thus, the early stage of decolonization is a kind of consciousness through which settler colonized people perceive themselves as individuals who can freely and autonomously initiate action and construct their own identity, that is, Agency, which in Ashcroft's (2007) view

'refers to the ability to act or perform an action. In contemporary theory, it hinges on the question of whether individuals can freely and autonomously initiate action, or whether the things they do are in some sense determined by the ways in which their identity has been constructed. Agency is particularly important in post-colonial theory because it refers to the ability of post-colonial subjects to initiate action in engaging or resisting imperial power' (p.6).

In the later stages some decolonizers try to develop their self- assertion through independent national literature in a controversial way as in L. Kramer (1981), W.H. New (1989), and Charles Brockden Brown (1799) in America. But, the problem to which they meet is lack of a national and local language as their own language. In other words, the language through which they want to establish and express a separated independent national cultural identity is metropolitan language:

'The colonial writer does not have words of his own....Try to speak the words of your home and you will discover – if you are a colonial – that you do not know them... perhaps our job was not to fake a space of our own and write it up, but rather to find words for our space-lessness... Instead of pushing against the grain of an external, uncharged language, perhaps we should finally come to writing *with* that grain' (Lee 1974, pp.162,163).

Therefore, the real concern is the control over the means of communication, that is, power of writing in the colonial situation as has been discussed in *The Conquest of America* by Tzvetan Todorov (1974). But how is it possible while the only dominant language as the medium of power is the language of the centre? In other words, post-colonial writing only can defines itself by seizing the language of the centre: 'The crucial function of language as a medium of power

demands that post-colonial writing defines itself by seizing the language of the centre and re-placing it in a discourse fully adapted to the colonized place' (Ashcroft, 2002, p.37). It is because language is the medium through which a hierarchical structure of power is perpetuated, and conceptions of truth, order, and reality become established. Post-colonial writing is going to reject such power and; therefore, post-colonial writing is the process by which the language, with its power, and the writing, with its signification of authority, has been seized from the dominant European culture. Post-colonial writing does this through two process of

"the abrogation or denial of the privilege of 'English' involves a rejection of the metropolitan power over the means of communication" and "the appropriation and reconstitution of the language of the centre, the process of capturing and remoulding the language to new usages, marks a separation from the site of colonial privilege. Abrogation is a refusal of the categories of the imperial culture, its aesthetic, its illusory standard of normative or 'correct' usage, and its assumption of a traditional and fixed meaning 'inscribed' in the words. It is a vital moment in the de-colonizing of the language and the writing of 'english', but without the process of appropriation the moment of abrogation may not extend beyond a reversal of the assumptions of privilege, the 'normal', and correct inscription, all of which can be simply taken over and maintained by the new usage (Ashcroft *et al.*, 2004, p. 37).

Therefore, post-colonial text is itself a site of struggle for linguistic control which is resulted in the appropriating discourse. This struggle extends to the disputes concerning theme, form, genre definition, implicit systems of manner, custom, and value.

Now, the question is that may we say that language constitutes reality? Paradoxically, it should be said that yes! But where is the center of reality, that is, its axiomatic center according which the other realities by other languages are constructed? The answer is that there is not any centre of reality just as there is not any pre-given unmediated reality and control over the means of communication determines the center of reality; therefore, the colonized nations through appropriation of language of metropolitan centre-- 'to convey in a language that is not one's own the spirit that is one's own' (Rao, 1938, p.vii), or makes it 'bear the burden' of one's own cultural experience (Achebe, 1975, p. 62)-- and self-assertion abrogate its centrality and they define themselves as the centre and they may reconstruct reality according to their own pattern of conventions, expectations, and experiences, that is, establishment of the link between the received English and place or in Emerson's phrase, , their 'original relation with the universe' (Emerson, 1836,p.21).

In a sense, eventually, abrogation through appropriation, which was operated by some decolonizers, is a kind of deconstruction. Because they use language in a way which disrupts its binary structuration. 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.

D. Decolonization in the Invaded Colonies

Regarding the cases of invaded colonies, decolonization, as was discussed in previous parts, was at first a national movement against colonization by imperialism. Therefore, it was an anti-colonialism movement which was shared by all invaded colonies. Like other movements it was changing and taking many forms so that it could get the freedom of its agents. This procedure has been presented by Ashcroft (2007) as:

'...sometimes associated with an ideology of racial liberation, as in the case of nineteenth-century West African nationalists such as Edward Wilmot Blyden and James Africanus Horton (ideologies that might be seen as the precursors of twentieth-century movements such as **négritude**). Conversely, it may accompany a demand for a recognition of cultural differences on a broad and diverse front, as in the Indian National Congress which sought to unite a variety of ethnic groups with different religious and racial identities in a single, national independence movement. In the second half of the twentieth century, anti-colonialism was often articulated in terms of a radical, Marxist discourse of liberation, and in constructions that sought to reconcile the internationalist and anti-*ditist* 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, routine life and social conduct? The answer is, at first, implicit in a return to pre-colonial languages. Mostly, as Ashcroft (2004) refers to, in invaded colonized as: 'African countries and in India, that is in post-colonial countries where viable alternatives to english continue to exist, an appeal for a return to writing exclusively, or mainly in the pre-colonial languages has been a recurring feature of calls for decolonization' (p.29). Another important basis of decolonization or liberation from domination of Imperialism is recognition of cultural differences which is a kind of cultural and mental decolonization. This is the consequent of the return to pre-colonial language what is in Ashcroft's (2007) view 'a return to indigenous languages can restructure attitudes to the local and the indigenous cultures.... Thus, decolonizing processes that have advocated a return to indigenous language use have involved both a social programme to democratize culture and a programme of cultural recuperation and re-evaluation (p.57).

III. MULTICULTURALISM AND HYBRIDITY AS INSTRUMENTS OF DECOLONIZATION IN MELVILLE'S *MOBY DICK*

Dialectic of pure and hybrid is another instrument by which the colonized countries and nations declare their national and cultural identities. Because of hybridity in the Post-colonial society, Post-colonial nations, in the moment of agency and self-apprehension, overtly establish and introduce their own cultural model which covers all various and multi-cultures as well as this new comer, that is, hybrid culture; therefore, they break away from European domination and excel it, containing a higher capacity as in Canada and America it was introduced as mosaic and melting-pot:

...Clash of the 'pure' and the 'hybrid', is well illustrated by the contradictions that have arisen in the Canadian situation. In Canada, where the model of the 'mosaic' has been an important cultural determinant, Canadian literary theory has, in breaking away from European domination, generally retained a nationalist stance, arguing for the mosaic as characteristically Canadian in contrast to the 'melting-pot' of the USA (Ashcroft 2002, p.34).

It is to say that this cultural hybrid model is not the consequence of absolutely independence and development, but it is the very inevitably nature and result of colonial and postcolonial co-existence. In other words, supplying a space for hybridity in the scheme of things by post-colonial countries as America or Canada is the sign of open-minded culture and society and the instrument of self-assertion as well as its superiority. The critic who has discussed this notion is Homi k. Bhabha whose work (1994) puts forward the space in which the hybrid culture is constructed:

It is significant that the productive capacities of this Third Space have a colonial or postcolonial provenance. For a willingness to descend into that alien territory... may open the way to conceptualizing an *international* culture, based not on the exoticism of multiculturalism or the *diversity* of cultures, but on the inscription and articulation of culture's *hybridity*. To that end we should remember that it is the '*inter*'- the cutting edge of translation and negotiation, the in-between space- that carries the burden and meaning of culture (Bhabha 1994: 38)

Thus, Bhabha distinguishes multiculturalism and culture's *hybridity*. For Bhabha, this "Third Space" is what makes the notion of hybridity so important and makes "envisaging national, anti-nationalist histories of the 'people' possible and through exploring it we "may elude the politics of polarity and emerge as the other of our selves." Empire authority anxiety is the very consequent of this hybridity which is the ambivalent position for undermining the monolithic hierarchical purity of culture, that is, Good European/Evil Non-European cultures.

Hybridity is a central motif of the novel through which Melville establishes Melting Pot or the Myth of America which has supplied a position for hybridity in the scheme of things. In the novel there is the hybridities of Queequeg /Ishmael through which Melville deliberately shows American superiority and disrupts the apparently axiomatic signficatory system of Europe which has invested itself with absolute authority over the rest of the world.

Hybridity, in general, is the mixing of separate elements into one whole and in the novel it usually occurs when Queequeg and Ishmael as two races intersect. Part of Ishmael success comes from his ability to combine elements of the European (civilization) and Indian worlds (so-called savagery). In other words, Ishmael as a hybrid white figure has absorbed an Indian's sympathy from Queequeg and a white man's desire to introduce his own culture. With Queequeg and Ishmael, Melville challenges the idea that essential differences separate the two cultures which is like what has been discussed by Ashcroft (2004) as: "...the strength of post-colonial theory may well lie in its inherently comparative methodology and the hybridized and syncretic view of the modern world which this implies. This view provides a framework of 'difference on equal terms' within which multi-cultural theories, both within and between societies, may continue to be fruitfully explored (p.35)." This difference on equal terms is the alternative for "destructive cultural encounter (35)." Through depictions of hybridity maybe Melville, following Cooper, predicts the nineteenth century's extensive debate on the term's cultural and scientific meanings. The term "hybridity" became popular at the end of the nineteenth century, when rapid developments in genetics occurred. Melville greatness and genius is confirmed in our contemporary times by highlighting cross-culturality as the last solution for inevitably social and cultural challenges and struggle of human for a peaceful coexistence:

'both literary theorists and cultural historians are beginning to recognize cross-culturality as the potential termination point of an apparently endless human history of conquest and annihilation justified by the myth of group 'purity', and as the basis on which the post-colonial world can be creatively stabilized. In the same way the poles of governor-governed, ruler-ruled, etc. are inverted and the concept of dominance as the principal regulator of human societies is recognized but challenged' (p.35)

Moreover, hybridity of Queequeg /Ishmael is the challenging monolithic purity of racism or decolonization, that is, abrogation of European Superiority as pure privileged culture. It is operated through unification of pagan Queequeg and Ishmael as a kind of implicitly symbolic hybridity. Analyzing process of ambivalence in the relation between colonizer and colonized, Ashcroft relates it to hybridity which disables monolithic dominance; consequently, undermines and abrogates its authority:

The concept is related to **hybridity** because, just as ambivalence 'decentres' authority from its position of power, so that authority may also become hybridized when placed in a colonial context in which it finds itself dealing with, and often inflected by, other cultures.... In this respect, the very engagement of colonial discourse with those colonized cultures over which it has domination, inevitably leads to an ambivalence that disables its monolithic dominance. (2007, p.11)

The implicit hybridization of these characters occurs when Ishmael and Queequeg sleep in one bed and Ishmael, in the morning, while "waking up and seeing Queequeg's pagan arm thrown round me.For though I tried to move his arm—unlock his bridegroom clasp—yet, sleeping as he was, he still hugged me tightly, as though naught but death

should part us twain (Ch. 3, p.21).” Ishmael pessimistically justifies this unification ...”there is no place like a bed for confidential disclosures between friends. Man and wife, they say, there open the very bottom of their souls to each other; and some old couples often lie and chat over old times till nearly morning. Thus, then, in our hearts’ honeymoon, lay I and Queequeg—a cosy, loving pair (p.41).”

This is a hybridity because two men are completely opposites: one civilized; the other a barbarian. Even the fact that Queequeg is dark and painted and Ishmael is fair seems to highlight this oppositeness. And, in truth, the two men are opposites—in every way but the soul. If we scratch away the superficial descriptors, we see in chapters 4, 5, 6, and 7 that each man is, essentially, like the other. Both are tolerant, both are decent. Both are forever helpful, and both are gentle people in an essentially brutal environment. Ishmael and Queequeg are universal characters (Americanhood) that portray the best in man, that is, America as melting pot and establishment of hybridity which violates axiomatically superiority of European and the White. This melting Pot and hybridity is embodied in one bed for two persons who even do not know each others and in the end of the novel, that is Queequeg who indirectly saves Ishmael: “the [Queequeg]coffin like-buoy shot lengthwise from the sea, fell over, and floated by my side (p.460).”

Exaggerating Queequeg’s ideal characteristics, Ishmael concludes that “Queequeg was George Washington cannibalistically Developed.... his very indifference speaking a nature in which there lurked no civilized hypocrisies and bland deceits (p. 40).” Thus, he links him to George Washington whom we know as American hero, quest, and savior and far away from civilization hypocrisies, that is, the son of pure nature or wilderness. They develop this syncretism when they bond by sharing a pipe of Queequeg’s Tobacco “soon I proposed a social smoke; and, producing his pouch and tomahawk, he quietly offered me a puff. And then we sat exchanging puffs from that wild pipe of his, and keeping it regularly passing between us (p.40).”

Ishmael enhances this unity when even joins the pagan in a burnt offering to Yojo:

I was a good Christian; born and bred in the bosom of the infallible Presbyterian Church. How then could I unite with this wild idolator in worshipping his piece of wood? But what is worship? thought I. Do you suppose now, Ishmael, that the magnanimous God of heaven and earth—pagans and all included—can possibly be jealous of an insignificant bit of black wood? Impossible! But what is worship?—to do the will of God— that is worship. And what is the will of God?—to do to my fellow man what I would have my fellow man to do to me— that is the will of God. Now, Queequeg is my fellow man. And what do I wish that this Queequeg would do to me? Why, unite with me in my particular Presbyterian form of worship. consequently, i must then unite with him in his; ergo, I must turn idolator. So I kindled the shavings; helped prop up the innocent little idol; offered him burnt biscuit with Queequeg; salamed before him twice or thrice; kissed his nose; and that done, we undressed and went to bed, at peace with our own consciences and all the world (p. 40).

The narrator Ishmael justifies his behavior by an allusion to the Golden Rule, which urges us to do unto others as we would want them to do unto us (Matthew 7:12). Opening his mind to religion is an important step for Ishmael, one which Queequeg took by leaving his home to sail the world and learn of Christians. The narrator mentions that both men are discovering that evil exists among Christians at least as much as among pagans. While this knowledge is somewhat disillusioning, it also expands their outlook and leads to a kind of wisdom that narrower minds miss. They are challenging Christians and they believe relativity of sin and guiltiness of man which is an open-minding belief; moreover, Ishmael, in the end of novel, becomes a person who is a mixture of the barbarian, Queequeg’s good features as nobility..., and a civilized man as he is; thus, Melville centralizes his novel on Americanhood who is a mixture and unity of a white and dark person like what was done by Cooper in the unity of Hawkeye and Chingachgook and their final watering Uncas grave as the favorite of future of America.

Ishmael and Queequeg are unified quest in the search of truth of the rest of the world and in Rosenberg terms “to instruct members of the community in the attitudes and behavior necessary to function successfully in that particular culture (hero myth and epics) (p.xvi), because they are characters who can and do grow and change. As we are informed in the novel Queequeg is a native of Kokovoko (called Rokovoko in some chapters), an island in the South Pacific where his father was king and his uncle a high priest. Queequeg as a Quest left his native island of Kokovoko to learn about the rest of the world. Ishmael has similar motives for his ventures. Motivation of these heroisms and mythologies is activation of Jungian (1968) Archetypal Tendency of Quest and Heroism consciously, that is, establishment of American Mythology which has been depicted in the novel in the form of crossing conventional boundaries as a metaphor of crossing limitations of European Knowledge and identification of the frontier landscape through Queequeg /Ishmael actions. Both understand that people from different cultures can learn from each other, and both value their differences as well as their similarities. An example is their respect for each other’s religion. What they discover is that a man’s soul is more important than his appearance or even his religion.

Ishmael has sensed his friend’s noble spirit, with or without the pedigree. In fact, almost immediately Ishmael recognizes Queequeg’s noble character, noting that he “treated me with so much civility and consideration, while I was guilty of great rudeness (p.22).” Queequeg is a synthesis of all racial and ethnic characteristics; that is, he is a symbol of all mankind. Queequeg uncovers this capacity as a universal man- melting pot in chapter XII when he recalls two anecdotes revealing cultural differences and relativity of social conventions (pp. 47-8). In chapters IV to VII we are informed that certain cultural distinctions broaden the two men’s insights towards a melting pot in which cultural blunders depend so much on one’s point of view, that is, relativity which is resulted in directing both men to the

positive possibilities of diversity. As a result, the novel is proposing American culture of cross-culturality as the norm of social community in which hybridity, also, has a position in its scheme of things, that is, abrogating the dominant European mono-dimensional culture.

IV. CONCLUSION

A number of decolonization techniques in this article were applied to Herman Melville's novel, *Moby Dick* to see how decolonization can be accounted for in terms of literary development.

The early American literature, including political allegory, morality and satire were borrowed from European literature frame, resulted in the primary cornerstone of decolonization, that is, Agency, especially cultural agency, and appropriation of English language as the best instrumental advantage for self-assertion which is decolonization of content and challenging their own inferiority.

In *Moby Dick*, the decolonization was strategically and essentially used in the various ways. The focal point is that the novel is symbolically replete with hybridity as one of its central theme. In the beginning chapters this hybridity is evident. Therefore, decolonization through hybridity at least can be applied to this American novel.

Symbolically hybridity of Queequeg /Ishmael is purposely challenge of European axiomatically cultural 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 hybridity, the spiritual unity of two men who are completely opposites has been depicted: one civilized; the other a barbarian. Even the fact that Queequeg is dark and painted and Ishmael is fair seems to highlight this "oppositeness." And, in truth, the two men are opposites—in every way but the soul.

To actualize abrogation of the absolutely monolithic pure culture of Europe, we proposed the very plot of this novel as American melting pot which contains multiculturalism a part of which is hybridity through the masterly spiritual and physical heroism and the high capacity of Queequeg /Ishmael.

The worthy of note point is that Ishmael and Queequeg, whose particular attitudes and behaviors are Melville's purposely and symbolically establishment of the prototype ideal American individual and the challenging monolithic purity of racism or decolonization, that is, abrogation of European Superiority as pure privileged culture, are unified quest in the search of truth of the rest of the world because they are characters who can and do grow and change. Both are forever helpful, and both are gentle people in an essentially brutal environment. Ishmael and Queequeg are universal characters that portray the best in man, that is, America as melting pot and establishment of hybridity which violates axiomatically superiority of European and the White. Actually, they are the matured and self-reliance characters. Thus, abrogating and undermining European literature and characters as the universal superior literature and characters or declaration of independence of America through literature, that is, decolonization is centralized.

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The Influences of Age and Power Relations on Vietnamese Tertiary Students of Non-English Majors in Making Spoken Invitations in English

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Abstract—This article reports research on the influences of age and power relations on Vietnamese tertiary students of non-English majors in making spoken invitations in English. The investigation also captures the need for socially oriented explanations of the English language learning and using through the speech act of inviting. The study found that these learners' ways of inviting are significantly affected by the Vietnamese culture. In the act of inviting a 23-year-old teacher of English to the class exhibition or graduation party, all students interviewed made their invitations formally, hesitantly and indirectly to show their politeness and respect towards the invitee who has power or authority over them. In the situation of inviting a fifty-year-old acquaintance to a birthday party or a concert, 17 participants out of 20 gave tentative expressions to the invitee who is much older than they are. The results also show that the students regarded themselves as the subordinates to an acquaintance who is on a level with their parents in the Vietnamese system of hierarchy; therefore, they used humble language with conventional terms of addressing (*uncle* and *auntie*) to the invitee and expressed their concern about the invitee's health condition. In the context of inviting a close friend or a classmate at the same age to have a cup of coffee, the subjects reveal their beat-about-the-bush style of speaking.

Index Terms—inviting, English, age, power relations

I. INTRODUCTION

Many researchers state that the combination of linguistic perspective and socio-cultural perspective is crucial to a successful learner (Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Coates & Cameron, 1988). Wardhaugh (1998) points out the relationship between the sounds, words, syntax of a language and the ways in which speakers of that language experience the world and behave. He also confirms that learners ought to take into account the interwoven relationship between language and culture, and must "maintain" that they are "inextricably related". "Learners could not understand or appreciate the one without a knowledge of the other" (1998, p. 216).

Daily communication always involves invitations and people often perform the act of inviting to maintain their necessary relationships or to show their care towards other people. Nevertheless, Vietnamese students often encounter some socio-pragmatic failure in making English invitations because of the impacts of Vietnamese culture on their English use (Nguyen, 1996; Nguyen, 2001; Tran, 1990; Tran, 1995). An example of Vietnamese EFL learners' failure in making English invitations is their repetition of inviting. It is inappropriate to repeat inviting someone in English after getting his/her refusal, but in the Vietnamese culture, inviters should repeat their invitations up to three times to express their hospitality and sincerity to the invitee who has power over them (Tran, 1997).

Most ESL and EFL learners study English in their own cultural situations and thus the opportunities of being exposed to the target socio-cultural environment are limited. How contexts of learning differ and how the cultural and social characteristics of EFL/ESL learners influence their target language use in different contexts need exploring to get a full complex picture of English language learning. This paper aims to clarify and discuss the influences of Vietnamese culture in general, age and power relations in particular, on Vietnamese non-English-majored students' ways of using English through the speech act of inviting.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The speech act of inviting has been studied in various aspects, especially in the light of Cross-cultural or Contrastive Linguistics, by Vietnamese researchers (Nguyen, 1996; Nguyen, 2001; Tran, 1990; Tran, 1995), but the influences of Vietnamese socio-cultural factors on the ways Vietnamese learners use English have not investigated carefully. In this

investigation, the researchers do not aim to compare and contrast invitations in Vietnamese and in English but focus on exploring English invitations by Vietnamese learners from the Sociolinguistic perspective.

A. *Speech Act Theory*

To Yule (1998, p. 25), speech act is “the basic unit of linguistic communication” and “an action performed by the use of an utterance to communicate”. When people try to express themselves, they do not only produce utterances containing grammatical structures and words, but also perform actions via those utterances such as inviting, leaving-taking and accusing. For instance, the utterance “Would you like a cup of coffee?” performs an act of inviting.

Hurford and Heasley (2003) state that on any occasion the action performed by producing an utterance is composed of three related acts: the locutionary act, the perlocutionary act (the perlocution), and the illocutionary act (the illocution). The perlocution of an utterance is often quite different from its illocution. Generally, the illocution performed by means of an utterance is intended by the speaker and under his control, while the perlocution is not always intended by the speaker and is not under his full control. For instance, a speaker may intend or try to carry out an illocutionary act of inviting by making an utterance, but the perlocution may be out of this speaker’s control because the invitee can refuse the invitation instead of accepting it.

The following example will show that both illocutionary and perlocutionary acts are indeed related to conventions. In the Vietnamese culture, when someone says “good-bye” to an acquaintance, the common ending is “come to my house for dinner some time”. Nonetheless, no Vietnamese would take it seriously because by convention this so-called invitation for dinner is just a ritual. If a Vietnamese delivers this utterance to someone from a different culture, the listener may really come the next day, and now the effect of this perlocution results from another convention that is the culture context of the listener.

B. *Felicity Conditions of Invitations*

As producing an utterance, the speaker normally wishes the hearer could understand his or her illocutionary meaning. This means that the speaker wants the performative in his or her speech to obtain the desired effect. To attain that efficiency, it has to satisfy certain criteria known as felicity conditions. Wardhaugh (1998) mentions three felicity conditions that performatives have to meet to be successful: Firstly, there must be a conventional procedure that specifies who the participants are, what they do and in what circumstances. Secondly, all speakers must correctly implement this procedure and carry it through to completion. Lastly, all parties must have necessary thoughts, feelings, and intentions.

Generally, to study the way people make any speech acts including inviting, many researchers consider: (1) Participants – how well they know each other and the status of their social roles, (2) the social setting – formal or informal, (3) the conversation’s purpose, and (4) the conversation’s topic (Brown & Yule, 1987; Hurford & Heasley, 2003; Leech, 1983; Schmidt & Richards, 1980; Searle, 1975). When the inviter succeeds to clarify the above factors, s/he will find out the proper ways to invite somebody. In addition, McCarthy (1991) contends that age and the social relationship between the inviter and invitee are also decisive to language choices. Nguyen (2001) defines the felicity conditions of invitations in America as follows: The locutionary form of politeness requires the proper use of wording and conventionally appropriate terms of addressing, and the illocutionary form requires the inviter to offer hospitality to the invitee without the imposition of charges or other demands. Furthermore, the implied benefit to the invitee is addressed as if their presence constitutes the bestowal of a favor.

Tran (1997) states that to be recognized as intended, an invitation must meet the three following felicity conditions. Firstly, the inviter must be in a legitimate position to offer hospitality and sincerity. Secondly, the invitee must be able and willing to accept the invitation. Lastly, the inviter must employ appropriate word choices and imply potential benefits to the invitee. For example, to invite someone to a party for a special tea, you need to be the host and there needs to be some special tea. You must truly mean to give him a special tea if he accepts your invitation, and in case he accepts your invitation you have to get him this special tea.

C. *Politeness Theory and Its Influences on the Act of Inviting*

In its simplest explanation, politeness theory consists of the recognition and consideration of the listeners with their feelings and rights in a specific situation (Holmes, 1992). Politeness is related to using appropriate language forms and it is determined by culture-based assumptions about what it means to be polite (Wardhaugh, 1998). The illocution behind a particular polite utterance might differ completely from one culture to another. In the light of sociolinguistics, Brown and Levinson (1987) divided a polite behavior into positive politeness and negative politeness. Positive politeness is an attempt by a speaker to treat the listener as a friend or someone to be included in discourse. Negative politeness is an attempt by the speaker to save the listener’s face by engaging in some formality or restraint. The notion “face” refers to the emotional and social sense of self that somebody has and expects everyone else to recognize. From Spolsky’s perspective (1998, pp. 30-35), two aspects of people’s feelings come into “Negative face: desires not to be imposed upon” and “Positive face: desires to be liked, admired, ratified, and related to positively”.

An invitation can show different levels of politeness, especially the friendly, polite, honorable and hospitable attitudes of the addresser to the addressee. In Vietnam, people usually invite each other at least two times. If the host or the inviter only makes his or her invitation once, the guest or the invitee may think that it is an insincere invitation.

Vietnamese people also tend to be more polite in inviting those who are socially superior or socially important to them. In addition, people are generally more polite to those whom they do not know well or “to those who are somehow socially distant: strangers, persons from very different walks of life” (Spolsky, 1998, p. 45). This particular investigation employs politeness theory to analyze the collected data and discuss the effects of age and power relations on Vietnamese learners in inviting.

D. Ways of Prefacing Invitations in English

In this study, the researchers would like to find out what strategies Vietnamese students adopt and adapt in their English use through the act of inviting. The investigation’s framework of analysis includes the following strategies.

There are two general types of strategies (McCarthy, 1991):

(1) Direct strategies: The inviter does not preface the invitation. He/She uses less-tentative (less hesitant and more direct) expressions, for example, “Have a cup of coffee?”

(2) Indirect strategies: The inviter prefaces the invitation. He/She uses tentative (more hesitant and less direct) expressions, for example, “We’re having an art exhibition next Saturday. I’m wondering if you could join us.”

Isaacs and Clark (1990) and Salmani (2002) point out four principal indirect strategies of prefacing invitations as follows.

+*Grounder*: The inviter informs the invitee of the setting of the invitation’s occasion.

e.g. “Next Monday evening I’m going to have my birthday party at home. Can you come?”

+*Pre-commitment*: The inviter reduces the invitee’s possibility of declining the invitation by trying to engage the invitee into a commitment to accept the invitation.

e.g. “You don’t have any plans for the weekend, do you? Can you attend our party?”

+*Hedge*: The inviter hedges the invitation by using expressions like “I guess”, “If you...”, “I wonder”, “maybe” and “I mean”.

e.g. “If you’re ever in Houston, just come and visit me.”

+*Flattering*: The inviter tries to convince (encourage) the invitee to accept the invitation by:

- Telling the invitee how good the inviter feels if the invitee accepts the invitation.

e.g. “Your presence would be great honor for us.”

- Assuring the invitee that there is no inconvenience.

e.g. “Come to visit us whenever you have time. We have plenty of rooms.”

- Showing the invitee’s benefit if the invitee accepts the invitation.

e.g. “It will be a good chance for you to meet famous people in our city.”

- Making a strong request.

e.g. “We’re having our party tonight at Riverside restaurant. Mary, you have to come!”

III. METHODOLOGY

A qualitative research is the study of a set of situational events that guide the interpretation of discourse (Ting-Toomey, 1984) and qualitative researchers attempt to accurately describe, decode, and interpret the meanings of phenomena occurring in their normal social contexts (Fryer, 1991). This study is qualitative by nature because its primary task is to clarify and explain the effects of age and power relations on Vietnamese tertiary students of non-English majors in making spoken invitations in English in three specific situations.

Situation 1: The invitee has the power or authority over the inviter. A last-year student, aged 22 to 23, invites his/her 23-year-old teacher of English to his/her class exhibition or graduation party.

Situation 2: There is age distance between the inviter and the invitee. A last-year student, aged 22 to 23, invites a 50-year-old acquaintance to his/her birthday party or a concert.

Situation 3: There is no age and power distance between the inviter and the invitee. A student invites a close friend or classmate who is at his/her age to have a cup of coffee.

The researchers collected speech data from open-ended or unstructured interviews (Nichols, 1991) with 20 Vietnamese full-time tertiary students of non-English majors at Ho Chi Minh City University of Transport in Vietnam. These subjects consist of 10 male and 10 female last-year students between the ages of 22 and 23. Their English levels range from elementary to pre-intermediate. All of them have learnt English as a foreign language for at least seven years but they were mainly taught vocabulary, grammatical rules, reading skills, and translation strategies.

A. Data Collection

The investigators employed open-ended interviews as the only research method because of the following reasons. According to Wimmer and Dominick (1997), unstructured interviews can be used to test what people respond to a particular issue, and this may throw a completely different light on the issue that the interviewer has never considered. Moreover, freedom for the interviewees to answer the questions in the ways they wish to is important in giving them a feeling of control in the interview situation.

To Wimmer and Dominick (1997), a dominant participant can negatively affect the outcome of the group and that group pressures may influence the responses made by individuals. Therefore, one-to-one interviews were employed to

avoid the potential impacts of one or two respondents on the remaining members of the group. Each of the 20 interviewees was put into each of the three above situations to answer a broad range of questions in any order according to how the interview developed (Breakwell, Hammond & Fife-Schaw, 1995). To Nichols (1991, p. 131), an unstructured interview is "informal" and "not structured by a standard list of questions"; therefore, the students were free to answer the interviewer's questions and the interviewer was flexible about probing deeper into the respondent's initial response to gain a more detailed answer to each question (Wimmer & Dominick, 1997). In other words, questions following the first one were entirely based on how the respondent's answer led the interview.

B. Data Analysis

The analysis of the received data includes the steps as follows. First, the primary and unstructured data was classified into three categories according to the research situations. Second, because of the varied nature of the responses, the investigators employed the content analysis technique (Wimmer & Dominick, 1997) to analyze them. This technique was integrated with the researchers' interpretation, description and evaluation of the results. The researchers' discussion and comment about the findings were given based on the data analysis and the theoretical background.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Situation 1: The invitee has the power or authority over the inviter. A last-year student, aged 22 to 23, invites his/her 23-year-old teacher of English to his/her class exhibition or graduation party.

All participants interviewed in this context used tentative expressions (grounders, pre-commitment, hedge, and flattering). These Vietnamese students expressed their invitations hesitantly and indirectly, for example, "Next Saturday, we're holding our class exhibition. Teacher, could you arrange your time to come?" "On be half of my class, I'd like to invite you to join us." "It's our honor if you could attend our graduation party tomorrow evening."

The results show that the Vietnamese participants apparently considered this situation a formal one; therefore, all of these speakers gave tentative expressions to show their politeness. As stated by Brown and Levinson (1987), relative power of the addressee over the speaker is one of the three elements determining the choice of language and politeness level. Talking to a teacher having some power over them, the Vietnamese learners tried to use English in a way that could avoid threatening the teacher's negative face. These students, thus, did not expect the teacher to have the feeling of being imposed. They wanted the teacher to feel free of imposition: "I'm wondering if you'd like to attend our graduation party tomorrow evening." "Are you free next Monday morning, Sir? Can you come to share the joy with us?" Besides, the phrases "if you can" and "if you are not busy" occurring in some invitations also indicate that the Vietnamese participants would like to leave the decision for the invitee. This is considered a very high level of politeness in the act of inviting in the Vietnamese culture (Tran, 1997).

The presence of "On behalf of..." in the structure of four participants' invitations is a culturally marked feature. The speaker was just a representative of his/her class. He/She is an individual in a group so s/he is responsible for not only him/herself but also the whole community. Vietnamese culture appreciates thinking and behaving for the sake of the community, thus the Vietnamese collective spirit is extremely high (Tran, 1997). According to Brown and Yule (1987), culture has tacit powerful rules for activities of both individuals and groups; it governs each individual's behaviors in a group, makes him/her sensitive to matters of status, helps him/her know what other people expect of him/her and what may happen if s/he does not live up to their expectations. Culture also helps us recognize "how far we can go as individuals" and what our responsibilities are to our "group". Different cultures are the underlying structures that make "round community round and square community square" (1987, p. 14).

In Vietnam, teaching is regarded as the first most respectful profession among the noblest ones despite the fact that a great number of Vietnamese teachers are getting unsatisfactory payments. Teachers in Vietnam have been considered the second parents or sometimes more important than the real parents and students must always hold teachers in veneration. Therefore, in the first situation, six students out of twenty dare not address the teacher as "you" alone but they used "Teacher/Madam/Sir" first to show their respect to the invitee.

Situation 2: There is age distance between the inviter and the invitee. A last-year student, aged 22 to 23, invites a fifty-year-old acquaintance to his/her birthday party or a concert.

In the Vietnamese language, the communicators' ages are very important. It is an influential element in making language choices as well as in interpreting the illocutionary meaning underlying those language choices. People with different ages have different psychological lives that may deeply affect their use of the language. However, as revealed by McCarthy (1991, p. 127) "there has been little, if any, research that has had age differences in language use as its prime focus, despite the social importance of such differences." The researchers are aware that basing on their culturally determined viewpoint, many Vietnamese EFL learners may perform the target language practices in the ways that they follow in their own society and this study's subjects' expressions of inviting might be deeply controlled by the Vietnamese socio-cultural factors.

The English language generally depicts a society of equality between *you* and *I* (Spolsky, 1998; Yule, 1998), while the Vietnamese language depicts a society of hierarchy with many different terms of addressing between people at different ages (Tran, 1997). In the second situation, the findings show that 17 participants out of 20 used tentative expressions, for example, "Uncle, please go to the concert with us. We've already bought the tickets." or "Auntie,

you've looked tired recently. Please go to the concert with us." Actually, there were not any uncles or aunts of the informants here but in the Vietnamese language and culture, "uncle" and "auntie" are the two polite and conventional terms that are usually addressed to those who are on a level with parents in the system of hierarchy. It is clear that these Vietnamese learners' ways of using English are determined by their conventional beliefs of hierarchy.

In such a hierarchical society as Vietnam, age is also one of the factors establishing the level of power between citizens of a society in general and between members of a family in particular. Young people, as a result, are expected to speak and behave differently from what the elderly do. It is necessary that Vietnamese older people be respected by the younger regardless of social positions. Therefore, the language used by the young to the older people is usually indirect and humble with an employment of formal and respectful terms of addressing (uncle, auntie). Therefore, when a last year student, aged 22 to 23, talked to a fifty-year-old acquaintance, s/he regarded him/her the subordinates. The findings show that 17 students out of 20, who were much influenced by Confucian tenets (emphasizing the hierarchy in society), invited a fifty-year-old acquaintance tentatively to avoid losing the superior's face. In Vietnam, causing someone to lose face is considered a challenge to his/her status in the hierarchy. Nevertheless, the Confucian philosophy seems to be faded in the rest of participants (3 participants). These three informants employed much less formal and less tentative expressions, for instance, "*Why don't you go to the orchestra concert with us?*" "*Will you go to the concert with us?*" or "*I'd like to invite you to the concert with us.*" This shows that some young Vietnamese speakers of English today can learn, acquire, and use the target language appropriately even though they are taught in the Vietnamese context.

Noticeably, eight Vietnamese inviters stated the health condition of the invitees as a grounder, "*You've looked tired recently*". Again, this is a conventional feature of Vietnamese tradition. Mentioning health condition of the hearer is one way to express the speaker's concern to the hearer, especially when the hearer is a middle-aged or an old Vietnamese person. One thing to remember is that when you consider the Vietnamese listener's health status, you should not mention the bad things about the fact. For example, you see that the listener has looked sick and pale these days but you should not frankly tell him/her about the truth "sick and pale", instead you should say something like "tired". The reason for this is that Vietnamese people do not want the listener to worry too much about his/her health although this is not always good for the listener.

Choosing the appropriate linguistic forms for inviting involves the dimensions of solidarity (social distance) and power (social status). Holmes (1992) states that imperatives are used between people knowing each other well or to subordinates; while interrogatives and declaratives, including hints, tend to be used between those who are less familiar with each other, or where there are some reasons to feel the task being requested is not a routine. In the act of inviting an acquaintance to a birthday party or to a concert, 16 inviters used interrogatives to the invitee who was less familiar with them. Interestingly, every student avoided using flattering, and all of them employed grounder and pre-commitment in their invitations to an acquaintance. These Vietnamese speakers showed that they found it distant in the relationship with an acquaintance. To Brown and Levinson (1987), when talking to an acquaintance, people focus on the negative face wants of such a person with social distance to avoid imposing on him/her. That is why these Vietnamese speakers used tentative expressions in their invitations.

Situation 3: There is no age and power distance between the inviter and the invitee. A student invites a close friend or classmate who is at his/her age to have a cup of coffee.

In the last situation, the interviews show that 15 participants out of 20 used less-tentative expressions, for example, "How about having a cup of coffee?" "Could I invite you a cup of coffee?" "Let's have some coffee now." "Do you want to get some coffee?" "Would you like to have a cup of coffee?" "Would you have a cup of coffee with me?" "Have a cup of coffee now?" "Coffee?"

Five interviewees out of 20 used tentative expressions: "Hey Long, I can invite you a cup of coffee. What do you think?" "I think a cup of hot coffee will be good for you. What do you think?" "There's a new cafeteria near here. Would you like to have a cup of coffee there?" "I'm wondering if you want a coffee now." "Do you think I can invite you a coffee?"

The above findings illustrate the fact that Vietnamese people often reveal their beat-about-the-bush style of speaking. They do not usually deliver their invitations without saying something beforehand even though they are close friends. Five Vietnamese students out of twenty gave grounder, hedge and flattering in their invitations to a classmate or close friend.

In this situation, the Vietnamese language reveals its great impacts on the Vietnamese learners' use of English. Feelings and thinking are always given the first priority in the Vietnamese mind and this is transferred into their use of English: "*I think a cup of hot coffee will be good for you. What do you think?*" One Vietnamese informant spoke out his/her intention beforehand and then asked for the invitee's opinion: "*I can invite you a cup of coffee. What do you think?*" This invitation may sound strange to native speakers of English because the inviter translated word for word his thinking from Vietnamese into English. The question "*What do you think?*" here functions as a probing question and as an invitation as well. "*I can*" refers to not only the ability of paying for a cup of coffee but also an intention or plan. Similarly, one student said to his classmate, "*Do you think I can invite you a coffee?*" In terms of meaning, this expression may sound absurd or ridiculous but it is actually an acceptable way of inviting in the Vietnamese culture.

This informal context happens between close friends or classmates; therefore, 15 participants employed less-tentative expressions. These subjects realized that minimizing social distance between close friends was an essential task. Obviously, the friendliness between the two close friends brought about the directness in the use of the target language. Therefore, to show their positive politeness to the classmates, these informants employed friendly or direct expressions. According to Spolsky (1998), being friendly with the hearer or showing concern for him/her, the speaker saved the hearer's positive face.

The friendliness and solidarity between close friends or classmates were also indicated in the way the students greeted and addressed to each other. Six students out of twenty did not use any terms of addressing at all. They just invited their classmate without calling the invitee's name or using any addressing terms, for example, "Coffee?" or "Hey, drink coffee?" In addition, three invitations employed imperative forms including the structure "Let's ..." which may be informal and casual, but are illustrations of the friendliness between close friends. As mentioned previously in this paper, Holmes (1992) states that imperatives are used between people who have known each other well.

V. CONCLUSION

In *Speech acts and second language learning*, Schmidt and Richards (1980, p. 156) conclude that speech acts are "not comparable across cultures" and each culture defined a certain conventionalized norm for interpreting each speech act. It appears that to perform the act of inviting appropriately and effectively, non-native speakers of English like the Vietnamese should not only base on linguistic forms of this act but also put it in specific situations. The results of this research show that the patterns of invitations spoken by Vietnamese EFL learners differ from this context to that context and these learners' ways of inviting are significantly affected by the Vietnamese culture. Basing on their own culturally determined viewpoint, most of this study's subjects performed the English language practices in the ways that they followed in their own native language and society. As to the process of learning, it is undeniable that social elements, such as power relations and culture-based assumptions about what it means to be polite, play an important role in development. Furthermore, an individual learner factor like the communicators' ages also weighs big impacts on the performance of the target language.

For a more complete understanding of language learning, second language learners must take into account how societal and cultural factors, whatever their different learning practices, enable their learning. Such understanding will help learners know more clearly how their own cultural practices may be harnessed to enable their learning process and progress. For this reason, both improving communicative competence and heightening the awareness of the target culture are of utmost necessity.

It is hoped that this study's findings make a positive contribution to the learning of English as a second or foreign language and to the art in ELT with special reference to the teaching of speech acts to tertiary students of non-English majors in Vietnam and some other Asian countries. The researchers also wish to see more investigations carried out to explore the influences of age and power relations on both inviters and invitees in the making of both invitations and responses.

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Relationship between Student Self-monitoring, Type of Peer Feedback and EFL Writing Performance

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Abstract—The present study was conducted to investigate the effect of self-monitoring technique and also the effect of self-monitoring followed by pair and group peer feedback on Iranian EFL learners' writing improvement. It was hypothesized that self-monitoring training and also self-monitoring followed by pair and group peer feedback would not improve students' writing. Four intact classes consisting of 54 low proficient female learners studying English for four years in one language institute in Baneh, Iran, were assigned to three experimental and one control groups. All groups including control group were instructed process writing. After that experimental group 1 (EG1) received training on how to use self-monitoring in writing a composition. Two other experimental groups (EG2 & EG3), in addition to receiving this treatment, were taught to use pair and group peer feedback respectively following self-monitoring on their compositions. A posttest was administered to all groups at the end of the treatment period. They were required to write a composition about a pre-specified topic. Results of one way ANOVA and Paired Samples t-test analyses suggest that there were significant differences between the pretest and posttest scores of the participants in all groups. However, the difference in posttest results of the study groups was not statistically significant. Further findings and implications are discussed in the paper.

Index Terms—process writing, self-monitoring, peer feedback

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing has always been considered an important skill in the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language (Chastain, 1988). At the present time, enough emphasis is put on the practice of writing and how this can assist learners in making their writing better by exploring the writing process (Zamel, 1982). Nevertheless, students find composing in English difficult because the writing process requires them to apply many cognitive and linguistic strategies of which they are not sure (Rao, 2007).

Language teachers, especially writing teachers, are familiar with the amount of time and attempt spent on correcting writing, specifically grammatical and lexical errors. Yet many studies on both native and second language writers have demonstrated that traditional error corrections have no or limited benefit (Storch & Tapper, 1996). Besides, many students may see error correction as the language teacher's unique responsibility because the teacher is often regarded as the "expert". Such an opinion may be difficult to change (ibid). Perhaps language teachers need to encourage students to develop corrective strategies which would motivate more learner autonomy and control over the nature of the feedback (ibid).

It is highly profitable for teachers to make students aware of writing techniques through the use of direct instruction. Methods of direct instruction that may particularly assist EFL learners can be through the use of self-monitoring and cooperation techniques (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Charles (1990), for the first time, proposed self-monitoring as a writing technique. For her, this technique motivates students to be responsible for what they write, and for their writing skill improvement. It encourages them to think critically and analytically about their writing and enables the teacher and students to engage in a dialogue over the text even in circumstances where individual face to face discussions are not possible.

Piaget (1950; cited in Jacobs, 1989) and Vygotsky (1962, 1978; cited in Jacobs, 1989) both discuss the profit learners can obtain through interaction with others. Piaget showed that peer interaction can cause cognitive conflict which in turn can lead learners to review and modify the frameworks through which they view the world (Jacobs, 1989). In Vygotsky's opinion, interaction with others facilitates learning and development. Mendonca and Johnson (1994) also state that peer feedback increases students' communicative power by motivating students to convey and negotiate their opinions.

Group work undeniably motivates the process of writing, improves the final product, helps develop the ideas and

builds the confidence. Working in pairs and groups can enhance students' sense of autonomy and responsibility in the learning process (Jacobs, 1989). Using collaborative technique, students directly will be engaged in the writing process and they may become more critical readers and writers (ibid).

According to Hansen and Liu (2005), successful peer feedback activities are not only a stage in the writing process, but also fundamental components of fostering language development in an L2 writing class. While peer evaluation in writing has been extensively studied, except for few studies, self-monitoring in writing has been almost neglected around the world. And in the Iranian EFL context, both issues have been neglected in writing research. Yet in the current climate of increasing recognition of the value of learner autonomy, self-monitoring as well as peer feedback deserves more attention in the Iranian context.

This study was aimed at finding answers to the following questions:

1. Is there a significant relationship between student self-monitoring and writing improvement?
2. Is there a significant relationship between peer feedback following self-monitoring and writing improvement?
 - 2a. Is there a significant relationship between pair peer feedback following self-monitoring and writing improvement?
 - 2b. Is there a significant relationship between group peer feedback following self-monitoring and writing improvement?

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. *Self-monitoring*

Self-monitoring is the examining of one's correctness of oral or written production (Benedetti, 2005). Self-monitoring in writing is a key instructional involvement of a self-regulatory approach to writing. Using self-monitoring technique, a writer produces a personal feedback loop. While writing down changes in specific aspects of writing, writers are required to evaluate and react to their writing at a metacognitive level (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997).

Charles (1990, p. 286) states, "Using self-monitoring students annotate their drafts with comments or queries on their problem areas before handing their texts in to the teacher." The teacher responds in writing to these notes, thus gives direct and appropriate feedback on the points raised by the students (Charles, 1990) and teacher's appropriating of students' composition sharply is reduced (Xiang, 2004); as a result, students have more control over the received feedback (Cheong, 1994).

This technique may also give assistance to the teacher to achieve their goals of writing which is to produce more proficient and autonomous language learners (Muncie, 2000). Furthermore, it makes the teacher stop being involved in exhaustive heavy work in revision. Giving students feedback based on their questions is much easier for the teacher and more helpful to the student's own condition (Chen, 2009).

B. *Self-monitoring and Peer Feedback*

Revision can begin more seriously when students go to their teachers and each other to receive feedback on the content of their composition. Through this, unclear and insufficiently supported ideas can be identified, reconsidered and revised (McGarrel & Verbeem, 2007). Students' reviewing is aimed at developing the text produced until now from different sources of feedback including self-monitoring annotations after the completion of the first draft, peer revision before writing the second draft, and written teacher feedback after draft two. These subcomponents are recursive and interactive (Flower & Hayes, 1981).

Cooperative peer reviewing permits students to get different evaluations; furthermore, students as writers self-evaluate their own writing. Self-evaluation may assist writers in developing more precise consciousness of their writing quality or difficulties based on the same dimensions used by their reviewers (Cho & Cho, 2007). Hence, students are permitted to compare their self-evaluation with peer evaluation on their own writing. The differences between the two evaluations may encourage writers to use their peer's different comments to make their writing better (ibid). The most significant advantages of self-monitoring related to peer feedback are that writers can convey their messages clearly and help construct the possible collaborative relationship between them and their readers (Charles, 1990; Cresswell, 2000). Peer can be an important source to develop correct self-monitoring which is conducive to self-regulation skills of writing (Cho & Cho, 2007).

III. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The initial sample consisted of 54 guidance and high school students of ages 12-18, except for three of them who were older. They had studied English for four years in a language institute in Baneh. All participants had Kurdish as their first language, and English was a foreign language for them. Participants were assigned to four intact groups: three experimental groups and a control group. All of the participants were female with an elementary level of proficiency.

In order to ensure that the participants were from the same proficiency level, the Class Placement Test B consisting of 60 multiple-choice items was administered to measure their proficiency level before starting the study. The index of reliability of this test was 0.6, which was deemed satisfactory enough for our purposes.

A pretest and a posttest consisting of writing a composition about a pre-specified topic were administered. During the

treatment, participants in each group were required to write two compositions about self-chosen topics using instructed techniques. Two checklists from Brown (2001) and Rowlands (2007) for peer feedback and self-monitoring were selected by the researchers, and were adapted to suit participants' proficiency as much as possible.

The investigation was made in 2011 and all the data were collected during a period of two months and a half. A proficiency test and a subjective writing pretest were given to students in all groups to assess their proficiency level and their writing ability respectively at the beginning of the treatment. As the rating of the pretest might be rather subjective, to ensure reliability, the compositions were graded by two raters based on Writing Scoring Rubric adapted from Wang and Liao (2008). An inter-rater reliability analysis using Cohen's Kappa statistic was performed to determine consistency among raters. The reliability was found to be $Kappa=0.86$ meaning that there was enough agreement between two raters.

Then, the researchers started the research by teaching writing based on the process-approach to writing in four classes. It is worth mentioning that none of the participants had experienced writing any compositions with the aim of communication before. Teaching and practicing the process writing continued for three sessions in all groups. After that, students in the control group were asked to write two compositions, one each week, about self-chosen topics and hand them in to the teacher to offer comments on them. After receiving teacher's comments they were asked to write second drafts and submit them to the teacher again to give her comments.

In the next two sessions, the importance of the self-monitoring technique, how to use it in writing, and how to make annotations were explained in Kurdish and sometimes in English to three experimental groups separately. In addition, examples of typical or perceptive annotations were also given to the students to assist them in understanding what to do in making annotations. Knowing that checklists are generally useful in developing metacognitive skills, the researchers selected two checklists from Brown (2001) and Rowlands (2007), and adapted some of their language structures to suit participants' proficiency as much as possible and used them as a self-monitoring checklist. Distributing it to the students, the researchers translated it into Kurdish orally in order to be understood well. Then, in all experimental groups, students were required to write about a self-chosen composition in the class, individually and annotate them according to the checklist.

Students in EG1 who were instructed about process writing and self-monitoring technique were asked to write two compositions at home one per week. For each, they were asked to write the first draft with their annotations and hand it in to the teacher to receive feedback on their problems. Giving feedback either in the form of correction or suggestion, the researchers returned compositions to the students. Then after revising and writing the second draft, they returned them to the teacher. For some of the compositions this sequence was repeated until the teacher was sure that students' problems had almost been solved.

Participants in EG2 who were also taught about process writing and self-monitoring technique were asked to write a composition at home, make annotations on it, and bring it to the class in the following week. At the beginning of the session, the researchers talked about the importance of peer feedback activity to improve their writing. After that, they organized the feedback teams in groups of two members, and distributed the peer feedback checklists made from self-monitoring checklist to the groups to help students give feedback on their peer's writing and also inform them which aspects of writing to give the priority while revising.

After that both members in each group exchanged their compositions. Each peer reader was asked to give comments on her peer writer's composition or underline the unclear ideas to discuss during or after writing her comments. Receiving peer's feedback on her annotated or unannotated problems, student writers rewrote their compositions to produce a second draft. Yet, having unresolved problems, students could annotate their second draft and along with the first draft, hand them in to the teacher for final comments. During the last stage, writers made revisions based on the teacher's feedback and wrote the final draft. For more practice, students were asked to write another composition at home, and the above mentioned sequence was repeated.

Participants in EG3 were also taught about process writing and self-monitoring technique and were assigned to groups of three members. After making annotations on their compositions at home, each member in the group made two copies of them and attached two pieces of paper to distribute to the peers in her group in order to receive comments from them on the separate sheet. After revising their compositions based on their peers' comments, each writer wrote the second draft and, along with the first draft, submitted them to the teacher for the final comments. At the end, each participant wrote the third draft according to the teacher's comments. For more practice, students were asked to write another composition at home, and the above mentioned sequence was repeated in the class.

At the end of the experiment, a posttest was administered to all groups, in which students wrote about a topic. The posttest compositions were rated in the same way as pretest compositions were. An inter-rater reliability analysis was performed and Kappa was found to be 0.81, which shows an acceptable level of agreement between two raters. At the end of the posttest, participants in EG1, EG2 and EG3 were asked to write their opinions about the effect of self-monitoring followed by peer feedback on their writing improvement, too.

IV. RESULTS

All the data from pretest and posttest scores of compositions were collected in order to analyze them quantitatively. One-way ANOVA was applied to investigate the effects of self-monitoring and type of peer feedback on experimental

groups' writing. In order to compare the mean scores of pretest and posttest of each group to know if there was a significant difference between them, paired samples t-tests were used. The students' ideas written about the effect of self-monitoring technique and also the effect of self-monitoring followed by peer feedback on their writing were collected and analyzed by the researchers. The findings of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis are provided below.

TABLE 4.1.
ONE-WAY ANOVAS FOR POST-TEST

| | | Sum of squares | df | Mean square | F | Sig. |
|---------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|------|
| posttest score for focus | Between Groups | 4.583 | 3 | 1.527 | 2.136 | .115 |
| | Within Groups | 22.889 | 32 | .715 | | |
| | Total | 27.472 | 35 | | | |
| posttest score for elaboration | Between Groups | 2.243 | 3 | .748 | 1.613 | .206 |
| | Within Groups | 14.833 | 32 | .464 | | |
| | Total | 17.076 | 35 | | | |
| posttest score for organization | Between Groups | 4.167 | 3 | 1.389 | 1.874 | .154 |
| | Within Groups | 23.722 | 32 | .741 | | |
| | Total | 27.889 | 35 | | | |
| posttest score for convention | Between Groups | 4.076 | 3 | 1.359 | 2.104 | .119 |
| | Within Groups | 20.667 | 32 | .646 | | |
| | Total | 25.389 | 35 | | | |
| posttest score for vocabulary | Between Groups | 3.722 | 3 | 1.241 | 1.832 | .161 |
| | Within Groups | 21.667 | 32 | .677 | | |
| | Total | 25.389 | 35 | | | |
| posttest total scores | Between Groups | 79.521 | 3 | 26.507 | 1.956 | .140 |
| | Within Groups | 433.667 | 32 | 13.552 | | |
| | Total | 513.188 | 35 | | | |

As Table 4.1 indicates, for all of the criteria against which the writings were scored, the p-values were more than 0.05. This means that there were not any significant differences among the groups in the posttest scores.

In order to provide answers to the research questions posed above, the following complementary analyses were also conducted. The results of the paired samples t-tests in Table 4.2 show that except for 'focus', in all other aspects of writing and overall writing the p-value was less than 0.05 (.007). This means that there were significant differences between the pretest and posttest scores of the participants in experimental group 1. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no significant relationship between self-monitoring and writing improvement is rejected. But results from one-way ANOVA show that there was no significant difference between control and experimental group 1.

TABLE 4.2.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TESTS FOR EG1

| | | Paired Differences | | | t | df | Sig (2- tailed) |
|--------|--|--------------------|-------------------|------------|--------|----|--------------------|
| | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | | | |
| Pair 1 | Pretest score for focus - posttest score for focus | -.500 | .7071 | .2357 | -2.121 | 88 | .067 |
| Pair 2 | Pretest score for elaboration - posttest score for elaboration | -.611 | .4859 | .1620 | -3.773 | 88 | .005 |
| Pair 3 | Pretest score for organization - posttest score for organization | -.389 | .4167 | .1389 | -2.800 | 88 | .023 |
| Pair 4 | Pretest score for convention - posttest score for convention | -.556 | .4640 | .1547 | -3.592 | 88 | .007 |
| Pair 5 | Pretest score for vocabulary - posttest score for vocabulary | -.556 | .6349 | .2115 | -2.626 | 88 | .030 |
| | Pretest total scores - posttest total scores | -2.611 | 2.1473 | .7158 | -3.648 | 88 | .007 |

In Table 4.3, the p-values for the paired samples t-tests were all less than 0.05 which means that the null hypothesis of no significant relationship between pair peer feedback following self-monitoring and writing improvement is rejected. But results from one-way ANOVA show that there was no significant difference between control and experimental group 2.

TABLE 4.3.
 PAIRED SAMPLES T-TESTS FOR EG2

| | | Paired Differences | | | t | df | Sig. (2- tailed) |
|--------|--|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------|----|---------------------|
| | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error mean | | | |
| Pair 1 | Pretest score for focus - posttest score for focus | -.667 | .7071 | .2357 | -2.828 | 88 | .022 |
| Pair 2 | Pretest score for elaboration - posttest score for elaboration | -.722 | .5069 | .1690 | -4.274 | 88 | .003 |
| Pair 3 | Pretest score for organization - posttest score for organization | -1.000 | .6124 | .2041 | -4.899 | 88 | .001 |
| Pair 4 | Pretest score for convention - posttest .score for convention | -.944 | .8819 | .2940 | -3.213 | 88 | .012 |
| Pair 5 | Pretest score for vocabulary - posttest score for vocabulary | -1.333 | .3536 | .1179 | -11.3 | 88 | .000 |
| Pair 6 | Pretest total scores - posttest total scores | -4.667 | 2.1506 | .7169 | -6.510 | 88 | .000 |

As can be seen in Table 4.4, the p-values for the Paired samples t-tests for all five aspects of writing and total scores were less than 0.05 which means that the null hypothesis of no significant relationship between self-monitoring followed by group peer feedback and writing improvement is rejected. But results from one-way ANOVA show that there was no significant difference between control and experimental group3.

TABLE 4.4.
 PAIRED SAMPLES T-TESTS FOR EG3

| | | Paired Differences | | | t | df | Sig. (2- tailed) |
|--------|--|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------|----|---------------------|
| | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error mean | | | |
| Pair 1 | Pretest score for focus - posttest score for focus | -1.000 | .5000 | .1667 | -6.000 | 88 | .000 |
| Pair 2 | Pretest score for elaboration - posttest score for elaboration | -.556 | .6821 | .2274 | -2.443 | 88 | .040 |
| Pair 3 | Pretest score for organization - posttest score for organization | -.778 | .5652 | .1884 | -4.128 | 88 | .003 |
| Pair 4 | Pretest score for convention - posttest score for convention | -1.000 | .7071 | .2357 | -4.243 | 88 | .003 |
| Pair 5 | Pretest score for vocabulary - posttest score for vocabulary | .7071 | .7071 | .2357 | -4.243 | 88 | .003 |
| Pair 6 | Pretest total scores - posttest total scores | 2.5372 | 2.5372 | .08457 | -5.124 | 88 | .001 |

Table 4.5 shows that in the control group, of five aspects of writing, only for elaboration and vocabulary the p-values were less than 0.05, but as the p-value for overall writing score was less than 0.05, we can conclude that in this group there is improvement in writing too.

Put together, it can be concluded that since the kind of gain in writing performance observed in experimental groups was also observed in control group (where there was no self-monitoring either alone or followed by peer feedback), the treatment was not effective in the context of this study. Accordingly, all the relevant null-hypotheses put forth above can be supported as far as this research is concerned. The fact that students in control group (as well as in other experimental groups) experienced a different form of writing (i.e. process writing) from what they were conventionally familiar with does signify that process writing even if not followed by any type of self-monitoring or feedback can lead to significant improving by itself..

TABLE 4.5.
 PAIRED SAMPLES T-TESTS FOR CG

| | | Paired Differences | | | t | df | Sig. (2- tailed) |
|--------|--|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------|----|---------------------|
| | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error mean | | | |
| Pair 1 | Pretest score for focus - posttest score for focus | -.333 | .4330 | .1443 | -2.309 | 8 | .053 |
| Pair 2 | Pretest score for elaboration - posttest score for elaboration | -.278 | .2635 | .0878 | -3.162 | 8 | .013 |
| Pair 3 | Pretest score for organization - posttest score for organization | -.111 | .4167 | .1389 | -.800 | 8 | .447 |
| Pair 4 | Pretest score for convention - posttest score for convention | -.278 | .3632 | .1211 | -2.297 | 8 | .053 |
| Pair 5 | Pretest score for vocabulary - posttest score for vocabulary | -.667 | .3536 | .1179 | -5.657 | 8 | .000 |
| Pair 6 | Pretest total scores - posttest total scores | -1.722 | .7120 | .2373 | -7.257 | 8 | .000 |

In expressing their ideas about the effect of self-monitoring on their writing improvement, most of the students in experimental groups said that before attending the class they had felt anxious, but after receiving the treatment they found the new way of writing a very pleasant experience. In addition, almost all of the students claimed that their weaknesses in grammar and vocabulary prevented them from writing what they wanted to write successfully. All of the students said that the time devoted to teaching self-monitoring was short. They added that until that time they had not been asked to write a composition in this way, and their weaknesses in using correct structure hindered them from writing annotations in English on their writing. Nevertheless, they agreed that this technique was wonderful, and that it affected their writing a lot. Furthermore, students in EG2 and EG3 were happy to work with their peers to find their problems and solve them before submitting their compositions to the teacher. It needs to be mentioned that none of them preferred pair feedback to group feedback or the other way round. Qualitative findings lend further support to our quantitative findings. That is, these new methods improved their writing.

V. DISCUSSION

The results of one-way ANOVA and Paired samples t-test analyses show that independently, each treatment type resulted in significant improvement in experimental groups. However, when treatment types are compared with one another, there does not seem to be a difference between their effectiveness and that compared to control group gains which were significant in elaboration and vocabulary as well as in overall writing. As such treatments do not seem to have worked at all as far as overall writing quality is concerned. The following factors may have affected the findings of this study:

1- To investigate the effect of self-monitoring on writing improvement, the researchers had to teach process writing, a prerequisite to teach self-monitoring, to all experimental and control groups. This means that the control group used the facility of self-monitoring indirectly although they were not explicitly required to do so in their writing activities.

2- Because of their weaknesses in finding their mistakes and in using correct grammar to express their problems in their annotations, some of the participants in EGs did not annotate their compositions and the students who made annotations mostly expressed their grammar difficulties that the teacher could also find and correct or guide the students to correct like what she could do on participants' writing in CG.

3- Limited number of treatment sessions may be another reason why no significant difference was found among groups. Self-monitoring technique is new and it needs more time to be taught and learned. Nevertheless, as students had never experienced process writing in the past, three sessions were devoted to teaching that, and accordingly lack of the time did not allow the researchers to devote more than two sessions to teaching self-monitoring.

4- Being in the same level of proficiency, peer readers were not so helpful to their peer writers in this study.

5- Low number of participants in each group may have affected the results, too.

Observing no significant differences among groups, it is concluded that improvement in participants' writing in all groups is due to learning and implementing process writing not other treatment types.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

The goal of the present study was to determine the effect of self-monitoring and also the effect of self-monitoring followed by pair and group peer feedback on writing improvement. The findings of this research provide the instructors with opinions about the useful writing strategies, and give them an opportunity to understand and to assess their own knowledge of what to teach and how to teach writing better. Although the result is consistent with the findings that self-monitoring cannot affect low proficient learners' writing performance significantly, it is recommended that EFL teachers, especially in Iran, change their attitudes towards teaching English writing. That is, to teach self-monitoring, first, they should take into consideration both process and product approaches in their instruction and that self-monitoring should not be neglected for three important reasons. First, self-monitoring has been claimed to facilitate

writing. Second, using this strategy helps students be autonomous. Third, it increases teacher responsiveness to individual needs during the learning of writing. Encouraging students to work with each other to solve their problems also can help them improve their writing.

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proposition (p. 107). Haverkate (1984 and 1988) says that the degree with which the requester intrudes on the requestee called degree of imposition, may vary from small favour to demanding acts (ps. 107, 385). (cf. Trosborg, 1995, p. 188).

- Request as a Face Threatening Act:

Trosborg (1995) states that the request is by definition a face-threatening act (FTA). The requester who makes a request attempts to exercise power over. So he/she threatens the requestee's negative face by indicating that he/she does not intend to refrain from impeding the requestee's freedom of action. The requester also runs the risk of losing face him/herself, as the requestee may choose to refuse to comply with his/her wishes (p. 188).

- Request and other Impositive Speech Acts:

Trosborg (1995) remarks that in a request, the act to be performed is solely advantageous to the requester and, normally, at the cost of the requestee. The proposition "benefit to requester", "cost to requestee" are decisive when comparing requests to other acts in which the requester attempts to exert his/her influence on the requestee (p.188) (see also Haverkate, 1979, p. 56, 1984, p. 94 and 1988, p. 390).

In contrast, the speech act of suggesting is defined as being advantageous to both speaker and hearer, and if the act to be performed is exclusively for the benefit of the hearer, it is an example of giving advice, or warning (Al-Sulaimaan, 1997, p. 139). The latter act is potentially imposed on the hearer to prevent him/her from a state of affairs which is clearly contrary to his/her interests. Fraser (1985) says that in a speech act of threatening, the speaker indicates to the hearer that he/she will instigate sanctions against the hearer unless he/she complies with the speaker's wishes. There is no clear-cut border between the illocutionary acts under investigation. What is a request may be presented as a suggestion or even as a piece of advice or instruction, a warning or a threat (p.44). Thus a desire on the part of the speaker to have the car cleaned may have the following forms:

1. Would you mind cleaning the car? (request)
2. Wouldn't it be an idea to clean the car? (suggestion)
3. I think you'd better clean the car. (advice)
4. If you don't clean the car, no one will buy it (warning).
5. If you don't clean the car, you'll be heavily punished (threatening).

Having believed that the act specified by the proposition is in the interest of the hearer, the speaker may attempt to diminish the degree of imposition. He/she can use the strategic device of presenting his/her own interest as being advantageous to both speaker and hearer. Nevertheless, a speaker may present his/her advice, warning, etc. as a request, e.g.

-You must have a day off/ study and prepare yourself for the examination.

Thus, presenting as his/her own concern what is beneficial for the hearer (cf. Edmonson-House, 1981, p. 124; Trosborg, 1995, p. 189 and Al-Sulaimaan, 1997, p. 140).

III. POLITE REQUESTS IN ENGLISH

A. Syntactic Realization

The main rule of a request is to bring the requestee to the awareness that some action is desired of him, but there are various ways in which this action can be achieved (Sadock, 1974, p. 74). These ways are as follows:

1. The Imperative Sentence Types:

Realization of request by the imperative sentence-type can have the following forms:

1. Hand me your papers. (A teacher to his students)
2. Don't open the door. (A mother to her children in a cold day)
3. Do stay for lunch. (A host to his guest)
4. Be quiet. (An elder brother to his younger brothers and sisters)
5. You are to be back before 8 o'clock in the evening. (A father to his son).
6. Let's go for swimming. (A friend to his classmates)
7. Somebody do something to solve the problem. (A requester requests someone for help)
8. Have a rest. (A person to his friend after a hard work)
9. Put this suitcase up there for me. (A lady to a passenger)
10. Wait a minute, if you want me to lend you some money. (Someone believes that his friend is in need of some money)

For further examples, see (Quirk et al., 1972, p. 402; Jacobson, 1977, p. 314 and Haycraft and Lee, 1982, p. 42).

From what has been mentioned so far, one can come to the conclusion that all the above types of requests are issued to make a requestee do something for the requester.

There are some factors that affect such types of requests. First, intonation, the marks of which are already placed to show where the contour changes. Second, the social situational contexts in which these utterances are produced and the status of the speaker and his requestee. These two factors make the imperative sentence types realized as the act of requesting (Hussein, 1984, p. 64). From a pragmatic point of view, an imperative request is "tactless" in that "it risks disobedience" as compared to the relatively indirect realization of request by interrogative and declarative sentence types (see Leech, 1977, p. 119; Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 221).

2. The Interrogative Sentence-types:

Requests can be realized by using interrogative sentence types. But these types do not begin with a modal auxiliary (cf. Sadock, 1974, p. 113). They are either Yes/No questions or Wh-questions. The following examples are illustrative:

- (1) Have you got a car?
- (2) Do you have an extra copybook?
- (3) Do you have some petrol?
- (4) Why don't you clean the car?

A close inspection of the above examples reveals that utterance (1) has a question force; utterance (2) requesting a copy-book; utterance (3) entails a request for some petrol; whereas utterance (4) has the illocutionary force of requesting for cleaning the car (cf. Leech, 1983, p. 119 and Hussein, 1984, p. 66).

3. *The Declarative Sentence-types:*

Requests can be realized by using declarative sentence-types. The following examples are illustrative:

- (1) I am terribly thirsty. (A request for some water)
- (2) This tea needs some sugar. (A request for some sugar)
- (3) It is very hot in here. (A request for opening the door or switching the air-cooler on)
- (4) You won't tell the boss, will you? (A request for not telling the boss)

In utterance (4) the tag-question has been used to confirm what is said in the first part of the utterance and its function is to make the request more tactful (Leech, 1983, p. 119).

4. *Modal Auxiliaries:*

Austin (1962) says that modal auxiliaries can be used for expressing the speech act of requesting. These modal verbs can be classified under "deontic modality" (ps. 4-7). The following examples represent different realizations of this type of polite requests:

- (1) Could you tell me the time?
- (2) Can you pass the sugar?
- (3) Will you get me a chair?
- (4) May I borrow your book?
- (5) Would you help me?
- (6) You might make less noise.
- (7) Wouldn't you pass the salt?

A close examination of the above examples, reveals that the requester requests his requestee to do him something. Using the modal auxiliary verb "can" means that the requester is asking whether his requestee is able to do the action. While using "will" means that the requester is asking whether his requestee is willing to get him a chair. Using the past tense form "would" or "could" means the requester makes his request more tactful and more polite, whereas the negative question makes the request more persuasive (Palmer, 1981, p. 168).

B. *Lexical Realization*

Polite requests can be realized by means of lexical items. These lexical items can be associated explicitly or implicitly with the speech act of requesting (Hussein, 1984, p. 73). Those lexical items are of different types, namely verbs, adjectives, adverbs and nouns.

With regard to their lexical meanings, they can be classified into two categories, namely explicit lexical request-items, and implicit lexical request-items (Clark and Schunk, 1980, p. 112 and Hussein, 1984, p. 73). In what follows we will focus on the lexical verbs only simply because they mark the type of request whether it is explicit or implicit.

1. *Verbs: The First Category*

Certain verbs like "appeal", "ask", "favour", "like", "mind", "oblige", "request", "want" can be used for realizing polite requests (Swan, 1982, p. 386). These examples are illustrative:

- (1) Can I appeal to you for help?
- (2) I ask you to clean the car.
- (3) Will you favour us with a very nice song?
- (4) I would like to see this film.
- (5) Would you mind closing the window?
- (6) Could you oblige me with a cigarette?
- (7) I request you to send some books of pragmatics.
- (8) I want two nice shirts.
- (9) I wish you would stop smoking.

In utterance (1) the lexical verb "appeal" is used to express a "direct request" in which the speaker asks strongly for something. In utterance (2) the lexical verb "ask" does not signify that a given utterance is a request, but also serves as the name of the performed action (Palmer, 1981, p. 67). In utterance (3) the lexical verb in which the verb "favour" carries the idea of request explicitly. In utterance (4) the verb "like" is used to mean "want" or "wish" particularly in polite requests (cf. Zandvoort, 1957, p. 77 and Swan, 1982, p. 363). In utterance (5) the lexical verb "mind" is used in the expression "would you mind" to express a polite request (Swan, 1982, p. 386 and Hussein, 1984, p. 81). In utterance (6) the lexical verb "oblige" has been used explicitly to realize the speech act of requesting (Hornby, 1976, p. 197). In utterance (7) the speaker explicitly uses the lexical verb "request" for the realization of a polite request. An utterance

like this is called an explicit request (Austin, 1962, p. 81). In utterances (8) and (9) the lexical verbs “want” and “wish” have been used to express request explicitly. Taking into consideration the social context and the speaker’s intention, one can say that they have the illocutionary force of requesting. Otherwise, they may just express a wish or hope (cf. Hussein, 1984, p. 84).

2. Verbs: The Second Category

There is another type of lexical verbs such as “appreciate”, “thank”, “trouble”, and “wonder” that can be used for marking polite requests. The following examples are interesting:

- (1) I would appreciate your help.
- (2) I will thank you for the offer.
- (3) Could I trouble you to pass the sugar?
- (4) I wonder if you wouldn’t mind dropping me home?

A careful look at the above examples, one can say that: in utterance (1) the lexical verb “appreciate” is implicitly associated with the act of requesting. While in utterance (2) the lexical verb “thank” is implicitly used to request something forcefully or widely when it expresses the meaning to be pleased with someone for something. In utterance (3), the lexical verb “trouble” realizes a polite request in an indirect way and simultaneously it is used in polite requests to mean “to cause inconvenience to someone”. In utterance (4) the lexical verb “wonder” is associated with the act of requesting. It expresses a tentative request and it is often said in a statement form (Ockenden, 1972, p. 30).

IV. POLITE REQUESTS IN ARABIC

Arab rhetoricians have focused on conditions of “الأمر” meaning “order”. These conditions are as follows:

1. Authority on the part of the speaker.
2. Obligation on the part of the addressee.
3. Temporal action, which means that “الأمر” requires an action that should be fulfilled at the present time or in the future.
4. Frequency which means that “الأمر” is directed to someone to do something, e.g. “أفتح” means “open”. As such, if this “الأمر” is said twice or more, its content will not be affected in the sense that the continuity of the action is implicit in the imperative verb (Al-Awsi, 1982, p. 80). Necessity and obligation are; therefore, implied in expressing “الأمر” (Al-Sakkaki, 1937, p. 152). “الالتماس” meaning “request” is to be realized by the forms of “الأمر” when these forms are uttered in an appropriate social context and with the proper intonation so as to exclude the two governing factors of “الأمر”, namely authority and obligation (cf. Hussein, 1984, p. 104).

From what has been said so far, one can set some conditions for “الالتماس”. They are as follows:

- 1- The action should be temporal. This means that “الالتماس” requires an action that should be achieved at the present time or in the future.
- 2- Frequency which means that “الالتماس” is directed to someone to do something for the benefit of the speaker.

Though the kind of the performative act which has the implication of anticipation is called the act of “soliciting” meaning “الترجي” (Haruun, 1959: 49) it is treated as “الالتماس”. In the realization of this request, the particles, “لعل” meaning “if only would that...”, “عسى” meaning “may be that...” are used to indicate the meaning of anticipating good things. On this basis, the particle “ليت” meaning “would that...”, which is normally used to express the act of wishing “تمني”, can also be used in the realization of “request” in the sense that a speaker wants his addressee to perform the proposition expressed in the predicate of “ليت” (Haruun, 1959, p. 49).

“الالتماس” meaning “request” is treated as an illocutionary act which is governed by certain pragmatic rules as compared to the rules that govern, for instance, the illocutionary act of commanding. On the syntactic level, the classification of sentences as “أمرية” meaning “imperative”, “استفهامية” meaning “interrogative” and “خبرية” meaning “declarative” cannot be compared to realize polite requests. The problem is with the intonation and/or social context in which “الالتماس” is used. For instance, the textual value of “الالتماس” like “أعطني الكتاب من فضلك” meaning “Give me the book, please” is matched by the value of the following formally different utterances.

- (1) الجو لطيف خارج الغرفة (The weather is nice outside the room)
- (2) هلا تلطفت/ تفضلت بفتح النافذة (Would you be kind enough to open the window?)

It is to be noted that the act of requesting in utterance (2) is realized by a certain lexical item which is “تلطفت” أو “تفضلت” (be kind enough), used as an interrogative sentence type preceded by the particle “هلا” (Hussein, 1984, p. 106).

With regard to the distribution of some lexical items used in the realization of request in Arabic. The following examples are illustrative:

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| (3) رجاء أعطني الكتاب | (Please give me the book.) |
| (4) أعطني الكتاب رجاء | (Give me the book, please.) |
| (5) أعطني رجاء الكتاب | (Please, give me the book.) |

These utterances show that the lexical item “رجاء” can be used initially, finally and medially.

In Arabic verbs like “التمس” meaning “request”, “أطلب” meaning “ask”, “أريد” meaning “want”, “أود” meaning “would like”, “أفضل” meaning “prefer” can be also used as polite requests. Examples:

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
| (6) التمس منك أن تبقى هنا | (I request you to stay here.) |
| (7) أطلب منك أن تبقى هنا | (I ask you to stay here.) |

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------------------|
| أريد منك أن تبقى هنا (8) | (I want you to stay here.) |
| أودُّ أن تبقى هنا (9) | (I would like you to stay here.) |
| أفضل أن تبقى هنا (10) | (I prefer you stay here.) |

V. DATA ANALYSIS

Our data which have been taken from Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) will be rendered to see how these constructions are realized in Arabic.

SL Text (1): (Source Language)

How about doing a bit of cleaning up around here? (Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper, 1989, p. 57)

A close examination of this example reveals that the requester is employing a suggestory formula for requesting. The requester is testing the requestee's cooperativeness in general by inquiring whether any conditions exist that might prevent the requestee from carrying out the action specified by the proposition.

The realizations of the English suggestory formula "How about..." are "ما رأيك", "لما لا", "ماذا لو", "ماذا تقول...؟", "من", "ماذا تقول...؟", "لماذا لا...؟", "لم لا...؟", "هل من الممكن...؟", "ألا...؟", "أليس باستطاعتنا...؟", "هل من الممكن...؟", "أليس باستطاعتك...؟", "أيمكن...؟", "ما قولك...؟", "أبمقدورك...؟", "الممكن...؟". This means that Arabic is richer than English in using suggestory formula as polite markers.

In translation, one should convey the illocutionary force of the text in question and use a suggestory formula. The polite marker that has been used is: "ماذا لو",

TL Text: (Target Language)

ماذا لو نظفنا المكان من حولنا؟

SL Text (2):

Why don't you clean the mess up? (Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper, 1989, p. 57)

In this example, the requester uses a suggestory formula. By presenting a request by means of a suggestory formula, the requester makes his/her request more tentative and plays down his/her own interest as a beneficiary of the action. The English suggestory formula "Why don't you...?" is realized in Arabic as: "ماذا لو...؟", "لماذا لا...؟", "لم لا...؟", "هل من الممكن...؟", "أليس باستطاعتك...؟", "أيمكن...؟", "أبمقدورك...؟", "هل من الممكن...؟", "أليس باستطاعتنا...؟". This means that there is one-to-many correspondence between English and Arabic.

A translator should adopt a semantic translation in conveying the proposition of the sentence under analysis. In fact, the proposition of the sentence under discussion has been conveyed successfully, but with varying degrees and different forms of polite markers. These markers are: "لم لا".

TL Text:

لم لا تنظف المكان؟

SL Text (3):

Do you think you could help me clean this awful mess up, hurry up. (Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper, 1989, p. 62)

In this sentence, the requester uses a consultative device in the sense that he seeks to involve the requestee and bids for his/her cooperation. Here, two conditions are relevant: (1) the inherent capacity of the requestee, both physical and mental, (2) the external circumstances related to place, time of the action. So, one has to use a consultative device. The consultative device in English "Do you think you could...?" is realized in Arabic as: "ألا تظن أنك...", "هل تعتقد أنه يمكنك...؟", "هل تعتقد بأنك قادر...؟", "هل تعتقد بأنه بإمكانك...؟", "هل تعتقد بأنه قادر على...؟", "هل تعتقد بأنه قادر...؟", "هل تعتقد بأنه قادر...؟", "هل تعتقد بأنه قادر...؟". This means that Arabic uses more consultative devices than English.

TL Text:

أ تعتقد بأنه بإمكانك التخلص من هذه الفوضى؟ هيا إذا!

SL Text (4):

Do you mind if I sit here? (Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper, 1989, p. 63)

A close examination of the above sentence reveals that the requester is seeking permission, i.e., he is asking about the requestee's willingness to let him sit down. The Arabic realizations of the English construction "Do you mind if I + present..." are: "هل من الممكن...؟", "هل بالإمكان...؟", "أراغب...؟", "هل لديك الرغبة...؟", "أترغب...؟", "هل تمنع...؟", "أتمنع...؟", "هل...؟", "هل...؟", "هل...؟", "هل...؟". This means that Arabic is richer than English in using polite markers for seeking permission. A translator should convey the illocutionary force of the message by adopting a communicative translation. As for polite markers the following one is used: "أتمنع".

TL Texts:

أ تمنع لو جلست هنا؟

SL Text (5):

Would you mind if I left early? (Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper, 1989, p. 64)

In this example, the requester asks for permission. The request contains reference to a preparatory condition which is the requestee's willingness to give permission. The polite request in English "Would you mind if I + past...?" which is used for seeking permission is realized in Arabic as:

"أترغب...؟", "هل من الممكن...؟", "أوافق علي", "ماذا لو...؟", "هل تسمح...؟", "هل تمنع...؟", "أسمح لي...؟", "أتمنع أن...؟", "في...". This means that there is one-to-many correspondence between English and Arabic.

One can adopt both semantic translation and communicative translation to convey the illocutionary force of the sentence under analysis, but with varying degrees and different polite constructions and markers. These polite markers are: "أتمانع".

TL Text:

أتمانع لو غادرت مبكراً.

VI. CONCLUSION

Translation has been viewed in the present study as a performance of polite requests, because the ultimate goal of translation is the conveyance of both the content of the message (proposition) and the force of the message (the intention of the requester). No doubt, a translator tackles both locutionary and illocutionary act, i.e., the superficial form of the utterance and its function and intention. Nevertheless, speech acts confirm the essential roles in which intention of the requester, his utterance, superficial form and function are interwoven within a context of situation, and all together can be successfully conveyed to the TL. This study has revealed that polite markers which give the utterances the force of polite requests in Arabic are more than those in English. For instance, the English polite marker "please" has been realized in Arabic as "لطف", "رجاء", "معدرة", "أرجو", etc. The Arabic realizations of the polite requests have reflected a high degree of translatability in expressing the illocutionary force of the requests under investigation.

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The Effects of L1 Translation vs. Paraphrasing the Literary Texts on Female and Male Students Reading Comprehension

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Abstract—During the last decades, the role of mother tongue in language teaching has been the subject of a host of research studies (e.g., Block, 1986; Kern, 1994; Jimenez, Garcia, and Pearson, 1996; Upton, 1997); however, quite rarely have researchers addressed such issues as comparing the use of mother tongue and other teaching techniques like paraphrasing and translation effects on teaching specific texts in literary courses. This study aimed to explore whether paraphrases vs. translations of English poems make any significant difference in EFL students' level of comprehending literary texts. It also aims to examine whether paraphrases or translations of literary text at undergraduate level affect significantly the performance of male and female students' comprehension of such texts. The data for this study were collected through two comprehension tests and a personal questionnaire from 40 English students who study at University of Isfahan. The data were analyzed descriptively and also inferentially. The overall findings of the study indicated that there was no significant difference between the comprehension of those who received Persian translation of the poems and those who dealt with the paraphrase of the same poems. However in the group, in which students received translation of the poems, the male participants significantly outperformed the female learners whereas in the group in which students received the paraphrase of poems, the female participants significantly outperformed the male learners. The findings of the present study would help teachers and teacher trainers to construct and implement L1 and paraphrase in literature classes more effectively.

Index Terms—translation, paraphrase, reading comprehension, literary translation

I. INTRODUCTION

English poetry has been taught in Iran for many years. The dominant method of teaching poetry during all these years has mostly been teachers lectured on the points that they thought would prepare the students for particular exams.

The main objective of teaching literature in the undergraduate departments of Iranian universities is to acquaint students with various literary genres, and consequently introducing them to the social, cultural, literary and intellectual backgrounds of other nations. Although instructors vary slightly in their treatment of literature, a common tendency can be traced out in their approaches. Adopting a traditional approach to teaching poetry, many instructors devote most of the valuable time of the class to “extrinsic” properties of literary texts imparting biographical, historical, aesthetic and philosophical information to the students. A large number of students will manage to pass the final exams by memorising the critical reviews of the poems. How many students brought up by this method will be the voluntary readers of poetry after they graduate from the college? Undoubtedly many of them will regard their literature classes as boring, monotonous and uninteresting.

Although the attitude of many instructors towards teaching poetry has changed considerably in the past years and even some ESP teachers believe that a well-chosen approach to the teaching of literature has some benefits for their students, there are very few teachers who advocate the inclusion of a new methodology to teaching poetry in their syllabus. Some instructors are ready to teach novels, short stories, plays and even essays, but very reluctant to teach poetry because they are well aware that with the old methods they cannot make poetry come alive for their students. Thus, if the methodology currently used in the poetry classes is not effective and successful, it is worthwhile experimenting with other methods and finding out whether they will yield significantly different result both on

educational and the attitudinal levels. The researcher wants to investigate the role of translating and paraphrasing literary poems in comprehending them.

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

A. *L1 in EFL Classes*

The use of first language (L1) by second language (L2) readers to help them comprehend texts has been noted in many studies (e.g., Block, 1986; Kern, 1994; Jiménez, García, and Pearson, 1996; Upton, 1997).

While there are studies to understand further the role of L1 use in comprehending L2 texts (Cohen 1995; García, 2000) throughout decades of foreign language (L2) teaching, a recurring issue has been the role of the first language (L1) in the classroom. A long-term and wide-ranging debate persists regarding practical and theoretical questions about the significance of the L1's obvious influence on the L2 being learned.

Although many feel that the L1 should not be used in the classroom, other researchers, teachers, and learners do see a role for the L1 and support its use as a communication strategy and instructional tool (Fung, Wilkinson, and Moore 2003; Mukattash 2003; Sheen 2001; Tang 2002).

A special classroom use of the L1 is the translation of L2 texts into the L1, a procedure that has been neglected, possibly because of its association with the old Grammar Translation Method (Owen 2003).

However, current research reveals that today's translation activities have little to do with the previous method, which occurred in a non-interactive teacher-centered classroom with few activities aside from the translation of difficult, non-relevant, and often boring texts (Bonyadi 2003; Owen 2003).

According to Vaezi and Mirzaei (2007) the idea of the effectiveness of using translation from L1 to L2 as a teaching technique to improve a group of Iranian EFL learners' linguistic accuracy was supported. Therefore, it can be concluded that translating from L1 to L2, using specific structures, can enhance learners' linguistic accuracy within the scope of those structures.

It also manifests that learners' mother tongue is not a useless element in second or foreign language learning. In other words, mother tongue, if used purposefully and systematically, can have a constructive role in teaching. Many teachers recognize that L1 in the classroom is a positive representation of inter-language. The data on inter-language and language transfer show that it is highly probable that L2 learners will always think most often in their L1, even at the advanced level (Mahmoud 2006).

Moreover, translation in L2 classroom offers a way to highlight similarities and differences between L1 and L2 forms. The translation is useful for L2 acquisition because, firstly, it uses authentic materials, secondly, it is interactive, thirdly, it is learner-centered, and finally it promotes learner autonomy (Mahmoud 2006).

Translation can also be used as a productive means to learn new L2 vocabulary. And translation can draw the teacher's attention to the words and structures that need to be practiced (Van Els et al. 1984).

For something different, Tuck (2003) proposes the use of *L1 to L2* translation as a guided writing exercise for beginners, using process approach activities such as writing practice, dictionary work, and peer-correction opportunities.

There are a number of researches which either support or oppose the use of first language in a foreign language classroom. Some researchers have promoted the exclusive use of target language in monolingual foreign language classrooms. Particularly, the practitioners who support the strong version of communicative language teaching emphasize on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language and frown upon the use of the L1 in EFL classrooms.

Macdonald (1993, cited in Ustiinel and P. Seedhouse, 2005) argues that switching to the L1 to explain what the teacher has said to learners is unnecessary and undermines the learning process. Thus, according to him, teaching entirely through the target language allows learners to experience unpredictability and to develop their own L2 system.

Translation is sometimes referred to as the fifth language skill alongside the other four basic skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing): "Translation holds a special importance at an intermediate and advanced level: in the advanced or final stage of language teaching, translation from L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 is recognized as the fifth skill and the most important social skill since it promotes communication and understanding between strangers" (Ross 2000).

Prodromou (2000) refers to the mother tongue as a 'skeleton in the closet', while Gabrielatos (2001) calls it a 'bone of contention'. Such views are but a mere reflection of the different methodological shifts in English Language Teaching, which have brought about new and different outlooks on the role of the mother tongue.

B. *Paraphrase for Comprehension*

One of the reasons paraphrasing for comprehension works so well is because it integrates all modes of communication--reading, writing, listening, and speaking--which leads to a deeper understanding of the text. The tie between reading and writing has long been established as an effective means of strengthening comprehension.

Vacca and Vacca (1999) stated, "Students who experience the integration of writing and reading are likely to learn more content, to understand it better, and to remember it longer" (p. 262).

Harvey and Goudvis (2007) contended that "opportunities for peer discussion and response build community and enhance understanding for all kids in the class" (p. 30). When introducing the concept of paraphrasing to students, it is important for teachers to first discuss the meaning.

The voice of the original author is maintained in a good paraphrase. If the original text is written with passion, the paraphrase should also be passionate. If the text is humorous, the paraphrase should be, too. Other voices that might be identified in a text could include sarcasm, satire, persuasion, or melancholy. It is important for students to identify the author's voice before beginning the process of paraphrasing. This process helps students identify with the characters in their reading.

As Harris and Sipay (1990) observed, "Being able to restate another's thoughts in one's own language clearly and unambiguously is a crucial test of whether the thoughts were understood" (p. 537).

Paraphrasing is useful in the application of rules and procedures because it presents the information in a different and more simplified way. This helps clarify rules and procedures for learners. Learners can also demonstrate their understanding of rules and procedures by paraphrasing them. Paraphrasing can be used with other tactics such as Application Flowcharts and Application Frames by having the learners Paraphrase the information contained in these structures.

It is important to note that Paraphrasing is a difficult tactic for learners to use. Extensive practice and feedback may be necessary before the learners become comfortable Paraphrasing. In addition, when using Paraphrasing to present material to learners, it is only appropriate to Paraphrase if the original information is difficult to understand.

C. *Teaching Literature in EFL Classrooms*

Literature was initially the main source of input for teaching in language classes in the era of Grammar Translation Method but since then it has been dropped down the pedestal. In fact with the advent of structuralism and audio-lingual method, literature was downplayed and ergo discarded to the periphery (Collie & Slater, 1987, p.2). The teaching of poetry to EFL students has always been a very demanding task. It is commonly assumed that English poetry is too difficult for foreign students to cope with and therefore it will be out of their reach. For almost two or three decades, literature, in general, and poetry in particular, which had played an essential role in foreign language teaching in many countries has been excluded from language classrooms.

Povey (1979), a vehement advocate of teaching poetry in EFL situations, believe that instructors of poetry are somehow responsible for causing the negative attitude of students towards verse: Ironically, often one of the most difficult things about teaching poetry to foreign students in handling the teacher's own deeply wrought unhappiness with verse, the result of experiences he or she has suffered (p. 164).

Arthur (1968) ascribes the aversion of students toward literature to ignoring the students' response and their private exchange with the literary text. "If literature is to become a successful part of an ESL programme, ways must be found to make literature both useful and enjoyable" (p. 200).

III. THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

This study considers the following purposes:

1. To find out the effectiveness of using mother tongue translation in English literature classes.
2. To find out the effectiveness of using paraphrase in English literature classes.
3. To compare the achievement of students regarding their level of comprehension in case of translation and paraphrase.

IV. METHOD

A. *Design*

The present research enjoys an empirical design which lets the researcher collect the data via observation, experience, etc. The rational for the empirical design of the study is the positivism epistemology which accommodates quantitative research.

The study intended to address the following research questions:

- 1-Do paraphrases or translations of English poems make any significant difference in EFL students' level of reading comprehension?
- 2-Do paraphrases or translations of text in literature courses at undergraduate level affect significantly the performance of male and female students' reading comprehension?

Based on the above research questions, the following hypotheses were formulated:

- 1-There is no significant difference in EFL students' level of reading comprehension when they are provided with Persian translation or paraphrase for the English poems.
- 2-There is no significant difference in male and female undergraduates' level of reading comprehension when they are provided with the Persian translations or paraphrases for the English poems.

B. *Participants*

Forty senior Iranian university students were invited to contribute to this study. They were 15 male and 25 female students of the English literature, studying at university of Isfahan, Iran. The participants were aged between 20 and 28 and the average age for the group was 23. All the participants had passed the same number of literary courses prior to

their participation in this study. The data obtained by a personal questionnaire (see 3.4.2) indicated that they had all passed their main courses of literature specifically the courses related to reading and understanding poetry. Students were randomly divided to two groups: A and B. There were twenty students in each group.

C. Instruments

In this research, I used two types of instruments: two tests and one questionnaire. The two tests of reading comprehension composed of 3 poems by William Blake (28 November 1757 – 12 August 1827). Each poem was followed by its Persian translation in one test and by its paraphrase in another. Below the translation or paraphrase of the poem, there were 10 multiple choice items. Therefore each test included 30 items. The three poems were The Tiger, The Cradle Song and The Garden of Love. The translated and paraphrased texts were examined by experts in the field of English literature. The Persian texts used in this study were the published translations of the poems by Hooshang Rahnama in his book, An Island in the Moon (2007). These texts are available in the market. Before the participants began completing the tests, they were given a personal questionnaire on their sex, age, term of study, and the literature courses they had passed prior to their participation in the present study. This questionnaire included 5 questions and the researcher used it to gather data about participants' demographic information.

D. Procedure

The data collection phase of the present study was conducted in September 2011. Two different classes at the University of Isfahan contributed to this research. Prior to completing the tests, the participants were informed about the aims of the study and how they could contribute to the investigation. Further, before the participants began completing the tests they were given the personal questionnaire on their sex, age, term of the study and the literature courses they had passed. They were then the researcher randomly given test A and test B were asked to complete the tests in 30 minutes. While the test takers were completing the tests, the researcher answered their questions (if any) in their native language, Persian. The students were also asked to attach their questionnaires to their answer sheets when handing in their test materials. As for the scoring of the test, each correct answer was given a single point. All the correct answers added up to a total sum. The data were then analyzed using SPSS software version 16 for windows. The data were analyzed descriptively and inferentially. The inferential statistic used here was t-test.

V. RESULTS

First research question:

1. Do paraphrasing and translating texts in literature courses at undergraduate level make any significant difference in adult EFL students reading comprehension?

TABLE 4.1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS IN GROUP A AND B IN SEPARATION

| Kurtosis | Skewness | Std.deviation | Mean | Number | score |
|----------|----------|---------------|-------|--------|---------|
| 15.60 | 3.76 | 1.23 | 23.15 | 20 | Group A |
| -.182 | -.312 | 3.76 | 22.45 | 20 | Group B |

In table 4.1 descriptive statistics; including mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis were reported separately in group A and B. Now at this point the researcher uses independent samples test in order to compare mean score in group A with mean score in group B. Based on having null hypothesis, two tailed samples t-test is applied. Table 4.2 which is Spss output, shows sig. 2tailed equals .810 for equal variances assumed. It is not significant ($p < .05$)

TABLE 4.2
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

| | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
|-------|---|------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|-----------|
| | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| score | 2.272 | .140 | .242 | 38 | .810 | .70000 | 2.88986 | -5.15022 | 6.55022E0 |
| | | | .242 | 22.489 | .811 | .70000 | 2.88986 | -5.28567 | 6.68567E0 |

As Table 4.4 indicates, the t-value estimated is not significant ($p > .05$). This means there is no statistically significant difference between groups A and B in comprehending the poems when they are provided with the translation or the paraphrase of them.

The second research question

2. Do paraphrases and translations of text in literature course at undergraduate level affect significantly the performance of male and female students' reading comprehension?

Table 4.3 reports the descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis in group A for female and male participants in separation.

TABLE 4.3
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION IN GROUP A

| kurtosis | skewness | Std.deviation | mean | number | score |
|----------|----------|---------------|-------|--------|---------|
| -.389 | .767 | 3.55 | 21.14 | 14 | Females |
| 5.134 | 2.235 | 22.59 | 27.83 | 6 | Males |

As you see in table 4.3, you can see the difference between mean score of female and male participants. Mean score of male participants is higher than mean score of female participants. After measuring mean score of female and male participants in group A, in order to compare these two mean scores to see whether this difference is significant or not the researcher uses independent samples test.

4.4.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST(GROUP A)

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
|-------|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|-------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|----------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | Lower | Upper |
| score | Equal variances assumed | 9.149 | .007 | 1.116 | 18 | .279 | 6.69048 | 5.99443 | -5.90335 | 19.28430 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | .721 | 5.106 | .502 | 6.69048 | 9.27329 | -16.99914 | 30.38009 |

As Table 4.4 indicates, the t-value estimated significant ($p < .05$). This means there is a statistically significant difference between females and males in group A in comprehending the poems when they are provided with the translation of them. Male participants outperformed in comprehending the poems when they received translation of poems in group A.

Table 4.5 reports the descriptive statistics, including mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis in group B between male and female participants in separation. You can see mean score of females is higher than mean score of males in group A.

TABLE 4.5
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION IN GROUP B

| kurtosis | skewness | Std.deviation | mean | number | score |
|----------|----------|---------------|-------|--------|---------|
| -1.824 | -.055 | 3.18 | 24.09 | 11 | Females |
| -.036 | -.447 | 3.57 | 20.44 | 9 | Males |

In table 4.5 we saw there was a difference between mean score of females and males in group B, and mean score of girls was higher. Now the researcher uses independent samples test to compare these two mean scores.

4.6.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST(GROUP B)

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
|-------|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|---------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | Lower | Upper |
| score | Equal variances assumed | .061 | .808 | -2.415 | 18 | .027 | -3.64646 | 1.50990 | -6.81866 | -.47427 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -2.385 | 16.251 | .030 | -3.64646 | 1.52876 | -6.88324 | -.40969 |

As Table 4.6 indicates, the t-value estimated is significant ($p < .05$). This means there is statistically significant difference between females and males in group B in comprehending the poems when they are provided with the paraphrase of them. So females out performed in comprehending the poems when they received paraphrase of the poems in group B.

VI. RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS AND DISCUSSION

H1. There is no significant difference in EFL students' level of reading comprehension when they are provided with Persian translation or paraphrase for the English poems.

In order to examine this null hypothesis, first Mean and Standard deviation were measured in both groups. Results show mean score of 23.15 for group A ,and 22.45 for group B (see Table 4.1).The results show there is not any

significant statistical difference between mean in group A and B. Then two tailed independent samples test was applied on the collected data. The results at this point indicates, the t-value estimated is not significant ($p > .05$). This means there is no statistically significant difference between groups A and B in comprehending the poems when they are provided with the translation or the paraphrase of them (see Table 4.2). So based on the results the first null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

H2: There is no significant difference in male and female undergraduates' level of reading comprehension when they are provided with the Persian translations or paraphrases for the English poems.

To address the above hypothesis Mean and Standard deviation of female and male participants separately were estimated. Results show mean score of 22.44 for females and 23.4 for males. Results show there is not any significant statistical difference in mean of male and female students' scores. But when the results were analyzed separately in groups, it shows mean score for boys is higher than mean score for girls in group A (see Table 4.4).

And we can say boys outperformed in group A, in which they received Persian translation of English poems. In group B in which subjects received paraphrases of English poems, results it is understood that mean score of the girls who receive paraphrase is higher than boys and this is significantly important. So comprehension level for girls in comparison to boys is higher in group B (see Table 4.6). So based on the results the second null hypothesis was rejected.

The results of present study have nothing in contrast with what Kern came in to in his results. In a study investigating the language of thought used in comprehending L2 texts among fifty-one students of French, (Kern, 1994) found that use of L1 translation during L2 reading played "an important and multidimensional role in the L2 reading comprehension processes" of the students. However, Kern also pointed out that translation can be unproductive when it is done in a word-by-word fashion without integration of meaning. In general, (Kern, 1994) suggested that teachers and L2 learners should not view translation as "an undesirable habit to be discouraged at all costs but, rather, an important developmental aspect of L2 comprehension processes."

Although the results of present study do not show any significant difference in terms of reading comprehension between subjects in group A and subjects in group B, we can see mean score in group A is higher than mean score in group B. And maybe this is due to limitations of this study. With larger number of participants, and more careful sampling maybe we could reach the same results. But as the results due to second null hypothesis showed boys outperformed in their reading comprehension when received L1 translation of English poems. So for females translation played a positive role in comprehending the texts and this verifies what kern said about positive role of using L1 in teaching L2.

And even the results of present study do not reject the results of setiawati's article. Aprilia Setiawati (2011) in her article named; *"The Effectiveness of Paraphrasing to Improve Students' Reading Comprehension Skills of Hortatory Exposition Text"* used a pre-experimental design by applying pre-test post-test design and cluster random sampling. The experimental group had four meetings. The first meeting was for giving pre-test. The second and third meetings were for treatments by using paraphrasing in teaching reading comprehension of hortatory exposition text. For the last meeting, the post-test was given to the students to know their achievement. The result of the pre-test showed that the average score of pre-test was 70.7. Whereas, the averages score of post-test was 75.325. From the data, the result of post-test in comprehending hortatory exposition text was better than the result of pre-test. So, there was an improvement of students' ability in comprehending hortatory exposition text through paraphrasing. In order to find out the significance of the increase between pre-test and post-test, t-test was applied. After having the test of significance, the t-value (2.678) was higher than t-table (2.02). From the result, it could be concluded that using paraphrasing can effectively improve the students' reading comprehension skills of hortatory exposition text.

The results of present study never ignore the positive role of using paraphrase in EFL classroom, and as Setiawati concluded in her article it's a useful way to comprehend L2 texts better. If the present study enjoyed a control group we could see the role of paraphrase on student's comprehension away from comparing it with translation in to L1. And this could be due to one of other limitations of this study which is having no group as control group. But as results due to second null hypothesis show male participants outperformed in their reading comprehension when they received paraphrase of the texts.

Seraj (2010) in his MA thesis investigated the role of L1 in learning new vocabulary. To attain above goal, he chose six passages and 3 groups of learners. He provided the definitions of new words in English for one group; in second group he provided mother tongue definitions (Persian) on new words (these definitions succeeded the words immediately in brackets). And in third group no definition was provided. He compared the results of three groups in order to find which group did better in learning of new words. After analyzing the data, using ANOVA, the results showed that there was no significant difference between 3 groups. The results of the aforementioned study are similar to the results of present study in which no significant difference between groups is observed.

Seraj tried to compare 3 groups in terms of their reading comprehension and new vocabulary learning. Although the results did not show any significant difference between 3 groups in terms of reading comprehension, Seraj reported that when students received Persian meaning of new vocabulary in the texts, according to the results of retention test, later they remembered them better. Seraj's study enjoyed a control group which let the researcher investigate positive role of L1 in learning new vocabulary separately and positive role of giving English definition of new words in another side.

VII. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study faced a number of limitations which will be discussed briefly in the following lines.

1. Although before completing the tests the participants were given a personal questionnaire on their sex, age, term of study and literature courses they had passed prior to their participation in the present study, we do not have any information about students' prior studies in literature beside their university courses. Some students even have considerable amount of knowledge in English or Persian literature which affects their performance on the test.

2. Second research question aims to investigate whether paraphrases or translations of text in literature courses at undergraduate level affect significantly the performance of male and female students' reading comprehension. As soon as these days number of female students is more than male students in universities of Iran and especially majors like English, in the present study frequency of female participants are more than male participants. With larger number of participants including the same number of boys and girls maybe the results would change.

3. The test includes 3 English poems and their paraphrases or translations followed with 30 comprehension tests. And this may cause fatigue on the side of test takers and they do not pay enough attention necessary for completing the test and this will affect the results.

4. In the present study effectiveness of using translation and paraphrase of English poems were compared. If this study enjoyed having a control group, it was possible to investigate effectiveness of each of these techniques in comprehending the text separately.

5. The present study did not say anything about subject's attitudes toward the two techniques under investigation. It could tell how students feel about each of these techniques and their effectiveness.

VIII. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this paper the researcher investigated whether paraphrases or translations of English poems make any significant difference in EFL students' level of reading comprehension and whether paraphrases or translations of text in literature courses at undergraduate level affect significantly the performance of male and female students' reading comprehension.

The results showed there was not any significant statistical difference between mean in group A and B. Then two tailed independent samples test was applied on the collected data. The results at this point indicates, the t-value estimated is not significant ($p < .05$). This means there is no statistically significant difference between groups A and B in comprehending the poems when they are provided with the translation or the paraphrase of them. And we can say boys outperformed in group A, in which they received Persian translation of English poems. In group B in which subjects received paraphrases of English poems, results it is understood that mean score of the girls who receive paraphrase is higher than boys and this is significantly important. So comprehension level for girls in comparison to boys is higher in group B.

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Observation, Conviction, Passion: Personal Situated Professional Concerns in Applied Linguistics

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Abstract—Taking a self-reflexive approach, this paper presents my own narratives as a professional-practitioner in the area of applied linguistics within the educational context of Indonesia. Through these narratives, I present selected concerns I feel compelling for the purpose of self-recast of my understanding of some issues to direct my future professional trajectories and of manifesting my obligation to share the understanding for the benefit of thinking-narrating human beings. Self-herocising this paper may sound, I resort to perplexing challenges I face as a professional affiliated with an institution situated in a developing country. I would also take the seemingly self-herocizing casting of the paper as a self- and communal-consolation.

Index Terms—self-reflexive, self-narrative, developing country, Indonesia

I. INTRODUCTION

“You make an observation and you have an obligation”, says M. K. Asante on various occasions. This article delineates my observations as a practitioner in the realm of applied linguistics. These observations have built up my conviction which sustains my passion in providing services in the area. Building on all these, I am going to speak of my concerns showing contingent, tentative manifestations of my obligations. Taking a personal approach, this piece of writing is a fulfilling response to Nelson’s (2011) remark that

... practitioners who wish to investigate or reflect on aspects of their own teaching—particularly aspects that are potentially contentious—do not necessarily have access to the formal mechanisms that provide authorisation or support for research (p. 470).

As such, celebrating my agency, this paper enables me to point out that a turn taken to reflexive auto-narrative study promises a way to extend the reach of the course-line cast by the narrative turn (see e.g., McLeod, 2006; Gimenez, 2010).

Recently, one of the characteristics of my academic undertaking has taken the auto-reflexive approach. However, I have not made clear the connections of my previous projects to narrative approach. Against this backdrop, I’d take this opportunity to attempt the clear links of my recast of self-reflection to narrative approach wherein I am particularly exercising the auto-narrative writing of my concerns in the realm of applied linguistics or English language teaching within the educational context of Indonesia.

Oftentimes, as reading research reports, be they in the forms of dissertation/thesis, research articles published in scholarly journals or other forms, I have an impression that research in my area, applied linguistics, specifically, and social sciences in general, tends to deal with people other than the researchers themselves. So, despite the lapse of some decades subsequent to the so-called narrative turn, research tradition in the social sciences and humanities are still predominantly about the narratives of the people other than the researchers themselves (see, e.g., Helsig, 2010; Fischer and Goblirsch, 2006; Schnee, 2009; Tardy, 2005; Lapadat, 2004). When TESOL Quarterly, one of the influential journals in my field, published a special collection of articles on narrative research, I was both joyous and upset. On the one hand, I was happy because the narratives of the unheard became heard (Denshire, 2010; Lapadat, 2004), which allows for more intensive and extensive human communication and understanding. On the other hand, I was disconcerted to learn that the collection does not really allow for the thrusting of the agency of the researcher with his/her own narratives. What we can read is mainly a bunch of articles reporting the narratives of the research participants. I am avoiding the term “research subjects”, for this term to me blurs the embedded objectification that exists in research involving other people as sources of the data even when they are referred to as “subjects” which seems to lay “objectification” diminutive.

Reading an article reporting on the professional life of an English teacher providing his services in a peripheral area in Sri Lanka (Hayes, 2010), my feeling was flooded with palpitation. Illuminating as it is, I was stirred by my compelling expectation that the narratives had been presented by the subject himself. Even though one may relegate to the notion of insider’s view, he/she somehow uses his/her own perception and framing on the insider’s view. Even

when one is successful to secure confirmation from the research participants about the narratives being reported, he/she is exercising his/her own agency in the presentation of other people's narratives.

Similarly, Tardy brought to my attention her article "*It's like a story*": *Rhetorical knowledge development in advanced academic literacy* published in *English for Specific Purposes* (Tardy, 2005, pp. 325-338), as she was giving a talk at the English Language Institute (ELI), University of Michigan—Ann Arbor (November 2005). The article and the talk knocked on my conscience as to ask "Had her research participants spoken directly about their narratives on the issue raised, would they really expressed exactly the same thing?" Another question was, "If Tardy could select the narratives of her two research participants, can't I select my own narratives, for I may play the role of a research participant myself. The same questions popped up in mind as I read Schnee's (2009) article "Writing the personal as research" engaging her students as her research participants in writing their personal educational journeys, Lapadat's (2004) "Autobiographical memories of early language and literacy development" involving nine women research participants and other research employing this kind of approach (see also Fischer and Goblirsch, 2006). When I take the dual role of the researcher and the researched (without submitting to other researchers) concomitantly, I can work about my narratives of my own selection bearing my own agency as a thinking subject.

One may observe that the above is an index of envious academic resentfulness. Acknowledging the merit of such a potential remark, I would take it to a fruitful direction whereby I would argue that both Tardy's research methodology, which is typical in a number of academic ventures (see e.g., Rogers, 2011; Fischer and Goblirsch, 2006, Schnee, 2009) and the auto-ethnographic methodology or self-reflexive (e.g., Denshire, 2010; Fenge, 2010) which I am taking, share a characteristic in common: both value and resort to narratives of the research participants as the sources of the researchers' understanding thus their findings. What is different, probably, is that there seems to be "objectivity" in research epitomized by Tardy (2005) aforementioned, for it does not directly deal with the researchers themselves.

Examining closely, we, however, would find that both, to a great extent, share some kinds of subjectivity of the researchers. The researchers are bound to relegate to their subjective understanding as they embark on the plane of analysis of the research participants' narratives which, in themselves, have been selected by the research participants. Probably, an epitome of research involving other people yet judiciously acknowledging and making use of the researcher's own subjectivity in the joint construction of selected-narratives is that by Baynham (2000). This notion of selected-narratives in fact poses no different nature from those narratives selected by the researchers themselves in auto-ethnographic study as exemplified by Denshire (2010) and Fenge (2010). Since applied linguistics does not have immediate needs for "truth" as conceptualized in hard sciences, narratives (including auto-narratives) are reliable sources for human engagement, as Rogers (2011) has shrewdly pointed out:

Narratives do not trade in facts, solve problems or attempt to tell "truths"; instead they are satisfying to the degree that they abide by standards of coherence, fidelity, appropriateness and timeliness: they engage with contested issues in human life in believable ways [emphasis original] (p. 9).

Both, the seemingly objectively approached narratives (of other people) and auto-narratives relate to informed opinions as the need to report the study arises. And informed opinions have to do with rhetoric whose relationship with the working of science has been acknowledged to be inseparable (Golden, Berquist, and Coleman, 1984).

It is true that for the purpose of conceptualization we may differentiate between science and rhetoric in that 1) science deals with "facts" and rhetoric with "informed opinions", 2) the goal in science is to "describe the world" and rhetoric to "regenerate" the world, 3) science propounds general truths in the form of law-like statements, whereas rhetoric applies socially approved values to specific cases requiring choice or decision, and 4) the man of science can produce a discourse expressive or generative of knowledge without engaging another mind, but the man of rhetoric is so much concerned with the presence of the audience (Golden et al., 1984, p. 455). But, there has, recently, been a shift that science is no longer a business of individual scientists where scientific claim is only verified by individual scientists and where the external world is as the scientific claim describes it; rather, science is nowadays a social enterprise. This bears a consequence that science has to do with "cooperation" and, thus, "communication" among a number of people (Golden et al., 1984). Referring to Ziman's observation, Golden et al., (1984, p. 456) believe that scientists are now concerned more with "acceptance" than "truths"; science is a matter of "consensus". In this situation, inter-subjective validity emanating from auto-narratives has potential of acceptance. In this line, in reference to Kuhn, Golden et al., (1984) see scientific endeavors as a matter of coping with anomalies which necessitate the scientists to be able to convince others; so, again, acceptance is the eventuality.

As a piece of auto-narrative study, this article takes the same spirit of those by Knee (1999), Papp (1999), and Orbán (1999). While Knee and Papp spell out narratives selected from their experiences in teaching in settings with cultures than their own, Orbán refers to her narratives as a student. Knee and Papp thus take a similar role to that of Tardy, yet their role is different in that they use themselves as research participants of their own research. Whilst Tardy engaged others as participants of her research, Knee and Papp selected their own narratives as source of their research data. While Tardy has the power to select the narratives of her research participants, Orbán has the power to organize her own narratives. So, basically, both have a similar subjective-qualitative approach. In this line, the present article shares similar features of research methodology to that of Orbán.

This being said, the present article shares some similarities with the (auto)biographic narratives edited by Belcher and Connor (2001) in the volume-length of *Reflections on Multiliterate Lives*. However, the present article has to do with

the narratives of myself residing in a periphery, geographically (and academically). The narratives presented in the anthology by Belcher and Connor are of and by those with well-celebrated academic stature, for instance, Nils Erik Enkvist, A. Suresh Canagarajah, and Andrew W. Cohen. Again, I would take positively this opportunity to claim that the present article addresses the under-use auto-narrative approach to study in applied linguistics and to thrust my voice as an Indonesian practitioner in applied linguistics.

Probably it is true that some research participants do not have the capability to express their narratives in an engaging way deserving wide readership. Conversely, some research participants possibly have the joy in expressing their narratives to other people or researchers; so, the narratives they tell may constitute the purposeful unpacking of their identity. Despite some debates around identity enactment in narrative study, what is immediately promising is that narrative research, including for sure auto-narratives, allows for the unheard voices to be heard (Denshire, 2010), or small stories to be heard (Lapadat, 2004). Of course, in the practical professional context, it is too luxurious to have backward orientated narratives for the sheer enjoyment of the sentimental bearings; rather, the very act of the present unpacking of the narratives and the effected future actions are the meanings worked about (Bamberg, 2006).

I should note here that some points of my narratives sprawling in the following have appeared somewhere; however, narratives are dynamic and their meanings may be different invoking different nuances in different moments enriching our understanding, for, as Rogers (2011) astutely puts it,

‘...narrative lens involves dynamism in at least these ways: the shape and details of the experiences change in memory and then change again in the process of writing, for words come with echoes and restrictions; writers themselves change, so that they are no longer the same as when the event occurred; and how writers understand experience is constantly developing, so that the meaning of experience is unending palimpsest (p. 2)

Even though the dynamism of narratives as products of discourse may suggest exuberances and deficiencies simultaneously (Becker, 1996), carrying over products of subject(ive)-object(ive) interaction (Rogers, 2011), as readers feel a hold of coherence, for coherence is external to texts (Renkema, 1993), my auto-narrative writing fulfills its purpose: reshaping my own understanding and enriching the understanding of the readers through the coherence they cast onto my narratives.

A. Concern # 1: Rhetorical Awareness

The first narratives standing out in my memories took place when I started my graduate career in an Australian university (see Basthomi, 2006). It started as a perplexity hampering me as I had to prepare a Master’s language project proposal right from the outset as I commenced the Master’s program in the first semester (out of the two semesters). I felt the need to consult sample research proposal to grapple for ideas of what to include in (and to exclude from) the proposal. Inclusion and exclusion of materials in a research proposal refer to the interweaving of both content and rhetoric. This nascent awareness then developed further through advisement processes the crux of which has to do with attempts to ascertain that a research proposal should rhetorically demonstrate how my research topic is different from and similar to that of other researchers, how the research method I selected was distinctly relate to that of other researchers in the relevant area, and how the theoretical stance I took linked shrewdly to others as to show its distinctiveness of some sort.

Such was the essence of the narratives of constitutive of my rhetorical awareness with regard to advisement processes I underwent. These selected tentative narratives were later affirmed through collegial discussions with a fellow friend pressed for time with Ph.D. proposal submission deadline. Whilst anxiously looking forward to decision on my Master’s project, an Indonesian fellow brought me some versions of drafts of Ph.D. proposal altogether with comments from her supervisor. Quickly browsing the drafts, my tentative narratives as noted above stood out in my conscience as to say that my friend was faced with similar problems to what I had been confronted with. Referring to such narrative sources, I could capitalize myself with the three issues as guiding questions for my fellow friend work out her proposal. As she had the necessary materials of the content, what was left was the wrapping of the contents. In other words, she was mainly confronted with rhetorical problems which crystalized in the three key issues abovementioned as expected by the discourse community represented by her supervisor (Swales, 1990, 2004; Askehave and Swales, 2001).

Successful with my capitalization through my narratives, I developed a seed of bravery to dream of embarking on a doctoral degree. My narratives have led me to a conviction that producing academic writing, including necessarily the taxing doctoral thesis, is all about rhetoric. This rhetorical awareness is my key to open the door of my doctoral degree.

B. Concern # 2: Research Space

The first narratives aforementioned did function as my leverage to embark on a doctoral program. In fact, the topic of my doctoral thesis was on rhetoric, i.e., the rhetoric of research article (RA) introductions written in English by Indonesians. I should note here that my first narratives went harmoniously with my reading of Flowerdew’s (2001) research findings regarding international journal editors’ views about the submitted manuscripts by non-native English speakers (NNS). Among other things, the editors’ views are centered around the issue of rhetoric, that is, the tendency of the NNS to fall short of attempt to carve out research niche, a term which goes to Swales (1990) CARS model.

Done with my doctoral thesis, I started to develop a sort of “suspicion”, that is, what rhetorically manifests in research articles by Indonesian writers may relegate to the inculcating practices in graduate studies, particularly, in the writing of candidacy. In this regard, I saw the logic to pay heed to Indonesian doctoral prospectuses. Since work in the

area of applied linguistics, particularly, English language teaching, I analyzed prospectuses written in English by Indonesian doctoral students of ELT. This undertaking has yielded some points of understanding (Basthomi, 2009).

Regardless of the length of the background of the prospectuses, the texts tend strongly to be dense with review of concepts. To cite an example, analyzing the background a text of doctoral prospectus titled “Genre Analysis of International Conference Paper Abstracts” which runs on 34 paragraphs, I found that, out of the 34 paragraphs, 21 paragraphs relate to review of concepts. It is true that Swales’ (1990) CARS model makes a mention of a “review”. To my understanding, however, Swales (1990) refers the review to that of items of previous research. This insinuates that in the attempt to “establish a territory” thus working on a research space in a research proposal, one is required to link his/her research to the web of research in the relevant area (Basthomi, 2009). Let me quote an excerpt that I have used (Basthomi, 2009). The excerpt has been taken verbatim from a doctoral prospectus titled “Learning Strategies across Cultures of EFL Learners Residing in Nusa Tenggara Timur (NTT) Province”.

Up to this point, knowing more of what learning strategies are all about is important. Learning strategies refer to any *specific procedures, ways, techniques or tactics* learners use in learning a language, especially in learning English. It is believed that every EFL learner adopts specific learning strategies. Every EFL learner can use different learning strategies showing his or her way of learning. For example, an EFL learner, in making meaning of an unfamiliar word in an English reading passage, may adopt *consulting dictionary strategy* and another may use *inferring from context strategy*.

Excerpt 1 indicates that the proposal writer is cognizant of the main variable of her/his proposed research project. This awareness, however, does not lead the writer to the need to problematize issues around the variable based on previous empirical studies; rather, he/she relegates to concepts around the variable.

The above issue indicates that the doctoral students tend to place a preference on “positive justification” which is considered optional in Swales’ (2004) CARS Model and put aside the other two steps of “indicating a gap” and “adding to what is known”. To put it brief, Indonesian doctoral students tend to have problems in working about research space.

C. Concern # 3: Gate Keeping

One point in the collage of my narratives is the urge, I felt, to relate my own rhetorical awareness and the notion of the Indonesian writers’ (and also doctoral students’) problems to deal with research space. The inter-textual link of this concern is my focused interviews with few journal editors/reviewers who function as academic discourse community expert members who assumed the responsibilities of gate-keeping the academic discourse (Swales, 1990). One of the important results of the interviews (Basthomi, 2007) refers to the fact that Indonesian journal editors/reviewers had not held orientation towards international readership. The editors/reviewers were pessimistic about international orientation. This pessimism has been attributed to two main reasons: the fact that their journals do not employ English native editor(s) and the parochiality of the manuscripts they receive.

Based on the above points of findings, it can be safely assumed that the editors/reviewers had not led the manuscript contributors to have the international readership orientation either. As such, it is understandable why the RAs that I have analyzed tend not to show indication of attempts to work about research space as a much expected property of manuscripts published in international journals (suggesting the use of English as the communicative medium) as indicated by Swales (1990, 2004).

The above points also suggest that claims that Indonesian students (suggesting, in turn, the graduates) of EFL tend to be able to produce the acceptable academic essays (see, e.g., Latief, 1990; Harjanto, 1999) do not readily guarantee that they would easily succeed to write research articles or doctoral thesis proposals. Kartika (1997) is right in her observation that writing in the same genre of articles notwithstanding, Indonesian writers of English texts and native English writers tend to draw on discourse conventions or norms, potentially different from those practiced in international publications.

Consequently, in view of the necessity for Indonesian academics to actively make contributions to global academic discourse which suggests the use of English, Indonesian academic gatekeepers—encompassing journal editors/reviewers and thesis supervisors—need to observe the potential expectations of the gatekeepers of the international discourse community as have shrewdly and fruitfully been documented, for instance, by Swales (1990; 2004) and Flowerdew (2001). Even so, this pragmatic arising need should be viewed with caution. As genre is dynamic (Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995; Askehave and Swales, 2001), rhetorical expectations of International academic discourse gate-keepers are also bound to be change over time. Consequently, any observations of the rhetorical orientations and expectations should be put in perspective.

D. Concern # 4: News Value

Altogether and inextricably the pieces of my narratives inter-textually link to other narratives one of which is Berkenkotter and Huckin’s (1995) news value of article publication. In my conviction then, the notion of the difficulties Indonesian writers and doctoral students face in carving out research spaces in their research articles and doctoral thesis prospectuses, respectively, shares some affinity with the difficulties, particularly of my students, to present research proposals bearing news value. Therefore, as a lecturer, I have been informed by the ensuing conviction that I need to raise rhetorical awareness encompassing students’ understanding of the issues of research space and news value. All

this is what has characterized my teaching principle in handling a course on Thesis Proposal Seminar, both undergraduate and graduate.

My personal observations have demonstrated that students who come to terms with the issue of research space and write accordingly in their research proposals tend to be successful in convincing their thesis supervisors and examiners. They also tend to meet the expectation of news values as they are successful to work out research spaces (not the reverse). My conviction and thus teaching principle have also been evident. With an experimental guise in mind, once I asked an undergraduate student whom I considered successful in working out a research space in her thesis to make a presentation before graduate students who were attending my graduate Thesis Proposal Seminar. On the one hand, I meant this as a rehearsal for the undergraduate student prior to her viva, and on the other hand, I intended to see if undergraduate and graduate levels really matters when research spaces (thus news values) were worked out successfully.

What I personally saw was that the 15 or so graduate students attending the seminar were speechless, for, as I predicted, all their expectations seemed to be met by this undergraduate presenter. Or, even probably, some kinds of exuberance were there that the undergraduate presenter had more than expected by the graduate students. The picture residing in my memory was that the graduate students just kept smiling as the 20 minute or so presentation was over and the only one question emerging was "Are you a graduate student?" This question was warranted, for, purposefully, I did not reveal the academic identity of the undergraduate presenter prior to the presentation. This was to avoid possible ensuing disregards on the part of the graduate students and also to avoid a potential impression that I was belittling the graduate students by inviting my undergraduate advisee to make a presentation before them. The narrative did not stop there as yet, for in the viva voce of the undergraduate student, one examiner gave her the score of 96% and the other granted her 100%.

E. Concern # 5: Perplexities

One might have an impression that the foregoing narratives, particularly the testimonial sample narratives, sound self-heroicizing (Underwood, 2011) and liable to what Nelson (2011) characterizes as "self-consciously clever" (p. 465). Acknowledging such possible exuberances of the narratives (Becker, 1996), I would turn to another side where the more massive voices have been residing, for cream is bound to be less than the rest. What I am trying to say is that alongside the above narrative odyssey, I have observed students and colleagues, through both first hand observations and second hand (through text analyses), including myself obviously, grapple with rhetorical issues in writing their articles and research proposals. And as I use my narratives as sources for discussion with students and colleagues, we all, as residents situated in a developing country, feel that we are disadvantaged and thus questioning the immediate pertinent issues as "How can we carve out research spaces if we cannot avail ourselves of recent publications in the field?", "How can we write articles or research proposals with news value if we fail to carve out research niches due to failure to get access to recent publications in the area?", and "How can we satisfy the expectations of international discourse community gatekeepers if we cannot carve out research spaces in our research articles when aspiration to publish commends in mind?" etc.

As an attempt to answer those typical questions, some have turned to readily available online sources. This strategy to some extent proves to be fruitful; but, to some other extent, perpetuates the second-classness, for the cream recent publications remain the possession of big shots the access to which is surely with costs. This is the biggest challenge charging individuals affiliated with institutions underfinanced in a developing country after some kinds of sharing of narratives have done the job of bringing to us some light.

Such a situation also seems attributable to another issue. Let me take a specific case of my department: English Department. It is not uncommon that all the faculty members experience undertaking post-baccalaureate studies, be they post graduate diploma, Master's or Ph.D., abroad, particularly in English speaking countries. However, to my understanding, quite few of us are able to maintain research and publications for international readership. We tend to spend our labor in the form of providing inward services, meaning that our expertise is mainly expedited for our fellow countrymen. Virtuous as it is, for we do care for our immediate-significant others, but my conviction is that the hardship to get access to recent publications in the mainstream media (journals, monographs, research reports and the like) is the main factor attributable to the difficulties in carving out research spaces and crafting scholarly writing with news value, thus, potential for international publication.

Against the backdrop of such a situation, my consolation along my narratives has been trying to maximally make use of whatever available as exemplified by my undergraduate student aforementioned. If we can do well with limited resources, we actually can excel when our situation is as good as other people living in better off countries with better off facilities and access to quality first class publications.

II. CONTINGENT CONCLUSION

The instantiation of this reflexive writing whereby I revisit and recast my narratives through situated framing and reframing (Fenge, 2010) has allowed me to vent out and off the load of my obligation implicated by my observations on which my conviction has been continually built (and also refurbished). This undertaking has taken and dropped me onto some perplexities through which balanced equilibrium is continuously sought, which helps sustain my passion in the profession. Inward in nature, this self-oriented consolation I believe has the potential for shared-identification by others

as the writing reaches readers. When this expectation is met, the casting of my obligation is tentatively done, for along the process of completing an obligation, other observations are bound to be made in our humanly perceptions and cognition and, therefore, other narratives (and/of) other obligations are awaiting. There we go with “unending palimpsest” (Rogers, 2011, p. 2) of Asante’s dialectic observation-obligation: the passion.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The writing of this article was carried out during an academic retreat in the U.S. with the PAR 2011 fellowship under the auspices of *Direktorat Pendidik dan Tenaga Kependidikan, Ditjen DIKTI, Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional, Republik Indonesia*.

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The Effect of Explicit Instruction of Meta Cognitive Learning Strategies on Promoting Iranian Intermediate Language Learners' Writing Skill

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Abstract—The present study was an attempted to investigate the effect of explicit instruction of meta-cognitive learning strategies on promoting intermediate language learners' writing skill. To achieve this purpose, an Oxford Placement test (Allen, 2004) was administered to language learners in English language institution and ultimately 24 intermediate language learners were selected and randomly assigned to an experimental group and a control group. Both groups worked on the same writing tasks and activities. The subjects in the experimental group were also instructed in the use of meta-cognitive language learning strategies following O'Malley (1985) while the subjects in the control group received some placebo treatment for a whole term. The results of the posttest showed that explicit instruction of meta-cognitive learning strategies for intermediate language learners proved effective. One reason may be that language learners at the intermediate level draw on these strategies in a conscious fashion and they need to develop a conscious awareness of the meta-cognitive learning strategies.

Index Terms—proficiency levels, EFL learners, writing skill, meta-cognitive strategies, explicit instruction

I. INTRODUCTION

Language learning strategies are referred to as the choices which language learners make while they are involved in learning or utilizing a second language (Cook, 2001). Brown (1994) states that “as the knowledge of second language acquisition increased noticeably during the 1970s, teachers and researchers realized that no single research finding and no single method of language teaching would commence an era of utopia of absolute, predictable success in teaching a second language”(pp. 145-152). The methods or techniques of teaching notwithstanding, certain learners seemed to be successful. The importance of individual variation in language learning was spotlighted, and certain learners appeared to be endowed with abilities to develop in a successful way, others not possessing those abilities.

Grounded upon the above-mentioned proposition, traditional methodologies were considered dreary and poor in value for the language learners because they did not take into account individual learning differences. The 1970s henceforth witnessed the drastic changes in language pedagogy throughout the world. This period could be deemed a great triumph for language teaching and learning since some pre-eminent amendments in the era of language pedagogy occurred. One of the changes was the application of language learning strategies. Chamot and Kupper (1989) studied the use of learning strategies by foreign language students and their teachers for three years. Their study revealed that students of all ability levels used language learning strategies. What discriminated effective learners from less effective learners were the range and the way in which strategies were drawn on. In their study, effective language learners made use of strategies more often, more appropriately, along with greater variety, and in ways that helped them complete the task successfully.

II. THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Language learners run into difficulty comprehending writing tasks and activities when they start to write without being prepared in advance by their teacher. Or they may not know what part of the writing task they should focus their

attention on. These are some predicaments of language classes wherein writing activities play a significant role. To contribute to language learners' writing skill, application of language learning strategies, meta-cognitive ones in particular, is required of the language learners.

A number of studies have been carried out on learning strategies and language learning but they did not thoroughly deal with the explicit instruction of meta-cognitive learning strategies and the writing skill at the intermediate level (Ehrman and Oxford, 1989; Green and Oxford, 1995; Liu, 2004). Therefore, they are considered inconclusive in their results for intermediate language learners.

To this aim, the researcher capitalized on the explicit instruction of meta-cognitive learning strategies for intermediate language learners to enhance their writing skill. The study focused only on intermediate level due to the paucity of research at this level.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to draw up the boundaries of research, this study intended to pursue the following questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship between meta-cognitive learning strategy use and EFL writing achievement?
2. Does explicit instruction of meta-cognitive learning strategies have any significant effect on promoting Persian intermediate language learners writing skill?

IV. RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Following the above questions are the hypotheses upon which the present research has been conducted:

H01: there is no significant relation ship between meta-cognitive learning strategy use and EFL writing achievement.

H02: Explicit instruction of meta-cognitive language learning strategies doesn't promote Persian intermediate language learners' writing skills.

V. WRITING SKILL AND LEARNING STRATEGY USE

Writing, like speaking, is a productive skill. Writing requires deeper knowledge of the grammar system than receptive skills and perhaps even much deeper than speaking .obviously, writing to communicate can be possibly only when students have sufficient control of writing system. Writing is a cognitive function that requires learners to become involved in intellectual tasks. Well-developed Meta cognitive awareness strategies in writing help students to create meaningful learning goals that can be monitored and evaluated. Meta cognitive skills in writing require students to think effectively about their own thinking in relation to a given writing task.

Chastain (1988) states that "a conversation class cannot merely be comprised of speaking activities" (pp. 36-41). A conversation class is to entail writing practice as well. Chastain's point crystallizes the inclusion of all four language skills in a language class if the class wishes to appear realistic and productive

In accord with the statements given above, one can conclude that teaching of the writing skill should be accompanied with modern views of language pedagogy. For instance, language learning strategies would be of help to learners if employed in language learning, especially in the writing skill, and language teachers should attempt to incorporate learning strategies into the teaching of the writing skill. Also, to expedite their learning in the writing skill, language learners could make use of learning strategies.

A. *Meta-cognition and Meta-cognitive Strategies*

Psychologically speaking, meta-cognition is referred to as knowledge of the mental processes which individuals benefit from in their learning. To provide the history of the term, it should be said that meta-cognition correlates with Flavell (1979). Flavell argues that meta-cognition encompasses meta-cognitive knowledge and meta-cognitive experiences or regulation. In his definition, Flavell says that meta-cognitive knowledge makes a reference to acquired knowledge respecting cognitive processes: the type of knowledge that could be made use of to supervise cognitive processes (Flavell, 1979). Borkowski, Carr, and Pressley (1987) and Sternberg (1984, 1986) contend that meta-cognition could enable learners to succeed in their learning processes. They also claim meta-cognition is associated with intelligence.

Livingston (1997) states that meta-cognition refers to supervisory thinking which embodies active control over the cognitive processes engaged in learning process. She argues that activities such as planning how to approach a given learning task, monitoring comprehension, and evaluating progress toward the completion of a task are some meta-cognitive strategies in nature.

Richards and Schmidt (2002, pp. 328-329) state that meta-cognition "is knowledge of the mental processes which are involved in different kinds of learning. Learners are said to be capable of becoming aware of their own mental processes". This includes recognizing which kinds of learning tasks cause difficulty, which approaches to remembering information work better than others, and how to solve different kinds of problems. Meta-cognitive knowledge is thought to influence the kinds of learning strategies learners choose.

Anderson (2002) states that meta-cognition can be defined simply as thinking about thinking. Learners who are meta-cognitively aware know what to do when they do not know what to do; that is, they have strategies for finding out or

figuring out what they need to do. The use of meta-cognitive strategies ignites one's thinking and can lead to more profound learning and improved performance, especially among learners who are struggling. Understanding and controlling cognitive processes may be one of the most essential skills that classroom teachers can help second language learners develop. It is important that they teach their students meta-cognitive skills in addition to cognitive skills.

Flavell (1979) states that meta-cognition is the process of thinking about thinking. He describes meta-cognition "as referring to one's knowledge regarding one's own cognitive processes or anything which is related to them, that is, the learning-related properties of information or data. Meta-cognitive strategies are the learning strategies which have executive roles in learning" (pp. 152-158). Plans for how to learn something, thinking about learning processes as they occur, monitoring one's production or comprehension, and evaluating what has been learned after an activity is completed are termed meta-cognitive strategies (Brown, 1994). Nunan(1999) declares that meta-cognitive strategies are learning strategies that encourage learners to focus on the mental processes underlying their learning.

Language learners either consciously or unconsciously utilize techniques to peak their learning. For instance, some may have difficulty memorizing new words in a conversation, so they make attempts to, say, write the words on one side of a card and on the other side, the meaning of the word is written. Others may find it hard to work out the grammatical rules. These are some strategies used to better increase the power of learning. Memorization of the new words and learning the present continuous tense are cognitive processes, the transcending knowledge supervising these processes is meta-cognition, and those strategies used to enhance learning are called meta-cognitive strategies.

B. Strategy Training

Bachman (2002) states that deliberate instruction of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies increases most learners' ability to learn. He also claims that learners with conspicuous learning problems can improve their learning through strategy learning. Studies have demonstrated that when struggling learners are instructed in learning strategies and afforded considerable encouragement, feedback, and opportunities to apply them, learners better process information and they improve their ability to learn. Bachman alleges that some learners face up to difficulty when they want to embed strategy use in their learning schema. In this case, he adds, there should be differentiation of strategy teaching, with some learners requiring more scaffolding and individualized, intensive instruction than others (pp.142-151).

O'Malley's (1987) study regarding the effect of different types of strategy training, meta-cognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective, on different language skills revealed a significant effect on the speaking skill, but the training of these strategies did not impact on the listening skill.

MacIntyre and Noels(1996) declare that teachers can motivate their students by showing them how and when to make use of learning strategies to improve their learning process. They also say that teachers are supposed to show their students how efficacious strategy use can be through successful experiences(pp. 373-386).

Oxford's research (1989) on strategy instruction reveals that some studies on L2 strategy training have not led to successful or conclusive results. She states that some strategy training has been efficacious in various skill areas but has appeared ineffective in other skill areas, even within the same study (pp. 237-245).

Eslami Rasekh and Ranjbary (2003, p. 1) claim that learners should be taught about the learning strategies and about when to make use of them as well. Learners need to be instructed in how to select the most appropriate strategy in learning situations. The result of their study revealed that explicit meta-cognitive strategy training had a positive effect on the vocabulary learning of EFL students.

Respecting the teachers who teach learning strategies, Oxford, Crookall, Cohen, Lavine, Nyikos, and Sutter(1990) claim that teachers who use strategy training often become enthusiastic about their roles as facilitators of classroom learning. Strategy training makes them more learner oriented and more aware of their students' needs. Teachers also begin to scrutinize how their teaching techniques relate (or fail to relate) to their students' learning strategies and sometimes teachers choose to alter their instructional patterns as a result of such scrutiny (Oxford, Crookall, Cohen, Lavine, Nyikos, and Sutter, 1990, p. 210).

VI. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

To select the homogeneous subjects, the researcher administered a sample Oxford placement test to 40 students who enrolled in language institute (Talash Language institute) in Kazeroon, Based on their scores, 24 students were selected as intermediate English language learners. The selected subjects were all male and randomly divided into two groups of 12, one was control group and the other one was experimental group. The experimental group was instructed to employ metacognitive learning strategies to promote their writing skill during the whole term, while the control group did not receive any special treatment. Having administered the necessary statistical calculations, the researcher selected 24 students who had scored between 52 and 67 out of 100 as intermediate language learners. The research took a whole term.

B. Instruments

The material used in this study comprised a) an Oxford placement test (OPT, 1992) with 100 multiple choice items on various grammatical points to select intermediate language learners. b) A pre test of writing in essay format for both

the experimental and control groups to assess their initial knowledge writing skill and use of Meta cognitive learning strategies.

c) The third instrument was the explicit instruction of meta-cognitive strategies for writing skill. Explicit instructions were provided for the experimental group throughout the whole semester. The meta-cognitive strategies were selected from O'Malley et al. (1985b).

d) The fourth instrument was a post test to measure the writing performance of participants in the experimental and control groups after explicit instruction of metacognitive learning strategies were given. This writing test was in essay format with around 100 words.

C. Procedure

A sample language learning proficiency test (Oxford placement test, Allen, 2004) was administered to select intermediate Iranian EFL learners in Talash language institute in Kazeroun, Iran. Then the pretest of a writing performance was given to all participants. In this test, a topic was given to write about in an essay format. Each participant was asked to write a paragraph of no less than ten lines. Then, the explicit instruction on the use of meta-cognitive learning strategies for the experimental group was structured in 30 minute for whole semester. This strategy composed of five stages based on CALLA model (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) by Chamot and O'Malley (1994) and they were as follows:

1. Preparation: The purpose of this phase was to help students identify the strategies they are already using and to develop their meta-cognitive awareness of the relationship between their own mental processes and effective learning. In this step the teacher explained the importance of meta-cognitive learning strategies.

2. Presentation: The subjects were provided with meta-cognitive learning strategies after they were thoroughly acquainted with their nature. They were taught on how they could make optimal use of these strategies.

3. Practice: At this stage, the subjects used some writing tasks and activities and they were asked to perform them by incorporating the meta-cognitive learning strategies.

4. Evaluation: At this stage, the subjects were instructed to evaluate their progress in their writing skill.

5. Expansion: At this stage, the subjects were encouraged to apply the meta-cognitive learning strategies for appropriate writing tasks and activities. They were told that they could make use of some other meta-cognitive learning strategies which were suitable to their writing skills. Finally, the writing ability test (writing 100 word informative essays) was given after implicit instruction of Meta cognitive strategy to assess students on writing achievement after this instruction. Then the participant's scores on the pretest and post test were compared to find the possible degree of success on writing performance.

VII. DATA ANALYSIS

Statistical analysis of t test was used to test possible differences between the two groups at the beginning and the end of the study. In order to establish the homogeneity of the two groups in terms of writing knowledge, an independent sample t-test was carried out to examine the differences between the performance of the two groups on the writing test before the meta-cognitive strategy training.

TABLE1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PERTAINING TO THE PRETEST

| Groups | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error of Mean |
|--------------|----|---------|----------------|--------------------|
| control | 12 | 13,7500 | 2,00567 | ,57899 |
| experimental | 12 | 13,1667 | 1,74946 | ,50503 |

As can be seen in table 4.1, there is not any significant difference between the mean scores of the subjects in the control group (mean =13.7500) and the subjects in the experimental group (mean=13.1667). In simple words, the two groups were homogenous in terms of writing knowledge at the beginning of the training.

Both groups took part in a posttest after completing the training in which only experimental group received meta cognitive strategy training. The results of the writing test in the two groups were compared by using independent samples t-test statistical procedure.

TABLE2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PERTAINING TO THE POSTTEST

| Groups | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error of Mean |
|--------------|----|---------|----------------|--------------------|
| control | 12 | 14,4167 | 2,06522 | ,59618 |
| experimental | 12 | 14,5000 | 1,50756 | ,43519 |

As shown in table 4.2 the mean scores of the experimental group (Mean=14.4167) are significantly different from the control group (Mean=14.5000). Table 4.2 clearly shows that explicit instruction has impacted on experimental group writing ability in post test, but it had no effect on control group's writing ability before and after explicit instruction of metacognitive learning strategies.

Also, an independent sample t-test was carried out to examine the differences between the performance of the experimental groups in pre test and post test on the writing test.

TABLE 3:
 PAIRED SAMPLES T TEST OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

| groups | Mean | N | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | Sig. (2_tailed) |
|------------------------------|---------|----|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Pair 1 pre_test experimental | 13,1667 | 12 | 1,74946 | ,50503 | .006 |
| post_test experimental | 14,5000 | 12 | 1,50756 | ,43519 | |

The results indicate that there is a significant difference (t-test =0.006 $p > .05$) between the mean scores of the subjects in the experimental groups in the pretest and post test. as shown in table4.3 we can clearly seen that the mean score in pre test(13.1667) has improved to(14.5000)in post test. This clearly shows that explicit instruction has impacted the on experimental groups writing ability in post test.

TABLE 4:
 PAIRED SAMPLES T TEST OF CONTROL GROUPS

| groups | Mean | N | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | Sig. (2_tailed) |
|-------------------------|---------|----|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Pair 1 pre_test control | 13,7500 | 12 | 2,00567 | ,57899 | .013 |
| post_test control | 14,4167 | 12 | 2,06522 | ,59618 | |

And finally, an independent sample t-test was carried out to examine the differences between the performance of the control groups in pre test (mean=13.7500) and post test(mean=14.4167) on the writing test. The result in (table 4.4) indicated that there is not significant difference (t-test =0.013 $p > .05$) between the mean scores of the subjects in the control group in pretest and post test. As table4.4 shows the mean score in pre test(13.7500) has little improved to(14.4167).This clearly shows that explicit instruction has not impacted on control groups writing ability before and after explicit instruction(Table 2).

As shown, the experimental group outperformed the control group in the post test. Thus, the explicit meta-cognitive strategy training seemed to have contributed to the improvement of students' writing skill. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not sustained which alleged that explicit instruction on the use of meta-cognitive learning strategies did not influence the writing skill when language learners wanted to regulate and self-direct their learning process. In other words, the t-value revealed that the two groups performed not equally on the posttest which was indicative of the fact that meta-cognitive strategy instruction afford the participants in the experimental group any privilege and as such had effect on promoting the writing skill.

VIII. DISCUSSION

This section discusses the results of the research by direct reference to the questions raised in the study.

Question One: Is there any significant relationship between meta-cognitive learning strategy use and EFL writing achievement?

Preceding studies have shown that meta-cognitive learning strategies are the strategies which differentiate between effective and ineffective learners (e.g. Anderson, 2002). Taking into account the results of the studies carried out in this regard, one could state that meta-cognitive learning strategies are paramount in language learning in general and in improving the writing skill in particular. O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) study manifested that meta-cognitive learning strategies improved most EFL students' speaking ability. As for the writing skill, they remarked that these strategies had positive effect on some writing tasks.

However, the results of the present study revealed that explicit instruction has been rendered effective to intermediate language learners. That is to say, intermediate language learners use these strategies consciously in their writing skill. So there is positive relationship between meta-cognitive strategy and EFL writing achievement.

Question Two: Does explicit instruction of meta-cognitive learning strategies have any significant effect on promoting Persian intermediate language learners writing skill?

The present study shows that intermediate language learners are aware of meta-cognitive learning strategies and utilize them consciously. This is because instruction could bring a change in the experimental group. This is in line with the suggestion by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) that intermediate language learners in general employ more meta-cognitive learning strategies. Therefore, instructing intermediate language learners in these types of strategies to promote their writing ability would be effective(Tables 2and 3).

IX. CONCLUSIONS

This study began with the assumption that teaching meta-cognitive learning strategies could enhance the intermediate language learners' writing skill ability. The instruction lasted for a whole semester. During this time, the teacher (researcher) employed meta-cognitive learning strategies and taught the subjects in the experimental group how to use them in their writing skill. The participants in the control group, on the other hand, did not receive any instruction on the use of these strategies during their writing skill practice. After the posttest, the results indicated that the instruction

of meta-cognitive learning strategies affect the intermediate language learners' writing skill. That is, the writing ability of the experimental group who had made use of meta-cognitive learning strategies surpasses that of the control group.

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Language Maintenance and Language Shift among Second Generation Tigrinya-speaking Eritrean Immigrants in Saudi Arabia

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Abstract—This paper addresses the language maintenance and language shift among the young Tigrinya-speaking Eritrean immigrants in Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Sixty-four Tigrinya-speaking teenager immigrants in Riyadh participated in this study. Forty of them are females and twenty-four are males. These respondents are students enrolled in the Eritrean International School in Riyadh. The results reveal that respondents have a limited ability to understand, speak, read, write, and translate orally Tigrinya into Arabic and vice-versa. In comparing the level of their proficiency in both Tigrinya and Arabic, it is found that they have a lower proficiency in Tigrinya than in Arabic. The use of Tigrinya is seemingly decreasing and the use of Arabic is increasing. Therefore, there is evidence from this study that second-generation Tigrinya teenagers' proficiency is shifting toward Arabic rather than maintaining the native language.

Index Terms—language maintenance, language shift, language contact, Eritrean immigrants

I. INTRODUCTION

This study focuses on language maintenance and language shift (LMLS) among the young Tigrinya-speaking Eritrean immigrants in Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. At the outset, it is very significant to have a brief underpinning milieu of Eritrea, the homeland of those immigrants, and its languages. Eritrea is located along the Red Sea, north of the horn of Africa. It is bordered by Djibouti and Ethiopia in the south and by Sudan in the west and north. Its total area is 124,320 square kilometres. The UN estimates the population of Eritrea in 2010 at 5,224,000. The Tigray and Tigre-speakers (such as the Mensa, the Marya, and others) constitute 80% of the population. The other seven groups are the Afar (Dankali), Bilen, Beni Amir (Beja), Kunama, Nera (Nara Baraya), Rasha'ida, and Saho¹. As far as religion is concerned, nearly half of the Eritrean population is Sunni Muslim, and some 40 percent, Orthodox Christians. The remainder includes Eastern Rite and Roman Catholics, Protestants, smaller numbers of Seventh Day Adventists, and Jehova's Witnesses, and a few Baha'is².

The languages in Eritrea can be classified into three main categories according to the language family classification: Semitic language family, which includes Arabic, Tigrinya, Tigre, and Dahlik; Cushitic language family, which includes Afar, Beja, Bilen, and Saho, and finally Nilo-Saharan language family which includes Kunama and Nara. Modern Standard Arabic, English and Tigrinya are the three official languages. Arabic and Tigrinya are the most widely used languages. Along with Italian, they are used in commercial and public businesses. English is also widely spoken and is the medium of instruction in middle and secondary schools and in higher education. Other languages spoken in Eritrea, according to Lewis (2009), are the immigrants languages: Central Kanuri, Hadrami Spoken Arabic (100,000) speakers, Hausa, Qimant, Sudanese Spoken Arabic (100,000) speakers, Ta'izzi-Adeni Spoken Arabic (18,000). As noted earlier, Tigrinya is a member of the Southern Semitic language subfamily of the Afro-Asiatic family. It is the second largest member of the Ethiopian branch of the Semitic family of languages, and it constitutes together with Tigre the extinct Ge'ez (or classical Ethiopic) the northern subdivision (Appleyard 2006). According to the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA) Language Project³ the number of speakers of Tigrinya are estimated at 4.5 million in both Eritrea and Ethiopia. It is spoken primarily in the Tigray province of Ethiopia and in the highlands and urban centres of Eritrea. In Eritrea Tigrinya is spoken by approximately 1.2 million people, whereas approximately 3.2 million people in Ethiopia speak it.

Eritreans in Saudi Arabia

Eritrean communities are mainly settled in neighbouring countries in Africa and the Middle East, a marginal part of the diaspora is located in the west (Thiollet, 2007). Eritreans are hosted by the neighbouring countries like Sudan,

¹Library of Congress – Federal Research Division, Country Profile: Eritrea, September 2005, p. 6 at <http://memory.loc.gov/frd/cs/profiles/Eritrea.pdf>, Accessed on Feb. 5th 2011

² *ibid.*, p. 7

³ University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA Language Material Project): language Profile at <http://www.lmp.ucla.edu/Profile.aspx?LangID=18&menu=004>, Accessed on Feb. 6 2011

Yemen and Saudi Arabia as either emigrants or refugees. At the end of 2004, nearly 120,000 Eritreans were refugees abroad, mostly in Sudan (UCLA)⁴. According to Thiollet (2007, 8), there are more than 100,000 Eritreans in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia. She also added that “most of the Eritreans entered Saudi Arabia without documents, with their refugee documents, or with a Haj or Umrah visa.”(p.8) Anyway, the Saudi Government facilitates the residential procedure for the Eritrean community in the country through immigration laws and they are granted residential permits and they work in different sectors in Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia gives a special financial and political support to the Eritreans as noted by Thiollet (2007) “The most efficient part of Saudi Arabia’s support policy was to grant Eritreans quasi-asylum status in the 1970s and 1980s, and the toleration of Eritreans settlements in the country”(p. 8).

The Ministry of Labour in Riyadh counted 53,000 Eritrean workers in 2004, whereas the Eritrean embassy acknowledges the presence of around 100,000 of its citizens in the Kingdom. The Eritrean community is relatively a large community in Riyadh and there is another big Eritrean community in Jeddah and a smaller one in Jazan. The Eritreans in Riyadh are the subjects of this study. They work in several services in the Saudi capital. The Eritrean community has established its school in Al-Nasriah District, one of the busiest quarters of Riyadh. This school was established in 1995 by the effort of the Embassy and Eritrean Community to facilitate the obstacles, which their citizens were facing to get the best standard of education.⁵ The Eritrean community established this school to offer the children with an education equal to those living at home. This school began with 60 students at the nursery level to grade two, three teaching staff, one administrative staff and two rooms. In 2009, the school included about 1762 students from KG 1 to grade twelve (see table 1 below).

TABLE 1.
THE ERITREAN INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL STUDENTS’ STATISTICS IN RIYADH
CLASSIFIED BY GRADES AND SECTIONS, SCHOOL YEAR 2009.

| Section▶ | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | Total |
|--------------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-------------|
| KG1 | 23 | 27 | 28 | 27 | 24 | | | | 129 |
| KG2 | 18 | 23 | 22 | 21 | 23 | 23 | 22 | 20 | 172 |
| Grade 1 | 23 | 25 | 24 | 24 | 24 | 25 | | | 145 |
| Grade 2 | 31 | 30 | 30 | 30 | 30 | 29 | | | 180 |
| Grade 3 | 23 | 24 | 24 | 23 | 24 | 24 | | | 142 |
| Grade 4 | 30 | 33 | 28 | 28 | 28 | 21 | | | 168 |
| Grade 5 | 25 | 24 | 25 | 22 | 23 | 26 | | | 145 |
| Grade 6 | 26 | 28 | 28 | 27 | | | | | 109 |
| Grade 7 | 27 | 29 | 27 | 27 | 27 | | | | 137 |
| Grade 8 | 30 | 28 | 29 | 29 | | | | | 116 |
| Grade 9 | 28 | 30 | 27 | 27 | 25 | | | | 137 |
| Grade 10 | 24 | 22 | 18 | | | | | | 64 |
| Grade 11 | 19 | 23 | 19 | | | | | | 61 |
| Grade 12 | 22 | 35 | | | | | | | 57 |
| Grand Total | | | | | | | | | 1762 |

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Language Maintenance and Language Shift

According to Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (2002), language maintenance is the degree to which an individual or group continues to use their language, particularly in a bilingual or multilingual area or among immigrant groups; whereas language shift is the process by which a new language is acquired by a community usually resulting with the loss of the community’s first language. Both language maintenance and language shift are the results of language contact situations. Since the publication of Fishman’s (1966) *Language Loyalty in the United States*, there has been significantly a great amount of research on language maintenance and language shift (LMLS) as a linguistic contact phenomenon.

Language maintenance refers to the situation where speech community continues to use its traditional language in the face of a host of conditions that might foster a shift to another language. Veltman (1991) asserted that “language maintenance is the practice of speaking one’s mother tongue throughout one’s lifetime as the only language in daily use” (p. 147). Language maintenance is also referred to as ‘language survival’ or ‘language retention’. It is the product of language contact where a linguistic minority or a dominated ethnolinguistic group is successful in keeping its original language in spite of the pressure exerted on it by a dominant linguistic group. Language shift, on the other hand, means that a community gives up entirely its language in favour of another one (Fishman, 1966). According to Weinreich (1964), language shift is the “change from the habitual use of one language to that of another one”(p. 68). Jaspert and Kroon (1993) defined language shift as “the gradual disappearance of a language in a community where it used to be spoken” (p. 293).

⁴Library of Congress – Federal Research Division, Country Profile: Eritrea, September 2005, p. 6 at <http://memory.loc.gov/frd/cs/profiles/Eritrea.pdf>, Accessed on Feb. 5th 2011

⁵ The Eritrean Community Chairman Message on the Eritrean International School Website <http://eritreaschool.com>

Recently, more research on LMLS has been conducted in different contexts. Okamura (1981), for instance, studied mother tongue maintenance and development among the Japanese children living in the United States. The results revealed that the years of schooling in the U.S. significantly related to the skill level in English. The parents proved to affect the child's language status, particularly the degree of his mother tongue maintenance. In terms of relative importance, the child's factors such as his/her interest, attitudes, and the extent of use of the language contributed more significantly to the level in each language. Morgan (1987) found that there was a shift to Spanish among Haitian community as a trend for the future rather than maintenance of Haitian Creole or establishment of both languages in a state of balanced bilingualism. Moreover, Brook (1988) investigated language maintenance and language shift among the Japanese community in the Los Angeles area.

Yakoubou (1994) said that English remains the overall language of communication in the households of the participating families. Since the children do not use the parents' African languages among themselves, there is evidence to suggest that those languages might not survive in the next generation. Furthermore, Saxena (1995) conducted a study on language maintenance and shift of Panjabi Hindus in Southall. He argues that the Panjabi, Hindi and English languages constituted the main verbal repertoire of the community. The findings also suggest that, even after 30 to 40 years of the minority community's establishment in Britain, English has not encroached enough on the family domain to threaten the survival of the minority languages. Furthermore, Kostoulas-Kostoulas-Makrakis (1995) carried out a research on the language maintenance and shift of Greek background students in Sweden. More Greek than Swedish is also maintained in communication between students and most of their Greek friends. There is a slow shift taking place among the second generation Greek students. Similarly, Stoessel (1998) investigated the social networks as a factor in language maintenance and shift. There was a strong association between maintenance ratings and the ratio of L1 to L2 speakers in the speaker's secondary network in the US. The amount of L2-speaking kin in the US also correlated with language shift. In his study, Somerholter (1999) investigated language contact and shift in the Soviet German speech community. He argued that in Germany, exposure to new dialects of German, as well as the loss of the traditional family unit due to the circumstances of migration will hasten the end of Soviet German dialects and destroy what is left of that speech community.

Sun (2000) found that the importance of parental roles in first language maintenance in immigrant families. Parents' guidance and parents' insistence on their children's use of Chinese at home played an important role in their children's maintenance of Chinese language. In another study, Cashman (2001) examined the bilingual language practices in a small, heterogeneous, urban Latino community in the Midwestern United States. The individual variables such as age at time of arrival had the most significant impact on the Spanish language maintenance of Group 1 (Latin American informants), while social network variables had the most significant impact on the Spanish language maintenance of Group 2 (U.S.). Holdeman (2002) investigated language maintenance and shift among the Russian old believers of Erie in Pennsylvania. The research investigated the community's origins and history, its variant of Russian, and the status of Russian, Church Slavonic, and English, focusing on history, domains of use, attitudes toward the languages, proficiency, etc., and examined the process of language maintenance and shift in the community. Other studies on LMLS have been conducted in different circumstances like Venditti (2003) in his research, studied women and ethnic language maintenance of Italian immigrant family triads in Sainte-Leonard, Montreal. Billoo (2004) studied Bhojpurias language maintenance and language shift in Mauritius, and Zhang (2005) studied the home language maintenance and acculturation among second-generation Chinese children.

Park (2007) in his research, maintaining Korean as a heritage language, found that the language use pattern within the family showed the language shift among Korean heritage language adolescents. However, it is not the place, but the parents that make home a heritage language domain. The pattern shows that Korean is used more with the parents' generation and English is predominantly used among peers in the younger generations. Hamid (2007) studied language maintenance and shift in the Sylheti community in Leeds. She claimed that the identification of Bangla as mother tongue is linked to reasons other than use. Analysis of data plainly indicated that Sylheti is strongest among immediate and extended family and friends. The maintenance of Sylheti is established and the evidence of Sylheti-English bilingualism substantiates the additive role of minority language in a bilingual context. In a relatively similar study concerned with Bangladeshi in diaspora, Subhan (2007) carried out a research on heritage language maintenance among Bangladeshi immigrants in Toronto. The findings suggested that language maintenance is not noticeable within the families of Bangladeshi immigrants in Toronto in profound or significant ways. Although the parents almost continually use heritage language and that other sources of heritage language sources are present in the home environment, children generally live in their own separate worlds and interact with heritage language sources and users only on a functional level. Most of the outside contexts and resources of heritage language is avoided by the children and sometimes neglected by the parents. Parents are generally found to consciously foster and transmit some religious values and cultural behaviour.

Marongiu (2007) Investigated language maintenance and shift in Sardinia by Sardinian and Italian in Cagliari. Ramirez (2007) studied language attrition and language maintenance of Colombian immigrants in New York State. The results of this study indicate that first generation Colombian immigrants in New York State do not present signs of language attrition but some pragmatic changes due to exposure to English as well as to other Spanish dialects. These

bilinguals register a high level of first language maintenance due to the fact that they keep using their native language for both integrative and instrumental processes.

Garcia (2008) examined the role of language ideology and life choices in language maintenance and language shift across three generations of a Cuban American family in the United States in a cross generational study. He found that the unique circumstances of Cuban Americans help to inform their decisions on language maintenance across generations and that language ideology and other life choices play a pivotal role in the maintenance of the Spanish language or the language shift to English with this family. Van Aswegen (2008) studied language maintenance and shift of Maale, a minority language spoken in Ethiopia. The findings indicated that the mother tongue literacy programme contributed to language maintenance but it was a stepping stone to further education, which favours the learning of a second language, which could lead to possible attrition of the mother tongue. Brown (2008) investigated language shift and maintenance through the examination of language usage across four generations as self-reported by university students in Belarus in terms of self-reported concern about the future of Belarusian and the extent to which language use with prospective children reflects that concern.

Martin (2009) carried out a research on Arab American parents' attitudes toward their children's heritage language maintenance and language practices. Results indicated that parents hold positive attitudes towards Arabic and engage in various language practices that promote the maintenance of Arabic in their families, and racism is not significantly associated with language attitudes or language encouragement. Gogonas (2009) studied language shift in second generation Albanian immigrants in Greece. The data on children's language competence and on patterns of language use within Albanian households indicated that the Albanian ethnolinguistic group was undergoing rapid language shift. Soufo (2009) studied language shift and maintenance within three generations for three Turkish-Arabic speaking families. Language patterns in three Arabic-Turkish bilingual families were investigated through deep interviews held with third-generation representatives of each families. The results showed that shift or maintenance take different directions within three generations because of, mostly, outside factors shaping the attitude of bilingual speakers. Letsholo (2009) carried out a research on language maintenance or shift through investigating the attitudes of Bakalanga youth towards their mother tongue. The results showed that informants used Setswana frequently, even in domains where they could use their mother tongue, e.g. when speaking to peers from the same mother tongue. Some of the subjects also expressed negative feelings towards using their mother tongue around non-native speakers of the language.

Matsumoto (2010) examined the role of social networks in the post-colonial multilingual island of Palau in terms of the mechanisms of language maintenance and shift. He explored the usefulness of social networks from three perspectives, investigating whether and how social networks can explain changes in the use of former colonial languages in a post-colonial community; the functions of strong and weak ties in a multilingual community; and the social characteristics of communities in which social network as an analytical tool may have an explanatory force. He concluded that the social network is indeed a valuable and important social variable in sociolinguistic investigations, alongside other factors, such as sex and identity. Finally, and in somehow two similar situations, Zhang (2010) investigated language maintenance and language shift among Chinese immigrant parents and their second-generation children in the United States, and Xie (2010) examined first language maintenance and attrition among young Chinese adult immigrants in the US, too.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Objectives and Research Questions

The aim of this study is to examine language maintenance and language shift among second generation Tigrinya speaking Eritrean teenagers and explore the factors affecting these phenomena such as age, gender, religion, number of siblings, birth order, number of siblings born in Saudi Arabia, enrolment in Tigrinya class and language background. It sought answers to the following questions:

1. How proficient are the Eritrean teenager immigrants in both Tigrinya and Arabic?
2. Are the Eritrean teenager immigrants maintaining their Tigrinya language or shifting to Arabic?
3. Are the Tigrinya speakers proud of their linguistic and cultural identity?

B. Research Method

The Sample

For the purpose of the current research, sixty-four Tigrinya speaking teenager immigrants in Riyadh were randomly chosen. Forty of them are females; whereas twenty-four are males. These respondents are students enrolled in the Eritrean International School in Riyadh. They are sampled from the eleventh and twelfth grades.

The Research Tool

A questionnaire of sixty-two items was developed to elicit information from the Tigrinya speaking Eritrean teenagers. The questionnaire items focused on the respondents' self-perception of the following dimensions: proficiency in Tigrinya (5 items, $\alpha = 0.88$); proficiency in Arabic (5 items, $\alpha = 0.81$); the use of Tigrinya at home (7 items $\alpha = 0.91$); and the use of Arabic at home (7 items $\alpha = 0.94$); the use of Tigrinya in public (7 items $\alpha = 0.90$) and the use of Arabic in

Public (7 items $\alpha= 0.92$); and finally the identity of Tigrinya (7 items $\alpha= 0.72$), and the identity of Arabic (5 items $\alpha= 0.70$).

Procedure

The data were collected through a questionnaire distributed to the young informants and filled by them. The collection of the forms took about ten days since the date of distribution. The teachers, who were in charge of teaching the upper classes in the school, i.e. classes 11th and 12th, were asked to convey the instructions of answering the questionnaire items. Those teachers distributed the forms to their students, collected them back, and submitted them to the administration as agreed with the Principal of the school, who eventually submitted the questionnaire forms to the researcher.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Demographic Profile

A total of sixty-four second generation Tigrinya speaking teenagers, twenty-four males and forty females, participated in the survey. Their ages range between 16 to 22, as shown in table 2 below.

TABLE 2.
AGE GROUP OF THE RESPONDENTS

| No. | Age Group | Frequency | Percentage |
|-----|-----------|-----------|------------|
| 1 | 22 | 2 | 3 |
| 2 | 21 | 1 | 1.6 |
| 3 | 20 | 5 | 7.8 |
| 4 | 19 | 19 | 29.7 |
| 5 | 18 | 20 | 31 |
| 6 | 17 | 14 | 21.9 |
| 7 | 16 | 3 | 4.7 |

The majority (65.63%) of them are Muslims, whereas 34.37% are Christians. 95 % of the participants were born in Saudi Arabia and only 5 % were born in Eritrea. They ranged from being the first-born child to being the sixth. Regarding the birth order, the largest group (35.94%) was the first oldest in their family birth order. As for siblings born in Saudi Arabia, the largest group (28%) got three sisters and brothers who were born in Saudi Arabia, whereas the second largest group (22 %) got four sisters and brothers who were born in Saudi Arabia. Nevertheless, 78% of them have been enrolled in a Tigrinya language medium school and 22 % have never been enrolled in Tigrinya language medium school. 61 % of the respondents claimed that their mother tongue is Tigrinya, whereas only 39% of them claim that Arabic is their mother tongue. 98% of the respondents' fathers and 94 % of their mothers consider Tigrinya as their mother tongue.

B. Tigrinya and Arabic Proficiency

The results showed that the respondents have relatively a limited proficiency in their mother tongue. To have a clear idea we refer to the respondents rating scale from 1 to 4 (strongly disagree to strongly agree), as shown in table 3 below. The statistics show that the respondents have limited ability to read and write in Tigrinya. Reading and writing have the least ability. 48% of the respondents read Tigrinya fluently, $\chi^2=3.37$ and about 47% of them write Tigrinya fluently, $\chi^2=1.37$ and show no significance. They also have a limited ability in understanding and speaking Tigrinya. More than 78% of the respondents claim that they understand Tigrinya fluently, $\chi^2= 25.25$ ($p < 0.01$), whereas more than 76% speak Tigrinya fluently, $\chi^2=20.87$ ($p < 0.01$). Respondents' oral skills in translation are better than their ability in both reading and writing, $\chi^2= 22.50$, ($p < 0.01$).

The respondents show a relatively greater proficiency in Arabic than in Tigrinya and this can be seen through the results below. More than 98% of the respondents claim that they understand Arabic fluently, $\chi^2=46.15$, ($p < 0.01$). However, 96.9 % of the respondents agree with the statement related to speaking Arabic, $\chi^2= 30.87$, ($p < 0.01$). More than 85.9 % of the respondents agree with the statement related to reading Arabic fluently, $\chi^2= 23.9$ ($P < 0.01$) and 87.5 % of them agree with the statement related to writing Arabic, $\chi^2= 40.25$ ($p < 0.01$). As for the ability to translate Arabic into Tigrinya orally, 76.5% of the respondents agree with the statement, $\chi^2= 24.37$, ($p < 0.01$). Therefore, many second-generation teenagers have experienced language shift and have become proficient in Arabic, their second language.

TABLE 3.
THE CHI SQUARE STATISTICS OF TIGRINYA AND ARABIC PROFICIENCY

| No. | Statement | SD | D | A | SA | x ² |
|-----|---|----|----|----|----|----------------|
| 1 | I understand Tigrinya fluently | 1 | 13 | 27 | 23 | 25.25** |
| 2 | I speak Tigrinya fluently | 3 | 12 | 26 | 23 | 20.87** |
| 3 | I read Tigrinya fluently | 12 | 21 | 18 | 13 | 3.37 |
| 4 | I write Tigrinya fluently | 17 | 17 | 18 | 12 | 1.37 |
| 5 | I can translate orally Tigrinya into Arabic easily and accurately | 2 | 14 | 28 | 20 | 22.50** |
| 6 | I understand Arabic fluently | 0 | 1 | 18 | 45 | 46.15** |
| 7 | I speak Arabic fluently | 0 | 2 | 24 | 38 | 30.87** |
| 8 | I read Arabic fluently | 0 | 9 | 16 | 39 | 23.09** |
| 9 | I write Arabic fluently | 1 | 7 | 23 | 33 | 40.25** |
| 10 | I can translate orally Arabic into Tigrinya easily and accurately | 2 | 13 | 29 | 20 | 24.37** |

*Chi square is significant at 0.05

SD= Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, A=Agree,

**Chi square is significant at 0.01

SA=Strongly Agree

C. Language Maintenance and Language Shift

a. Language Used at Home

Table 4 shows that chi square statistics are higher in parents' usage of Tigrinya when speaking to their teenagers. Therefore, parents usually prefer to speak Tigrinya with their children. More than 85% of the teenagers say that their mothers use Tigrinya when they talk to them at home, $x^2 = 68.03$, ($p < 0.01$). More than 89% of them also confirm that their fathers prefer Tigrinya to talk to them at home, $x^2 = 41.87$, ($p < 0.01$). On the other hand, the teenagers use Tigrinya to speak to their parents but with less interest than the parents do. They speak to their parents to express their feelings of solidarity with the elders' wish in maintaining the mother tongue. About 73% of the teenagers claim that they use Tigrinya to speak to their mothers at home, $x^2 = 35.53$, ($p < 0.01$); whereas 75% of them say that they use Tigrinya when they talk to their fathers $x^2 = 36.93$, ($p < 0.01$). Anyway, when teenagers speak to their brothers and sisters in the home, they also use Tigrinya but, as statistics show, this is with less interest than the parents do. About 53% of the teenagers say that they use Tigrinya to talk to their brothers and sisters with chi square 7.09, and it is not statistically significant at all. Similarly, when the teenagers speak to their friends in the home they use Tigrinya in a limited way (40%), $x^2 = 9.12$ and it is not statistically significant. The respondents use Tigrinya in a limited way when they speak or think to themselves in the home, that is, about 31% of them agree with the statement "I generally use Tigrinya when I think or talk to myself when I am at home", $x^2 = 3.50$, which does not statistically show any significance at all.

TABLE 4.
THE CHI SQUARE STATISTICS OF LANGUAGE USED AT HOME

| No. | Statement | NA | SD | D | A | SA | x ² |
|-----|---|----|----|----|----|----|----------------|
| 11 | My mother generally speaks Tigrinya to me at home | 4 | 1 | 4 | 19 | 36 | 68.03** |
| 12 | My father generally speaks Tigrinya to me at home | 2 | 0 | 5 | 24 | 33 | 41.87** |
| 13 | I generally speak Tigrinya to my mother at home | 3 | 2 | 12 | 21 | 26 | 35.53** |
| 14 | I generally speak Tigrinya to my father at home | 4 | 1 | 11 | 25 | 23 | 36.93** |
| 15 | I generally speak Tigrinya to my sisters and brothers at home | 6 | 12 | 12 | 19 | 15 | 7.09 |
| 16 | I generally speak Tigrinya to my friends at home | 6 | 13 | 19 | 17 | 9 | 9.12 |
| 17 | I generally use Tigrinya when I think or talk to myself when I am at home | 13 | 18 | 13 | 11 | 9 | 3.50 |
| 18 | My mother generally speaks Arabic to me at home | 9 | 11 | 17 | 16 | 11 | 3.81 |
| 19 | My father generally speaks Arabic to me at home | 9 | 13 | 20 | 15 | 7 | 8.18 |
| 20 | I generally speak Arabic to my mother at home | 6 | 8 | 16 | 20 | 14 | 10.37* |
| 21 | I generally speak Arabic to my father at home | 6 | 10 | 18 | 19 | 11 | 9.59* |
| 22 | I generally speak Arabic to my sisters and brothers at home | 7 | 4 | 6 | 18 | 29 | 34.90** |
| 23 | I generally speak Arabic to my friends at home | 5 | 4 | 4 | 18 | 33 | 50.84** |
| 24 | I generally use Arabic when I think or talk to myself when I am at home | 6 | 7 | 5 | 16 | 30 | 34.90** |

*Chi square is significant at 0.05

NA=Not Applicable SD= Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, A=Agree,

**Chi square is significant at 0.01

SA=Strongly Agree

In contrast, parents seem to use Arabic in a limited way when they speak to their children in the home. Mothers seem to be reluctant to use Arabic in speaking to their children at home (42%) and the chi square is 3.81, which is not statistically significant. The fathers, on the other hand, use Arabic in a limited way for the same purpose (34%), with chi square 8.18 and this is also not statistically significant. When talking to their parents, the teenagers seem not to be favouring using Arabic. About 53% of them use Arabic to talk to their mothers at home, $x^2 = 10.37$, ($p < 0.05$), and about 47% of them also use Arabic when they talk to their fathers at home, $x^2 = 9.59$, ($p < 0.05$). We also find that the teenagers use Arabic more than Tigrinya when they talk to their sisters and brothers at home (73.48%), $x^2 = 34.90$, ($p < 0.01$). About 80% of the teenagers use Arabic when they talk to their friends in the home, $x^2 = 50.84$, ($p < 0.01$) and about 72% of them use Arabic when they think or talk to themselves, $x^2 = 34.90$, ($p < 0.01$).

b. Language Used in Public Places

As for the language used in public places by the teenagers and their parents when talking to each other, it is found that mothers and fathers use Tigrinya more than Arabic in public places when they are talking to their children. The respondents claim that 71.87% of the mothers prefer to use Tigrinya in public places when they talk to their children, x^2

= 31, ($p < 0.01$). Also 71.87% of the fathers use Tigrinya when talking to their children, $x^2 = 28.81$, ($p < 0.01$). The teenagers, on the other hand, seem to use Tigrinya more than Arabic when they speak with their parents in public places. Less than 58% of them claim that they prefer Tigrinya to Arabic when they talk to their mothers in public places, $x^2 = 15.53$, ($p < 0.01$), whereas less than 61% prefer to use Tigrinya when talking to their fathers in public, $x^2 = 14.75$, ($p < 0.10$). The teenagers do not seem to be willing to use Tigrinya when they talk to their brothers and sisters in public places. Only 40.62% of them use Tigrinya when talking to their siblings with chi square 2.09, which is not statistically significant at all. In contrast, we find them prefer Tigrinya to Arabic when they talk to their friends in public places (76.56%), $x^2 = 21.62$, ($p < 0.01$). Only about 39% of the teenagers use Tigrinya more than Arabic When they think or talk to themselves in public, $x^2 = 6.62$, which is not significant as well. The mothers do not prefer using Arabic in talking to their children in public, as it is clear in the respondent's answers to statement 32, in table 5 below; 51.56% of the respondents claim that their mothers Arabic in talking to their children in public places, $x^2 = 8.69$. We also find that the fathers, on the other hand, use Arabic more than Tigrinya in such situations (50%) and $x^2 = 10.53$.

TABLE 5.
THE CHI SQUARE STATISTICS OF LANGUAGE USED AT HOME

| No. | Statement | NA | SD | D | A | SA | x^2 |
|-----|---|----|----|----|----|----|---------|
| 25 | My mother generally speaks Tigrinya to me in public | 3 | 9 | 6 | 19 | 27 | 31.00** |
| 26 | My father generally speaks Tigrinya to me in public | 3 | 7 | 8 | 25 | 21 | 28.81** |
| 27 | I generally speak Tigrinya to my mother in public | 4 | 9 | 14 | 14 | 23 | 15.53** |
| 28 | I generally speak Tigrinya to my father in public | 5 | 7 | 13 | 18 | 21 | 14.75** |
| 29 | I generally speak Tigrinya to my sisters and brothers in public | 9 | 16 | 13 | 14 | 12 | 2.09 |
| 30 | I generally speak Tigrinya to my friends in public | 7 | 5 | 11 | 26 | 15 | 21.62** |
| 31 | I generally use Tigrinya when I think or talk to myself when I am in public | 7 | 19 | 13 | 15 | 10 | 6.62 |
| 32 | My mother generally speaks Arabic to me in public | 8 | 6 | 17 | 16 | 17 | 8.69 |
| 33 | My father generally speaks Arabic to me in public | 6 | 8 | 18 | 19 | 13 | 10.53* |
| 34 | I generally speak Arabic to my mother in public | 6 | 4 | 16 | 15 | 23 | 18.96** |
| 35 | I generally speak Arabic to my father in public | 5 | 6 | 13 | 20 | 20 | 16.46** |
| 36 | I generally speak Arabic to my sisters and brothers in public | 6 | 3 | 6 | 15 | 34 | 50.21** |
| 37 | I generally speak Arabic to my Tigrinya speaking friends in public | 3 | 7 | 5 | 29 | 20 | 39.43** |
| 38 | I generally use Arabic when I think or talk to myself when I am in public | 8 | 6 | 7 | 18 | 25 | 21.78** |

*Chi square is significant at 0.05

NA=Not Applicable

SD= Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, A=Agree,

**Chi square is significant at 0.01

SA=Strongly Agree

In contrast, the teenagers use Arabic more than Tigrinya to talk to their parents in public. 59.37% of the teenagers say that they prefer to use Arabic to talk to their mothers; $x^2 = 18.96$, ($p < 0.01$), and more than 62% of them prefer Arabic as well to talk to their fathers in public, $x^2 = 16.46$, ($p < 0.01$). The teenagers prefer using Arabic more than Tigrinya when they talk to their siblings in public (76.56%), and $x^2 = 50.21$, ($p < 0.01$). We also found that 64.06% of the teenagers prefer Arabic to Tigrinya again when they talk to their friends, $x^2 = 21.62$ ($p < 0.01$). Meanwhile, 67.18% of them use Arabic when they think and talk to themselves in public, $x^2 = 21.78$ ($p < 0.01$).

c. Tigrinya and Arabic Language Identity

Table 6 below shows the respondents opinions about the importance of maintaining Tigrinya. A very high number of the respondents find that Tigrinya is useful when dealing with elders, dealing with monolinguals, maintaining culture, and attending cultural activities such as rituals and marriages. More than 98% of the respondents think that speaking Tigrinya is generally useful for talking with Tigrinya speaking elders, $x^2 = 48.78$, ($p < 0.01$). The teenagers are aware of their mother tongue maintenance and their culture as well, so we find that more than 95.31% of them believe that speaking Tigrinya is essential in maintaining Tigrinya speakers culture, $x^2 = 59.62$, ($p < 0.01$). Only 28% of the respondents think that Tigrinya is useful for work purposes, $x^2 = 18.87$, ($p < 0.01$). About 33% of the respondents think that Tigrinya is useful for travelling purposes, whereas 56% of them think that Tigrinya is useful to help Tigrinya monolinguals. About 94% think that maintaining Tigrinya is important, $x^2 = 85.12$, ($p < 0.01$), and 81% of the teenagers think that attending cultural activities in Tigrinya language, such as rituals and marriage celebrations, helps in maintaining Tigrinya, $x^2 = 26.25$, ($p < 0.01$). They are fully aware that Arabic is not helpful in maintaining their mother tongue, rather they think it is helpful in certain important purposes of life such as work purposes, and travelling around. Although teenagers prefer Arabic to Tigrinya in different situations both in their houses and in public, they feel that Tigrinya is to be maintained through culture maintenance. They also seem to use Tigrinya more than Arabic when dealing with elders, which reflects the older generation's desire to maintain culture through language maintenance

TABLE 6.
THE CHI SQUARE STATISTICS OF TIGRINYA AND ARABIC LANGUAGE IDENTITY

| No. | Statement | SD | D | A | SA | χ^2 |
|-----|--|----|----|----|----|----------|
| 39 | Speaking Tigrinya is generally useful for talking with Tigrinya speaking elders | 0 | 1 | 17 | 46 | 48.78** |
| 40 | Speaking Tigrinya is generally useful for maintaining Tigrinya speakers culture | 1 | 2 | 23 | 38 | 59.62** |
| 41 | Speaking Tigrinya is generally useful for work | 21 | 25 | 16 | 2 | 18.87** |
| 42 | Speaking Tigrinya is generally useful when travelling | 12 | 31 | 14 | 7 | 20.37** |
| 43 | Speaking Tigrinya is generally useful for helping Tigrinya monolinguals | 3 | 5 | 23 | 33 | 39.25** |
| 44 | Maintaining Tigrinya is important | 2 | 2 | 13 | 47 | 85.12** |
| 45 | Attending cultural activities in Tigrinya language such as rituals, and marriages are helpful in maintaining Tigrinya language | 5 | 7 | 23 | 29 | 26.25** |
| 46 | Speaking Arabic is generally useful for talking with Tigrinya speaking elders | 16 | 24 | 11 | 13 | 6.12 |
| 47 | Speaking Arabic is generally useful for maintaining Tigrinya speakers culture | 13 | 28 | 16 | 7 | 14.62** |
| 48 | Speaking Arabic is generally useful for work | 1 | 2 | 21 | 40 | 63.87** |
| 49 | Speaking Arabic is generally useful when travelling | 0 | 4 | 28 | 32 | 21.50** |
| 50 | Speaking Arabic is generally useful for helping Tigrinya monolinguals | 9 | 22 | 18 | 15 | 5.62 |

*Chi square is significant at 0.05

SD= Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, A=Agree,

**Chi square is significant at 0.01

SA=Strongly Agree

D. Relationships that Affect Language Maintenance and Language Shift

To see if variables of the data are positively associated, correlation coefficients and significance levels were computed. The resulting correlations indicate that variables of the data are within a range of .358 to .852. Correlation coefficients with an asterisk mean that the variable relationship is significant at $p < .05$ and two asterisks, at $p < .01$. Because of the closely interrelated associations of the nature of the variables, there is an abundance of correlation coefficient at $p < .05$ and at $p < .01$. To condense the correlation coefficients, group variables have been calculated. Table 7 reveals the group variable relationships among proficiency in Tigrinya and Arabic, Tigrinya and Arabic used at home and in public, and Tigrinya and Arabic language identity. The correlation showed that Tigrinya teenagers who have a proficiency in Tigrinya use Tigrinya at home and in public. Those teenagers who also have a proficiency in Tigrinya have a strong sense of Tigrinya identity. Those who have a proficiency in Arabic use more Arabic at home and in public, but not necessarily a strong sense of Arabic identity.

TABLE 7.
CORRELATION COEFFICIENT OF THE OVERALL VARIABLES AFFECTING LMLS IN THIS STUDY

| | TGL | ARL | TGH | ARH | TGP | ARP | TGI | ARI |
|-----|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|--------|-------|
| TGL | 1 | .001 | .586** | -.422** | .524** | -.124 | .411** | .197 |
| ARL | .001 | 1 | -.363** | .426** | -.292* | .358** | .079 | -.011 |
| TGH | .586** | -.363** | 1 | -.642** | .851** | -.420** | .385** | .135 |
| ARH | -.422** | .426** | -.642** | 1 | -.626** | .641** | -.146 | .066 |
| TGP | .524** | -.292* | .851** | -.626** | 1 | -.507** | .482** | .118 |
| ARP | -.124 | .358** | -.420** | .641** | -.507** | 1 | -.069 | .192 |
| TGI | .411** | .079 | .385** | -.146 | .482** | -.069 | 1 | .160 |
| ARI | .197 | -.011 | .135 | .066 | .118 | .192 | .160 | 1 |

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

TGL=Tigrinya Language Proficiency ARL=Arabic Language Proficiency TGH=Tigrinya Language Used at Home
ARH= Arabic Language Used at Home TGP=Tigrinya Language Used in Public ARP= Arabic Language Used in Public
TGI= Tigrinya Language Identity ARI= Arabic Language Identity

The demographic variables such as age, gender, religion, number of siblings, birth order, number of siblings born in Saudi Arabia, enrolment in Tigrinya class, and language background were discussed in terms of correlation with group variables related to LMLS. These group variables include proficiency in Tigrinya and Arabic group variables, Tigrinya and Arabic used at home group variables, Tigrinya and Arabic used in public group variables, and Tigrinya and Arabic language identity group variables. It is found that only some of these demographic variables have some correlations with some of the above mentioned group variables. variable, for instance, correlates positively with some of these variables and negatively with others. Religion correlates positively with Tigrinya language proficiency, $r = .360$, ($p < .01$), while it correlates negatively with Arabic language proficiency, $r = -.298$, ($p < .05$). Again, we find that religion correlates positively with Tigrinya language use at home, $r = .469$, ($p < .01$); whereas it correlates negatively with Arabic, $r = -.574$, ($p < .01$). Religion variable also correlates with the group variables related to the type of language used in public. It correlates positively with Tigrinya language use in public, $r = .501$, ($p < .01$), but it correlates negatively with Arabic language use in public, $r = -.359$, ($p < .01$). As we have seen earlier, 66% of the respondents claimed that they are Muslims and only 34% of them claimed that they are Christians.

Moreover, the respondents' first language variable correlates positively and negatively with these group variables. We find that the respondent's first language variable correlates with Tigrinya language proficiency, $r = -.358$, ($p < .01$), while it correlates positively with Arabic language proficiency, $r = .345$, ($p < .01$). It also correlates negatively with Tigrinya use at home, $r = -.635$ ($p < .01$), but it correlates positively with Arabic use at home, $r = .591$ ($p < .01$). Again we find that the respondents' first language variable correlates negatively with Tigrinya use in public, $r = -.572$ ($p < .01$), but it correlates positively with Arabic use in public, $r = .384$ ($p < .01$).

As for the other demographic variables like age, gender number of siblings, birth order, number of siblings born in Saudi Arabia, and enrolment in Tigrinya class, there was no correlation, with the other variables related to LMLS, has been observed.

V. CONCLUSION

The results from this research reveal that second generation Tigrinya teenagers have a limited ability to understand, speak, read, write, and translate orally Tigrinya into Arabic and vice-versa. In comparing the level of their proficiency in both Tigrinya and Arabic it is found that they have a lower proficiency in Tigrinya than in Arabic. Second generation Tigrinya teenagers speak Tigrinya mostly at home because their parents generally speak to them in Tigrinya, but the teenagers are able to understand, speak, read, and write in Arabic better than Tigrinya. Most of the participants choose Arabic over Tigrinya when communicating with brothers and sisters. This preference for Arabic over Tigrinya is due to a limited vocabulary in Tigrinya as compared to Arabic. Furthermore, the Arabic language is evidently the dominant language among the teenagers since they generally think or talk to themselves in Arabic independent of whether they are at home or in public.

This study reveals a correlation between Tigrinya and Arabic language proficiency, Tigrinya language usage at home and in public, and identity through Tigrinya and Arabic. The results indicate that bilingual Tigrinya teenagers who speak Tigrinya frequently at home and in public have a sense of Tigrinya identity through mother tongue. Those who are proficient in both Tigrinya and Arabic have a strong sense of Tigrinya language identity. Proficiency in Tigrinya is related to how much Tigrinya is spoken by the teenagers at home and in public. Those who are the most proficient in Tigrinya generally speak more Tigrinya at home and in public; and those who speak mostly Arabic at home speak only Arabic in public.

The use of Tigrinya is seemingly decreasing and the use of Arabic is increasing. Therefore, there is evidence from this study that second-generation Tigrinya teenagers' proficiency is shifting toward Arabic rather than maintaining the native language. This general trend of native language loss as a new language learned is also found in other parallel studies. Fillmore (1991:323) reported that "... once these children learn English, they tend not to maintain or to develop the language spoken at home, even if it is the only one their parents know." These Tigrinya teenagers in Saudi Arabia are gradually losing their mother tongue because they have acquired Arabic to survive in an Arabic-dominated society. In their daily communication with most of the people, they must use Arabic. Nevertheless, they have a deep appreciation of their native language, and acknowledge the fact that Tigrinya language with culture and ethnic background, contribute to their identity.

Efforts to maintain the Tigrinya language in the future will depend on the desire of individuals to hold on to their native language, culture, and identity. Essentially language maintenance will be reflected in the existence and desirability of the mother tongue, and the "forms of multilingual and multicultural accommodations" that are made (Edward, 1997). This study shows that Tigrinya second generation teenagers acquire Arabic rapidly and give little effort to retain their native language. It is important for them to maintain Tigrinya so that they can be bilingual and capable of working for both Tigrinya and non-Tigrinya people. Meanwhile, they can be proud of who they are and be able to understand their parents and Tigrinya monolinguals.

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On the Would-be Bonds between Emotional Intelligence and Self-efficacy: The Case of Iranian EFL University Professors

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Abstract—Though a plethora of varied probes, thus far, have been conducted into the effectiveness of emotional intelligence as well as the paramountcy of self-efficacy in educational settings, one area of research that seems to have remained partly intact or which has been given scant attention is the viable relationship between these two constructs, i.e. EQ and self-efficacy. In effect, the principal incentive underlying the researchers' interest in the current study emanated from their credence in the fact that meager heed has been given to the possible links holding between these two realm, particularly when it comes to considering the case of academic professors; indeed, the few number of studies being carried out in this respect have merely centered on the lower-level teachers among which a reference can be made to Chan (2004) and Fabio and Palazzeschi (2008). Hence, in view of the aforesaid facts, the researchers in the current study aimed at addressing the correlation between EI and self-efficacy in a brand new context (academic arena) and with a totally unique community (university professors). Age and teaching experience of professors were also the issues of secondary concern in performing the present research. To this end, 50 EFL university professors (both MA and PhD holders) were selected from a range of different universities in Urmia, including the English departments of Urmia state and Azad universities, Azarabadegan non-profit University, as well as Payam-e-Nour University. To gather the data, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) self-efficacy scale and Bar-On's (1997) EQ-i questionnaire were administered to the participants. The final analysis of data revealed a significant correlation between the participants' responses to these two questionnaires. Yet, the participants' ages and years of teaching experience were not found to be of significant role with respect to the relationship between the participants' performance on the said scales.

Index Terms—Bar-On's EQ-i, EI, emotional intelligence, EQ, self-efficacy

I. INTRODUCTION

Teachers as practitioners of educational principles and theories are heavily involved in different teaching and learning processes, so, understanding teachers' perceptions and beliefs is important (Jia, Eslami & Burlbaw, 2006). Knowing the perceptions and beliefs of teachers enables one to make predictions about teaching and assessment practices in classrooms. Research has shown that teachers have exciting potential to affect students' educational outcomes (Anderson, 2004). According to Sanders and Horn (1998) the teacher effects on students' achievement are "additive and cumulative with little evidence those subsequent effective teachers can offset the effects of ineffective ones" (p. 32). Further, they maintained that "regardless of race, students who are assigned disproportionately to ineffective teachers will be severely academically handicapped relative to students with other teacher assignment patterns" (p. 254). Therefore, they concluded that "educational assessment that does not address teacher effectiveness is at the very least, seriously limited in its ability to serve its primary purpose" (p. 255). In the last two decades great interest has been given to the role of affectivity and emotion in education. Education professionals believed that feelings are crucial in the overall development of their pupils and in their own daily tasks. Thus, they are voicing the need to encourage not only the academic development of children and young people, but also the development of their social and emotional competencies (Elias, et al., 1997; Greenberg, et al., 2003).

Emotional competence of teachers is necessary both in general and in particular. In general it is essential for their own well-being and for effectiveness and quality in carrying out teaching-learning processes in the classroom, and in particular for the socio-emotional development of students (Sutton & Wheatly, 2003). A number of studies (e.g., Boyatzis, 2006; Carmeli, 2003; Schutte, et al., 1998, as cited in Moafian and Ghanizadeh, 2009) have reported a positive relationship between different affective traits, in particular, emotional intelligence (EI), and job attitudes such as affective commitment. As Carmeli (2003) noted, emotionally intelligent individuals are expected to recognize, manage, and use their emotions to manipulate the ensuing obstacles and prevent their negative effects on attitudes

towards their profession (cited in Salami, 2007). This is particularly true when it comes to professions such as teaching, with its high levels of complexity and constant interaction.

Though, a multitude of research projects have been conducted on EI (e.g., Brackett and Salovey, 2006; Carmeli, 2003; Schutte, et al., 1998) and on self-efficacy (e.g., Ross, 1992; Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998), very little (Chan, 2004; Fabio and Palazzeschi, 2008; Penrose, et al., 2007) has been carried out or reported on the relationship between these two. Since these two factors, i.e. EI and efficacy, are of current concern in all levels of education (Gil-Olarte, et al., 2006; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) and since they contribute to teaching effectiveness (Mortiboys, 2005; Pajares, 1992), it seems that some serious research is called for to address the would be go-togetherness between these two focal constructs. Hence, the purpose of the present study is to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy beliefs for Iranian university professors in EFL context. In doing so, an attempt is also made to identify the possible significant differences among EFL university professors with different ages and teaching experiences concerning their emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. To this end, the following research questions were formulated:

1. Is there any significant relationship between EFL university professors' emotional intelligence and their sense of self-efficacy?
2. Does the age of EFL university professors have any significant effect on their performance on emotional intelligence and self-efficacy scales?
3. Does the teaching experience of EFL university professors have any significant effect on their performance on emotional intelligence and self-efficacy scale?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. *The Origin and Definition of EI*

The history of EI originated from the concept of social intelligence, introduced by Thorndike. Thorndike (1920) defined social intelligence as “the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls – to act wisely in human relations” (cited in G rol, et.al. 2010). The concept of emotional intelligence was originally conceptualized by Salovey and Mayer (1990); however, emotional intelligence became popular outside academia by Daniel Goleman. Later on, emotional intelligence became a well-known phrase in popular media circles (Matthews, et al., 2002). Subsequently, emotional intelligence was espoused by big businesses enterprises adopting it as a leadership mantra. Since 1995, Goleman has published two seminal books concerning EI, entitled *Working with Emotional Intelligence* (1998) and *Primal Leadership and Social Intelligence* (2006). The literature related to emotional intelligence reveals that Reuven Bar-On, Daniel Goleman, and the team of John Mayer and Peter Salovey were among the researchers who proposed the three main theories about emotional intelligence. The first model by Peter Salovey and John Mayer perceives EI as a form of pure intelligence, that is, emotional intelligence as a cognitive ability. A second model by Reuven Bar-On regards EI as a mixed intelligence, consisting of cognitive ability and personality aspects. This model emphasizes how cognitive and personality factors influence general well-being. The third model, introduced by Daniel Goleman, also perceives EI as a mixed intelligence involving cognitive ability and personality aspects. From Salovey and Mayer's (1990) point of view emotional intelligence is a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions and to use the information to guide thinking and actions. They defined it as “the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide ones thinking and action” (Mayor and Salovey, 1990, p.186). They also propose a four-branch model of emotional intelligence that includes the abilities to: accurately perceive emotions in oneself and in others, use emotions to facilitate thinking, understand emotions, emotional language, and the signals conveyed by emotions, and manage emotions so as to attain specific goals.

According to the theoretical model of Bar-On (1997), EI is defined as “an array of non cognitive abilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demand and pressures” (p. 14). The director of the Institute of Applied Intelligences in Denmark and consultant for a variety of institutions and organizations in Israel, Reuven Bar-On developed one of the first measures of emotional intelligence that used the term ‘Emotion Quotient’. Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence relates to the *potential* for performance and success, rather than performance or success per se, and is considered process-oriented rather than outcome-oriented (Bar-On, 2002). It focuses on an array of emotional and social abilities, including the ability to be aware of, understand, and express oneself, the ability to be aware of, understand, and relate to others, the ability to deal with strong emotions, and the ability to adapt to change and solve problems of a social or personal nature (Bar-On, 1997). He identified 5 major scales and 15 subscales which are given below:

1. **Intrapersonal Component:** including the five subscales of *Emotional Self Awareness, Self Regard, Self-Actualization, Assertiveness, and Independence*;
2. **Interpersonal Component:** incorporating the subcomponents of *Empathy, Social Responsibility, and Interpersonal Relationships*;
3. **Stress Management:** being composed of *Stress Tolerance and Impulse Control*;
4. **Adaptability:** having as its subparts the three categories of *Reality Testing, Flexibility and Problem Solving*;
5. **General Mood:** encompassing two subcategories of *Happiness and Optimism*.

Goleman is best renowned for his dissemination of two seminal texts on emotional intelligence (1995, 1998, as cited in Masroor Alam, 2009). For Goleman (1998), emotional intelligence is "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationship" (p. 317). In his eyes, emotional intelligence is composed of self awareness, self-management, social awareness and social management (1998). Hence, emotional intelligence allows individuals to not only recognize their own emotions in and outside strictly intellectual situations, but also to recognize the emotions of others. As people understand their emotions and those of others, they are then able to better control and/or regulate those emotions. Emotional intelligence plays a large role in shaping individuals. Goleman (1998, 1999) explained that emotional intelligence creates passion, confidence, friendliness, motivation, pride, and energy in individuals (cited in Masroor Alam, 2009). Previous research has shown that there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and success in many areas such as effective teaching (Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2010), student learning (Brackett & Mayer, 2003), and academic performance (Gil-Olarte, Palomera, & Brackett, 2006).

Striving to determine whether student teacher performance was associated with emotional intelligence, Tod (2006) found that EI and College Supervisors' assessments of student teacher performance were significantly related. Moafian and Ghanizadeh (2009), on the other hand, examined the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy in Language Institutes. To this end, 89 EFL teachers were selected from different Language Institutes in the city of Mashhad, northeast Iran. The participants were asked to complete the *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale* and the *Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire*. Data analysis and statistical calculations revealed a significant relationship between the teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy.

B. Sources and Definitions of Self-efficacy Beliefs

Before the 1990s, teachers were neglected in the research agenda despite the fact that they were one of the main rings of educational chain. However, in recent years, with the postulation of post-method pedagogy, which empowers language teachers "to theorize from their practice and practice what they theorize" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 541) and critical pedagogy, which considers teachers as "transformative intellectuals" (Pennycook, 1989, p. 613), more attention has been paid to them. Researchers have investigated different characteristics of language teachers such as their pedagogical knowledge base (e.g., Watzke, 2007), professional development (e.g., Ross & Bruce, 2007), and identity (e.g., Tsui, 2007), which affect teachers' classroom practices and subsequently students' achievement. One of the features that has been given much attention in recent years is teachers' sense of self-efficacy, which plays a crucial role in determining teachers' opinions about their job, their influence on students' outcomes and also their classroom activities.

In the last couple of decades, the concept of self-efficacy has attracted a considerable amount of attention as a significant measure for understanding and predicting human behavior and its assumed consequences. The concept of self-efficacy is based on the social cognitive theory. Bandura (1986) defines it as "the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations." Perception of one's own self-efficacy may not reflect an individual's real capability. However, perceived self-efficacy has an important role in arranging one's behavior (Senemoglu, 2001, as cited in Uzun, et al., 2010). Self-efficacy perceptions affect goals which people identify for themselves, amount of effort which they are to spend to reach these goals, duration of exposure to difficulties, and reactions they show against failure (Alabay, 2006, cited in Uzun, et al., 2010). Bandura (1986) categorized four types of teacher experiences (Bandura, 1977) that play a role in the formation of teacher efficacy: mastery experiences (an individual's past successes and failures), physiological and affective states (somatic information conveyed by physiological and emotional arousal), vicarious experiences (skill in question is modeled by someone considered competent by and comparable to the individual) and verbal persuasion (encouragement received from a knowledgeable source). He believed that positive experiences of these types generally contribute to the formation of high teacher efficacy, whereas negative experiences generally contribute to the formation of low teacher efficacy. The most prevailing and powerful influence on efficacy is mastery experience, where the successful implementation of behavior increases self-efficacy for that behavior. The perception that a performance has been successful enhances perceived self-efficacy and ensures future proficiency and success. In contrast, the perception that a performance has been a failure weakens efficacy beliefs and leads to the expectation that future performance will also be inefficient. The second influence, vicarious experience, originates from observing other similar people perform a behavior successfully. It provides people with ideas about successful manners of action. In contrast, observing people similar to oneself fail, lowers an individual's confidence and subsequently undermines his/her future efforts.

A third source of influence is social or verbal persuasion received from others. Successful persuaders foster people's beliefs in their capabilities, while at the same time, ensure that visualized success is achievable. Negative persuasion, on the other hand, may tend to defeat and lower self-beliefs. The most contributing effect of social persuasion pivots around initiating the task, attempting new strategies, and trying hard to succeed (Pajares, 2002). Psychological and affective states, such as stress anxiety and excitement, also provide information about efficacy perception and boost the feeling of proficiency. Hence, trying to reduce an individual's stress and anxiety and modifying negative debilitating states to positive ones plays an influential role in amending perceived self-efficacy beliefs. Another important affective factor, according to Pintrich and Schunk (2001), is attribution. For example, if success is attributed to internal or

controllable causes such as ability or effort, efficacy will be enhanced. Nevertheless, if success is attributed to external uncontrollable factors, such as chance, self-efficacy may be diminished (cited in Woolfolk Hoy and Burke Spero, 2000).

C. Teacher Self-efficacy

During the past two decades, the construct of self-efficacy has received increased attention in educational research. Teachers are one group of professionals whose self-efficacy has been extensively researched. Teacher efficacy is defined as “the teacher’s belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context” (Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998, p. 22). Teacher efficacy has also been defined as teachers’ “beliefs in their ability to have a positive effect on student learning” (Ashton, 1985, p. 142). This means that teachers with higher teaching efficacy find teaching meaningful and rewarding, expect students to be successful, assess themselves when students fail, set goals and establish strategies for achieving those goals, have positive attitudes about themselves and students, have a feeling of being in control, and share their goals with students (Ashton, 1985). Henson (2001) stated that teacher efficacy has been found to be one of the important variables consistently related to positive teaching behavior and student outcomes.

Efficacy beliefs have also been associated with various important aspects of the teaching occupation. It has been consistently demonstrated that teachers with a strong sense of efficacy are more enthusiastic and satisfied with their job (Allinder, 1994; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni, & Steca, 2003; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca & Malone, 2006), experience lower levels of burnout (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Friedman, 2003; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008), exhibit greater commitment to their profession (Coladarci, 1992; Imants & Van Zoelen, 1995), and are more likely to continue teaching (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1982).

The results of many studies in the literature have proved the effects of teacher efficacy on different aspects of teacher performance, as well. For example the findings of the studies conducted by Brouwers and Tomic (2000) and Fires, Humman, and Olivarez (2007) confirmed that teacher efficacy is related to teacher burnout. Salami (2007) investigated the degree of correlation between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy to work attitudes among 475 secondary school teachers in southern Nigeria. Results of the study indicated that emotional intelligence and self-efficacy had significant relationships with work attitudes. This study provided no support for experience, age and gender differences.

In another study, Salami (2010) examined the relationship between psychological well-being, self-efficacy and emotional intelligence, on the one hand and students’ behaviors and attitudes on the other. This study also examined the moderating roles of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. Hierarchical regression analyses showed that emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, happiness and life satisfaction over and above depression predicted students’ behaviors and attitudes.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The population of the present study comprised of 50 EFL (29 males and 21 females) university professors instructing at a range of different universities in Urmia (Urmia state and Azad universities, Azarabadegan non-profit University, as well as Payam-e-Nour University). The participants enjoyed varying degrees (1-30) of teaching experience, and aged between 28 and 57 years. Additionally, they had majored in different branches of English studies, i.e. TEFL, Translation, or Literature, and were either MA or PhD holders.

B. Instruments

The following instruments were used in the present study:

- a. Emotional intelligence scale (Bar On, 1997).
- b. Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tchannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).
- c. Demographic questionnaire

To evaluate EFL university professors’ EI, the researcher employed *Bar Ons’ EQ-i*, which was originally designed by Bar On in 1980s. Bar On EI test, widely known as emotional quotient inventory (EQ-i), is a self report measure of emotionally and socially intelligent behavior that provides an estimate of emotional-social intelligence (Bar On, 1997). While the original version of the questionnaire encompasses 133 Likert-type items, the domestically standardized version of the test, which has been translated to Persian by Samouei (2003), has been reduced to 90 items, categorized in five higher-order scales and 15 subscales. Following the test designer’s lead, participants of the study were required to provide their responses on a continuum ranging from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’.

The Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale, also called the *Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale* (OSTES), consists of two versions: long form (including 24 items) and short form (including 12 items). The long form was utilized in the present study which comprises three subscales: *efficacy in student engagement*, *efficacy in instructional strategies*, and *efficacy in classroom management*. Each subscale loads equally on eight items, and every item is measured on a 9-point scale anchored with the notations: “nothing, very little, some influence, quite a bit, a great deal.” Before conducting the main study, a pilot study was conducted with 25 individuals to assess the reliability of the instrument. According to this pilot study four questions (4, 6, 13, 22) were eliminated and the questionnaire was found to enjoy adequate reliability ($\alpha = 0.767$).

English language professors were also asked to fill in demographic information. Demographics asked about participants' age, gender, experience and the last degree obtained.

C. Data Collection Procedure

As stated earlier, the current study was carried out in a range of different universities (Urmia state and Azad universities, Azarabadegan non-profit University, as well as Payam-e-Nour University) in Urmia, west Azerbaijan, Iran. The needed data were obtained from the participants during the year 2011, using the said instruments, i.e. Bar-On's EQ-i, Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale and demographic questionnaires.

D. Data Analysis

The data thus collected were then analyzed using Pearson product-moment correlation in order to determine the relationship between the participants' EI and self-efficacy. To find out the potential significant differences among EFL university professors with different ages and years of teaching experience, independent t-test and one-way ANOVA were run for both male and female groups.

IV. RESULTS

Table 1 summarizes the descriptive results of the two instruments, i.e. EQ and self-efficacy questionnaires used in this study.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF EQ AND SELF-EFFICACY

| | | Self-efficacy | EQ |
|----------------|---------|---------------------|----------|
| N | Valid | 50 | 50 |
| | Missing | 0 | 0 |
| Mean | | 173.5200 | 189.9600 |
| Median | | 175.5000 | 186.0000 |
| Mode | | 183.00 ^a | 181.00 |
| Std. Deviation | | 27.37438 | 28.81253 |
| Variance | | 749.357 | 830.162 |
| Minimum | | 84.00 | 133.00 |
| Maximum | | 279.00 | 233.00 |

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

To investigate the relationship between EFL university professors' emotional intelligence and self-efficacy, a Pearson product-moment correlation was applied. The results of correlation revealed that there is a significant correlation between EFL university professors' emotional intelligence and self-efficacy at the level of 0.05 ($r = 0.68^*$, $p < 0.05$) (see Table 2 for additional elucidation of the gained result).

TABLE 2
THE RESULTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN PROFESSORS' EQ AND THEIR SELF-EFFICACY

| Correlations | | | |
|---------------|---------------------|--------|---------------|
| | | EQ | Self-efficacy |
| EQ | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .675** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 |
| | N | 50 | 50 |
| Self-efficacy | Pearson Correlation | .675** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | |
| | N | 50 | 50 |

** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

To determine whether there were any age-induced significant differences among EFL university professors concerning their EI and self-efficacy, one-way ANOVA was run. The results showed that there was no significant difference among EFL university professors with regard to their age (see Tables 3, 4, 5 & 6).

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ABOUT AGES OF THE PARTICIPANTS FOR SELF-EFFICACY

| Descriptives | | | | | | | | |
|---------------|----|----------|----------------|------------|----------------------------------|-------------|---------|---------|
| Self-efficacy | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | | Minimum | Maximum |
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | | |
| 28_37 | 40 | 172.8000 | 29.90172 | 4.72788 | 163.2370 | 182.3630 | 84.00 | 279.00 |
| 38_47 | 6 | 180.5000 | 12.94218 | 5.28362 | 166.9180 | 194.0820 | 164.00 | 203.00 |
| 48_57 | 4 | 170.2500 | 14.77329 | 7.38664 | 146.7424 | 193.7576 | 156.00 | 183.00 |
| Total | 50 | 173.5200 | 27.37438 | 3.87132 | 165.7403 | 181.2997 | 84.00 | 279.00 |

TABLE4
RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR SELF-EFFICACY OF PARTICIPANTS

| ANOVA | | | | | |
|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|------|------|
| Self-efficacy | | | | | |
| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
| Between Groups | 355.830 | 2 | 177.915 | .230 | .795 |
| Within Groups | 36362.650 | 47 | 773.673 | | |
| Total | 36718.480 | 49 | | | |

TABLE5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ABOUT AGES OF PARTICIPANTS FOR EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

| Descriptives | | | | | | | | |
|--------------|----|----------|----------------|------------|----------------------------------|-------------|---------|---------|
| EQ | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | | Minimum | Maximum |
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | | |
| 28_37 | 40 | 194.4000 | 28.21420 | 4.46106 | 185.3767 | 203.4233 | 133.00 | 233.00 |
| 38_47 | 6 | 163.8333 | 25.76367 | 10.51797 | 136.7960 | 190.8706 | 133.00 | 191.00 |
| 48_57 | 4 | 184.7500 | 20.98214 | 10.49107 | 151.3627 | 218.1373 | 167.00 | 215.00 |
| Total | 50 | 189.9600 | 28.81253 | 4.07471 | 181.7716 | 198.1484 | 133.00 | 233.00 |

TABLE6
RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR EQ OF PARTICIPANTS

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|------|------|
| Between Groups | 1613.720 | 2 | 806.860 | .971 | .386 |
| Within Groups | 39064.200 | 47 | 831.153 | | |
| Total | 40677.920 | 49 | | | |

Next, in order to examine whether there were any significant differences among EFL university professors with different teaching experiences concerning their EI and self-efficacy, independent t-test analysis was applied.

TABLE7
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE FOR EI AND SELF-EFFICACY

| Group Statistics | | | | |
|------------------|----|----------|----------------|-----------------|
| x | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| Self-efficacy | 50 | 173.5200 | 27.37438 | 3.87132 |
| EQ | 50 | 189.9600 | 28.81253 | 4.07471 |

TABLE8
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT T-TEST ANALYSIS

| Independent Samples Test | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|----------|
| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| x | Equal variances assumed | 23.612 | .000 | 28.532 | 98 | .123 | -16.44000 | 5.62053 | -27.59376 | -5.28624 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 28.532 | 97.744 | .123 | -16.44000 | 5.62053 | -27.59413 | -5.28587 |

The obtained results revealed that there was no significant difference among EFL university professors concerning their EI and self-efficacy. In other words, teaching experience of EFL university professors was not found to have any significant effect on their performance on the scales of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy (Tables 7 and 8 illustrate this piece of finding).

V. DISCUSSION

Research Question 1: As stated earlier, the current study sought to investigate, in the first place, the possible association between emotional intelligence and sense of self-efficacy beliefs in a sample of Iranian EFL university professors. The findings showed that there was a positive significant correlation between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy among EFL university professors. The findings are in line with those reported by Chan (2004) and Martin et al. (2004). This piece of finding is also consistent with that gained by Penrose et al. (2007) who states that there is a moderate association between EI and teacher self-efficacy of primary and secondary school teachers. In a similar study, in L2 context, Moafian and Ghanizadeh (2009) demonstrated that enhancing EFL teachers' emotional intelligence had a positive influence on their sense of efficacy beliefs among 98 language Institute teachers in Mashhad, a city in north-east of Iran. Bandura (1977) discussed that "somatic information conveyed by physiological and emotional states" gives

rise to efficacy beliefs (p.106). Sutton and Wheatley (2003) proposed that part of the variation in teacher efficacy is due to variance in teachers' emotions. As Moafian and Ghanizadeh (2009) quote from Penrose (2007), Chan in a similar study has found that self-efficacy beliefs were significantly predicted by the components of EI. The findings are also in line with another study conducted by Rastegar and Memarpour (2009) among 72 English teachers teaching at Shiraz (a city in Iran) high schools. In a study by Fabio and Palazzeschi (2008) on a sample of Italian high school teachers, they suggested that there is a link between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy beliefs in teachers, which needs more in-depth future studies. The results of present study also confirm the findings of Gürol et al. (2010) holding that there is a significant positive relationship between EI and self-efficacy beliefs of 248 pre-service teachers from education faculty in Firat University in Turkey.

Research Questions 2 & 3: These two research questions strived to probe the viable influence of age and teaching experience of EFL professors on their performance regarding emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. The results indicated that, there were no significant difference among EFL university professors with different age ranges and years of experience concerning their EI and self-efficacy. These findings were in line with those reported by Gencer and Cakiroglu (2007) but in conflict with findings of Kalaian and Freeman (1994) (cited in Gencer and Cakiroglu, 2007, which is, in turn, cited in Rastegar Memarpour, 2009). In a similar study, Chester and Beaudin (1996) found no significant difference between the self-efficacy levels of newly hired EFL teachers in urban schools. They found that EFL teachers' age and prior experience mediate their beliefs. In other words, age and prior experience were associated with changes in newly hired teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. According to their study, older novice teachers were more certain of their commitment to teaching than younger novice ones. They believed that teachers' positive influence on learners allows them to contribute to the success of community and the future of the world. To put it in a nutshell, regarding the influence of age on self-efficacy levels the findings of current research are consistent with theoretical and empirical research by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2002), but in contrast to those gained by Tsui (1995), Imants and De Brabander (1996), Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2002), and Penrose et al. (2007). The results of present study were also in line with findings by Rastegar, Memarpour (2009).

VI. CONCLUSION

The major conclusion derived from the current study demonstrates the fact that findings from this study might help both researchers and teacher trainers pay more attention to promoting professors' emotional intelligence and their sense of efficacy and reconceptualize their teaching endeavors in their early years of teaching career. In fact enhancing teachers' emotional intelligence may lead to a positive influence on their sense of efficacy. As (Ghanizadeh and Moafian, 2011) stated, since a strong sense of teacher efficacy has been associated with teachers' pedagogical success and student characteristics such as motivation, achievement and efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), this in turn may lead to effective teaching and accordingly successful student achievement (as cited in Moafian, Ganizadeh, 2009). As Kremenitzer (2005) stated, "an increase in a teachers' emotional intelligence significantly impacts on student learning in a powerful way both in academic and interpersonal domains" (p.6). So, it has been suggested that EFL professors should try to be aware of the existence of emotional abilities and also try to increase their sensitivity towards EI both in their classrooms and outside. Thus, it is hoped that teacher educators do their best to make teachers familiar with the concept of both constructs of EI and self-efficacy and the importance of their perceptions and beliefs in their professional life.

Ultimately, the findings of the present study show that there exists no significant difference among EFL university professors with different age ranges and years of teaching experience regarding their emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. In other words, EFL university professors with different age ranges and also with different years of teaching experience are liable to be successful in their teaching profession, provided that they are familiarized with ways in which they can augment their emotional intelligence as well as their sense of self-efficacy.

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Orthographic Constraints on the Integration of English Loanwords in Mandarin Chinese

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Abstract—Chinese loan words of English origin can be roughly divided into three groups: phonemic loan, semantic loan and combination of the above two. This paper gives a brief sketch of the three different kinds of loanwords and goes a step further to point out that semantic loan tends to be the eventual form of adaptation for words borrowed from English, for the reasons that Chinese is monosyllabic, Chinese writing system is morphemic, and has little to do with its sound system, etc. Therefore, direct replication of the pronunciations of English words (phonemic loan or transliteration in this sense) is not compatible with the coding structure of Chinese. It tends to be replaced by loan translation or semantic loans. To support this hypothesis, this paper presents a data-based analysis of 55 borrowed lexical items as found in 80 articles from a Chinese newspaper and a magazine. The findings show that transliterated loanwords are not as well-accepted as semantic loans in Chinese and usually are replaced by the latter.

Index Terms—transliteration, phonemic loan, semantic loan, loan translation, integration, constraint

I. INTRODUCTION

Chinese is the language that has the largest number of speakers in the world. English, the international lingua franca, is probably the only “world language” in the field of politics, entertainment, pop culture and technology. Interaction between these two “giant” languages is becoming ever more intense under the present situation of social-economic and technological communication. The result is language change. Lexical borrowing, one of the important aspects of language change, is the focus of the present paper.

When English words enter into Chinese, most of them undergo adaptations. The adaptation of a loanword demands to preserve certain information from the source word while still satisfying the constraints that make the lexical item sound like a word of the recipient language (Kager, 1999). The present paper focuses on the constraints on loanwords’ assimilation in Chinese. It is to be observed from a comparison between different types of loanwords in Chinese, namely, phonemic loan, semantic loan and the combination of the two. It puts forward a hypothesis that Chinese adapts foreign words primarily via loan translation due to certain typological as well as orthographic constraints. To testify this, a small-scale qualitative and also a quantitative research are carried out.

II. CLASSIFICATION OF LOANWORDS IN MANDARIN CHINESE

While analyzing different layers of loanwords in Mandarin Chinese, it is necessary first to describe all their main types. To solve this problem, I choose to apply the principles offered by Einar Haugen (1950) who divides borrowings into 3 main types:

- (1) Loanwords show morphemic importation without substitution.
- (2) Loan blends show morphemic substitution as well as importation.
- (3) Loan shifts show morphemic substitution without importation.

Haugen’s first type of loanwords implies borrowing of both the meaning and morphemes of a word from a donor language, i.e. a loanword which is completely adopted by the recipient language without any substitution with the native morphemes. This is equivalent to phonemic loans in Mandarin Chinese. Haugen’s second type refers to borrowing with partial substitution with native morphemes and equals to hybrid loanwords, while his third type, morphemic substitution without importation, implies only the meaning of the original word is adopted while all its morphemes are substituted with the native morphemes. In Chinese, this is equivalent to loan translation or semantic loan.

The present study concentrates on the first and the third type while combines the second type, loan blend, with the first type since both of them involves importation and importation is their most prominent characteristic, especially when considering Chinese loanwords borrowed from English. Furthermore, such a classification facilitates the argumentation of loanwords’ integration into Chinese in the following part. Another type, a mingling of phonemic and semantic loans, is added as the third type.

A. Phonemic Loan (Transliteration)

Phonemic loans or transliterated loanwords in Mandarin Chinese refer to words that are phonologically similar both in English and Chinese. They are used in Chinese with the closest possible sound and the closest possible meaning to the original word. For example, Chinese “mai ke feng” is basically identical to English “microphone” and is used in the same context. In the writing system, “mai ke feng” is represented as “麦克风”. The three characters mean “wheat, gram, and wind” respectively. They are just combined together to imitate the sound of the English word. Another example is the English word “fan” whose Chinese equivalent is /fen si/ (the sound is itself an imitation of the plural form “fans”), the Chinese characters chosen to represent the sound is “粉丝” which refers to a kind of noodle like food. Sometimes this can be very confusing for beginning Chinese readers who cannot immediately realize that one should read just the sound and ignore the meaning. What’s more, to transcribe the sounds of foreign words, Chinese has also coined some characters that do not mean anything. For instance, “coffee” in Chinese is /ka fei/ represented in the writing system as “咖啡”. These two characters do not have any specific meaning in Chinese, they are just coined to symbolize the sound of the English word.

B. Semantic Loan

A semantic loan is a process of borrowing semantic meaning rather than lexical items from another language, very similar to the formation of loan translation.

The present study treats loan translation as a type of semantic loan because the mechanism that produces a semantic loan is very similar to that of a loan translation, being a process of borrowing semantic meaning from another language. Loan translation (also known as “calque”), in its narrow definition, refers to word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translations of some foreign words or expressions. Here, the actual word (i.e. phonological shape) from the donor language is not borrowed; instead, how that language conveys a particular notion is borrowed. What happens, then, is that the recipient language uses its own word to convey the desired notion of the donor language word (Myers-Scotton, 2006). In Chinese, it means to create a compound word that actually translates the concept behind the borrowed word. For example, English “blueprint” is known as /lan tu/ (蓝图, literally means blue+ picture), “flagship” is /qi jian/ (旗舰, flag+ship), and “bottleneck” is /ping jing/ (瓶颈, bottle+neck). There are also many English words calqued from Chinese, such as “running dog” is from Chinese 走狗 (/zou gou/), “lose face” from Chinese 丢脸 (/diu lian/), and “long time no see” from Chinese 好久不见 (/hao jiu bu jian/), etc.

C. Combination of Phonemic and Semantic Loans (Phono-semantic Matching)

Besides transliteration and loan translation, there exists another type of loanwords, the combination of phonemic and semantic loans, or phono-semantic matching, as Zuckermann (2003a) calls it. Phono-semantic matching is distinct from calquing. While calquing includes semantic translation, it does not consist of phonetic matching (i.e. retaining the approximate sound of the borrowed word through matching it with a similar-sounding pre-existent word/morpheme in the target language). Words borrowed in this way are not only phonologically similar in English and Chinese, but the Chinese characters selected to represent the sound has also the similar meaning with the original word. For example, Coca Cola in Chinese is 可口可乐 /ke kou ke le/, which translates literally as “tasty, can make you happy”. Besides, there are words which not only have a perfect combination of sound imitation and meaning representation in the writing system, but with very creative and imaginative meanings in the choice of Chinese characters. For example, English “miniskirt” in Chinese is 迷你裙 /mi ni qun/, the three characters literally mean “attract you skirt.” As Myers-Scotton (2006) points out: “Speakers try to find Chinese characters that stand for a similar reference to the borrowed words. But speakers also want the characters to sound like the borrowed word. They end up with some very imaginative ways of accommodating a borrowed word...” words she gives as examples are shown in table-1:

TABLE-1
EXAMPLES MYERS-SCOTTON GIVES AS PHONO-SEMANTIC MATCHING

| Original Forms | Translation Forms (Character /Pinyin Form) | Word-by-word Equivalent Meanings in English |
|----------------|---|--|
| Benz | 奔驰 /ben chi/ | run race |
| Benz-Mercedes | 宝马 /bao ma/ | treasure horse |
| gene | 基因 /ji in/ | basic element |
| vitamin | 维他命 /wei ta ming / | keep his life |

This kind of loanwords usually appears in brand names for commercial purpose. Their occurrence is largely coincident. Therefore, they do not account for much in the loan words family. Among these three types, semantic loans or loan translation seem to be more popular. The reason why it is more easily accepted by Chinese has to do with language structure and orthographic constraints which are to be explained in the following part.

III. ORTHOGRAPHIC CONSTRAINTS ON THE INTEGRATION OF ENGLISH LOANWORDS INTO CHINESE

By orthographic constraints, we mean that Chinese writing system, as compared with the English alphabetic orthography, may have played a role in the integration of English loanwords. When an English word is borrowed into

Chinese, it first undergoes phonological changes to sound like Chinese. Then, certain Chinese characters will be selected to represent the sound. It is the choice of Chinese characters that pose much of the problems. Zuckerman (2003a) points out: "In Chinese, it is impossible to import the Anglicism as it stands, for example by morpho-phonemic adaptation. One can calque the Anglicism or neologise, but---at least in writing---one cannot import the sound without using indigenous characters...the use of Chinese characters is a necessity."

A transliterated English loanword which emphasizes sound imitation and overlooks the similarity between the meaning of the original word and the meaning of characters selected to symbolize the sound usually sounds strange to native Chinese speakers, especially to monolinguals who are not familiar with English sounds.

The writing system of Chinese is unique in that it is primarily pictographic and ideographic and has little or almost nothing to do with its sound system. By "pictographic", we refer to characters such as 山(mountain)and 火(fire)which are originally pictures of the objects they denote, whereas "ideographic" refers to characters such as 明 (bright) which is composed of two radicals meaning respectively the sun and the moon, and the whole character meaning brightness. Therefore, unlike alphabetic orthography, each Chinese character is a self-contained unit of form, sound and meaning. In native speakers' minds, there is a strict correspondence between syllable, character and meaning. That is to say, a syllable has a meaning and a meaning is represented with a character. Zuckermann (2003a), after studying the Chinese writing system, concludes that it is multifunctional: pleremic ("full" of meaning, e.g. logographic), cenemic ("empty" of meaning, e.g. phonographic) and simultaneously cenemic and pleremic (phono-logographic). He argues that Bloomfield's assertion that "a language is the same no matter what system of writing may be used" is inaccurate. "If Chinese had been written using roman letters, thousands of Chinese words would not have been coined, or would have been coined with completely different forms(Zuckermann, 2003b)."

After thousands years of evolution, pictographic characters do not constitute a large part of Chinese characters, however, the habit of writing and recognizing script forms in terms of images has evolved into a cognitive process that is deep-rooted in Chinese people's minds. This cognitive process---thinking, writing and decoding in terms of images have long been interacting and reinforcing one another for thousands of years, and, as a result, have played a significant role in shaping Chinese culture and Chinese mind(Jia & Jia, 2005). A question Chinese people frequently ask when hearing an unfamiliar word is: "which character do you refer to?" Therefore, when an English word, with its original sound and meaning, enters into Chinese, it, first of all, has to be processed in Chinese people's mind, analyzed as meaningful characters and then decided whether it can be accepted or not. When it turns out to be that the combination of the several characters that make up an English word does not make any sense in Chinese, the word will most probably be replaced by a semantic loan or loan translation or simply be discarded.

IV. DATA

A. A Qualitative Study

The data in this study were collected from a Chinese newspaper, Beijing Youth Daily and a Chinese magazine, Beijing Youth Weekly. The Beijing Youth Daily is the official newspaper of the Communist Youth League Committee in Beijing. It is one of Beijing's most widely-circulated newspapers, publishing an average of 50 pages a day in 32 provinces. Similar to major newspapers in any language with a national circulation, Beijing Youth Daily has a great deal of coverage of important events in China and around the world. Beijing Youth Weekly, likewise, targets primarily the young readers in Beijing. It features shopping, travel, performances, and various aspects of pop culture in Beijing. It consists of three different sections, "focus", "life" and "entertainment". It is considered that the loanwords found in this newspapers and magazine represent Chinese borrowings from English, in vocabulary as well as in grammar, which was mainly why this newspaper and magazine were chosen.

The data were obtained from articles published in Beijing Youth Daily and Beijing Youth Weekly, in August, September, October, November and December 2011. The days for data collection were randomly decided. In Beijing Youth Daily, articles were selected from all but the Sports Section which was felt least likely to contain loanwords. In Beijing Youth Weekly, articles were selected from all the sections. For both the newspaper and the magazine, the data were obtained from the electronic versions on their websites. The headlines were scanned first. If the headline suggested that the article might have lexical items borrowed from English, the article was downloaded and became part of the data. Usually only one article was selected from any section in one issue. The data thus collected contain approximately 80 articles. Approximately 47 articles were taken from Beijing Youth Daily, and 33 articles from Beijing Youth Weekly. The 80 articles contain a total of 55 loanwords. A list of all the items is given in the appendix.

The following observations can be made about loanwords found in the above mentioned newspaper and magazine. First, the number of transliterated words and loan translations is roughly the same, which is not in line with our assumption that there are more loan translations than transliterations. However, this does not necessarily mean that our assumption is wrong, but certain social psychological reasons are involved, which are to be explained in the following. Second, the number of loanwords found in the newspaper and the magazine is also roughly the same, which testifies our decision in choosing this newspaper and magazine as our source of samples. Finally, as expected, cases of combination of phonemic and semantic translations are mostly brand names.

B. A Quantitative Study

After the above-mentioned small-scale qualitative study, we did a quantitative research, using a database called National Broadcast Media Language Resources on Line, a large-scale dynamic and diachronic broadcast media language monitoring corpus which includes different periods of radio and TV multimodal database. In order to examine the use and frequency of all the listed borrowed lexical items, we typed in all those borrowed words and defined the time period to be from January 2004 to December 2010, hence got the frequency of these words. Table-2 is a comparison between the type of loanwords which is most frequently used and the type which is least frequently used.

TABLE-2
FREQUENCY OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF LOANWORDS

| Most frequently used loanwords(with their time of appearance in the corpus) | | Least frequently used loanwords(with their time of appearance in the corpus) | |
|---|---------------------------------|--|---|
| transliteration | Loan translation | transliteration | Loan translation |
| Typhoon,台风 (/tai feng/) 4341 | Hot-line, 热线(/re xian/),9775 | Rally, 拉力赛(/la li sai/),100 | Generation gap,代沟(/dai gou/),33 |
| Aides, 艾滋病(/ai zi bing/), 1550 | Super-market,超市(/cha shi/),4903 | Bikini, 比基尼(/bi ji ni/),55 | Soap opera, 肥皂剧(/fei zao ju/),19 |
| Fans,粉丝(/fen si/),874 | Legal person,法人(/far en/),1542 | Mosaic, 马赛克(/ma sai ke/), 45 | Bachelor mother, 单身母亲(/dan shen mu qin/),14 |
| | Low-carbon, 低碳 (/di tan/),1518 | Elmno, 厄尔尼诺(/e er ni nuo/),39 | |
| | Mini-blog,微博(/wei bo/),1030 | Bungee, 蹦极(/beng ji/),30 | |
| | White-collar,白领(/bai ling/),968 | Hula loop, 呼啦圈(/hu la quan/),15 | |
| | Cold war,冷战(/leng zhan/),905 | Laser, 镭射(/lei she/),15 | |
| | Bottle-neck,瓶颈(/ping jing/),715 | Punk, 朋克(/peng ke/),6 | |

Things that are noteworthy about the result of this corpus investigation are as follows. First, the number of loan translations which are frequently used is more than that of transliterations. Here, the criteria to judge whether a word is frequently used or not is arbitrarily defined as the time of appearance in the corpus to be over 700. Altogether, there are 8 loan translations that occur more than 700 times in the corpus whereas only 3 transliterations that meet this standard. What can be implied is: loan translations, compared with transliteration, are well-accepted and more frequently used in modern Chinese. In addition, among the three frequently used transliterated words, there are 粉丝(fans)which does not completely belong to transliterations because 粉丝 is a Chinese word which already exists and refers to a kind of noodle-like food. The extension of its meaning to enthusiasts has some special pragmatic effects which may explain its high frequency in the corpus. However, we still place it in the category of transliteration because elements of phonemic translation involved in its appearance in Chinese are more prominent. The other two transliterated words that have a relatively high frequency are 台风(typhoon) and 艾滋病 (aids). Their high frequency can be explained through the fact that healthcare and world climate change are among the hot topics in these years' news report.

Second, the number of least frequently used transliterated words is more than that of loan translations. Here, the criterion to judge whether a word is infrequently used is arbitrarily defined as the appearance in the corpus to be less than 100. There are 8 transliterated words which meet this standard while only 3 loan translations. Obviously, there are more transliterated words that are not well-assimilated in Mandarin Chinese.

Third, the average frequency of loan translations is higher than that of transliterations, which provides further evidence that loan translations are more easily integrated in Chinese than transliterations. In other words, transliterations do not last long and is likely substituted with other words.

Last but not least, some of the transliterated words, but none of the loan translations in the data occur with typographic flagging and metalinguistic commentary. Typographic markings include italics, boldface, or quotation marks, while metalinguistic commentary usually translates or explains a term. Both of them indicate that the loanword is used infrequently and probably restricted to bilingual speakers and at the beginning of the borrowing process (Field, 2002).

C. More Evidence

Besides these observations from the corpus investigation which in some degree attest our hypothesis that loan translation tends to be the last form of adaptation for English words borrowed into Chinese, there is an interesting phenomenon that provides further evidence. Some English words have two versions of Chinese translation, one of them transliteration while the other loan translation or semantic loan. When these words are first borrowed, they take the form of transliteration, after a period of time, this transliterated version is replaced by a semantic loan, and in between, there is a period when people just hesitate as to which version of the words they should use. Examples are as follows in table-3:

TABLE-3
LOANWORDS THAT HAVE TWO VERSIONS OF TRANSLATION IN CHINESE

| Original Form | Translation Form 1 (Character/Pinyin) | Translation Form 2 winning more popularity today (Character/Pinyin) | Literal Meaning of Translation Form 2 |
|---------------|--|--|--|
| microphone | 麦克风/mai ke feng/ | 话筒/hua tong/ | loud speaker |
| e-mail | 伊妹儿/yi mei er/ | 电子邮件/dian zi you jian/ | electronic letter |
| SARS | 萨斯/sa si/ | 非典/fei dian/ | non-typical |
| Buffet | 簿飞/bu fei/ | 自助/zi zhu/ | help oneself |
| laser | 镭射/lei she/ | 激光/ji guang/ | a special ray |
| copy | 拷贝/kao bei/ | 复制/fu zhi/ | duplicate |

More examples can be found in words from the May Fourth period. The May Fourth Movement was an anti-imperialist, cultural, and political movement growing out of student demonstrations in Beijing on May 4, 1919, protesting the Chinese government's weak response to the foreign intruders. This is also a period in Chinese history where the interaction of Western and Eastern civilizations became ever more intensive and made a tremendous influence on the Chinese society and Chinese language as well. In the process of imitating and learning West, large amounts of English words were imported into Chinese, most of them presented in the form of phonemic translation and most of them were later replaced by semantic loans (Mavromatis, 2009). As is shown in table-4:

TABLE-4
WORDS BORROWED DURING THE MAY FOURTH PERIOD

| The original English word | Transliterated form in May Forth Period | Present form in modern Chinese/literal meaning of translation |
|---------------------------|---|---|
| bank | 版克 (/ban ke/) | 银行(/yin hang/), silver bank |
| democracy | 德莫克利西(/de mo ke li xi/) | 民主(/min zhu/), ruled by people |
| science | 赛因斯(/sai yin si/) | 科学(/ke xue/), ology |
| cement | 水门汀 (/shui men ting/) | 水泥(/shui ni/), water mud |
| Telephone | 德律风(/de lv feng/) | 电话(/dian hua/), electronic speech |
| grammar | 格朗玛(/ge lang ma/) | 语法(/yu fa/), law of language |
| violin | 梵华玲(/fan hua ling/) | 小提琴(/xiao ti qin/), little musical instrument that can be carried |
| seminar | 塞米纳尔(/sai mi na er/) | 讨论会 (/tao lun hui/) discussion |
| mister | 密司脱 (/mi si tuo/) | 先生 (/xian sheng/), gentleman |

However, despite the typological and orthographic constraints, there exist a considerable amount of transliterated words which, like loan translations, are also well established in Mandarin Chinese. This is probably due to social-psychological factors that are to be discussed in the following.

D. A Counter Force: Socio-psychological Tendency

The use of English loan words may serve to indicate social status. Words from languages associated with high social-economic status sound fashionable, so being able to pronounce them in a way approximating their original form gives the speaker a certain prestige (Myers-Scotton, 2006). Therefore, we see words transliterated into Chinese which are relatively long and which contain several Chinese characters. For example, the English word “outlets” in Chinese is 奥特莱斯/ao te lai si/. Among the four characters selected to represent the English sound, 奥/ao/ and 莱/lai/ are coined characters which has no specific meaning and can only be taken as alphabet-like signs, while 斯/si/ in ancient Chinese, means “this” and is seldom used in modern Chinese, only 特/te/ is a modern Chinese morpheme which means “special”. So 奥特莱斯 can be regarded as a typical example of transliteration. Its popularity in modern Chinese is a result of “prestige” tendency as mentioned above.

Similarly, another result of the “prestige” tendency of the English influence on Chinese is the appearance in modern Chinese of so-called “lettered words” which are spelled with letters from foreign alphabets. This has appeared in magazines, newspapers, on web sites and on TV, such as U 盘 (USB), IT 业, WTO, GDP, etc. there are even some lettered words that do not come from English, but from Pinyin (Chinese alphabet), such as HSK (han yu shui ping kao shi, 汉语水平考试, Test of Chinese Language proficiency).

The existence of these transliterated loanwords and the appearance of “lettered words” can also be regarded as the result of the widespread of bilingualism. Bilingual members of the speech community, who are aware of the English pronunciation, make an effort to authenticate the borrowed word by replicating its original phonology. Then, this replication of the words’ original pronunciation is imitated by monolinguals out of intentions to try to look fashionable or well-educated, etc. However, we can also be bold enough to say that at least, some of these transliterations will eventually be replaced by loan translations because the force of language structure constraints is more powerful than that of socio-psychological tendency. And Chinese do not accept polysyllabic words whose components cannot be analyzed as meaningful sounds. Probably the word 奥特莱斯, in the coming future, will be replaced by 直销店/ zhi xiao dian (literally meaning a direct sale shop), 工厂店/ gong chang dian (literally meaning a factory shop) or 打折村

/da zhe cun(literally meaning a discount village), etc. As a matter of fact, some Chinese have already begun to use such terms instead of 奥特莱斯.

V. CONCLUSION

English loan words, when entering Chinese, are first modified phonologically to sound like Chinese, and then certain Chinese characters are selected to represent the sound, sometimes the choice of characters can be a perfect combination of meaning and sounds, i.e. not only preserves the sound but the meaning of the original English word. However, this case of coincidence seldom happens. In most cases, English loans are transliterated into Chinese which tend to be replaced by loan translations. The reason behind this tendency is mainly orthographic. Opposite to this, there is also a “prestige” tendency that facilitates the absorption of English sounds.

English, being the “world language”, is exerting its influence over most languages in the world. However, its impact on the Chinese language is relatively weak due to the differences in their coding systems. It appears that Chinese is hard to be acculturated and will remain robust in the face of global English.

APPENDIX LIST OF LOANWORDS FOUND IN BEIJING YOUTH DAILY AND BEIJING YOUTH WEEKLY

| Transliterations | Loan translations | Combination of the two Word-by-word Equivalent Meanings in English |
|--------------------------------|--|--|
| Bungee, 蹦极 (/beng ji/) | legal person,法人 (/fa ren/) | Hacker,黑客(/hei ke/), black guest |
| hula loop,呼啦圈 (/hu la quan/) | bachelor mother,单身母亲 (/dan shen mu qin/) | Shampoo,香波(/xiang bo/), fragrant waves |
| Party,派对 (/pai dui/) | dark horse,黑马 (/hei ma/) | Shock,休克(/xiu ke/),rest overcome |
| Outlets, 奥特莱斯 (/ao te lai si/) | negative growth,负增长 (/fu zeng zhang/) | Lace,蕾丝(/lei si/),bud silk |
| Radar,雷达 (/lei da/) | official website,官网 (/guan wang/) | Pamper,帮宝适(/bang bao shi/),help baby comfortable |
| Model,模特 (/mo te/) | High-tech park,高科技园(/gao ke ji yuan/) | Johnson 强生(/qiang sheng/),strong life |
| rally race,拉力赛 (/la li sai/) | generation gap,代沟 (/dai gou/) | Mazda 马自达(/ma zi da/),horse reach himself |
| Fans,粉丝 (/fen si/) | hot-line,热线 (/re xian/) | Playboy,花花公子(/hua hua gong zi/),dandy, a man about town |
| cool 酷 (/ku/) | cold war,冷战 (/leng zhan/) | Show, 秀 (/xiu/),elegant |
| Copy,拷贝 (/kao bei/) | white collar,白领 (/bailing/) | carnivore, 嘉年华(/jia nian hua/), good year party |
| Sauna,桑拿 (/sang na/) | silicon valley 硅谷 (/gui gu/) | Gucci, 古奇 (/gu qi/), ancient and special |
| Elnino,厄尔尼诺 (/e er ni nuo/) | test-tube baby,试管婴儿 (/shi guan ying er/) | Carrefour, 家乐福(/jia le fu/), family happy luck |
| Typhoon,台风 (/tai feng/) | data bank 数据库 (/shu ju ku/) | Beatles, 披头士(/pi tou shi/),men whose hair hang down loosely |
| Mosaic,马赛克 (/ma sai ke/) | supermarket 超市 (/chaos hi/) | |
| aids 艾滋病 (/ai zi bing/) | low-carbon,低碳 (/di tan/) | |
| Punk,朋克 (/peng ke/) | Superstar,超星 (/chao xing/) | |
| Laser,镭射 (/lei she/) | call girl,应招女郎 (/ying zhao nv lang/) | |
| Pudding, 布丁(/bu ding/) | Flagship,旗舰 (/qi jian/) | |
| Bikini,比基尼 (/bi ji ni/) | Bottleneck,瓶颈 (/ping jing/) | |
| Bazaar,芭莎 (/bas ha/) | blue-collar,蓝领 (/lan ling/) | |
| Clone,克隆 (/ke long/) | | |
| share, 晒 (/shai/) | | |

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work was supported by the 2011 Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities in China and by the Special Fund of Beijing Municipal Commission of Education for Co-Sponsored Projects.

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The Effect of Negotiation of Meaning on the Accuracy in EFL Writing

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Abstract—This paper reports the results of a study on collaborative writing in a foreign language context, Iran, comparing the performance of one group of Iranian intermediate learners on three different writing tasks: individual writing (N=26), pair writing (N=13), and individual writing using a bilingual dictionary (N=26). When writing in pairs, each pair produced a single text. The participants completed narrative writings based on three different picture-cued stories, one working individually, one in pairs, and another individually using a bilingual dictionary. The performance of the participants in three task conditions was compared on the measure of accuracy, focusing on spelling, morphology and structure. The comparison revealed positive effect of pair work on morphological and structural accuracy but there was no effect on spelling. The analysis of pair-talk recordings during the writing activity provides insights into how the pairs worked on different parts of the language. This study has implications for both foreign language teachers, as well as language testers.

Index Terms—accuracy, individual writing, morphology, pair writing, spelling, syntax

I. INTRODUCTION

Educational research has considerably indicated that collaboration helps students learn better (e.g., Bossert, 1988–1989; Johnson & Johnson, 1992; Kumpulainen & Mutanen, 2000; Slavin, 1990, 1992; Webb & Palincsar, 1996). For example, peer teaching has been shown to provide enhanced learning to both the teacher/tutor and to the student (Bargh & Schul, 1980; Fuchs et al., 1997; Palincsar, Brown, & Campione, 1993), and cooperative classroom groups have been found to result in greater learning than competitive or individualistically-structured learning environments (Johnson & Johnson, 1974, 1979, 1989). Collaboration in structured, in-class formats has been shown to increase students' knowledge in a wide range of subjects, including biology (Lazarowitz&Karsenty, 1990), mathematics (Fuchs et al., 1997; Webb, 1991), composing narratives (Daiute & Dalton, 1993), and computer programming (Webb, Ender, & Lewis, 1986). These accumulated research findings have had a significant influence on educational practice. Teachers believe that collaborating groups provide a uniquely effective learning environment (Antil, Jenkins, Wayne, & Vadasy, 1998). Similarly, both large-scale assessment programs and small-scale in-class assessments increasingly use collaborative group work (Webb, 1995; Webb, Nemer, Chizhik, & Sugrue, 1998).

Researchers who study collaborative learning have focused on three aspects of interaction that could contribute to learning. First, providing and receiving explanations are both thought to contribute to children's learning (Bargh & Schul, 1980; Fuchs et al., 1997; Swing & Peterson, 1982; Vedder, 1985; Webb, 1984, 1991, 1992). Interaction activities between peers in L2 classrooms have been used for building their L2 knowledge, and exposure to more language through the contribution of partners seem to facilitate negotiating ideas and constructing meaning through interpsychological effort to achieve intersubjectivity. For example, Swain and Lapkin (1998) pointed out that learners are able to support L2 learning through questioning, proposing possible solutions, repeating, and negotiating through peer-peer interaction. Second, researchers working within a Piagetian sociocognitive framework have emphasized the mediating role played by conflict and controversy (Bearison, Magzamen,&Filardo, 1986; Doise & Mugny, 1984; Miller, 1987; Perret-Clermont, 1980; Piaget, 1948, 1950). Third, researchers working within a Vygotskian or sociocultural framework have emphasized how participants build on each other's ideas to jointly construct a new understanding that none of the participants had prior to the encounter (Forman, 1992; Forman & Cazden, 1985; Palincsar, 1998).

Thus, the use of group and pair work is widespread in education. The nature of group interaction has been the topic of extensive research in social psychology and general education. In education, for example, there is a large volume of research on cooperative groups (see reviews by Johnson & Johnson, 1990, 1994; Sharan, 1990; Slavin, 1990).

As Roberts (2006) argues, group assessment can have multiple meanings which include the assessment of the group as a whole, the assessment of individuals within the group, and the assessment of individuals by others in the group.

Strauss (2001) argues that in many ways group assessment reflects the reality of the real world where group work is increasingly valued in the workplace and where collaborative writing is a common practice. For example, Ede and Lunsford (1990), who surveyed 700 professionals working in seven different fields of endeavor, found that 87% of the professionals who responded to the survey reported that they worked in a group as a member of a team.

The use of group and pair work is also a common practice in first language (L1) and second language (L2) classes. A number of studies have shown that there are both pedagogic and social gains for most learners working in small groups. For example, in the field of L1 education, studies have shown that learners working in groups are exposed to a greater variety of viewpoints, co-construct new ways of understanding and develop greater critical thinking skills (e.g. Adams & Hamm, 1996; Barnes & Todd, 1977; Bygate, 1988; Slavin, 1990; Webb, 1989). Group activities and assessment can assist students in seeking and co-constructing new knowledge through a process of interactions with each other; knowledge that leads to new viewpoints (Vygotsky, 1978).

Leki (2001) points out that while group work tends to be encouraged, it is not always a positive experience for students, particularly when they are working in their second language. However, as Strauss and U (2007) argue, encouraging learners to work in pairs or groups has several benefits. For example if students have difficulty expressing themselves fluently and articulately in English, working with another learner can provide them with the practice they need to improve in this area. They also point out that the ability to work in a group situation, as is often required in the university or the workplace context, involves experience, and so providing that experience for second language learners in the language classroom context is beneficial. As Mutch (1998) points out, group work is used in university settings, not only because it is a good way of developing employability skills, but it is also a means of reducing pressure on resources in higher education.

As Leung (2005) argues, classroom-based assessment can provide pedagogically sound alternatives to standardized testing. He points out that:

The strength and the value of pedagogically oriented classroom teacher assessment lie in its integration with the normal processes of teaching and learning. It can provide useful close-up information on student learning in context. The information generated can also be used indirectly to inform development or change in pedagogy and curriculum, and to provide feedback to students. (2005, p. 48)

Research conducted in L1 settings (e.g., Higgins, Flower, & Petraglia, 1992; Keys, 1994) has shown that collaborative writing is a way to foster reflective thinking, especially if the learners are engaged in the act of explaining and defending their ideas to their peers. Research conducted with L2 learners (e.g., Donato, 1988; DiCamilla & Anton, 1997; Storch, 2002; Swain & Lapkin, 1998) has shown that in the process of co-authoring, learners consider not only grammatical accuracy and lexis but also discourse. Furthermore, and depending on the kind of group/pair dynamics formed (see Donato, 1988; Storch, 2002, 2003), collaborative writing may encourage a pooling of knowledge about language, a process Donato termed collective scaffolding (Donato, 1988, 1994).

Of particular interest is Donato's study (1998), which investigates group work among tertiary students on a writing task. Donato distinguished among different types of groups according to their orientation to the task and the level of interaction. Donato found that learners pooled their knowledge and co-constructed resolutions to a range of language items in groups functioning as a collective. Such pooling of resources or "collective scaffolding" was rare in loosely knit groups. Furthermore, and more importantly, a large proportion of items (75%) that learners resolved by this process of collective scaffolding subsequently appeared in the learners' individual language production.

In a research conducted by Wigglesworth, G., & Storch, N. (2009) which was the first study in collaborative writing in a second language context, the participants mostly with Chinese background were asked to write an argumentative essay debating the advantages and disadvantages of exam-based assessment under limited time. They completed the task in two groups, one in pair and another individually. The dialogues of the pairs were recorded and analyzed. The writings were compared on the measures of fluency, accuracy and complexity. This comparison revealed that collaboration impacted positively on accuracy, but did not affect fluency and complexity. They found out working collaboratively in an assessment context will advantage rather than disadvantage learners, in addition to providing them with learning opportunities which in the case of formative classroom assessment is likely to benefit the learners, as well as providing the teacher with insights into how the learners are improving. Thus, while collaborative assessment activities of this type might not be appropriate in high-stakes testing situations, in the classroom context they may address the triple purposes of assessment, learning, as well as providing learners with the kind of experience they require in order to participate productively in group assessment tasks they are likely to encounter in the university context and beyond. The analyses of the pair dialogues suggested that, in terms of the process of writing, when composing in pairs, collaboration afforded the learners the opportunity to interact on different aspects of writing. In particular, it encouraged learners to collaborate when generating ideas about the content of their essays. Pair work activities provided the learners with considerable opportunities to share ideas and pool their language knowledge.

II. THE PRESENT STUDY

Since there have been very few studies in collaborative writing in second language context and no study so far in the foreign language context, this study is a further step to investigate empirically how participants working together perform in a writing task in comparison to those working individually in a foreign language context. A point to consider

is that the study employs a narrative writing task which has never been investigated in collaborative writing. Also, we added a new condition in which the participants were given the opportunity to use a bilingual dictionary (Persian to English) while composing their writings in order to find whether using a bilingual dictionary has any positive effect on their writings in comparison to the individual/pair writings.

Finally, a sample of participants' interactions about language features they were talking about will be examined. Therefore, the first aim was to determine whether participants working in pairs produced better texts than participants writing individually in terms of accuracy. A further aim was to explore the kinds of processes in which the participants engaged during the writing activities so that we could identify what aspects of collaborative writing assessment, if any, can provide learners with opportunities for learning.

A. Research Questions

1. Do EFL learners perform better in pair writings than in individual writings in terms of spelling, morphology and syntax?
2. Do EFL learners perform better in pair writings than in individual writings using a bilingual dictionary in terms of spelling, morphology and syntax?
3. Do EFL learners perform differently in writing individually versus writing individually using a bilingual dictionary in terms of spelling, morphology and syntax?

B. Participants

The participants in the study were 4 male and 22 female pre-intermediate English language learners aged between 18 to 25, with an average age of 22, at one of the English language institutes in Iran. All had taken an OPT placement test based on the results of which only pre-intermediate learners were selected. They had learnt English as a foreign language on average for six years at junior high and high school and they also had studied English in the institute for one year. The participants were all Iranian Persian speakers.

C. Tasks

The participants were required to write three narrative writings based on three different picture-cued stories which were chronologically sequenced. The picture-cued stories were taken from the book "Can you believe it?" (Huizenga & Huizenga 2000). The participants completed three writing tasks: one in pairs, one individually and another one using a bilingual Persian to English dictionary. Before completing the tasks, they were given three reading passages which were the stories of the pictures in order to provide them with the input they needed to decipher the story so that the task would not be demanding on the part of the participants. They were given five minutes to read the texts but were not allowed to take notes. Then the texts were collected and the picture-cued stories were given to the participants.

D. Procedure

Thirteen pairs of participants (i.e., 26 of the learners who had self-selected into pairs) completed a narrative writing task. While they were working on the task, their interactions were recorded and subsequently transcribed for analysis. The same participants completed two other narrative tasks, one individually and another individually while using a bilingual Persian to English dictionary.

The writings were completed under time limits thus simulating a testing environment. A pilot test was administered in the three different task conditions before administering the major tasks to determine the time needed to complete each task. However, as a result of previous research which has shown that pairs take longer time to complete tasks than individuals (Storch, 2005), the pairs and individuals were allocated a different amount of time. The pairs were given 20 minutes to complete the narrative task and when writing individually, they were given 15 minutes on the writing using dictionary and 10 minutes on individual writing. The writing tasks were run in three subsequent days in order to avoid learning.

III. RESULTS

In order to determine whether there were any identifiable differences in the writings completed by the participants working in pairs, and those completed by the participants working individually, the writings were analyzed for accuracy focusing on, spelling, morphology and grammar. The measurement was calculated in an obligatory context. For spelling, this was done by calculating the number of spelling errors divided by the total number of words in each narrative.

Morphological errors (both derivational and inflectional) were measured in terms of the total number of errors divided by the total number of words. Grammar was measured by the proportion of erroneous clauses of all clauses. All proportions were calculated in percentages.

Figure 1. shows the rate of spelling errors in each of the three conditions. Apparently, there has occurred a decrease in the rate of errors in individual writing using a dictionary and in pair writing (4.5% in individual writing, 3.7% in individual writing using a dictionary, and 3.6% in pair writing). It seems that interaction and dictionary use similarly contribute to accuracy in spelling; though this effect does not seem to be significant as the results of an ANOVA performed on mean percentages of errors indicted no significant difference between performance on the three tasks ($F = .868; = .425$).

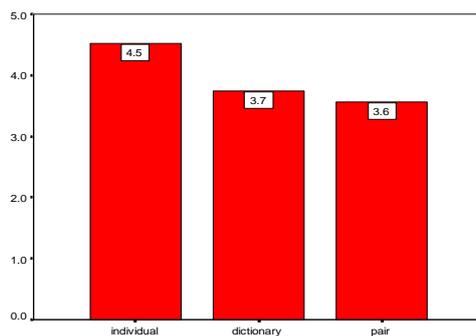


Figure 1. Mean percentages of spelling errors in the three tasks

A similar pattern is observed in the participants performance with regard to morphological errors while the decrease is more obvious in pair writing. The morphological errors were 13% and 12% in individual writing and individual writing using a dictionary tasks respectively. This rate has decreased to 5% in the pair writing task, indicating 95% accuracy when learners were involved in interaction with their peers. In order to find whether these differences were significant, an ANOVA was performed on the error mean scores, the results of which indicated significant differences between performance on the three tasks ($F= 4.79$; $p= .012$). Post hoc results located the difference between individual writing and pair writing ($p= .017$) and individual writing using a dictionary and pair writing (.034).

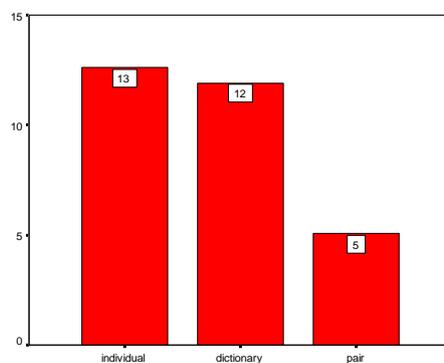


Figure 2. Mean percentages of morphological errors in the three tasks

In other words, only collaboration had positive effect on the correct use of morphology compared to the other two writing tasks.

As for syntactic errors, The mean percentages were 48% for individual writing, 58% for individual writing using a dictionary and 29% in pair writing (Figure 3). Mean differences were found to be significant ($F= 10.489$, $p= .000$). Pair wise comparison Scheffé tests located the differences between pair writing and both individual writing ($p= .014$) and individual writing using a dictionary ($p= .000$). In other words, the two individual writing task were not found to be different although mean percentage for individual writing using a dictionary was higher indicating more errors syntactic errors appeared when learners were using a bilingual dictionary.

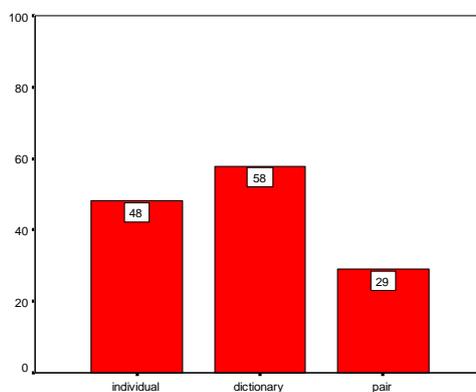


Figure 3. Mean percentages of syntactic errors in the three tasks

In summary, the results indicated a positive effect for pair writing on the accuracy of L2 learners' in terms of correct use of words and clause structures. The results also showed that using a dictionary did not improve L2 learners' writing even for their morphological errors.

Analysis of the pair interactions

Five of the thirteen transcripts of the pair interactions were randomly selected for a detailed analysis of the processes the learners were engaged in while they were composing their narratives. The pair dialogues were analyzed at three levels: planning, composing and revising. For this purpose, three distinct phases of the writing process were identified, and the time spent on each phase was noted. These consisted of time spent on planning, which occurred before the learners began to write their texts, time spent composing or actually writing the texts, and revision activities, where the entire text was revised after composing was complete. The aim here was to examine how students approached the writing task rather than calculating the exact time spent on each phase of writing.

The time spent on the different phases (planning, composing, and revising) is shown in Table 1. As would be expected, the learners spent most of the time on the composition phase of the task, with planning taking approximately 15% of the time, and less than 5% of their time focused on revisions. The learners went through two types of planning: some planned their writings before the composing phase, but most of the learners went through the planning while composing their narratives.

However, there were differences between pairs. Some learners spent more time on planning their narratives, while other pairs focused on the composing process rather than on planning or revising their writing.

TABLE 1.
PROPORTIONS OF TIME SPENT ON DIFFERENT PHASES OF THE PAIR WRITING TASK

| Phases | Average (minutes) | Average (%) | Min-Max |
|-----------|-------------------|-------------|---------|
| Planning | 2.9 | 14.50 | 0-7 |
| Composing | 16.07 | 80.35 | 11-18 |
| Revising | 1.03 | 5.15 | 2-5 |

In the planning phase, the participants brainstormed on the content of the reading passages they read before starting their writings in order to agree upon organization of the story and to see whether they comprehended the story correctly. As for the composing phase, they spent most of their time on sharing their ideas regarding the content of the narrative. They also corrected themselves on grammatical, morphological and in few cases spelling errors. In revising their writings, the participants re-read the written texts and focused on editing for grammatical accuracy. In some cases, some learners revised their writings during the composing phase as can be seen in the extracts below.

Extract 1. Spelling (correction for spelling)

Hossein: he *tought* to... to become a mountain climber. How do you spell "*tought*"?

Abbas: *t-h-o-u-g-h-t*

Hossein: All right. He thought to.....

Extract 2. Morphology (selection of 3rd person singular "s")

Yasaman: so he go to US.

Neda: No, he goes to US.

Yasaman: right, he goes to US.

Extract3. Morphology (selection between singular or plural noun)

Parvaneh: he went mountain climbing to....to...

Ali: to achieve his *goals*

Parvaneh: *goals or goal?*

Ali: goals

Parvaneh: No, it is one goal.

Ali: Ah... yes, so he went mountain climbing to achieve his goal.

Extract 4. Grammar (selection between object pronouns and possessive adjectives)

Sara: but after that he thought about *him* important goal.

Nasim: *him* important goal or *his* important goal?

Sara: *His...his* important goal.

Nasim: ok. He thought about his important goal.

Extract 5. Grammar (choice of definite article)

Negar: doctors designed *artificial* foot for him.

Mahshid: *an* artificial foot.

Negar: *an* artificial foot?

Mahshid: Yes, *an* artificial foot.

Negar: hum, you're right.

Extract 6. Spelling (not knowing the correct spelling)

Nasim: He thought about marriage

Sara: How do you spell marriage?

Nasim: I think it is m-a-r-r-i-g-e. Yes?

Sara: Yes, It's true.

IV. DISCUSSION

Researchers working within the framework of the Interaction Hypothesis of L2 acquisition claim that the range of interactional processes during interactive tasks such as negotiation of meaning, provision of feedback, and production of modified output would promote L2 production (e.g., Gass and Mackey, 2007; Mackey, 2007a, 2007b; McDonough, 2004). As it was explained previously, the focus of this study was to investigate the effect of collaborative writing on accuracy compared to individual and individual using bilingual dictionary writing.

Our study is the first step in investigating the impact of collaboration in a foreign language context in which it measures the new aspects of accuracy (i.e. spelling, morphology, and structure). In previous studies (Donato, 1998; Storch, 2002, 2003; Wigglesworth, G., & Storch, N., 2009), pair and individual writings were compared and the results revealed that collaboration had positive impact on the written production which supports the Interaction Hypothesis claim that the opportunity for collaborative work enhances negotiation of meaning. These negotiations make the input more comprehensible which in turn facilitates L2 acquisition (Long, 1983, 1996).

Thus, in order to see whether the use of dictionary can produce the same results, we added an innovative aspect to our study in which the participants were required to use a bilingual dictionary to write their narratives. In the comparison between individual and individual using bilingual dictionary writings, using bilingual dictionary did not have any significant effect on the correct use of morphology. So, it can be concluded that using dictionary cannot contribute to the better use of morphology. It is probably because the participants just looked up the words in the dictionary and did not concentrate on derivational and inflectional morphemes. Surprisingly, the use of bilingual dictionary had negative effect on grammar. The reason could be, as for morphology, the learners' focus on finding words in dictionary distracted their attention from grammar which consequently resulted in negative impact of dictionary on grammar.

The results revealed that collaboration did not have any effect on the spelling in comparison with individual writing and individual using dictionary writing. This might be because spelling as an important element in writing does not receive much attention in English language institutes in Iran. It is also possible that because the participants had previously learnt the spelling of the vocabularies they looked up in the dictionary, they did not check the spelling of the words in the dictionary. However, collaboration had positive effect on morphology and grammar compared to both individual and individual using bilingual dictionary writings. While Interaction Hypothesis claims that the opportunity for interaction mostly improves negotiation of meaning in terms of vocabulary, this study revealed that collaboration also enhances the grammatical accuracy of the written production. Furthermore, the findings of this study are in line with findings of the study done by Wigglesworth, G., and Storch, N. (2009) in which they concluded that collaborative writing had significant effect on the accuracy of essay writing.

Analysis of the paired dialogues suggests that the learners went through three phases while composing their narratives: planning, composing, and revising. The learners who planned before composing, brainstormed on the content of the reading passages they read before starting their writings in order to agree upon the organization of the story and to see whether they understood the story correctly. The majority of the learners planned their writings while composing their narratives. They shared their ideas discussing the content and grammar of their writings. They provided feedback to each other on correcting the grammatical and in few cases the spelling errors. According to Baleghzadeh (2010) "Working in pairs provides learners with opportunities to give and receive feedback, and respond to it by modifying their output. Metaphorically, pair work activities create fertile farmland in which the seeds of *negative feedback* and *modified output* easily grow" (p. 723). Moreover, the writings provided by learners using online planning (planning while composing) were more accurate which is compatible with what Ellis and Yuan (2004) found in their study which investigated the effects of planning on fluency, accuracy, and complexity in second language narrative writing: "... the opportunity for on-line planning resulted in more accurate written production" (p.17). As for the revising phase of the writing process, the learners spent less time since most of them corrected the errors and provided feedback to each other while composing. They re-read the text and corrected the grammatical and spelling errors.

In general, working in pairs learners receive feedback from each other on different aspects of the language which can help them learn from each other. Another point to mention is that weaker learners can benefit from collaboration through learning from their partners. The teachers can gain insight from collaborative work in the classroom to further the opportunities for the learners to use more pair work activities. Also syllabus designers can incorporate collaborative activities in designing the courses. Material developers may take into account the use of more pair work activities in the materials they develop for the classroom use.

In this study, we investigated the effect of pair work on picture-cued narrative writing on the accuracy of intermediate foreign language learners focusing on spelling, morphology, and grammar. Further studies can be done to investigate the effect of collaborative writing on other types of writing or on other aspects like complexity and fluency. Also worthy of investigation is the study of the effect of collaboration on different proficiency levels to see whether learners of different proficiency perform differently on the tasks. Another line of the study which can add valuable knowledge to the literature is the investigation to see whether collaborative writing is internalized by the learners during the learning process. Furthermore, in this study we used bilingual dictionary, other studies can use monolingual

dictionary to see if it has any or different effect. Another fruitful study to do is, to assign a task to the learners in which they concentrate on parts of speech in their writings.

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Interactive Patterns and Teacher Talk Features in an EFL Reading Class in a Chinese University— A Case Study with Communicative Teaching Method

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Abstract—The purpose of this case study is to explore the patterns of teacher-student interaction and the strategies that the teacher adopts to facilitate student learning and promote comprehension in a reading class in a Chinese university. The researcher made an audio-recording of one session of the reading class she taught, transcribed the recording and analyzed the teacher-student interaction, looked into teacher talk and student talk. The emphasis was on teacher-talk. The study finds that the interaction pattern in this reading class follows the IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) or IRE (Initiation-Response-Evaluation) pattern recognized by many researchers. In order to promote understanding and elicit student responses, the teacher consciously repeats her questions and chooses alternative and tag questions. The teacher's feedback toward students' responses in class is to encourage and guide the students' inductive or deductive thinking. The research helps the teacher to find strengths and weaknesses in her way of organizing class activities and some language issues which she had not previously realized. The findings of the research may shed some light on the problems that non-native English teachers face and help them to consciously improve their instructional language as well as teaching strategies on their way of professional development.

Index Terms—teacher talk, IRF or IRE patterns, repetition, self-correction, feedback

I. INTRODUCTION

Communicative Approach has been adopted by many language teachers since it was introduced in China in the early 1990s. According to this approach, the teacher's role is primarily to facilitate communication. Teachers are supposed to elicit more student talk in a class conducted in such a manner. Some people even advocate that in the course of classroom teaching, teacher talk should occupy as less time as possible, leaving students more opportunities to apply what they have learnt to practical communication. Too much occupation of the time by teacher's talk would only frustrate students' initiative and restrain the development of students' language potential and creativity. (Meng & Wang, 2011)

Then what happens in the EFL reading classroom conducted in the communicative approach in Chinese university? I adopted a communicative method in teaching reading to 26 sophomore English majors one semester. I do this case study to look into what really happens in my class: what is the teacher-student interaction pattern and how my teacher talk helps to facilitate student learning.

Teacher-student interaction and teacher talk

Classroom lessons are socially constructed events in which interaction is managed by the teacher and the learners together. Therefore, both the teacher and the learners play a crucial role. Whatever purpose they bring into the classroom, the outcome is a "co-production" by both the teacher and the learners who jointly manage interaction as well as learning (Allwright, 1984). Interaction and interactive language constitutes a major role in EFL teaching, for a teachers' interactive language can keep an interaction going on smoothly in EFL classroom. (Rod Ellis & Gary Barkhuizen, 2005)

Many studies of classroom discourses have identified the three-part exchange structure which is known as the IRF or IRE pattern (Sinclair & Brazil, 1982; Edwards & Mercer, 1987; Cazden & Beck, 2003). "I" refers to the initiation of the dialogue by the teacher with a question and "R" corresponds to the student's response; "F" is for the feedback from the teacher or "E" for teacher evaluation. Studies have shown that more than 50% of exchanges between teacher and students are of the IRF pattern (Cazden, 1986; Edwards & Mercer, 1987; Wells, 1999).

Mortimer and Machado (2000) developed a two-subcategory classification: dialogic and authoritative. According to their categorization, the IRF pattern can be considered authoritative as long as the feedback from the teacher is evaluation. If, on the other hand, the feedback supplies elements to extend the student's response or to elicit new ideas and contributions from them, the IRF pattern corresponds to a dialogic function. By identifying the nature of the feedback from the teacher, whether evaluative or elaborative, we can decide on the predominant nature of the discourse,

whether dialogic or authoritative, when these IRF patterns are used.

Researchers do not agree on the appropriateness of the IRF structure. Mercer (1995) argued that triadic dialogue is an effective means of monitoring student's understanding, in guiding student's learning and marking knowledge. In contrast, Lemke (1990) noted that IRF structure is overused in most classrooms because of a mistaken belief that it encourages students' maximum participation.

Based on episodes of teacher and whole-class interaction, Nassaji and Wells (2000) suggested that the same basic IRF structure can take a variety of forms and be employed by teachers for a wide range of functions. It is understandable that different teachers may use the same basic discourse format in many different ways and at different levels of student participation and engagement. The pattern itself is not good or bad, but the use makes the difference. As Casa and DeFranco expressed, "Thus future research should investigate the techniques implemented by teachers who do promote understanding through dialogic discourse..... the types of follow-up moves, and why they teach in that manner." (Casa & DeFranco 2002: 13)

According to Sinclair & Brazil, "teacher talk" is the language in the classroom employed to give directions, explain activities and check students' understanding (Sinclair & Brazil, 1982). The language employed by teachers in language classes serves as the source of input of language knowledge, and is also used to instruct language communication and organize classroom activities. The research on teacher talk began in the 1970s, pioneered by Gaies (1977, 1979) and Henzle (1979), followed by Long (1981, 1983), Long & Sato(1983), Welche & Ready (1985), Ellis (1985) and Chaudron (1988). Early studies of teacher talk have found that teachers make certain modifications in their classroom speech, including adjustments to the rate of speech, lexicon, and syntax (Gaies, 1977; Chaudron, 1982). These adjustments are apparently made by teachers in an attempt to facilitate learners' comprehension (Chaudron, 1982). In recent years, researchers such as Lindholm-Leary (2001), Seedhouse (2004), Berlin (2005), Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005), Wright (2005), Robinson (2006) studied classroom conversation features, talk turns between teachers and learners, and how the languages teachers modify their language to manage the class well. Chinese scholars such as Zhao & Zhao (2007) investigated how the teachers provide feedbacks to students' language errors. Inceğay (2010) analyzed the quality of a teacher's language use in a class of 16 Turkish young learners of English as a foreign language and found that there are two categories regarding teacher talk; construction and obstruction. Therefore, teachers can improve or hinder learning process through the language they use. (Zargham Ghabanchi & Shirin Malekzadeh, 2011) Their findings are in line with the idea that effective teachers' language contributes to effective learners' output (Sinclair & Brazil, 1982).

Scholars have found that teachers employ a lot of interactive devices such as repetition, prompting, prodding, and expansions, which would be evoking more interactions between teachers and students(Gaies, 1977, 1979; Long,1981, 1983; Ellis,1985; Chaudron, 1988; Meng & Wang, 2011). Meng and Wang found that "increasing wait-time to three to five seconds can increase the amount of students' participation as well as the quality of that participation." (Meng & Wang 2011:102) Some scholars studied the language characteristic of teacher talk. Meng and Wang(2011) pointed out that EFL teachers usually use short, simple, grammatically correct sentences and general, high frequent vocabulary. Ghabanchi & Malekzadeh(2011) investigated the action verbs used by teachers in reading classes for different levels and found that "advanced learners are more imposed to higher-level thinking processes than less advanced learners "(Ghabanchi & Malekzadeh, 2011:14). Millrood (2004) mentioned that it is possible to improve teacher-learner congruence through a decent verbal interaction with the learners by creating an optimal condition for a productive classroom interaction.

In spite of the aforementioned large body of the studies of Teacher Talk, investigations into teacher's self evaluation of his or her own talk are not adequate. What will the language teacher find while listening to his or her own lesson recording? How can the teacher evaluate his or her own talk and what can this self-evaluation help the teacher in his or her professional development? This is the reason why I decide to make a recording of my own teaching and evaluate my own teacher talk.

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This case study intends to answer the following questions:

- (1). What's the proportion of teacher talk(TT) vs Student Talk in this EFL reading class?
- (2). What's the general pattern of TT?
- (3). What techniques are implemented by the teacher to promote understanding and facilitate language learning?

III. RESEARCH METHODS

A. *Participants*

I am the researcher and the teacher to be studied. I choose to study myself because I am generally a reflective type of person. I believe that self-reflection can help me improve my teaching skills and provide professional development. In order to obtain natural and authentic data, I audio-recorded one period of my reading class which lasted for 40 minutes. In the evening after the recording, I listened to and transcribed the class recording and reflected on the kind of techniques I used to promote students' understanding and learning and the reasons why I adopted that technique to teach

that particular class in that manner.

The reading class that I teach consists of 26 students, who are sophomore English majors, from 19 to 21 years old. They are at low-intermediate level in terms of reading comprehension. The teaching material used was a text entitled "On Not Answering the Telephone" from the required textbook New English Course compiled by Mei Renyi et al.

The teaching objectives of the class were three folded:

- (1). Learn to understand word meaning in the context
- (2). Learn To paraphrase sentences.
- (3). Learn word-formation of compound adjectives.

The whole teaching procedure (the whole recording lasts for 41 mins, 22 seconds) was made up of 3 steps.

- (1). Warm-up (recorded length: 9 mins 10secs)
- (2). Class discussion of word meanings and sentence paraphrase (recorded length: 25mins, 17 secs) This part mainly consists of teacher-initiated questions and students' answers
- (3). Group discussion (recorded length: 7mins)

B. Data Collection

The data were transcribed verbatim and in terms of teacher and student turns in the evening of the recording. All aspects of the interaction recognizable on an audio file were included, although there are places where a number of students respond at once and no individual voice is discernible. While transcribing the recording, I reflected on my teacher talk, especially the reasons why I repeated some questions or words and why I spoke the way I did.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Comparison of Teacher Talk and Student Talk Quantities

I used "word counting" function of Microsoft word to count the word numbers of each sentence spoken by the teacher and the student and compare the length of each teacher talk and student talk. Table 1 shows the length of teacher talk and student talk in each turn of teacher-student interaction.

TABLE 1.
TT AND ST DIFFERENCES IN LENGTH

| T-S Interaction Turn No. | TT Length (Words) | ST Length (Words) | Difference |
|--------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------|
| 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2 | 34 | 2 | 32 |
| 3 | 9 | 5 | 4 |
| 4 | 20 | 1 | 19 |
| 5 | 17 | 16 | 1 |
| 6 | 97 | 0 | 97 |
| 7 | 8 | 1 | 7 |
| 8 | 7 | 15 | -8 |
| 9 | 47 | 8 | 39 |
| 10 | 9 | 23 | -14 |
| 11 | 21 | 3 | 18 |
| 12 | 6 | 1 | 5 |
| 13 | 11 | 28 | -17 |
| 14 | 57 | 4 | 53 |
| 15 | 8 | 2 | 6 |
| 16 | 4 | 2 | 2 |
| 17 | 19 | 13 | 6 |
| 18 | 25 | 5 | 20 |
| 19 | 23 | 0 | 23 |
| 20 | 7 | 2 | 5 |
| 21 | 5 | 4 | 1 |
| 22 | 21 | 21 | 0 |
| 23 | 1 | 69 | -68 |
| 24 | 20 | 1 | 19 |
| 25 | 9 | 5 | 4 |
| 26 | 13 | 1 | 12 |
| 27 | 13 | 0 | 13 |
| 28 | 34 | 0 | 34 |
| 29 | 64 | 1 | 63 |
| 30 | 18 | 2 | 16 |
| 31 | 21 | 2 | 19 |
| 32 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| 33 | 25 | 2 | 23 |
| 34 | 49 | 2 | 47 |
| 35 | 13 | 1 | 12 |
| 36 | 31 | 1 | 30 |
| 37 | 17 | 1 | 16 |

| | | | |
|----------------|-----|----|-----|
| 38 | 8 | 1 | 7 |
| 39 | 11 | 2 | 9 |
| 40 | 14 | 0 | 14 |
| 41 | 14 | 2 | 12 |
| 42 | 40 | 1 | 39 |
| 43 | 7 | 4 | 3 |
| 44 | 17 | 4 | 13 |
| 45 | 8 | 1 | 7 |
| 46 | 13 | 3 | 10 |
| 47 | 16 | 1 | 15 |
| 48 | 18 | 1 | 17 |
| 49 | 8 | 2 | 6 |
| 50 | 6 | 2 | 4 |
| 51 | 3 | 1 | 2 |
| 52 | 23 | 1 | 22 |
| 53 | 14 | 17 | -3 |
| 54 | 6 | 8 | -2 |
| 55 | 42 | 8 | 34 |
| 56 | 25 | 7 | 18 |
| 57 | 8 | 7 | 1 |
| 58 | 6 | 8 | -2 |
| 59 | 16 | 7 | 9 |
| 60 | 46 | 4 | 42 |
| 61 | 12 | 14 | -2 |
| 62 | 49 | 21 | 28 |
| 63 | 15 | 1 | 14 |
| 64 | 7 | 1 | 6 |
| 65 | 6 | 1 | 5 |
| 66 | 13 | 1 | 12 |
| 67 | 23 | 1 | 22 |
| 68 | 12 | 1 | 11 |
| 69 | 103 | 13 | 90 |
| 70 | 6 | 1 | 5 |
| 71 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 72 | 38 | 0 | 38 |
| 73 | 56 | 0 | 56 |
| 74 | 26 | 4 | 22 |
| 75 | 26 | 1 | 25 |
| 76 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 77 | 26 | 2 | 24 |
| 78 | 7 | 2 | 5 |
| 79 | 13 | 0 | 13 |
| 80 | 21 | 1 | 20 |
| 81 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 82 | 17 | 9 | 8 |
| 83 | 7 | 2 | 5 |
| 84 | 11 | 2 | 9 |
| 85 | 9 | 0 | 9 |
| 86 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| 87 | 33 | 1 | 32 |
| 88 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| 89 | 9 | 1 | 8 |
| 90 | 113 | 1 | 112 |
| 91 | 15 | 1 | 14 |
| 92 | 5 | 0 | 5 |
| 93 | 23 | 2 | 21 |
| 94 | 8 | 2 | 6 |
| 95 | 54 | 2 | 52 |
| 96 | 87 | 2 | 85 |
| 97 | 18 | 0 | 18 |
| 98 | 74 | 0 | 74 |
| 99 | 33 | 11 | 22 |
| 100 | 2 | 6 | -4 |
| 101 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 102 | 6 | 10 | -4 |
| 103 | 3 | 14 | -11 |
| 104 | 6 | 0 | 6 |
| Average length | 21 | 5 | 16 |

As shown in table 1, among the recorded 104 turns of T-S interactions, only 9 times, the student speaks more than the teacher. The average length of teacher talk is 21 words while the average length of student talk is 5 words. This suggests

that teacher talk still a way outweighs student talk in this class despite the teacher's effort to elicit more student talk. Although most teacher talks are longer than student talks, students do show some consciousness to respond in sentences rather than individual words, even though they make grammatical mistakes. This manifests that students do accept the teacher's suggestion of conducting this reading lesson in a communicative way, they are making efforts to speak more.

TABLE 2.
TURNS WHERE ST OUTWEIGHS TT

| T-S Interaction Turn No. | Teacher Talk | Student Talk |
|--------------------------|---|--|
| 8 | Yes, it's unusual. Why it's unusual? | The narrator says, when the telephone rings, he doesn't answer it. So, I don't understand. |
| 10 | Uh uh. You think it's narrative, instead of argument. | I think, maybe just one person in, in this article, only the author in the text. Just one character. It's just the narrator. |
| 13 | Yah, Why it's argument? What's the difference between narrative and argument? | ...narrative I think, it's usually the author speaks one things but the argument but the argument always say something about the questions and express the author's ideas of.... |
| 23 | OK... | And just like, he mentioned having supper or talking with somebody when the telephone rang. And he was unwillingly and reluctant to answer it. This is one event in the article, And he also, also give some examples like, through the telephone, he'll know the elope of....a friend, or his friend, maybe have a bad accident at once. And he also, also gave some examples who need the telephone. |
| 53 | Yes, line 31. What does this word mean? Can someone read out the sentences? | It serves you right if you find it impossible to escape from some idle or inquisitive chatterbox. |
| 58 | I bent on, is that right? | I am bent on becoming a good teacher. |
| 61 | Yes, what does this word mean, can you speak that again? elope | "elope" means to run away secretly with a., with a lover and get married. |
| 101 | Ok. | But I think the mobile phone...Keep touch with our friends... |
| 102 | Yes, what else? | When we meet some difficulties, we also can use mobile phone call our friends. |

Looking into the 9 T-S interactions in table 2 in which student talks are longer than teacher talks, I found in these interactions, teacher talks are teacher-initiated "Why" questions, for instance: turn 8 and turn 13; or the teacher intends to elicit student's further explanation by simply repeating the student's previous answer such as in turn 10 or by asking a what question such as "what else?" in turn 10 and "What does this word mean?" in turn 53 and 61; or an encouraging "ok..." such as in turn 23. These suggest that why and what questions and encouraging tone can elicit more student talk.

B. Teacher-student Interaction Pattern

The transcribed recording showed that the teacher-student interaction patter follows IRF pattern recognized by many scholars. Here are a few examples of the IRF pattern that appear in the transcript:

(1)

T: Yes. So, what does inquisitive mean?

S: A person who is curious about other people.

T: right. A person who is curious about other people.yeah. So, inquisitive means "curious", right? And usually it denotes unduly curious. And next line, line 32, we have the phrase bent on. bent on. What does the phrase mean? Bent on doing something.

(2)

T: Can somebody make a sentence using "bent on"?

S1: I bent on becoming a good teacher.

T: I bent on, is that right?

S2: I am bent on becoming a good teacher.

T: So, after bent on, you use v-ing form. Can you make a sentence again using "bent on"?

As shown in the above examples, teacher-student interactions usually start with a teacher-initiated question. Students are always in the position to answer the questions, followed by the teacher's feedback to the student's answers. In many cases, another teacher-initiated question will follow the feedback as in example 2.

C. Characteristics of Teacher Talk in This Recording

1. Teacher-initiated question types

Teacher-initiated questions accounted for a large proportion in the teacher-student interaction. Meng & Wang identified some reasons why questions are so commonly used in teaching. "Questions stimulate and maintain students'

interest and encourage student participation in a lesson. They encourage a teacher to think and focus on the content of the lesson, enable the teacher to clarify what a student has said, to elicit particular structures or vocabulary items and to check students' understanding." (Meng & Wang 2011:101)

In my transcribed recording, the most frequently asked question is "what does... mean?". The question appeared 18 times. I asked the questions to check the students' understanding of the word meaning in the text and to elicit an answer from the student. I also used alternative questions a lot. For example:

(1). *Right, is he giving the reasons of his own or is he giving the reasons of some other people why they don't answer the telephone?*

(2). *Can a pest only be a person or can it be something?*

(3). *Can somebody breathe or cannot breathe?*

(4). *Cautious or uncautious?*

(5). *So, here, is "obstinacy" a noun or is it an adjective?*

(6). *Is it a noun or an adjective?*

(7). *How about willfulness? Is it a noun or an adjective?*

(8). *Beautiful is a one word or two-word adjective?*

Alternative questions are closed questions with predictable answers. Closed questions usually elicit short responses. Why do I use alternative questions so often? The purpose is to provide hints and direct the students' way of thinking and elicit some kind of student talk. Especially when I posed a what question or why question and got no response from the students, I used alternative question to elicit an answer.

2. Repetition

Another striking characteristic of the teacher talk is that I repeated a lot. I repeated nearly every question at least twice, and I often repeated the last phrase of the previous sentence. I also repeated the students' answers. For example:

T: If you don't have any questions. Let me ask you some questions. I'm going to ask you to explain some words in your own words. Ok. Some vocabulary in your own words. Let's see, "pose" and "pest". You can see the two words in Paragraph 2, right? Paragraph 2, line 4. "I pretend to be wise or pose as unusual." What does "pose" mean?

S: Pretend.

T: Yes, pretend, good! And pest. Can you find this word in the article? In paragraph 2, which line?

S: Line 7.

T: Line 7, right. Ok. "I think it's a pest and time waste." What does pest mean? How do you understand "pest"?

S: Annoying thing.

T: What thing?

S; Annoying

T: Annoying thing. Ok. Uh. Can a pest only be a person or can it be something? It can either be something or it can be...

S: a person.

T: A person.....

I repeated to make sure that the students can understand me better. In the meantime, repeating what was said by the student can give myself some time to think about what to say next. Repetition of the meaning of a new word gave the student one more chance to learn the word and memorize it.

3. Idiosyncratic language

The third conspicuous feature of my teacher talk is that I said the following words many times: "Yes, OK. Right. Good." These repeated words serve different purposes. They were used to draw students' attention. For example: "Ok, Good morning." They were used to encourage or to praise the student for giving the right answer. For example:

(1). *S: prefix.*

T: Right! Prefix. And what does this prefix mean?

(2). *S: ness.*

T: Yeah, from "ness".

Or, they were used to introduce a new topic or new activity. For example:

T: Ok. Good. Yeah. Now, let's have group discussions.

4. Conscious self-correction

The fourth characteristic of my teacher talk is that I consciously corrected my own mistakes in my teacher talks. For example:

(1). *That's on line, in line 8, can someone think of a synonym for irritating?*

(2). *That's on line, in line 31.*

(3). *That's on line, in line 33.*

(4). *That's on line, in line 45.*

(5). *Any more sentences, questions?*

(6). *Can all you find, can all of you find this word in the text book? Bed-ridden?*

(7). *What kind of adjective do you call this one, this word?*

(8). *If a place is very background, backward, we can call the place a poverty-stricken area.*

(9). *From, in terms of word formation...*

While transcribing the recording, I asked myself why I corrected my own mistakes when realizing them, instead of ignoring them to avoid the risk of letting the students know that the teacher did not speak perfect English. My answer was this: I wanted to show the students that honesty was very important in learning. As a teacher of English, I acquired English in China. It is true that I am always an English language learner myself. It's quite possible that I still make mistakes even though I am a more advanced learner. As a teacher, I realized that the language I used in class often served as the model for the students, so I tried my best to speak grammatically correct language in class. In the meantime, my attitude towards learning and my own way of learning English can influence my students as well. It's my responsibility to let the students know that making mistakes and learning from one's own mistakes is part of language learning. Self-correction is a way to show that you are able to recognize and solve your own problem. It's a technique to facilitate language learning.

5. Vocalized pauses

Vocalized pauses appear sometimes in the recording. The causes for these vocalized pauses can be grouped into the following categories: elicitation of answers from students; an indication of topic/activity transfer; a preliminary to an attempt to rephrase what I've just said.

6. My feedback to the students' inappropriate answers

Instead of telling them directly the answer was incorrect, I asked the other students whether the answer given by a student was right, trying to get other students to come up with a correct answer. I also asked the student to explain his/her answer so that the others knew why he or she was right or wrong. For example:

(1).

T: *Can somebody make a sentence using "bent on"?*

S1: *I bent on becoming a good teacher.*

T: *I bent on, is that right?*

S2: *I am bent on becoming a good teacher.*

(2).

T: *Can someone give an answer to question No. 2? Do we have any volunteer? ...Cheng Li*

S: *I think maybe the first one, narrative. er.*

T: *Uh huh. You think it's narrative, instead of argument.*

S: *I think, maybe just one person in, in this article, only the author in the text. Just one character. It's just the narrator.*

T: *So, there is only one narrator in the whole article. Do you agree?(to the whole class) Do you think this text is a narrative?*

S1: *Yes.*

S2: *It's argument.*

T: *Yes, you think it's argument. Right?*

S: *Yes.*

T: *Yah, Why it's argument? What's the difference between narrative and argument?*

I didn't mind their broken sentences. I believed that the most important thing was to let them feel free to speak out whatever was on their mind to demonstrate that they had read the text and had formed their own opinion on the topic. I always said to my students, "you have to show me your understanding of the text by speaking out." I encouraged any kind of response and praised highly the correct responses.

V. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The transcription of the class recording shows that teacher talk in this reading class follows the IRF or IRE pattern recognized by many other researchers. Although guided by the communicative teaching approach, teacher talk still far outweighed in this lesson. In accordance with the teaching objectives of the class and teaching tasks, teacher initiated questions were mostly about the meaning of words in context and formation of compound words. I repeated a lot to draw students' attention and enhance their understanding. I allowed some vocalized pauses to give the students time to think and organize their speech. I tried to elicit students talk and directed their way of thinking by using alternative questions or tag questions when the students were relatively quiet and not competent enough to express themselves. After each explanation, I asked questions to check their comprehension. For example, after the explanation of some phrase, I asked the students to use the phrases to make sentences. And after I explained the concept of compound adjective, I checked their comprehension by asking them to explain the concept again and provide examples. At this stage, I only corrected the mistakes such as the wrong use of adjectives and stress problems in pronunciation. By doing this, I wanted to show the students that we "have a focus in different unit at different stage." I consciously did self-correction when realizing mistakes in my own speech. In so doing, I tried to tell the students that making mistakes and correcting one's own mistakes were part of learning language.

The findings of this research agree with some studies that have reported the dominance of teacher talk, the persistence of initiation-response-feedback as the principal form of discourse, the brevity of student responses and the lack of sustained interaction with individuals (see, e.g., Smith et al., 2006).

One of the multiple roles a teacher plays in communicative activities is that the teacher acts the resource (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), which means that teacher talk in the language classroom can be regarded as the language input. Therefore, it is of paramount importance for EFL teachers to be aware of the characteristics of their discourse, for it is one of the most beneficial tools which is at the hand of teachers and has a great effect on reducing learners' affective filter. Teachers should be able to have an initial view of how to establish rapport with learners, though learning how to relate to learners takes time and requires good knowledge (Zargham Ghabanchi & Shirin Malekzadeh, 2011). Concluding from the aforementioned information, for every responsible teacher who is keen to improve the quality of his/her teaching, improving the quality of teacher discourse should be one of the priorities.

VI. LIMITATIONS OF THE PRESENT STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Although the findings of the present research may shed some light on the general pattern and characteristics of teacher talk in one language classroom in Chinese universities, because of the size of the class and length of the recording, the results of the research cannot be generalized to more language classrooms. In addition, I myself made the recording and did the transcription, analyzed and reflected on everything on my own, and I may have ignored some important features of teacher talk. Therefore, in the future, if another teacher observes or listens to the recording and analyzes the data, something new and more interesting may be explored.

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A Discursive Review of Galtung and Ruge's News Factors in Iranian Newspapers

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Abstract—The criteria on which journalists and news editors judge about newsworthiness of an event or news story are called “news values”. The most prominent and widely studied list of news values (also called news criteria or news factors) was proposed by Galtung and Ruge in 1965 in which twelve selection criteria such as frequency, threshold, unambiguity and meaningfulness were pinned down as the factors by which gatekeepers make decision about newsworthiness of a news item. This leading and seminal article rose many positive and negative reactions and for decades Galtung and Ruge's list of news values has been reviewed, revisited and criticized by many linguists and media experts. In this article we review the application of this set of news values in Iranian media atmosphere to observe which news values play the major role in selection process of newspapers in this middle east country. The data of this research are composed of 100 news stories gathered from four international morning newspapers published in Iran in winter 2010 and we try to distinguish the news values of Iranian newspapers based on Galtung and Ruge's (1965) list of news factors. The results of this study show that while reference to elite people (especially politicians) is the most important and frequent news value, some criteria which are not mentioned in Galtung and Ruge's list of news values have a considerable role in news selection process of newspapers in Iran. The most considerable factor for which there is no room in Galtung's list is the impact of ideology and its role in overall news selection process. This study also shows that although the twelve factors of Galtung and Ruge's list are influential in Iran media, we should not limit selection process to them and the role of social metalingual elements such as ideology and competition with other media in the gatekeeping process should not be ignored.

Index Terms—news values, discourse analysis, Galtung and Ruge, media

I. INTRODUCTION

Linguists, especially (Critical) Discourse Analysts, have shown a powerful interest to news analysis from various perspectives and within different approaches. For them, news as a type of discourse has been considered as a very interesting topic of linguistic analysis. Some remarkable and pioneering works such as van Dijk (1988), Fairclough (1989), Fowler (1991) and Bell (1991), are just some examples of linguistic studies which have been done in field of news and media analysis both in theory and practice. One aspect of news production process which has been studied by linguists for a long period of time is the selection process during which the journalists or the gatekeepers consider which news are worthy enough to be reported. Every day many different events happen all around the world but a very few number of them, after passing through a so called “gate keeping” process are published and broadcasted as news. The selectivity criteria of this judgment are technically known as news values (also called news factors or news criteria) and the history of this theoretical concept mainly goes back to 1965 and publication of Galtung and Ruge's seminal paper on news values in which they pinned down a list of twelve factors as news criteria according which the gatekeepers make decision about newsworthiness of events and news stories to be reported or not. Their research was originally the study of foreign news coverage in Norwegian newspapers and Galtung and Ruge intended to explain the selectivity criteria of three major international crisis in four Norwegian newspapers. However; the theoretical framework and set of twelve news values that they suggested in their article have been applied to many different types of news and became (arguably) the most frequently cited news values list proposed so far. Watson (1998, p.117) believes that: “The names of two Norwegian scholars, Johan Galtung and Mari Ruge, have become as associated with news value analysis as Hoover with the vacuum cleaner. Their model of selective gatekeeping of 1965, while not carrying quite the romance of the apple that fell on Newton's head, is nevertheless a landmark in the scholarship of media.”

As Fowler (1991, p.13) mentions: “... a widely accepted analysis of news values in the following list of criteria factors formulated by Galtung and Ruge; are worth studying in detail and in particular. it is worth reflecting on the great extent to which the factors are *cultural* rather than *natural*”. The values they identified are: (Note: F stands for Factor) (F1) frequency, (F2) threshold, (F3) unambiguity, (F4) Meaningfulness, (F5) Consonance, (F6) unexpectedness, (F7)

continuity, (F8) composition, (F9) reference to elite nations, (F10) reference to elite people, (F11) reference to persons, (F12) reference to something negative (ibid, p.13)

Galtung and Ruge defines and describes each of these news factors as bellow:

1- Frequency: An event that unfolds within a publication cycle of the news medium is more likely to be selected than a one that takes place over a long period of time.

2- Threshold: Events have to pass a threshold before being recorded at all; the greater the intensity (the more gruesome the murder or the more casualties in an accident), the greater the impact and the more likely it is to be selected.

3- Unambiguity: The more clearly an event can be understood and interpreted without multiple meanings, the more likely it is to be selected.

4- Meaningfulness: The culturally familiar is more likely to be selected.

5- Consonance: The news selector may be able to predict (due to experience) events that will be newsworthy, thus forming a "pre-image" of an event, which in turn increases its chances of becoming news.

6- Unexpectedness: Among events meaningful and/or consonant, the unexpected or rare event is more likely to be selected.

7- Continuity: An event already in the news has a good chance of remaining in the news (even if its impact has been reduced) because it has become familiar and easier to interpret.

8- Composition: An event may be included as news less because of its intrinsic news value than because it fits into the overall composition or balance of a newspaper or news broadcast.

9- Reference to elite nations: The actions of elite nations are seen as more consequential than the actions of other nations.

10- Reference to elite people: Again, the actions of elite people, likely to be famous, may be seen by news selectors as having more consequence than others, and news audiences may identify with them.

11- Reference to persons: News that can be presented in terms of individual people rather than abstractions is likely to be selected.

12- Reference to something negative: Bad events are generally unambiguous and newsworthy. (Galtung and Ruge 1965 cited in O'Neill and Harcup, 2009, pp.164-165)

Although the above mentioned list of news values has been criticized by many scholars including both media experts and linguists, it is considered as the most classic and widely studied news values classification and as Brighton and Foy (2007, p.7) write: "Galtung and Ruge's work remains an ideal starting-point for any serious discussion of news values". Palmer, (1998, p. 378) also believes that Galtung and Ruge were arguably the first to provide a systematic list of news values. McQuail (1994, p. 270 cited in O'Neill and Harcup, 2009, p.164) describes this list as "the most influential explanation of news values". However, these amount of admiration could not stop criticisms and further explorations and amendments in the area of news selection. O'Neil and Harcup (2009) briefly but very exactly describe the development of theoretical and practical achievements in this field of research from 1965 since start of the new millennium to depict the attempts done by media scholars during the recent half of century and show where we are standing at the moment. Many lists of news values/criteria have also been suggested by media researchers and journalists, for example, Denis MacShane (1979, p.46) subdivided newsworthy events into the following categories: *Conflict, Hardship and danger to the community, Unusualness, Scandal and Individualism*.

Harcup and O'Neill's (2001 cited in Brighton and Foy,2007) study of the printed press resulted in their attempt to revise and update Galtung and Ruge's list as the following: *Power elite, Celebrity, Entertainment, Surprise, Bad news, Good news, Magnitude, Relevance, Follow-ups and Media agenda*. Hall (in Cohen and Young, 1981) distinguishes between two types of news values which is basically a distinction between normal and ideological news values:" Hall specifically distinguishes between what he terms 'formal' news values (broadly the approach analysed in the last section, starting with Galtung and Ruge) and 'ideological' news values. His 'formal' news values are:

Linkage: Is the story linked, or capable of being linked, with a prior event, happening, occurrence?

Recency: Has it happened recently?

Newsworthiness of event/person: This criterion may be thought to pose or beg more questions than it answers!

Crucially, Hall goes on to distinguish between the sort of *formal* news values outlined by Galtung and Ruge (and Ostgaard), and what he terms *ideological* news values. He contrasts the foreground structure of news and the events reported with the hidden 'deep structure'. This involves what he describes as the 'consensus knowledge' of the world, which, he argues, provides a framework within which the news operates" (Brighton and Foy,2007, pp.9-10)

Although it is worth beginning the discussion with a brief review of Galtung and Ruge's news values lists and its pros and cons, the aim of this paper is not to prepare a list of news values proposed by other scholars and to have a more clear picture of such attempts interested readers can refer to works mentioned above and some other recent researches such as Albert Braun (2009) in which more complete lists of news values are mentioned and classified. In this article, we study newspapers of Iran to find the most frequent Galtung and Ruge's news values regarded by Iranian journalists in news selection process. Our aim, in addition to recognizing the selectivity criteria in Iranian media especially

newspapers is to see if Galtung and Ruge's suggested list of news values is empirically competent enough to explain the selection process in Iranian newspapers or there are some missing criteria which should be added to the list.

II. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The data of this research was gathered from four Iranian morning newspapers of Iran News, Tehran Times, Iran Daily and Keyhan International (all of them known as international newspapers because they are published in English language and not domestic language of Iran which is Persian).we gathered the main story published on the front page of these newspapers for one month (in September 2011) and 100 news stories were selected altogether. The newspapers we used as the source of the data are the most widely spread daily newspapers of Iran published in English and they are belonging to both major political campus of thought in Iran (conservatives and reformists).

Each news story might be consisted of one or more than one news values. In recognizing the main news values of each story, in addition to the definitions, hints, and methods suggested by Galtung and Ruge in their research, we also used the following checklist:

-What is/are the main news value(s) of the title of each news story? The title of the news is a mirror reflecting its gist, as a result, titles play pivotal role in linguistic analysis of news stories since the earliest researches done by linguists especially CDA analysts.

-What is the type of the news? Is it a domestic or foreign one? If it is foreign news story, which element makes it interesting for Iranian audiences?

-Who is/are the main actor(s) of the news? Can they be considered as elite people (politicians, experts, famous art and sport faces) and organizations?

- Is the news centered on an interview? Who is the reference person or organization in the interview?

-Does the story have any follow-ups? Is it referring to a previous event or news story?

- Is there any reference to numbers and scales in the news? Are the numbers considered as magnificent or not?

-Is the theme of the news positive or negative? Is it telling a sad/ threatening story or a happy one?

Although in most cases there were clear demarcation among news values, in some cases we used our intuition and background knowledge in finding the relevant news values. In those news in which we could find more than one news factors, the categorization of news values is order irrelevant. Finally, we recognized 215 news values in the data corpus, some of them had collocation with other news values. The derived news values were sorted out and categorized within Galtung and Rouge's theoretical framework and in the following section we analyze the data.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

In this section, we analyze the recognized news values and the proportion of each of the twelve news factors. Table number one shows the total number of news values and the percentage of each news values in the corpus:

TABLE NO.1

| No | News Values | Number of news values in the corpus | Percent |
|-------|-------------|-------------------------------------|---------|
| 1 | F10 | 76 | %35/3 |
| 2 | F5 | 55 | %25/5 |
| 3 | F4 | 23 | %10/6 |
| 4 | F6 | 17 | %7/9 |
| 5 | F12 | 12 | %5/58 |
| 6 | F1 | 10 | %4/58 |
| 7 | F9 | 9 | %4/1 |
| 8 | F2 | 8 | %3/72 |
| 9 | F7 | 4 | %1/86 |
| 10 | F11 | 1 | %0/46 |
| 11 | F8 | 0 | %0 |
| 12 | F3 | 0 | %0 |
| Total | F1-F12 | 215 | %100 |

As it is obvious in the table above, reference to elite people (F10) is the most frequent news values considered in the body of data studied in this research. In other words, elite people are most important source of newsworthiness for Iranian newspapers and speeches and actions of this group of society are highly interesting for the media. Although the term 'elite people' is considered ambiguous by some scholars, we can observe that newspapers are eager to cover things done and said by let us call it *the powerful* (with its meaning shade from CDA studies) group of the society. In Galtung and Ruge's paper the exact meaning of elite people are not demarcated in details and there is no difference between a rock star and a Nobel prize winner in this sense but our study showed that Iranian newspapers are mostly interested in covering the news related to *politicians* (the president, member of parliament, ministers and members of the cabinet are of the most importance for Iranian newspapers). This result is in accordance with some other lists of news values which reiterate the importance of elite people especially politicians in news selectivity. The following is only a brief sample of the long list of news values related to the concept of elite people especially the politicians:

Celebrity (Ruehlmann, 1979), Elitism (Gregory & Miller, 1998), Famous faces (Ryan, 1991), Presidential candidates (Gans, 1979); Power elite (Harcup & O'Neill, 2001), Celebrity (Harcup & O'Neill, 2001), Government conflicts and Disagreements (Gans, 1979), Governmental Politics (O'Sullivan et al., 1983); Political importance (Herbert, 2000)

In general, as Golding and Elliott (1979) mentions "...Clearly big names attract audiences, but there is a circularity in that big names become famous by virtue of their exposure." It is also worth to mention that in Iran most of the newspapers are supported by government financial aids and it may be considered as a reason of media interest to cover the news related to the political faces.

As it is shown on the table number one, the second most frequent news values is *consonance* (F5) which means if the event matches the media's expectations or not. This notion is also known as 'angle' or view point of the media. It is said that if the media expect something to happen, it will. It seems that Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) approach to news analysis is very fruitful in this field of study and the works of linguists such as van Dijk (1988), Fowler (1991), and Fairclough (2002) reveals the role of ideology and view point in news production process. However, the works mentioned on the above line are not the only linguistic attempts to explain the role of metalingual (social, historical, cognitive, economic and political) factors on news production. Chomsky and Herman (1988) in their propaganda model suggest that "selection of topics is one of the key ways in which the media fulfill their "societal purpose" of inculcating "the economic, social, and political agenda of privileged groups that dominate the domestic society and the state." (O'Neil and Harcup, 2009, p.169).

It is worth to mention that Consonance is not limited only to geographical nearness but to cultural proximity also. For example, Iranian newspapers show a clear interest to events happening in Syria, a geographically not very near country but culturally a very proximate neighbor. Consonance is a news factor which is mentioned in various news values lists under different names such as Cultural Resonance (Ryan, 1991), Pre- Fabrication (Bell, 1991), Predictability and Routine (McQuail, 2000).

The two factors of F(10) and F(5) are the most prominent news factors in Iranian newspapers in a way that these two factors can be regarded as news values of half of the news studied in this research. These two factors have been in collocation with each other in 42 percent of news stories we studied in this research which means that in those news which have more than one news values, the combination of F(10) and F(5) in the corpus we studied is the most frequent one. It seems that the most typical news in Iranian newspapers is those in which an elite person (mostly a person with high socio-political rank is speaking or commenting about a consonant matter which is considered as relevant and interesting both for media and audiences.

In the following, we review the role of other news values in the body of data we studied in the current research.

F(1): We could not find any news item which was selected only due to its frequency. It seems that frequency is a complementary news values which is playing role besides other news values. The reason of this finding is maybe related to the modern developments in media especially the availability of internet in Iran. While almost everybody has access to news websites the recency of news is an element taken for granted. It is a necessity for news to be new and recent but it is a necessary condition not a sufficient one! Iranian newspapers have their techniques to cover the long span stories; one of them is using the newspaper's online edition to cover very urgent and recent events. It seems that emergence of online editions has had a considerable effect on prominence of F (1).

F(2): We did not find any significant news story in which the event has a considerable threshold. However, in some cases we observed the application of indefinite pronouns and quantifies such as "many, most, some and so on so forth.

F(3): Opposite its name, Unambiguity is one of the most ambiguous news values suggested by Galtung and Ruge.

It is not a value of an event but mostly the style and characteristic of composing level. It is worth to mention that in some news ambiguity in the event is considered a value but in general the composition of the news should be as unambiguous as possible. We found F(3) a general prerequisite of writing level of news as a result its role as a mere news value seems to be under question.

F(4) Meaningfulness to audiences of the newspaper is a highly frequent news values in our data corpus, the role of this news value is most prominent in foreign news about those countries far from Iran geographically but near to it culturally.

F(6): Unexpectedness is another classic news value which is mentioned in many other news lists under different names (such as *The Unusual* (Herbert, 2000), Surprise (Hetherington, 1985; Harcup & O'Neill, 2001) and Oddity (Ruehlmann, 1979)) but we find it a general characteristic of the event which is selected to be reported as news. The number of news in which the role of unexpectedness is actually central was not considered significant in our research.

F(7): Continuity which is also known as Follow-up (Harcup & O'Neill, 2001) and CO-option (Bell, 1991) plays a rather insignificant role in our study. However we found that if we broaden the term to competition with other newspapers and media then the impact of this news value will be more considerable. It seems that in Iranian media atmosphere competition with other media is more influential than continuity.

F (8): We found it really difficult to judge about the intention of journalists and editors to balance the composition of the page by their final product which in our study is front page of the edition of the newspapers. However, it seems at least on front pages this factor is not the major final value for news selection in most cases.

F (9): Reference to elite nations (in our study European and neighboring countries) is a relatively important factor in news selection process of Iranian newspapers. EU members and the USA besides geographically or culturally close

countries to Iran were the most significant countries in our research. It is necessary to mention that reference to international organizations and associations (such as the UN and the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA)) is also a crucial news values at least in foreign news of Iranian newspapers.

F(11) Reference to person which is called as *Personalization* (Gregory and Miller, 1998) or *News about people* (Ross Commission in Hetherington, 1985) says that tangible news in which people are main actors are of higher value in comparison with abstract news. Although we found human actors and participants in most of data, almost in all cases the theme of the news was something (at least to somehow) abstract (mainly the US threats and political clash between Iran and western countries). As a result, we did not find this factor a significantly important one in Iran media.

F (12) Only in less than 6 percent of news studied in this research we found a negative theme which is seemingly not very considerable amount. However, as mentioned above, many news were about political quarrel between Iran and West but these types of news cannot necessarily be interpreted as *Referring to something to negative*. We found majority of these news related to *Consonance* factor instead.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we studied Iranian newspapers within Galtung and Ruge's news values framework and found that reference to elite people (mostly top ranked politicians) and consonance are the most frequent news factors in Iran journalistic atmosphere. However, we should keep in mind that this research was done on data selected from English language (known as International) newspapers and maybe the results cannot be extended to Persian language domestic newspapers. We also found that while some classic news values such as continuity and threshold are not significantly crucial in Iranian newspapers, the role of some metalingual factors which have central position in CDA approach (such as ideology, competition and relations of power) is undeniable in news selectivity in Iran society. It seems that CDA and ethnographic studies (see Journal of Pragmatics special issue Vol 43, issue 7 May 2011 for information on discursive and ethnographic perspectives on news production) can explain some hidden and missing aspects of news selection and production more profoundly. However it does not mean that Galtung and Ruge's list of news values is seriously under question. Further complimentary researches are needed to be done and ethnographic linguists should go to newsrooms to discover the in action criteria of news production process. This paradigm shift from product to process oriented approach is a strong trend in media studies which should be regarded by new generation of linguists. The final point is that in Galtung and Ruge's news values list the lack of level separation is obvious and in future studies researches can focus on technical and exclusive news factors in pre- production (choosing interesting event), production (news composition) and post production (publication or broadcasting) levels which may lead to more theoretical and applied coherence and exactness.

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A Study on Chinese Continuous Four-character Collocations and Their Translation into English Strategies

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Abstract—The Chinese continuous four-character collocations (CCFCCs) are vivid, concise and aesthetic. They have rich meanings, gorgeous literal talent, consistency and strong rhetorical effect. The CCFCCs are embedded in different sentences. They make the discourse more concise, lively, humorous and thought-provoking. There are many papers concerning the techniques and skills of translating four-character collocations, therefore, the present paper mainly focus on the translation strategies of CCFCCs.

Index Terms—Chinese continuous four-character collocations, idioms, translation

I. INTRODUCTION

Idioms are the essence of language. Languages see their best manifestations of colorfulness, forcefulness, terseness and richness in idioms. Therefore, the familiarization and grasp of idiom is widely regarded as the basic standard by which the language capacity is tested. However, what confronts the language learners is not only the great quantity of the idioms but also the tremendous hardness of how to use the idioms properly. Many experts and scholars have carried on their research in this field, especially in the field of Chinese idioms. The traditional views of idioms treat idioms as arbitrary and fixed pattern of languages. Many linguists regard idioms as non-compositional by definitions. They have focused on the techniques of translating Chinese idioms into English and the problems of translating them, like the accuracy of target language, the national characteristics and the manner of speaking and so on.

When they find it is not enough to analyze the Chinese idioms from the techniques, they began to discuss this question from different perspectives. From the macro point of view, there are people using the cognitive linguistics to study the acquisition of Chinese idioms (Zuo, 2006), applying socio-semiotic approach to the translation of Chinese four-character idioms (Zhang, 2006), etc. From the micro point of view, the most significance of Chinese idiom-translation studies is the translation of “A Dream of Red Mansions”. Chinese idiom translation is mostly done in the translation of literal works. Other aspects are from the grammar perspective like subject-predicate structure and parallelism, analyzing the numeral of Chinese four-character idioms (Lin, 2008) and “The Symbolic Meanings of the 12 Symbolic Animals in Chinese Idioms” (Ma, 2006) and so on. Whatever the main theme is, these papers all analyzed the four-character collocations from ways like free translation, literal translation, using techniques to translation and so on.

Strictly speaking, Chinese four-character collocations cannot completely be the same as idioms, since the latter still has five-character collocations or even six or seven characters. However, most of the idioms we use today are the four-character ones. So, the present paper focuses on the four-character collocations from the idioms’ perspective.

Chinese people like to use four-character collocations. According to Mr. Lv Shuxiang, the four-syllable collocations perhaps are the favorite forms by Chinese users (Wang, 2007). There are certainly some reasons for it. First of all, it is determined by the characteristics of Chinese. The Chinese syntax is usually flexible, which means it can make up many phrases with fixed number of words, such as four-character collocations. Secondly, the four-character collocations have the characteristics of balanced structure, and concise wording. And Chinese people would overstress the aesthetics of balance, as a result, they often favor four-character collocations.

II. SOURCES OF CHINESE FOUR-CHARACTER COLLOCATIONS

Four-character collocation is a broad concept. It can be classified into two categories: narrow and broad.

In the narrow sense, four-character collocations are quite the same as idioms. They are fixed and cannot be reformed. Every four-character idiom has its own story, if you cannot understand the story, then you cannot understand what they mean.

In the broad sense, any phrase or collocation which is made up by four characters can be covered in this category. Most of these collocations are the brand new ones made not long ago. They are unfixed ones and can be made into whatever types as long as they have four characters. Along with the development of our society, the four-character collocations also develop themselves, examples could be cited and translated in English as “one country two systems”, “people first”, “harmonious society”, “environmentally-friendly products”, “Hope Project” and so on.

Many Chinese idioms are passed down from ancient times and have been in existence for quite a long time. Chinese idioms mainly originate from the oral folk idioms, and their minor source is the creations of literators of different times, or from the written materials. However, like other languages, Chinese has also absorbed many loan words, including some idioms. So another noticeable source may be the loan words, or idioms from other languages.

A. *Daily Experiences of Ordinary People*

Most of the idioms and idiomatic expressions in Chinese are from the common people, that is, from their occupations and hobbies. As in the case of words, idioms should be counted on the man-of-letters group for their creation. The best of our idioms, like those of words, come from factories, kitchens and farms rather than from libraries, living rooms or theaters. From ancient times till now, folk idioms are forever the main stream of idioms as they are lively and vivid expressions of people’s daily life. These idioms with simple words put together, however, contain profound meanings and reflect life experience. In the civilization process of human beings, different geographical conditions, customs, ways of living or even some historical events have had great influence upon the evolution of language and have explicit signs on it. For example, China is a traditional agricultural country. A great number of idioms and idiomatic expressions relating to agriculture and farm work have been widely accepted by its people.

For examples (English versions):

- when water flows, a channel is formed
- put aside the armor and pick up the hoe
- one crop was eaten when the next is still green

B. *Written Materials*

Many oral folk idioms, after selection and polishing, have been written down by literators, and become the written idioms passed down to this day. Those idioms from written materials again have different origins, which in general can fall into the following four categories:

i. Mythology

Chinese ancestors have created many beautiful mythologies, some of which reflect their strong will to conquer the nature, e.g. “the man who does not give up can move mountains” (English version).

ii. Fable

Fables and mythologies are quite alike, but the differences lie in that the former are mostly created by literators and endowed with didactical purpose while the latter are the collective works of common people who naturally express a certain kind of thoughts without definite didactical purpose, e.g. “Kua Fu’s race with the sun” (English translation).

iii. Historical event

Some idioms have their historical backgrounds or contain allusion in them, e.g. “be besieged on all sides” (English translation); “when the map was unrolled, the dagger was revealed” (English translation)—the real intention is revealed in the end.

iv. Creation of literators

Literary language initially came from the folk language, some of which have undergone the polishing of literati and spreading of literary works and have finally entered daily languages and become idioms, e.g. “a friendship formed in childhood” (English translation)—said of boys and girls.

C. *Foreign Idioms Borrowed into Chinese*

Since the Opium War (1840-1842), quite a number of new words have been introduced into the Chinese language from western countries. Foreign idioms, to be specific, also originated from the sources as mentioned above, i.e. mythologies, fables, historical events and creations of literators. However, the foreign idioms only take up to no more than 1% of the total number of Chinese idioms (Shi, 1979). Mr. Shi explains in his *A Study on Chinese Four-Character Collocations* that since the Chinese language is always rich in idioms, we can’t help thinking of a Chinese idiom which is equivalent in meaning to a foreign idiom in the process of translation and our native idiom is habitually adopted to save the trouble of translation, resulting in the relatively small number of the foreign idioms assimilated and accepted in the Chinese language. Therefore, we tend to use the existing Chinese idioms to translate some foreign idioms. For examples, *to help a lame dog over a stile* (English translation), *like a rat in a hole* (English translation), *to cast pearls before swine* (English translation), *a black sheep* (English translation), *to paint the lily* (English translation), etc.

III. FEATURES OF CHINESE FOUR-CHARACTER COLLOCATIONS

As special language forms, idioms are derived from those words or phrases that have been used as a whole by the people for a long period of time. They can be explained with words of the contemporary language and they are frequently used in the daily life. However, their constructions and vocabulary may not be the same as that of the contemporary language. As fixed word structures with special and integral meanings established despite of long-term usage and common practice, idioms inevitably have their distinctive features.

A. *National Character*

Idioms are created by the folk in labor and they have a close relationship with human beings and their environments. To be specific, idioms are closely related to the geographic and historical backgrounds, business activities, customs, religious beliefs and cultural psychology of its nation. Therefore, a large number of Chinese idioms contain the flavor of national culture; hence they can be called nation-specific or culture-specific idioms.

For example, the ancient Chinese people regarded the heart as the center of the soul, thinking and feelings of human beings and thus they created a great number of idioms related to “heart”, such as, absent-minded, have a deep longing for, be perfectly content, disease in one’s vital organ—danger from within, one’s heart is like dead ashes—hopelessly apathetic.

Another prominent feature is the allusive idioms. We can find many allusions contained in some idioms, from mythologies, fables, historical events, etc., such as “Dongshi, an ugly woman, knitting her brows in imitation of the famous beauty Xishi, only to make herself uglier” (English translation) —crude imitation with ludicrous effect, “proffer a birch and ask for a flogging” (English translation)—offer a humble apology, “learn the Handan walk” (English translation)—in trying to acquire a new trick, lose the ability one already has, “whirl the hatchet with a noise like the wind” (English translation)—an uncanny feat.

Allusive idioms are mostly rich in cultural deposits or national flavor, which may puzzle foreigners in the intercultural communication if they are not familiar with the stories behind these Chinese idioms.

For example, without understanding the story about Qin Hui and his wife, Wang Shi’s conspiracy under the eastern window to murder Yue Fei, it would be hard to understand that “the cat is out of the bag” (English translation) means “to be exposed”.

B. *Semantic Integrity*

A Chinese idiom functions as a single semantic unit. In other words, it is used as a substantive part of the language. Although composed of several characters, the meaning of a Chinese idiom is not the sum added by the meanings of each individual character. The idiom must be used as an integral unit in the conversation or writing. Generally speaking, almost every Chinese idiom has two meanings, say, denotative meaning, and connotative meaning. The soul of Chinese idioms lies in their connotation, without which they will be disqualified as idioms. The meaning of a Chinese idiom is more than the sum of the meanings of its individual elements.

For example, the literal meaning of “wind, flower, snow and moon” in Chinese is actually “referring originally to certain types of literary works and later to effete and sentimental writings in general” in English; the literal meaning of “having a bamboo in one’s chest” in Chinese refers to “having a well-through-out plan” in English.

C. *Structural Features*

About 97% of Chinese idioms are constructed with four characters (Feng, 2002), so they are often called four-character idioms. Unlike any other language form, four-character idiom is the unique feature of the Chinese language. China seems to be a nation whose people traditionally favor even numbers to odd numbers and lay great emphasis on symmetry, parallelism and antithesis, which is an important cultural mentality unparalleled elsewhere. An idiom of four characters can be quite elegant, while a three-character idiom is a bit vulgar. Therefore, Chinese four-character idioms are fossilized patterns of language, which allow little variation in form. They generally resist random replacement. In the Chinese language, phrases, according to their different grammatical structures, are classified into doublets, SV (subject + verb) phrase, VO (verb + object) phrase, MrMd (modifier-modified) phrase, etc. Since idioms are fixed phrases, they can also be classified into doublets, SV structure, VO structure, MrMd structure, etc.

D. *Rhetorical Features*

Rhetoric is, perhaps, the most distinctive feature of Chinese four-character idioms. Abundant with various rhetorical devices, such as metaphor, parallelism and rhyme, many four-character idioms are easy to memorize and have been handed down from ancient times and into present existence of today. As a special form of language, Chinese four-character idioms have the aesthetic function which conveys the aesthetic information by means of its various rhetorical devices.

a. *Simile*

the courtyard is as crowded as a marketplace (English translation)

as firm as a rock (English translation)

b. *Metaphor*

an incessant stream of horses and carriages (English translation)—heavy traffic

every bush and tree looking like an enemy soldier (English translation)——a state of extreme suspicion and fear

c. Metonymy

dark willows and blooming flowers (English translation)——a beautiful scene

jackals and wolves hold sway/the cruel and wicked are in power (English translation)

d. Hyperbole

with three heads and six arms (English translation)——superhuman powers

each word worth a thousand pieces of gold (English translation)——a highly finished literary product

e. Euphony

Chinese four-character idioms are usually masterpieces of the art of euphony in that many of them not only have the symmetrical semantic structure but also adopt rhyme or alliteration, which makes them a feast for both the eyes and ears.

About 40.8% of all the Chinese four-character idioms are semantically symmetrical or partially symmetrical, which shows that parallelism is a distinctive rhetorical device favored in Chinese idioms.

IV. CHINESE CONTINUOUS FOUR-CHARACTER COLLOCATIONS (CCFCC) AND THEIR TRANSLATIONS

The Chinese four-character collocations can express a kind of meaning concisely with highly symmetrical structure. The language is simple with profound meaning. Though they are concise, they contain meaningful expressions. With them, we can explain the profound truth. They are expressive with live images. If we use them appropriately, they can enhance the language expressiveness.

Like those four-character collocations, the continuous four-character collocations are also vivid, concise and aesthetic. What's more, they have rich meanings, gorgeous literal talent, consistency and strong rhetorical effect. These CCFCCs are embedded in different sentences and make the sentences wonderful. They make our discourse more concise, lively, humorous and thought-provoking.

A. Differences in Terms of Translating CCFCC

Chinese traditional culture is known as equilibrium and well-balanced proportion. In addition, this traditional aesthetic standard also exerts an imperceptible influence on Chinese language and embodies the idea in the language form of Chinese four-character structure. The Chinese four-character structure contains stable syllables and unified wordage, with the strong characteristics of neat structure and harmonious sounds. The four-character structures can be seen in almost all literal forms. They can be used as single sentences as well. They are so esthetic that they mix the syllable and form features of Chinese characters ingeniously. When we are reading them, we feel they are harmonious and beautiful, concise and comprehensive. Nevertheless, the Chinese continuous four-character structure has extremely strong effect in comprehensive meanings, magnificent literal talent and coherent tone.

Although the literal meaning of the Chinese continuous four-character structure is not distinctively enough in this way, it stresses imposing manner and frame of mind, often having ideological and practical meaning. While on the other hand, English is a rather rational language. It pays attention to clearness and avoids the disorder of logic and padding of words. Consequently, it is unavoidable that the careful and neat parallelism structure in Chinese turns out to be uneven in English. Therefore, we cannot insist on keeping the form identical with the source language. Otherwise the target language will become slack with words that just string together, which is not appropriate in the standard of English expression. For this reason, when we translate the collocations of Chinese four-character structure into English, we can transfer them into appropriate structure in English, according to their semantic and logic elements.

There are so many papers talking about the techniques to translate four-character collocations, such as in the field of literal translation, free translation or using equivalents to translate, and so on, the present paper here will mainly concentrate on the translation of CCFCC.

1. Coordinate relations

The continuous four-character structure of parallel relation usually can be transferred into the following structures:

a. adjective + noun

The valley of the Grand Bend is full of multi-peaked mountains, joined canyons and turbulent waters. (English translation)

b. noun/adjective + in + noun

These silk blouses are made of pure silk of best quality. They are moderate in price, excellent in craftsmanship and unique in designs. (English translation)

c. Prepositional phrases

The Yangzi River is very much awe-inspiring with deep riverbeds, rushing currents and steep banks. (English translation)

d. Noun phrases

We should vigorously foster the fine esprit, including dedication to work, and offering convenience and fine services to the masses. (English translation)

e. Verb phrases

We should emancipate our minds, seek truth from facts and work hard creatively. (English translation)

2. Subject and subordinate relation

There are many CCFCCs that describe around one central idea. Therefore, when translating them into English, we can transfer them into adverbial or adjunct structure, for example:

The factory can produce various new types of buttons in thousands of different designs for coats, suits, fashions, shirts and sweaters. (English translation)

In addition, some CCFCCs can be treated as single sentences. When translating them, we can transfer the main part into the subject and the subordinate into the other parts of the sentence, or even change the whole structure of the sentence, for example:

So many men and women with high ideals, worried and frustrated, wish to do something about it, only to find that, able as they were, they had no chance to carry out their ideals. (English translation)

3. Casual relations

Some CCFCCs contained recessive casual relations; therefore, we put the part which indicates the reasons ahead when transferring them. Then, we use verbs like “form” and “achieve” to connect with the rest parts of the sentence, for example:

There are many hidden shoals in the river, presenting a challenge to navigators. And the surges on the swift current and roars of the terrifying waves achieve great momentum. (English translation)

B. Strategies in Translating CCFCC

1. Literal and free translation

People often talk about literal translation and free translation, discussing which way of translation is better to use to translate a sentence. The target language must express what source language means, distortion is not allowed. Literal translation and free translation are two main forms of translation. They are not repulsive, contrarily, they are complementary. Literal translation retains original skill. When literal translation is not okay, people would use free translation instead. Free translation expresses general idea of the original, and can be accepted by readers. A good translation composition contains both literal translation and free translation.

Literal translation and free translation are two basic skills of translation. Literal translation refers to translating a sentence originally, keeping the original message form, including construction of sentence, meaning of the original words, and metaphor of the original and so on. Translation would be fluent and easy to be comprehended by target language readers.

For examples (English translations): Peaches and plums do not have to talk, yet the world beats a path to them; Mountains can be removed and Oceans can be land filled, but one's nature can hardly be changed; and Past experience, if not forgotten, is a guide for future.

Free translation needs not pay attention to the form of the original, including construction of the original sentences, meaning of the original works, and metaphor of the original and so on. But free translation does not mean to delete or add content to the original and translators must treat the original carefully, know its connotation, translate it naturally, and express the meaning of the original. Free translation is a skill and translators must know the cultures of both source language and target language, and must have extensive knowledge.

For example: “No great loss without some small pain.” or “A loss might turn out a gain.” (English translation)

Literal translation and free translation play an important role in translation, though in specific circumstances, using equivalents to translate is also essential. Since in this way, the source language will be more like the native rather than the translated. Therefore, we cannot ignore its role. In the translating process, using equivalents to translate refers to the expression of adopting certain words, phrases or idioms of the source language into the target language. This way of translating is the most important and the commonly used method in translation. The following are the more examples (translated into English): as light as a feather, as steady as the mountain; it never rains but it pours; man proposes, God disposes.

We can use concrete and specific words or phrases to translate the abstract ones in the source language, in order to eliminate or reduce the linguistic differences in the translation process.

For example: 看菜吃饭, 量体裁衣, if we just translate it in the literal way, it will turn to be “*to eat your rice according to the dishes served, measure the man before cutting the cloth*”, which certainly is wordy. Instead, we should translate it into “*to fit the appetite to the dishes and the dress to the figure*”.

2. Words' structure

In terms of collocations, CCFCCs have various configurations. Analyzing the structure of CCFCC is an important means of thorough understanding of the connotation of CCFCCs. In accordance with the grammatical structure, CCFCCs can fall into the following types.

a. Subject-predicate structure

The Chinese subject-predicate structure is quite different from that of English. In the Chinese subject-predicate structure, the number of the subject does not change and there is no change in the tense or the number in the predicate. However, the English subject-predicate structure is the other way round. In general, when we translate the Chinese subject-predicate structure into English, we should also put it in a subject-predicate structure, but there are many exceptions, depending on the circumstances to require different treatments, such as subject-predicate structure. When

we do the translation, we need to make some changes in order to highlight the four-character structures.

In many cases, the Chinese subject-predicate structure has the equivalent in English, such as 设备完善, 技术一流 and 色调雅致, 图案新颖. The first one can be translated as “The facilities are perfect and the techniques are top-class”. The latter can be translated as “The colors are elegant and the designs are novel.”

The subject-predicate structure can become the predicate of the sentence in Chinese, while it is not appropriate in English. Therefore, it needs to be changed to “be + adjective + prepositional phrase”, for example:

This carpet is elegant in color and novel in design. (English translation)

In order to highlight the magnificence of the subject-predicate structures, sometimes we just translate them into prepositional phrases directly, placing them in the first part of the sentences, for example:

With fine workmanship and novel design, the products manufactured in this factory reached the advanced level of the domestically-made bits of the kind. (English translation)

b. Verb-object structure

There can be various translations of Chinese verb-object structure according to its different position in the sentence. If the nouns and verbs in this structure are the predicate and object respectively in the source language, we can still translate them into verb-object structure in the target language. If this verb-object structure is the subject or object in the sentence, we often translate it into a noun phrase.

The Chinese verb-object structure can still remain in English, for example:

We should create more opportunities, provide better training, assist the laid-off employees in revising their job-seeking and encourage them to find new jobs on their own. (English translation)

If the verb-object structure is the subject or object in the sentence, it needs to be translated into a noun phrase. For example:

At the current stage, revitalization of the economy is our major task. (English translation)

c. Structure of modification

There are many modification structures in Chinese. The key words of the structure of modification are nouns or gerunds, which are usually the last part of the phrase. The words or phrases in front of the key words play the role of description, modification and limitation. For Chinese, we mainly focus on the collocation between the attribute, adverbial modifier, complement and the key word, whether it has appropriately expressed the relation between “modify and modified”, “limit and limited”, “restrict and restricted”, “complement and complemented” and whether it can make the concept more clearly. While analyzing English structure, the main focus is on whether the preposition is used correctly and whether it is identical in the number, gender and case between modifiers and key words.

Generally speaking, the Chinese structure of modification can be translated into English with the following methods:

We adopt the structure of “adjective + noun” when translating the phrases of “modify and modified”, for examples:

religious undertaking (English translation)

self-sufficient economy (English translation)

For the relation like “limit and limited”, we often translate the second verb phrase into an adverbial purpose, for examples:

to draw cakes to relieve one’s hunger (English translation)

to cut the feet to fit the shoes (English translation)

For the relation of “complement and complemented”, the words or phrases that complement the key words should be translated into a prepositional phrase, for example:

to shift the blame onto others (English translation)

d. Coordinate structure

The translation of coordinate structure has the following situations:

In Chinese, we often use two familiar phrases together, such as 自私自利, 骄奢淫逸, in translating it into English, we may just translate one of these two, then the English version of the above phrase will be “self-centered and luxury loving”.

There are also some four-character collocations that only can express their meaning when the meaning of the four characters is translated as a whole. In this situation, we cannot only translate one or two words of the phrase; otherwise, we cannot understand what it means. For examples:

coincidentally (English translation)

travel extensively (English translation)

heretical sect (English translation)

3. Style

a. Literary works

The earliest CCFCCs probably emerged in the literal works and most CCFCCs that we are familiar with are from literature. The “four-character poetry” had ruled the entire world of poems as early as in the Zhou Dynasty. These poems have dominated the world for more than 1000 years. They contributed a lot to Chinese for making rich vocabularies. Most of them are so common that we almost hardly notice these four-character collocations were originally poems. In “The Book of Songs”, almost all forms of four-character collocation had appeared. Besides, the novels in the Ming and Qing Dynasties possessed the largest number of four-character collocations, such as in *The*

Journey to the West and *A Dream of Red Mansions*. CCFCCs, which belong to the literal work, usually have rich connotations. If we just translate them literally, the readers might not understand them. In this case, free translation with annotations will probably be better.

b. Practical writing of advertisements

Like other practical writings, the practical advertisement also demands a simple beauty of conciseness, a focus, and clear structure. Nevertheless, it has its own characteristics. It has the artistry, besides the succinctness. Advertisements can make people feel joyful and eager to buy the item for its artistic impression.

For example:

The business scope of Beijing Gongmei Group: metal arts and crafts, scientific and educational instruments, real estate, commerce and trade, environmental art, tourism services, advertisement and publication, culture and education. (English translation)

c. Practical writing of tourism

The practical writing of tourism includes various types, such as the advertisements of tourism, schedule, relative contract, introduction of tourist attractions and notices and so on. Take *Introduction of Tourist Attractions* as an instance.

The Introduction of Tourist Attractions can be in the form of both prose and explanation. Although they have their own characteristics, their main purpose is all the same, that is, to enhance attractiveness that can bring joyfulness to the readers and make them eager to see the spots as soon as possible. For example:

Since the 18th century, after more than 200 years of excavation, it has been proved that Pompeii was a city of about twenty thousand people, most of whom were Roman nobles. Therefore, the houses were beautifully constructed, with all necessary facilities and in good order. (English translation)

C. Difficulties in Translating CCFCC

More than any other feature of language, the continuous four-character collocations demand that the translation be not only accurate but highly sensitive to the rhetorical nuances of the language. Therefore, the translation of CCFCC is an exacting act.

Once CCFCC has been understood and interpreted correctly, the next step is to decide how to translate it into the target language. The difficulties involved in translating CCFCC are totally different from those involved in interpreting them. Here the question is not whether the given CCFCC is transparent, opaque or misleading. An opaque expression may be easier to translate than a transparent one. The main difficulties involved in translation CCFCC may be summarized as follows:

a. CCFCC may have no equivalent in the target language.

The way a language chooses to express, or not express various meanings cannot be predicted and only occasionally matches the way another language chooses to express the same meanings. One language may express a given meaning by means of a single word, another may express it by means of a transparent fixed expression, and a third may express it by means of a four-character collocation, and so on. It is therefore unrealistic to expect to find equivalent words or phrases in the target language. It is not the specific items the expression contains but rather the meaning it conveys and its association with culture-specific contexts which can make it untranslatable or difficult to translate.

b. CCFCC may have the similar counterpart in the target language, but its context of use may be different.

For example:

The Chinese “一箭双雕” and English “kill two birds with one stone” have the similar meaning and image, however, English idiom “kill two birds with one stone” is always translated in 一举两得 in practice. Chinese idiom 一箭双雕 lays more emphasis on the aim. It contains some special feeling. It can express somewhat the style of ancient Chinese as well. Its usage is not as wide as 一举两得. In addition, 一石两鸟 (the literal translation of “kill two birds with one stone”) is already considered as an foreign idiom borrowed into Chinese idioms, and it is seldom used by the Chinese people.

“Kill two birds with one stone” can express the meaning of doing one thing, getting two good results, but the Chinese readers cannot get the connotation of “一箭双雕”, for it focuses on the purpose of the person. In short, although source language and target language may have similar idioms, sometimes they cannot have equal function.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The Chinese four-character collocations are always regarded as the essence of language, and their familiarization and grasp of is widely regarded as the basic standard by which the language capacity is tested. However, due to their great quantity and tremendous hardness of how to use the expressions properly, the acquisition has always been a big problem confronting the language learners. Translation is very probably the most complex type of event yet produced in the evolution of the cosmos (Richards, 1953). It is also true of CCFCC translation. The challenging aspects of Chinese continuous four-character collocation translation lie in the distinct features of their constitution, namely, symmetrical form and rhetorical aesthetic function with culture-loaded elements such as allusion and metaphor.

The Chinese continuous four-character collocations are usually divided into the phrases category, nevertheless, this paper believes since they best manifest the expressiveness of the language, they contain the similar syntax as sentence or discourse do. Therefore, they can be analyzed in the same way, though there exist certain difficulties.

Translating something does not just mean to translate the language. Instead, it means to translate the culture into another language. This paper is a tentative study of the features and translation method of CCFCC. The research should not be limited in the technique aspect, but should develop onto the levels of words' structure, collocation, grammar and style.

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SLA: Concept of Context in Community

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Abstract—Hymes (1972), forty years ago, maintained that knowing what goes on outside the school setting is necessary to understanding what goes on inside. He noted further that “the key to understanding language in context is to start not with language but with context. As Wendt (2003) concludes context must be regarded as causes for construction of meaningful realities and for checking their viability. Policymakers, practitioners and researchers have long understood that well-established context drives learners towards success, whether this success is defined as opening a simple talk with a neighbor or learning a language. Programs and policies, however, have focused almost exclusively on improving teaching and learning quality through investments in human capital rather than in exercising context as an appropriate success causer. The present study is an attempt to persuade policy makers to reconsider their ideology.

Index Terms—context, socialization, social learning theory

I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, the importance of learning context has stirred debate within SLA circles. The field of second language acquisition has long been dominated by cognitive-oriented theories. Some scholars contended that it is important to provide an understanding of the acquisition process in psycholinguistic terms relatively independent of external factors. But there was a gradual shift toward a concern with the social aspects of learning, as well. Researchers such as Firth and Wagner (1997) contend that it is the language use that forms cognition and the interaction of social activity and psycholinguistic elements as the best predictive model of SLA. One of the strongest and most immediate reactions to Firth and Wagner (1997) came from Long (1997). He argues social context has no impact on the learner’s cognitive processes, and therefore, that issues of social context fall outside the scope of SLA theory. Conversely, Firth and Wagner (1997) criticized the field of SLA for its exaggerating cognitive orientation towards language development. They invoke Vygotsky in asserting that cognitive structures are influenced and, indeed, developed through engagement in social activity. They maintain that language acquisition “is built on language use” (p. 806) and that it is a process that takes place “in the micro moments of social interaction” (Firth & Wagner, 2007, p. 807). Without negating the importance of cognitive dimensions, the importance of social context in second language acquisition is reviewed.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Cognition is Built on Language Use

Language is the product of interaction; essentially, we are inheritably destined to interact with others to gratify our needs. As Firth and Wagner (1997) noted “language is acquired and learned through social interaction and should be studied in interactive encounters” (p. 287). To better appreciate the concept of the socio-cultural nature of language development in a social context, it is worth a moment to briefly review Vygotsky’s (1979) sociocultural theory, Bakhtin’s (1981) dialogical perspectives, and critical theory. They undeniably have tremendous effects on the flourishing of social-oriented perspectives of language development. Two basic tenets of Vygotskian sociocultural theory are activity theory which reflects the fundamental idea that motives for learning in a particular setting are intertwined with socially and institutionally defined beliefs; and mediation which proposes that human mental activity is mediated by tools and signs, the foremost tool being language (Sullivan, 2000, p. 115). To Vygotsky (1979) (as cited in Zungler & Miller, 2006), language development results from transforming innate capacities rather than by unfolding them. And the transformation of innate capacities happens once they intertwine with sociocultural constructed means, which are either physical or symbolic. When these means become available for individuals to begin interaction in socially meaningful activities they gain control over their mental activity.

Bakhtin’s dialogical perspective emphasizes the sociality of intellectual processes. To Bakhtin, language lies on the border between oneself and the other. What Bakhtin calls as dialogism connotes mutual participation of speakers and hearers in the construction of utterances and the connectedness of all utterances to past and future expressions. Bakhtin

viewed our use of language as an appropriation of words that at one time existed in other people's mouths before we make them our own. As Hall (2002) claims, in such a view, an utterance can be understood fully by considering its history of use by other people, in other places for other reasons (cited in Zungler & Miller, 2006).

And the utterance that we produce, from a critical theory perspective, reveals our stance towards the interlocutors, signaling our social positioning within the local interaction and in response to larger sociopolitical forces. In this case, the role of social power can be understood in the social world. What these perspective are unanimous is that language development is the product of social activity.

B. The Purpose of Social Context

As it is put by Mitchell and Myles (2004) "the relationship between the individual learner and the social context of learning is viewed as dynamic, reflexive and constantly changing" (p.27). In fact, the social context determines the actual nature of possibilities for social intercourse and other communicative transactions. Fostering positive attitude within instructional setting depends greatly, as Spolsky (1988) states, on the duration and quality of teaching and on the social context of instruction. In contrast with individual differences' tradition that saw that relationship as being governed by a bundle of learner traits or characteristics (such as aptitude, anxiety, etc.), which were relatively fixed and slow to change, more socially oriented researchers view motivation, learner anxiety, etc., as being constantly reconstructed through ongoing second-language experience and second language interaction.

According to Spolsky (1988), social context can be expressed in terms of either macro policies (such as the determinations of the official language of a country) or *micro* policies (such as a family's decisions about what language(s) to speak at home). The former is concerned with the relationship between the learner and the society. An immigrant who moves to a new country and is immediately immersed in an unfamiliar culture, which may be radically different from his own, may experience various relationships with the host culture, ranging from complete rejection of the host culture to complete acceptance and internalization of host culture norms. This process of adapting to the host culture over time is frequently called acculturation. Micro policies, in contrast, were concerned with individual's personal social network, issues such as a family's decisions about what language(s) to speak at home. Such networks are classified as either exchange networks where communicative transactions result in an exchange of goods and services and there is an mutual obligation between the individuals, or as interactive networks, where communication is more likely to be unidirectional and there is no implied obligation between individuals, such as speaking with a pharmacist when picking up a prescription or listening to a sermon at church.

A simple glance at what was mentioned, it can be concluded that both local micro structures and political, social and universal macro structures are the inevitable stones of a social context. In Critical Discourse Analysis, as Van Dijk (2006) views, the macro structures are defined in terms of groups and their relationships such as dominance and inequality. In effect, macro context refers to historical, cultural, political and social structures in which a communicative event occurs, whereas micro context shows the features of the immediate situation and interaction in which a communicative event occurs. Van Dijk (2006) defines micro context based on the concept of cognition and considers it as a form of mental model of a communicative situation and calls it a context model. Context models are mental representations that control many of the features of text production and comprehension such as genre, choice of topic, and cohesion on one hand, and speech act, style, and imagery on the other. These models exist in people's long term memory; the part of memory in which people save their knowledge and view about the events they experience. In fact, there is no direct relationship between society and discourse and these models explain how discourse indicates the social and personal features in itself, and how in a certain social situation discourse could be different. In other words, devoid of these mental models, it cannot be explained and described that how social structures affect discourse and get affected in turn.

Siegel (2003) classifies the ways of analyzing social context in SLA along three parameters: Macro vs. micro, structural vs. interactional, and objective vs. subjective. Macro-analysis focuses on the society as a whole and the characteristics of the various social groups that compromise it. The micro-level analysis pays attention to the behavior of individuals in particular situations which results from broader social factors.

In the structural point of view, power, prestige, and other specific aspects of social context are considered as determined by the structure of the society and by the historical forces that shaped this structure. For example, a person's social identity is the result of the particular social group to which she or he belongs and the position of this group in society. SLA may be affected directly or indirectly by these sociostructural or sociohistorical factors. In contrast, the interactional point of view sees social context not as given, but as created in each specific situation by the interplay of several social factors. According to this view, a person has multiple social identities, and the one that emerges in a particular situation is determined not only by the person's group membership but by the social interaction. Social identities and relationships may be continuously changing and renegotiated as the interaction proceeds. The particular kind of language used both reflects and creates one's social position and identity in the interaction. It affects the interaction and, at the same time, the way the interaction proceeds affects the language that is used. According to Firth and Wagner (1997) there is a "reflexive" relationship between second language learning and use and the social context. SLA is affected by the context and the context may also be affected by it.

Finally, the objective perspective concentrates on the observable aspects of the social context, while the subjective perspective concentrates on individuals' perceptions of these aspects. For example, a person's social identity may be

determined objectively by membership in a particular social group or by the characteristics of a particular social interaction, but subjectively by attitudes toward this and other groups or by perceptions of the social interaction. According to Siegel (2003, p. 184) while the objective perspective looks at the institutional associations of particular languages, the subjective perspective looks at symbolic associations.

Bluestone (2009, p. 149) adds another category to the relationships at macro- and micro- level, and that is relationships at the internal level which is concerned with the learner's sense of self-identity. It is concerned with the relationship of the learner with himself — i.e., how the learner perceives himself changing in relation to others in his social sphere.

C. Languages Are Learned in Social Context

Spolsky (1989) views language as primarily a social mechanism since languages are learned in social context. He further indicates while language learning is individual, it takes place in society, and though social factors may not have a direct influence, they have strong and traceable indirect effects. Similarly, Van Lier (1996) argues that language use and language learning are part of the world in which learners live and therefore any activities undertaken in the classroom must be understood in context.

Accordingly, Spolsky (1989, p. 26) argues that the social context influences second language learning in two indirect but important ways. Firstly, it plays a vital role in the development of the learner's attitude towards the target language, its speakers, and the language learning situation, which includes the learner's expectations and perceptions of the learning and its probable outcomes. These expectations and perceptions lead to the development of the learner's attitudes and motivation. In this respect, Wilkins (1974, pp. 47-48) indicates that in communities where the target language is observed with "indifference or even hostility", social and cultural attitudes have a considerable influence on individual learners' attitudes and motivation. Generally historical and political reasons are the cause for the given language to be regarded favorably with great hostility. Secondly, the context establishes the social condition of the language learning situation (formal and informal) and the various opportunities for language learning. Formal situations are the provision of different educational institutions in society for language learning, whereas informal situations reflect the potential opportunities in society for exposure to the target language. Studies suggest that there is high correlation between the kind of exposure to the target language and the proficiency attained.

Ellis (1994) claims, "The social context can influence the extent to which transfer occurs" (p. 317). Negative transfer, as Odlin (1989, cited in Ellis, 1994), has suggested is less likely in focused contexts, where there is concern to maintain the standardness of language, than in unfocused contexts. It is worth a moment to make a distinction between focused and unfocused contexts. The former has a very clear idea of what constitutes a language, while the latter does not. Odlin (1989) suggested that negative transfer is less common in classroom settings than in natural settings because in the former learners constitute a focused community and as a consequence treat L1 forms as intrusive and even stigmatized (cited in Ellis, 1990, p. 317).

D. Socialization and Social Context

Socialization is the process by which individuals are assisted to become members of their social groups (Kesbir, Uttal & Gardner, 2010). Maccoby (2007) defines socialization as processes whereby naïve individuals are taught the skills, behavior patterns, values, and motivations needed for competent functioning in the culture in which the child is growing up (p. 13). Socialization process can be interpreted from socio-cognitive and cross-cultural perspectives (Kesbir et al., 2010). The former deal with the immediate environmental functions as a socialization agent by activating and inhibiting knowledge structures and thereby shaping cognition and behavior, while in the latter, cross-cultural perspective, because the immediate environment factors into cognition and behaviour, socialization efforts should involve the modification of the environment for optimal effects.

Providing descriptions and explanations for linguistic development, the acquisition of syntax, for instance, is a primary much cognitivist second language acquisition research. There is naturally an attendant concern with cognition, particularly in terms of the internalization, storage, retrieval, and use of linguistic knowledge. Language socialization research, in contrast, seeks to explain learning in much broader terms, examining not only linguistic development, but also the other forms of knowledge such as culture, social knowledge, ideologies, and epistemologies, etc. (Duff & Talmy, 2011).

Similarly, in language socialization, context including macro levels and micro levels refers to the whole set of relationships in which a phenomenon is situated (Watson-Gegeo, 1992, cited in Watson-Gegeo & Nielsen, 2003 p. 165). Research in social cognition has shown that minimal elements of the social environment may have consequences for social interactions. The presence of some people, their ethnicity, gender, clothing, or accent may activate related knowledge, in the absence of any exchange between these social actors (Kesbir et al., 2010).

Drawing on the work of Strikant and Roberts (2004) elucidates that socialization in the social context can be investigated in terms of "indexicality and alignment" (p. 1999). The former, indexicality, that is at the heart of socialization (Ochs, 1996) refers to the function of language to point to some object or association in the immediate situation. Lexicality, as defined by Strikant & Roberts, (2004) refers to aspects of social identity the activity speakers are engaged in and their particular stance or perspective as well as more obvious pointers to time and space in the interaction. For example, in English 'now' not only refers to a time dimension but also may indicate affect used as an

intensifier in utterances such as ‘Now look what you’ve done!’ The ability to interpret the lexicality of speech is therefore central to the conversational involvement of speakers and to their evaluation as competent performers in social life. It helps us understand how the process of language socialization is both a matter of interpreting and responding in the local production of talk and a matter of learning how to be and act in social contexts.

Stokes and Hewitt (1976) use the term "alignment" to encompass two meanings: (a) how individual conduct accords with that of co-participants in the creation of social acts; and (b) how problematic situations involve discrepancies between "what is actually taking place in a given situation and what is thought to be typical. These two meanings often converge, as alignments at the local, interactional level are primarily an index of the sociocultural norms of acceptability. Alignment, therefore, has a normative, moral dimension and where misalignments occur, there is a built-in justification for querying the suitability of a person's membership in a community.

E. *Social Theory of Learning*

Albert Bandura (1969) is the major motivator behind social learning theory, although the theory is inspired by Vygotsky's Socio-cultural theory and Lave's situated learning (i.e., learning is embedded in activity, context and culture) which also emphasize the importance of social learning. Bandura's Social Learning Theory posits that people learn from one another, via observation, imitation, and modeling. According to social learning theorists, learning can occur without a change in behavior. Behaviorists say that learning has to be represented by a permanent change in behavior, in contrast social learning theorists say that because people can learn through observation alone, their learning may not necessarily be shown in their performance. Learning may or may not result in a behavior. Bandura mentions four conditions that are necessary before an individual can successfully model the behavior of someone else:

- ▶ *Attention*: the person must first pay attention to the model.
- ▶ *Retention*: the observer must be able to remember the behavior that has been observed. One way of increasing this is using the technique of rehearsal.
- ▶ *Reproduction*: the third condition is the ability to replicate the behavior that the model has just demonstrated. This means that the observer has to be able to replicate the action, which could be a problem with a learner who is not ready developmentally to replicate the action. For example, little children have difficulty doing complex physical motion.
- ▶ *Motivation*: the final necessary ingredient for modeling to occur is motivation, learners must want to demonstrate what they have learned. Remember that since these four conditions vary among individuals, different people will reproduce the same behavior differently.

Bandura believed in "reciprocal determinism", that is, the world and a person's behavior cause each other, while behaviorism essentially states that one's environment causes one's behavior. Later, Bandura soon considered personality as an interaction between three components: the environment, behavior, and one's psychological processes (one's ability to entertain images in minds and language).

III. CONCLUSION

Language development always takes place within a set of social contexts, ranging from the global linguistic order at one extreme to the classroom at the other. To many, the phrase "social context" may suggest no more than the societal setting in which events occur—home, school and so on. In recent years, however, a much more radical understanding of the importance of the social context of development has emerged as the result of a convergence of theoretical and empirical research in a variety of disciplines. According to this new understanding of social context, human beings are not only influenced by the social context in which they develop, but their very development as humans is dependent on opportunities to participate with others, notably parents, family members, peers and teachers, in the activities that constitute the culture in which they are growing up. Today the notion that human beings live their lives as solitary individuals is rejected. All of us live our lives in constant interaction with others. Understood in this way, the parts played by the significant others in our lives are undeniable.

Literature on the social context has suggested that we should capitalize on its natural interactional features for language development. But reality is far from ideality. The students for instance I work with in my country, for example, are not "free" to choose which languages they learn. Nor are they entirely free to decide their purposes in learning them. They are always subject to constraints ranging from those imposed by teachers and those imposed by policy makers, from micro constraints to macro ones. It seems the poor students are sentenced to adapt themselves to constraints.

While students are not free to ignore these constraints, they have one undeniable right: they are potentially free to criticize the existing context. However, discussion and criticism, of course, can also become empty if the people have no freedom to choose, decide and think. Consequently, this lends support to the claim that explicit attention to social contexts of learning and questioning of accepted purposes and goals will open a new horizon to a community that its context has a concept for those who live in it.

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Cognitive and Pragmatic Motivations for the Dissymmetry between Deictic Expression and Denoting Expression in Person Deixis

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Abstract—This paper aims at explaining the dissymmetry between deictic expression and denoting expression under the frame of Markedness Theory, in terms of which the opposition between marked term and unmarked term is motivated by cognitive and pragmatic factors. The paper first distinguishes deictic expression from denoting expression, and then defines the dissymmetry between deictic expression and denoting expression in the category of person deixis. Finally, the paper explores the pragmatic and cognitive motivations for the dissymmetry under the frame of Markedness Theory. Examples in this paper reveal that, in the course of people's cognition, participants take themselves as reference points to achieve referring, and the dissymmetry of the use of person deixis is determined by its accessibility in speakers' mind; from the pragmatic angle, observing pragmatic principles is another reason for the dissymmetry between deictic expression and denoting expression in person deixis.

Index Terms—dissymmetry, person deixis, accessibility, pragmatic principles

I. DEIXIS

Deixis has long been the central concern in pragmatics, referring to the fact that interpretation of certain linguistic expressions in an utterance depends on contextual information. The context concerned is the knowledge relative to the immediate or actual speech situation utterances occur in, such as the time and location of the conversation, topic, participants, non-verbal actions they are performing, and immediately observed objects or events. Specifically, deixis serves to indicate a certain relation between linguistic expressions and speech context, identifying the speaker and hearer, the location and the time of the utterance.

Lyons (1968, 1977), Fillmore (1971, 1975), Levinson (1983), He Zi-ran (1988, 1997), Zhang Quan (1994), He Zhao-xiong (2000), Jiang Wang-qi (2000), and other scholars have made a detailed study on deixis.

Lyons (1977) gives a definition to Deixis in his *Semantics* referring to “the function of personal and demonstrative pronouns, of tense and of a variety of other grammatical and lexical features which relate utterances to the spatio-temporal co-ordinates of the act of utterance.” (p.636). He discusses person, space and time deixis and proposes the phenomenon of deictic projection. But his study lacks further exploration.

Fillmore (1971) regards deixis as some lexical and grammatical units that can be understood only when they are related to social context to identify the speech participants and the spatio-temporal orientation of the speech event. He makes a study of time, space, discourse and social deixis and holds that there are deictic and non-deictic usages for deixis.

Levison has a detailed study of deixis from philosophical and descriptive aspects in his *Pragmatics* published in 1983. He also points out the phenomenon of pre-emptiveness of deixis. He holds that pre-emptive nature of deixis refers to the phenomenon that deixis is used prior to its corresponding non-deixis, but he doesn't explore this phenomenon further.

Chinese scholar Zhang Quan (1994) pays attention to the phenomenon of pre-emptiveness, makes a deep research on it, and brings up the anti-pre-emptiveness that non-deictic expression is used prior to deictic expression in some situations. However, his study is limited to the pre-emptiveness and anti-pre-emptiveness in the category of time deixis, and there is no any systemic interpretation to the phenomenon.

He Zhaoxiong (2000) gives a definition of deixis and distinguishes deictic usage and non-deictic usage. He thinks that the point of reference is a necessary item for understanding the usage of deixis. He puts forward deictic usage and non-deictic usage of deixis, but there is no further exploration to them.

Pre-emptiveness of deixis in speech act brings about the dissymmetry between deictic expression and denoting expression (non-deictic expression). With the framework of Markedness Theory, it seems possible to make a systematic explanation to the dissymmetry between deictic expression and denoting expression in the categories of deixis. From pragmatic and cognitive aspects, Markedness Theory aims to explain how the dissymmetry comes into being.

II. DISSYMMETRY IN CATEGORIES OF DEIXIS

Dissymmetry can be found in all aspects of language, such as phonetics, word-formation, syntax, pragmatics and so on. It refers to the opposition between marked term and unmarked term within certain category. In the categories of deixis, deictic expressions and denoting expressions referring to or denoting the same object are used dissymmetrically, which is called the phenomenon of dissymmetry. Specifically, when the speaker in speech acts denotes or refers to the person, object, time and place in the domain of reference, deictic expression is used more frequently than denoting expression which forms the dissymmetry. On the one hand the dissymmetry between the use of deictic expressions and denoting expressions is the psychological tendency of speakers in the process of selecting deixis, on the other hand it results from the speaker's observing pragmatic principles in speech acts.

It is necessary to distinguish denoting from referring in the categories of deixis. John Lyons (1977) separates the terms *refer* and *denote*. *Denote* is used for the relationship between a linguistic expression and the world, while *refer* is used for the action of a speaker in picking out entities in the world.

We connect language forms with the corresponding entities in the world by denoting. The abstract symbols in languages gain their practical meanings in verbal communication by denoting the entities in context. Denoting expressions are composed of the names of objects, including proper nouns (New York, Einstein), definite descriptions (the man with a book, the scientist) and common nouns. While referring sets up connection between deictic expression and the context with the speaker as reference point, which forms a domain of reference around the speaker. All the persons, objects, places, time within the domain of reference get confirmed by deictic expressions with reference to the speaker.

III. DEICTIC EXPRESSIONS AND DENOTING EXPRESSIONS IN THE CATEGORY OF PERSON DEIXIS

A. *The Features of Person Deixis*

In speech acts, the speaker occupies the reference center and set up a frame of reference (a domain of reference) around herself, within which entities are identified by deictic expressions with reference to the speaker. However, as for the entities beyond the domain of reference, denoting expressions are used to achieve denotation. On the one hand, the feature of Self-sufficiency decides the use of deictic expression is the first choice. On the other hand, the use of denoting expressions is decided by the feature of openness of person deixis.

Self-sufficiency means that speech act is a self-contained system which is composed of the speaker, the hearer and overhearers who hear the utterance but not directly addressed. In the self-contained system, the speaker is the reference center and casts herself in the role of ego and takes everything from her viewpoint. In this case, person deictic expression is used for referring to the referent, but in a particular context, non-deictic expression functioning as denoting is used.

Openness refers to the fact that the uncertainty of the referents or entities within a closed self-contained system makes non-deictic expression use possible. Based on the context dependency of person deixis, the referents constantly change with different contexts, which makes the self-contained system an open one.

B. *Deictic Expression and Denoting Expression*

Deictic expression and denoting expression are used to set up connection between language symbols and entities by referring and denoting within the categories of deixis.

1. Deictic Expression

Deictic expression is the language form which carries certain context features and has to be interpreted in the context, whose referent is decided by context. The information about person, time, place carried by deictic expression has to be inferred in connection with contextual information. For example, the sentence: "I will wait for you here half an hour later." in which "I" refers to the speaker, "here" to the place where the speaker is speaking, "half an hour later" can be inferred with the time when the utterance is happening as reference point. In this case, one can not interpret the meaning of the utterance without turning to a context. The interpretation of deictic expression in an utterance depends on physical environment which is concerned with the occasion where an event happens. Physical environment is related to short-term memory of human beings and is easily extracted. For example,

(1) Look! She is walking over to us.

With the help of physical environment, "She" sets up its relation with the referent which is also maximally accessible because it is physically present in the context of the utterance and stored in the short-memory of human beings.

2. Denoting Expression

Denoting expression includes proper nouns (New York, Einstein), definite descriptions (the man with a book, the scientist) and common nouns (desk, cup, TV). Denoting expression can be interpreted with the help of encyclopedic knowledge, which is stored in long-term memory of human beings as a kind of knowledge schema. Once people meet proper nouns or definite descriptions or common nouns, they will search the encyclopedic knowledge in their brains for the corresponding images with the same features as denoting expressions. For example,

(2) Shakespeare was perhaps the greatest writer in the world.

If the encyclopedic knowledge about Shakespeare is stored in the hearer's brain, he/she can radically identify Shakespeare as a dramatist who ever made great contribution to the world.

(3) The lady who died in a car accident when attempting to escape photographers in a high-speed chase through Paris

was beloved by millions for her humanitarian concerns.

When the definite description “The lady who died in a car accident when attempting to escape photographers in a high-speed chase through Paris” comes to the hearer, he/she will search the encyclopedic knowledge in their memory system for a lady who died from getting out of photographers’ chasing. It is easy for people who have information about the lady to identify her as the princess of Wales. Therefore, denoting expression achieves its denotation by connecting with encyclopedic knowledge environment.

IV. PRAGMATIC AND COGNITIVE APPROACHES TO THE DISSYMMETRY IN THE CATEGORY OF PERSON DEIXIS

The Markedness Theory is put forward by the Prague School in the 1930s, and regarded as a significant basic principle in analyzing language system in linguistics. Markedness Theory has a strong explanatory power to various dissymmetries in language which holds the dissymmetry of internal members in a category is the opposition of the marked and the unmarked term. The unmarked term is described as more “natural” phenomenon, which carries neutral meaning, while the marked term is described as a less “natural” phenomenon which carries some special meaning. The unmarked term spreads more broadly than the marked term, and the frequency of the use of the unmarked term is beyond that of the marked term.

As is mentioned, the interpretation of deictic expression relies on physical environment, and its referent is stored in the short-term memory of people and can be extracted very fast. However, the interpretation of denoting expression relies on encyclopedic knowledge, and the corresponding image is stored in the long-term memory of people and extracted with more time and energy. In a domain of reference, deictic expression which is used more frequently and spreads more broadly is the unmarked term; denoting expression is the marked term.

Markedness Theory attributes the dissymmetry in language to pragmatic and cognitive factors. The dissymmetry in the process of using deictic expression and denoting expression can also be explained from the perspectives of pragmatics and cognition.

A. *Accessibility and Dissymmetry*

One feature of deixis is taking the speaker as a reference center and the use of deixis is determined by the degree of its accessibility in speakers’ mind. Accessibility is a psychological concept and stands for the degree of convenience to which language users extract schema knowledge from the memory system in brains or the speed to activate knowledge in brains. Moreover, the time that different types of deixis take to activate the corresponding knowledge in brains is different.

Craik and Lockhart (1972) hold that memory system of human beings is composed of short-term memory and long-term memory. Ariel (1988) believes that the differences between the two types of memory rely on the different levels of activation in brains.

The accessibility system of deixis is a continuum organized by “the degree of accessibility”, which can be divided into three levels: high level, medium level and low level. Ariel (1990) names deixis “high accessibility marker”, “medium accessibility marker”, and “low accessibility marker” (p. 56). The simpler the structure of deixis is, the less information it carries, the higher degree of accessibility is, vice versa. Low accessibility markers are the deixis which have to be inferred from “encyclopedic environment”. As we all know, encyclopedic knowledge contains a large amount of semantic information and is activated with great effort, whose degree of accessibility is relatively low. Low accessibility markers mainly include definite descriptions, proper nouns and common nouns with general concepts. Medium accessibility markers principally include a variety of deictic expressions which can be interpreted under physical environment. High accessibility markers refer to those deixis interpreted against language environment, mainly including zero (Ariel, 1990). Ariel (1994) makes an accessibility marking scale as follows. (deixis on the left side have the highest accessibility)

Zero > unstressed pronouns > stressed pronouns > proximal demonstrative + NP > distal demonstrative + NP > first name > last name > short definite description > long definite description > full name > full name + modifier

As is mentioned, deictic expression is interpreted against physical environment, while denoting expression is interpreted against encyclopedia environment. In this case, according to accessibility marking scale of deixis, deictic expressions fall into medium accessibility markers and denoting expressions fall into low accessibility markers. For example,

(4) I went to cinema this afternoon.

James went to cinema this afternoon.

The person standing in front of you went to cinema this afternoon.

Among the three sentences with the same meaning, why do we usually use “I” for self instead of the name “James” or “the person standing in front of you”? Accessibility theory gives a satisfying explanation. When you are speaking with others, you are an entity in physical environment and have extremely high accessibility. Therefore, high accessibility marker (pronoun) is used here for referring. Definite descriptions and full names are low accessibility markers, so “the person standing in front of you” can’t be used in the situation. It is clear that the selection of deixis depends on its degree of accessibility in speakers’ mind.

B. *Pragmatic Principles and Dissymmetry*

Apart from cognitive reason for the dissymmetry, observing pragmatic principles is one of reasons for the dissymmetry, which include economic principle, cooperative principle and politeness principle.

1. Economic Principle and Dissymmetry

Leech (1983) illustrates the economic principle from the perspective of language use, referring to the fact that participants in speech acts are always intending to convey information accurately with minimum efforts. Observing economic principle in the process of selecting deixis is one of reasons for the phenomenon of dissymmetry between deictic expression and denoting expression.

With componential analysis, deictic expression and denoting expression in the category of person deixis can be analyzed as followings:

Deictic expression in person deixis: [ego] [referring] [the entities in a domain of reference] [physical distance]

Denoting expression in person deixis: [naming] [denoting] [the entities out of a domain of reference] [the corresponding relation in features between language forms and entities]

As is shown in the former componential analysis, deictic expression sets up far or near relation between the speaker itself and the entities with the speaker as a reference point. Since the referent is the participant in speech acts, to set up the relation between self and the entity only needs to identify the distance between the referent and the speaker against physical environment. The referent which is physically present in the context of the utterance is also maximally accessible and can be identified with less time and energy. The participants near to the speaker are symbolized as “you”; the participants away from the speaker are symbolized as “he (him, she, her, it), they (them)”.

In the latter componential analysis, what is different from the componential analysis for person deictic expression is that we need to establish the connection between denoting expression and the entity in real world. With conceptual meaning of denoting expression, hearers identify the entity by recognizing the features of the corresponding image in their mind, which is called semantic recognition. In fact, building up the connection between denoting expressions and target entities is to conceptualize target entities. Since the interpretation of denoting expression is achieved with the help of encyclopedic knowledge which is a type of schema in long-term memory, much time and energy needs putting in to extract the image related to denoting expression. What’s more, in view of different encyclopedic environments of hearers, identifying the wrong image in hearers’ encyclopedic environments may lead to failure of communication. Therefore, from the perspective of economic principle, we usually use person deictic expressions to refer to the participants in speech acts. For example,

(5) He is my good friend. (He= Bai Yansong)

(6) Bai Yansong is my good friend.

Within the domain of reference, we usually choose sentence (5). The speaker takes self as a reference point, building the connection between self and target entity against the physical environment of speech act, finally achieving its function of referring with less energy.

In the domain of reference, Sentence (6) is considered improper. On the one hand, interpreting the utterance requires the hearer in speech act to extract some information about Bai Yansong from his/her encyclopedic environment and conceptualize the target entity, finally set up the connection in features between the image and the target entity, which consumes much more time and energy; on the other hand, since there are millions of the name of Bai Yansong, misunderstanding might happen, the hearer may extract an image from his/her encyclopedic environment that Bai Yansong is the famous host from a television station instead of identifying the person as the participant in speech act. In this case the hearer not only wastes a lot of time and effort but also fails to interpret the speaker’s meaning. In view of economic principle, speakers tend to choose sentence (5) in which the speaker takes self as a reference point.

2. Cooperative Principle and Dissymmetry

Speech act is a cooperative activity between speakers and hearers, and cooperative principle is one of reasons for the phenomenon of dissymmetry. Cooperative principle functions as adapting what the speaker conveys to make sure the success of communication with the presupposition which both the speaker and the hearer are willing to cooperate with each other.

Within a domain of reference, deictic expression is used in order to avoid misunderstanding between the two sides in speech acts, because the hearer also assumes the speaker will take self as a reference point. Called by name, the hearer in a domain of reference may think there is a person with the same name with him/her out of the spot. So observing cooperative principle can help speakers and hearers avoid misunderstanding.

Self-referring by name seems to take self as a stander-by, which is likely to make the hearer confused. The hearer takes the referent as some person out of the domain of reference by mistake and fails to interpret what the speaker tends to express, which finally causes the failure of communication. The utterance can be interpreted correctly on the assumption that both sides in speech acts observe cooperative principle.

The hearer and the speaker in speech act communicate with each other on the assumption of observing cooperative principle. In the process of interpretation, the hearer assumes that the speaker will observe cooperative principle, try to estimate what the hearer knows and package her material accordingly, and certainly observe the maxim of quality, the maxim of quantity, the maxim of manner and the maxim of relevance. In consideration of cooperative principle, the speaker will say something easily understood by the hearer and incline to use person deictic expression within a domain of reference.

3. Politeness Principle and Dissymmetry

Politeness is one of principles observed by human beings in speech acts and one of reasons for dissymmetry as well.

In certain language, e.g. Chinese, calling the participants in a domain of reference by names is considered impolite and sounds like a command, therefore violates politeness principle in speech acts.

(8) Wang Yue, shen ti hao dian'er le ma? (Wang Yue, feel better?)

(9) Ni shen ti hao dian'er le ma? (Do you feel better?)

We are likely to choose sentence (9) in speech acts. First, all the participants in the domain of reference assume each observes politeness principle. In this case, the use of name for denoting misleads the hearer to believe that the entity is the person out of the domain of reference and search for the person in her encyclopedic knowledge. Second, calling a person by name in certain languages is considered a quite impolite behavior and widens the distance between two sides psychologically. Therefore, speakers' using deictic expression to refer to the entity within a domain of reference is a normal and unmarked.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper aims to explain the dissymmetry between deictic expression and denoting expression in person deixis under the framework of Markedness Theory, in terms of which the opposition between marked term and unmarked term is motivated by cognitive and pragmatic factors. Markedness Theory discusses the root of dissymmetry from the perspectives of pragmatics and cognition. From the aspect of cognition, the dissymmetry in the category of person deixis complies with the universal principle of human exploring the world and the selection of person deixis relies on its accessibility in the speaker's mind; from the perspective of pragmatics, dissymmetry takes shape in the process of selecting deixis on the premise of observing pragmatic principles. The current study only focuses on the dissymmetry in the category of person deixis, in fact the dissymmetry also spreads to the other categories of deixis, which needs to be explored further.

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The Effect of Multiple Intelligences-based Reading Tasks on EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension

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Abstract—The aim of the present research was to address some fundamental innovative resolutions for EFL learners' encountered impeding dilemmas in reading comprehension. The researchers proceeded to determine the most frequent multiple intelligences (MI) of the EFL learners so as to cater for well-designed tasks to obviate any existing obstacles to ideal reading. Accordingly, by means of a reliable MI profiling questionnaire, the dominant intelligences of EFL learners were highlighted. Moreover, all intended participants were homogenized on the basis of reading proficiency test adopted from First Certificate in English (FCE) whose scores served the purpose of pre-test as well. As a consequence of observed difference between the genders concerning the dominant intelligences, the participants were randomly assigned into distinct control and experimental groups. Furthermore, some evenly selected reading sections from a number of EFL materials, namely, *New Inside Out*, *New Opportunities*, and *English Online* were of primary focus of attention in all groups. As a point of departure, treatment groups were exposed to reading tasks in conformity with already identified dominant intelligences, while the control groups were inclusively conducted under already approached conventional teaching methods of reading in language schools and institutes. The results crystallized the effects of MI-based reading tasks on both EFL male and female learners' reading comprehension. Lastly, findings revealed that EFL female learners emulated their male counterparts' reading comprehension. In sum, the results of such innovative intelligences-based reading task will grant opportunities to discover, value, and enhance the talents of EFL learners in better tackling reading comprehension shortcomings.

Index Terms—multiple intelligences, EFL, tasks, reading comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

Diversity in EFL learners and supreme expectations that all students deserve to learn make the tasks of educational teachers daunting. Dealing with individual differences has been one of the biggest issues facing the educational world today. The most crucial contribution that EFL education can make to learners' development is to lead them towards a direction where their inside talents best suit them. Human potentiality as an intriguing factor of success in tandem with educational accomplishments is not to be overlooked at the expense of adherence to the prescribed authoritative rubrics. Tomlinson (2001) subscribes to the view that educationalists must provide the learners with ample opportunities to make sense of their own existing differences and potentials. In support of the preceding claim, Kirby and McDonald (2009) point out that instruction congruous with various scopes of learning motives could extensively establish a sense of belonging, motivation, competence, and enjoyment for the learners. To this end, the significant aim of the researches on individual differences was to foresee which learners would succeed in the learning. Until quite recently, a number of alternatives to traditional approaches of teaching methodology have been suggested, but none of those teaching remedies so far has shown itself in real-world practice (Armstrong, 2009).

A look at the EFL environments underscores the fact that EFL teachers and learners have faced with great many predicaments in their educational life span. To give a birth to EFL learning contexts, very many researchers have resorted to Howard Gardner's theory of intelligences known as multiple intelligences (MI). Unlike traditional approaches to intelligence that were mostly centering on the unitary concept of intelligence, Gardner (1983) disproves a great portion of those obsolete concepts of intelligence and announces that all learners are born with a full range of talents and potentials among which some are naturally robust, and some are weaker in each learner. Garnet (2005) clarifies that such differences do not necessarily make individuals smarter than one another, but rather assume their being intelligent in distinct ways. Gardner (1983) posits that human brain is designed to process several distinct forms of learning styles referred to as Logical-Mathematical, Musical-Rhythmic, Interpersonal, Intrapersonal, Verbal-

Linguistic, Bodily-Kinesthetic, and Naturalist. Later, he added the possibility of Existential-Spiritual Intelligence that was not completely defined in his list. By way of illustration, Gardner (2006) argues that “intelligences be assessed in ways that are intelligent-fair and in ways that examine the intelligence directly rather than through the lens of linguistic or logical-mathematical intelligences” (p.55).

A variety of common pitfalls are evident in EFL situations. Learners, at whatever level and from whatever language background and originality have been long deprived of accessing to materials, tasks, catalogues, brochures, booklets, pamphlets and so on in line with maximizing their knowledge of intelligences, self-efficacy, self-worth, and self-exploration in the real life of learning not only in the era of language learning but also in all subject matters. With respect to reading comprehension as one of the major themes of the current study, Armstrong (2003) prioritized MI-theory and paved the path towards efficient reading comprehension through the eight gates of intelligences. In fact, he approached reading comprehension beyond the single scope of intelligence endorsed by Howard Gardner (1983) and his advocates.

A closer look at the literature review discloses that a number of MI-tailored studies have recently been carried out in the realm of EFL and many other language related scopes. Some researchers have drawn attention to determining EFL learners' eight types of intelligences and investigating connections between the language skills and these intelligences. To clarify, in a recent study by Hajhashemi et al. (2011), they tended to investigate relationship between EFL learners' MI profiles and their language learning strategies. They worked on 229 EFL students from differing grades and identified their intelligences and language learning strategies by means of the questionnaires. The findings manifested a significant but low correlation between multiple intelligences and language learning strategies. Of all eight types of intelligences, verbal-linguistic, visual-spatial, and logical-mathematical intelligences indicated meaningful correlation with nearly all strategies.

In terms of the merits of MI-based instructions, Baş and Beyhan (2010) ran a research to compare a difference between MI-exposed students with those of traditionally-instructed ones. The fifth-grade learners in experimental group were exposed to multiple intelligences project-based learning activities, while those in control group were instructed merely on the basis of traditionally-designed learning activities. The outcome of the study justified the excellence of MI-suited activities in contrast with the traditional ones. In the same vein, another comparative study has recently been conducted by Stanciu et al. (2011) with the intention of justifying the potential efficiency of MI-based teaching and learning strategies as an improvement upon the traditional methods. The results gave rise to the superiority of MI-derived strategies to their traditional counterparts.

With regard to language skills, especially EFL reading as the major issue under investigation, Fahim et al. (2010) concerned with exploring the extent to which the reading sections of TOEFL and IELTS were in line with EFL learners' intelligences. They identified intelligence profiles of 163 (male and female) EFL learners by means of the MI profiling questionnaire. All participants were required of responding to reading sections of TOEFL in 55 minutes and those of IELTS in 60 minutes. The analysis marked the significant correlation between verbal-linguistic and logical-mathematical intelligences and TOEFL reading scores. As with IELTS, verbal-linguistic and visual-spatial intelligences were seen to have significant correlation.

Today, there exists a global consensus upon the fact that language skills are interwoven and should be manipulated in an integrated fashion. Since the present study deals with reading comprehension at the one hand, it is crucial to embark on some studies on other language skills as well. As regards listening, Rezazadeh (2009) investigated the possible relationship between multiple intelligences of EFL learners and their listening proficiency. The participants' intelligence profiles and listening scores achieved by means of the MI questionnaire and TOEFL underwent a correlational analysis. The findings reported visual-spatial and interpersonal intelligences as having the only positive relationship with listening proficiency.

Unlike the previous study, the findings of the research by Naeini and Pandian (2010) ran a counter on the prior study and indicated no significant relationship between intelligences and listening comprehension as a whole or in an isolated fashion. Finally, in regard to EFL writing, Marefat (2007) conducted a research to explore the relationship between learners' MI profiles and their writing products. The results of that study indicated that bodily-kinesthetic and interpersonal intelligences had the highest contribution to EFL learners' writing ability. By the same token, Farzizadeh (2011) contradicted the findings of prior study and found no significant relationship between EFL students' writing ability and their eight types of intelligences. A closer look at the literature review makes it evident that no study has been vigorously carried out to deeply inject the use of MI-based reading tasks into the process of reading comprehension among EFL learners. Consequently, much work still remains to be done on this subject.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

A total number of 70 participants including 40 male and 30 female Iranian intermediate EFL learners within the age range of 16-23 participated in the present study. An adopted reading proficiency test from FCE was used with the purpose of homogenizing the participants in terms of reading proficiency. Since both genders showed varying dominant intelligences, especially with respect to the logical-mathematical and the verbal-linguistic intelligences, they were assigned into separate groups (20 males and 15 females in each of the two control and two experimental groups).

B. Instrumentation

Firstly, to practically set the ground for the sake of putting into practice the already mentioned theoretical aspects of the current study, at the macro level, a highly valid and reliable MI-based profiling questionnaire prepared by Armstrong (1994) was utilized in the study in order for accentuating the most highly frequent intelligences among the participants. Secondly, a reading proficiency test adopted from FCE was used serving the purposes of both homogenizing the participants and pretest at the outset of the study. Finally, some reading sections of *New Inside Out* by Kay and Jones (2000), *New Opportunities* by Harris et al. (2006), *English online*, *Animal Collage* by Lahav et al. (2005), and *English Online*, *Music Mania* by Nurick et al. (2004) were of primary focus of attention in all intended groups.

C. Procedure

A pilot study was conducted with intermediate EFL learners (N=30) and the reliability analysis showed that the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was 0.73, indicating that the instrument could be considered as the reliable tool.

For any sort of comment to be effective, both control and experimental groups were alike in terms of setting, materials, and educational facilities except for the treatment that the experimental groups were exposed to. Following these steps, the major scenario of the study was commenced. Such a course took long for two months including 24 sessions (three 90-minute sessions every week). Prior to anything stepping forward, based on all participants' profiling questionnaires, the most highly frequent intelligences among males were identified as being interpersonal, logical-mathematical, naturalist, musical, and intelligences. Females were seen to have interpersonal, musical, naturalist, and linguistic intelligences as the dominant proclivities. Unlike females who highlighted verbal/linguistic intelligence as one of the most frequent intelligence type, males were seen not to show this profile as one of their most highly frequent proclivities.

All intended sessions in the established groups (control/experimental) were dedicated to handling with evenly-selected reading passages from those previously introduced EFL books. As regards control groups, they all received sort of placebo with respect to reading comprehension. The researchers resorted to already-existing instructional fashions in teaching reading. They mainly made use of pre-reading, reading, and post-reading strategies including warm-ups, scanning, skimming, looking for main ideas, and responding to true-false and comprehension questions inserted to the bottom of each passage.

In the experimental groups also all above mentioned materials were used in line with the most frequent intelligences among males and females. As regards interpersonal intelligence, participants were reinforced to make discussion teams while and after reading. Also, they were directed towards pair and group reading in a highly friendly situation. Another important task for them was the implication of the peer interviews on the basis of reading tasks being used. In groups, participants were stimulated to experience peer teaching in a highly cooperative fashion. The instructors recommended them to share and peer edit what they read to raise their own social awareness. What motivated the participants was the act of filming, voice recording their peer or group works while dealing with reading tasks that was later shown on the wall screen through the use of video projector.

With respect to the verbal-linguistic intelligence as one of the dominant intelligences merely in females' experimental group, the participants approached reading materials by calling on the tasks of retelling, summarizing, criticizing, reading aloud, listening, discussing, writing notes, lecturing, debating, and generalizing what they were reading.

In terms of the musical intelligence, the participants were encouraged to eagerly identify any favorite-sounding words and highlight sounds of particularly interesting words or expressions. Dealing with certain pre-selected rhythmic reading tasks, they were required of reading the text rhythmically out loud similar to poem-reciting or English-singing fashions. Sometimes, they were deeply reinforced to rhythmically chant out the given reading task as a group. Furthermore, while reading the material, the instructors recorded and played their voices several times by means of the high-tech voice recorder. In practice, while silently reading the texts, relaxing pieces of soft speechless music including Classics, Mozart, and several other peaceful tracks of music were taken into greater practice. Besides, some parts of musical-therapy collections adapted from www.Roozberooz.com were being played in background simultaneously.

Interestingly enough, to put into effect naturalist intelligence, a number of texts with the theme of nature, adapted from those already introduced EFL books, played great roles in these classes. In addition, naturalist imagery later was appreciated as the highly enjoyable task, requiring the participants to go beyond the current learning situation, to experience the scenes, and to feel, smell, touch, fancy, and dream about things happening in the text as though they had been in the real-world naturalist environment. As the highly welcomed task, a variety of natural sound effects, environmental, natural sounds such as rain-falling, wind-blowing, thunder-storming, as well as sounds of jungles, rainforests, waterfalls, volcanoes, tornadoes, hurricanes, showers, oceans and etc. adapted from www.soundeffectpack.com were being played in background. To the surprise of many, for two sessions, participants were invited to participate in outdoor classes. While conducting a class indoors, the instructors purposefully attached some task-related natural posters and pictures on the walls.

With respect to the logical-mathematical intelligence, participants were led to accentuate patterns like problem-solving and cause-effect ones. Deeply involved in the reading task itself, participants were attempting to predict and

infer about what the unfamiliar words and ambiguous sentences meant. They also got engaged in recognizing the thesis statements, topic sentences, major, minor supports, references, and their referents within the given task. While reading, they went on the process of hypothetical-testing strategies by resorting to the questions they asked while reading to resolve any existing predicaments. Identifying the kind of reading material (fiction, non-fiction, science writing, definition, description, novel, story, poem, play, letter, and etc.) was another task carried out by the participants. Moreover, participants were directed towards deciding on the logic, coherence, titles, subtitles, key events, contradictions, and redundancies in the text. The participants were also helpfully involved in computing the readability of a text by applying a simple readability formula to the text they were reading. The reason was that such a task could help EFL readers step into the world of reading materials more interestingly.

Accordingly, the study scrutinized the following main research questions:

- 1) What are the most frequent types of intelligences among intermediate EFL learners?
- 2) Do MI-based reading tasks have any effect on intermediate EFL male learners' reading comprehension?
- 3) Do MI-based reading tasks have any effect on intermediate EFL female learners' reading comprehension?
- 4) Do MI-based reading tasks have different effects on intermediate EFL male and female learners' reading comprehension?

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Research Question 1

Prior to the main findings of the current study, the initial inquiry based on the received data from MI profiling questionnaire revealed that interpersonal, logical-mathematical, naturalist, and musical intelligences were of greater dominance among EFL male learners. Female learners, on the other hand, demonstrated interpersonal, musical, naturalist, and verbal-linguistic intelligences as their most highly frequent intelligences. As a point of departure, these results disapproved the equality of both genders with respect to dominant intelligences.

B. Data Analysis for Research Question 2

In order to investigate the main research questions of this study, a mixed between-within subjects' analysis of variance was implemented to see the consequences of the presence and absence of MI-based treatment in experimental and control groups. This was manipulated to see if there were main effects for the subject groups (control vs. experimental) and for the time. Besides, it was utilized to see the main effects for their interaction. In other words, it was applied to see if the change in reading comprehension over the time was different for the two groups.

TABLE 1
READING SCORES OF MALES IN CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

| | Group | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|-----------|--------------|---------|----------------|----|
| Pre-Test | Experimental | 12.1000 | 1.20961 | 20 |
| | Control | 11.9000 | 1.25237 | 20 |
| | Total | 12.0000 | 1.21950 | 40 |
| Post-Test | Experimental | 14.5000 | 1.10024 | 20 |
| | Control | 12.6500 | 1.34849 | 20 |
| | Total | 13.5750 | 1.53402 | 40 |

According to Table 1, the male participants' mean score of pretest in experimental group is 12.10 and in control group it equals 11.90. With respect to post-test scores, the mean score of males in control group is seen to be 12.65, whereas in experimental group this value rise up to 14.50. However, such differences between mean scores within each group need to be statistically justified.

TABLE 2
MULTIVARIATE TEST (MALE GROUPS)

| Effect | | Value | F | Hypothesis df | Error df | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|-------------|---------------|-------|------------|---------------|----------|------|---------------------|
| Time | Wilks' Lambda | .258 | 109.133(a) | 1.000 | 38.000 | .000 | .742 |
| Time* Group | Wilks' Lambda | .559 | 29.944(a) | 1.000 | 38.000 | .000 | .441 |

Prior to investigating the main effects of MI-based reading tasks in control and experimental groups, there is a necessity to check the interaction effect in order to see if there is a change in reading comprehension scores of both control and experimental groups over the time. This is statistically highlighted in the second row in the Multivariate Tests, Table 2 (Time*Group). The value of Wilk's Lambada as the most commonly reported statistics in this study yields the *Sig.* level of 0.000 which is less than the alpha level of 0.05. By looking at the main effects for each of the independent variables (Time and Treatment), the value for Wilk's Lambada for time is calculated as 0.258 with a probability value of 0.000, so there is a statistically significant effect for time. This shows that there is a change in reading comprehension scores of participants from test-time 1 (pre-test) to test-time 2 (post-test) in both control and experimental groups.

Table 3 illustrates the main effect of MI-based reading tasks between males' control and experimental groups. The information reveals that there is a significant difference between the reading comprehension of participants in control and experimental groups at the end of the treatment period. Such statistical values ($F=8.15$, $Sig. =0.007$) manifest the fact that the use of MI-based reading tasks highly affect the reading comprehension of male participants in experimental group. More importantly, although the reading comprehension scores of participants increased in control and experimental groups, the information in Table 3 discloses the reality that this increase in experimental groups is statistically higher than that of control group among male participants. Thus, such a difference is due to the implementation of MI-based reading tasks among males in experimental group.

TABLE 3
TESTS OF BETWEEN SUBJECTS EFFECTS (MALES)

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|-----------|-------------------------|----|-------------|----------|------|---------------------|
| Intercept | 13081.612 | 1 | 13081.612 | 5078.940 | .000 | .993 |
| Group | 21.012 | 1 | 21.012 | 8.158 | .007 | .177 |
| Error | 97.875 | 38 | 2.576 | | | |

All the above mentioned findings are magnified in the Figure 1 for the sake of clarity. According to this figure, the homogenized male participants at the time of post-test show progress in terms of reading comprehension in both groups, but the direction of the two lines makes it clear that participants in experimental groups excel those in control groups. Consequently, the first research question can be firmly answered claiming that the MI-based reading tasks significantly affect EFL male learners' reading comprehension.

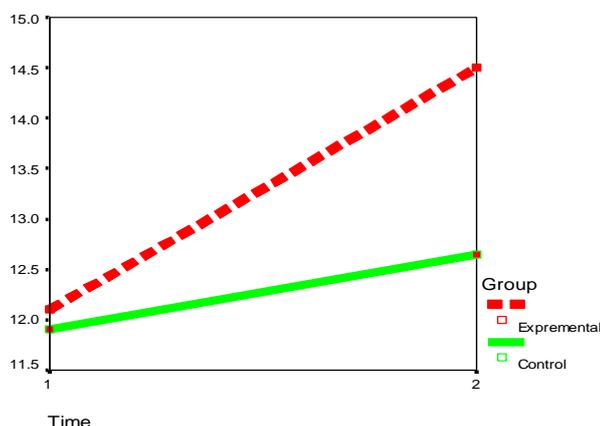


Figure 1: Comparison of Males' Reading Scores in Both Groups

C. Data Analysis for Research question 3

Do MI-based reading tasks have any effect on EFL female learners' reading comprehension?

TABLE 4
READING SCORES OF FEMALES IN CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

| | Group | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|-----------|--------------|---------|----------------|----|
| Pre-Test | Experimental | 12.8667 | 1.24595 | 15 |
| | Control | 13.1333 | 1.24595 | 15 |
| | Total | 13.0000 | 1.23176 | 30 |
| Post-Test | experimental | 16.5333 | 1.18723 | 15 |
| | control | 13.8000 | 1.26491 | 15 |
| | Total | 15.1667 | 1.83985 | 30 |

Table 4 provides information about the mean and standard deviation for the groups. As it is displayed, the mean value of the pretest in the experimental group equals 12.86 and in the control group is calculated as 13.13. On the other hand, the mean value of post-test in the experimental group is 16.53 and in the control group this value equals 13.80.

TABLE 5
MULTIVARIATE TESTS (FEMALE GROUPS)

| Effect | Value | F | Hypothesis df | Error df | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|--------------|---------------|------|---------------|----------|--------|---------------------|
| Time | Wilks' Lambda | .094 | 268.864(a) | 1.000 | 28.000 | .000 |
| Time * Group | Wilks' Lambda | .178 | 128.864(a) | 1.000 | 28.000 | .000 |

By looking at the information presented in Table 5, it becomes evident that the main effect for time from test-time 1 to test-time 2 is statistically significant with the *Sig.* value of 0.000 which is less than 0.05. That is to say, the reading

comprehension of the female participants changed across the time. Moreover, the interaction effect of time and group which is significant with the *Sig.* value of 0.000 manifests the fact that there was not the same change in female participants' reading comprehension over time for the experimental versus control groups. Moving to the statistical information displayed in Table 6, it becomes clear that the *Sig.* value for group is 0.008 which is less than 0.05, so the main effect for group is seen to be significant. This means that the use of MI-based reading tasks among female participants affected their reading comprehension. Thus, the third research question is answered.

TABLE 6
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS (FEMALES)

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|-----------|-------------------------|----|-------------|----------|------|---------------------|
| Intercept | 11900.417 | 1 | 11900.417 | 4257.389 | .000 | .993 |
| Group | 22.817 | 1 | 22.817 | 8.163 | .008 | .226 |
| Error | 78.267 | 28 | 2.795 | | | |

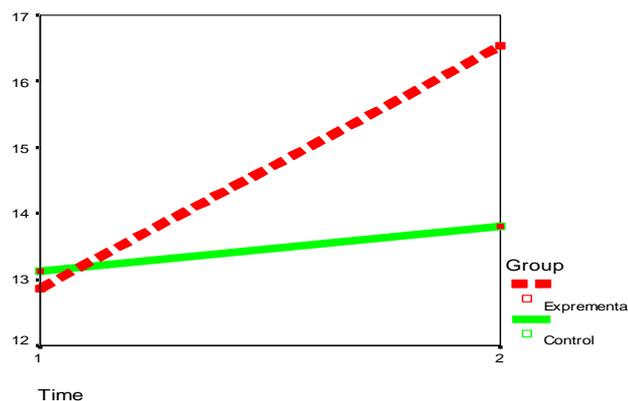


Figure 2: Comparison of Females' Reading Scores in Both Groups

As it is illustrated in Figure 2, female participants in both control and experimental groups show progress in their reading comprehension across time; however, the point is that this increase in the experimental group was evidently seen to be statistically greater than that of control group which provided significant results for the effect of MI-based reading tasks in this group.

D. Data Analysis for Research Question 4

As regards the last research question of the current investigation that is about investigating any difference between male and female participants' reading comprehension at test-time 2 after being exposed to MI-based treatment in both experimental groups, a two-way ANCOVA is utilized by assuming two independent categorical variables with two levels (Group and Gender), one dependent continuous variable (Post-Test), and one continuous covariate (Pre-Test).

The information presented in Table 7 demonstrates male and female participants' post-test results in both control and experimental groups. As it can be viewed, the mean score of females in experimental group is 16.53, while that of males in experimental group equals 14.50, yet such a tabulated difference needs to be statistically justified.

TABLE 7
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (POST-TEST)

| Gender | Group | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|--------|--------------|---------|----------------|----|
| Male | Experimental | 14.5000 | 1.10024 | 20 |
| | Control | 12.6500 | 1.34849 | 20 |
| | Total | 13.5750 | 1.53402 | 40 |
| Female | Experimental | 16.5333 | 1.18723 | 15 |
| | Control | 13.8000 | 1.26491 | 15 |
| | Total | 15.1667 | 1.83985 | 30 |
| Total | experimental | 15.3714 | 1.51630 | 35 |
| | control | 13.1429 | 1.41718 | 35 |
| | Total | 14.2571 | 1.83907 | 70 |

TABLE 8
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS (MALES AND FEMALES)

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|----------------|-------------------------|----|-------------|---------|------|---------------------|
| Gender | 10.391 | 1 | 10.391 | 15.750 | .000 | .195 |
| Group | 91.987 | 1 | 91.987 | 139.428 | .000 | .682 |
| Gender * Group | 6.458 | 1 | 6.458 | 9.788 | .003 | .131 |

In what followed, the tests of between-subjects effects are illustrated in Table 8. In this table, of most interest is the interaction effect. Statistically speaking, if this interaction (Gender*Group) is significant, then the other two main effects are not that much important. This is because of the fact that the effect of one independent variable is dependent on the level of other independent variable. In THIS study, the *Sig.* value for this equals 0.003 which is less than 0.05; therefore, the interaction effect is seen to be significant. This suggests that the implementation of MI-based reading tasks is of different benefits to EFL male and female learners.

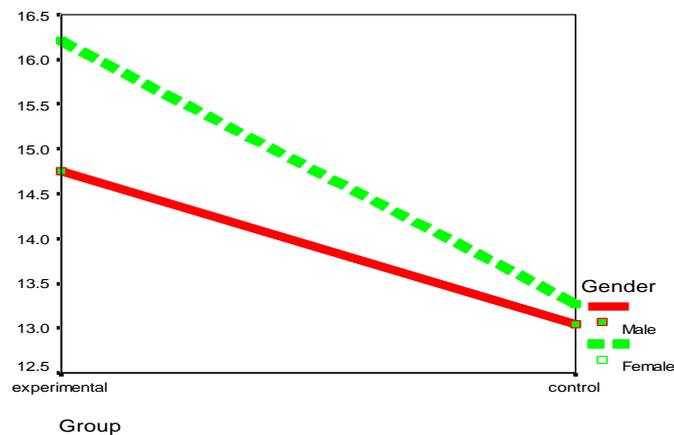


Figure 3: Comparison of Groups across Genders

Lastly, the above illustrated plot of an estimated marginal means of post-test (Figure 3) provides us with the adjusted means on the dependent variable (reading comprehension at test-time 2) for each of the groups among males and females. The term ‘adjusted’ calls on the fact that the effect of covariate (Pre-Test value) has been statistically removed. It is now clear from this plot that there is an interaction between the two independent variables (group and gender). This obviously suggests that males and females appear to be benefiting differently from the MI-based treatment. A closer look at the plot makes it clear that both male and female experimental groups have shown greater advancement in their reading comprehension in contrast with control groups; however, females have improved more than their male counterparts. At this point, the final research question can be answered justifying that there is a significant difference between EFL male and female learners’ reading comprehension after being exposed to MI-based reading tasks.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

In a nutshell, the present study concentrated on the implementation of the MI-based reading tasks to see their potential effects on EFL learners’ reading comprehension. The findings made it clear that EFL male and female learners do not entirely possess the same kinds of intelligences as their dominant proclivities. The results justify that EFL male learners manifested interpersonal, logical-mathematical, naturalist, and musical intelligence as to be their dominant intelligences, while females accentuated interpersonal, musical, naturalist, and verbal-linguistic as their dominant intelligences. Thus, the goal of the current research was to prepare EFL students to succeed in the real world reading comprehension, not just to excel in EFL schools and institutes. They need to perform well in EFL educational contexts, but that is just the beginning. Success is measured in various ways in EFL environments and in life. Real success, though, comes to ground with a sense of happiness and satisfaction. It is by now clear that for EFL learners to be successful, they need to be capable of finding a context in which their potential strengths come to the fore and their weaknesses are diminished. The ultimate goal in all learning situations should be to accentuate the merit of the intelligences and to teach and reinforce their development in every EFL learner.

A look at the literature review reveals that the findings of this study run a counter on the findings of the study by Sarıcaoğlu and Arikan (2009) who showed logical-mathematical intelligence as the only contributing factor in language learning. Moreover, the dominance of the intelligences in the present study is contrary to those of Sarıcaoğlu and Arikan that statistically marked verbal-linguistic and musical intelligences as the least dominant ones. The reason for this can be due to different learning environment factors and age or different study level. It can be assumed that EFL learners’ multiple intelligences are gradually rolling upon the educational continuum as they are growing up. The findings of the study also oppose those of achieved by Hashemi (2007) who showed bodily-kinesthetic intelligence as the strongest and naturalist as the weakest type. Also Hashemi had found verbal-linguistic as the only predictor of learners’ reading ability, while the present study explored the positive effects of Interpersonal, musical, naturalist, logical-mathematical, and linguistic-based tasks on EFL learners’ reading performance. The positive pedagogical claims of the current article is a guarantee for the other positive trends of MI-based approaches to EFL education that have recently been shown by Stanciu et al. (2011); Baş and Beyhan (2010); and Sđmundardđtir (2008) who all investigated and proved the positive impact of MI-based instructions and activities in the process of learning. The

findings are also partly in line with those of Fahim et al. (2010) who found a significant correlation between verbal-linguistic, logical-mathematical, and reading scores of TOEFL exam. As it was shown, kinesthetic intelligence in the current study received a lower rank that again supports the existence of negative correlation found by Fahim et al. For any sort of comment to be effective, it should be notified that when dealing with EFL learners' listening, reading, writing, speaking skills, and many other language learning aspects; Howard Gardner's' eight types of intelligences might or might not have meaningful relationships with or effects on EFL learners performance due to a variety of existing educational, curricular, environmental, individual, and many other factors. Consequently, findings of any MI-related projects or studies require a great deal of caution when generalizing to other EFL contexts.

Curriculum developers bear the greater burden of establishing any desirable and efficient norms and standards of EFL learning in a variety of educational fields. A long-term programming as well as the required budget need to be officially ratified in advance of educating the learners of the community. A great deal of EFL books taught in EFL situations are entirely planned, designed, and published by some well-known publications in the world having specific rationale behind themselves. A closer look at such materials that approach all language skills from a variety of perspectives and angles would make it clear that the term 'intelligence' is not an overt point of departure in constructing and sequencing the materials.

In order for the theory of MI to be potently implemented, all constituencies in the schools, EFL institutes, and other educational environments should be in pursuit of understanding and embracing this model. In a deeper sense, it means that not only the teachers, administrators, curriculum developers, and EFL practitioners but also students, parents themselves need some basic knowledge of MI theory for the implication to be as illuminating as possible. To share this information with all members of the educational contexts is an essential and critical phase in the process of appreciating multiple intelligences in every learning environment especially in Iranian EFL context.

Many EFL teachers are evidently unaware of the benefits of such a contributing asset in the process of teaching. The more crucial consideration for teachers is to make sure that often during the educational period; they have opportunities for those learners who are robust in some intelligence other than the linguistic and logical-mathematical to be greatly successful. Such a genuine teaching fashion would be highly rewarding for the students themselves because they will deeply witness and explore a new love of learning in their EFL life span.

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A Representative and a Scapegoat: Analysis of Tessie Hutchinson in *The Lottery*

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Abstract—The study is an analysis of the character Tessie Hutchinson in American writer Shirley Jackson's short story *The Lottery*. The duality in Tessie's character represents the psychological conditions of all the participants in the lottery; while at the same time, having unfortunately won the lottery, Mrs. Hutchinson serves in the story as a victim, a scapegoat of the brutal primitive ceremony. In Tessie Hutchinson, the primitive nature of selfish and indifferent human beings is vividly revealed, which in term deserves much reflection even up to these days.

Indexed Terms—Tessie Hutchinson, *The Lottery*, representative, scapegoat, character

I. INTRODUCTION

The Lottery is the most important piece of work by Shirley Jackson, first published in June 26, 1948. Written in the same month it was published, it is ranked today as one of the most famous short stories in the history of American literature. Of all the characters shaped in the story, Tessie Hutchinson is without doubt the central figure, in whom blends the roles of a representative and a scapegoat.

On the morning of June 27th, quietly and smoothly, going on in a small American village is a traditional ceremony, a sacrifice ritual for the God of vegetation. Within two hours' time, from ten o'clock to noon, the whole matter undergoes all its procedures and ends with a stoning upon Tessie Hutchinson, which then allows "the villagers to get home for noon dinner"(Jackson, 1982, p.291). Such is the plot of *The Lottery*. The everyday-like tone by the author in a third-person narration has brought to the reader an unexpected development and chilly ending in such a short composition.

To a big proportion of its readers worldwide, the story is not in the least unfamiliar, for similar cases are too be found in different parts of the earth, from America to Asia and Africa, particularly in remote places in a certain period of human history. Hints of simliar ceremonies can still be found in books, legends, folksongs, or other records either in oral or written forms. What distinguishes Jackson's story is the chillingly unexpected ending, where exaggerated or not a woman was stoned to death as a sacrifice for the unknown and intangible spirit, and more importantly, the revelation of the ugly human nature, which was once common but hard to accept in modern societies.

By far the real theme of this short story remains a mystery and a controversy to many contemporary critics, yet we can at least draw some basic traits from the event proper. Beyond doubt, some more profound aspects await to be explored. Through the narration of the ordinary, everyday-like way in which *The Lottery* takes place and the descriptions of the friendly, neighborly behaviors and later indifferent attitudes of the townspeople, Shirley Jackson exposes one of the darkest dualities of the human nature, "the awful doubleness of the human spirit—a doubleness that expresses itself in the blended good neighborliness and cruelty of the community's action."(Gunton, 1979, p.225) This duality is embodied in many of the characters in the story; however, Tessie Hutchinson is the most typical, in whom we can notice a nature of double sides—enthusiasm in participation and unwillingness in accepting the role of the victim, and the duality mentioned previously. Therefore, she is the best representative for the villagers, especially women, and at the same time she plays a scapegoat in the story.

II. TESSIE HUTCHINSON—A REPRESENTATIVE

A representative is a "person chosen or appointed to represent another or others"(Hornby, 1997, p.1272) or "a person who has been chosen to speak, vote, or make decisions for someone else." (Longman, 1997, p.1202) For example, Members of Parliament (MP) are usually chosen by the public to be on their behalf—to speak for the voters, to make important decisions, to choose the right way of the social and economic development of the country. The representatives thus must always bear in mind the interest of their supporters. The meaning of a representative is best seen in Head of the State like President of the US. He or she is elected from among the several candidates, who may represent the interest of different social classes or groups. When the voters have to choose one from among many, a compromise has to be made, which means their own interest is represented by the elected more or less.

As is clearly seen, Tessie Hutchinson is chosen, in the story of *The Lottery*, by the townspeople, as well as by herself, surely also by Shirley Jackson, as the representative for the others.

From the appearance of the townspeople before the ceremony, children first, then men, and finally women, the reader can sense the neighborly and daily atmosphere in which the sacrifice is going to take place—actually it is hard enough to have any idea of what there is going to be at the beginning. Bear in mind how Shirley Jackson describes the emergences of the three types of people.

Children: "...before they broke into hoisterous play, and their talk was still of the classroom and the teacher, of books and reprimands..."

Men: "...soon the men..., speaking of planting and rain, tractors and taxes..."

Women: "wearing faded house dresses and sweaters..."(Jackson, 1982, pp.291-2)

All the above descriptions implicate that the town folks have long got used to the event and have taken for granted the sacrifice of a friend's or a neighbor's life. It is so natural and they are so carefree as if they are there for fun. In short, in the first three paragraphs of the story, Shirley Jackson reveals the general attitude of the villagers towards such a primitive ceremony.

A. *Emergence of Tessie Hutchinson*

Then, after a period of foreplays of the villagers—information exchanges and some preparations for the ritual, here shows up our heroine, Mrs. Hutchinson—"Mrs. Hutchinson came hurriedly along the path to the square, her sweater thrown over her shoulders, and slide into place in the back of the crowd." (Jackson, 1982, p.294)

It is obvious that her appearance is somehow different from the others'. While all the other villagers have already gathered on the square, she is the only person (not considering the leg-broken Clyde Dunbar who certainly will not appear into the happening at all.) to be late for the ceremony. This shows that her casualty or callous indifference to the matter is of a much higher degree than those of the others. Like a student late for class, it is seen for the first time, Tessie Hutchinson probably regards the ceremony as routine and has got used to it, and it is no longer of much importance in her.

Tessie Hutchinson even forgets the coming of this June 27th, such an important day in the eyes of the readers on which is the ceremony—"clean forget what day it was?...and they both laughed softly". (Jackson, 1982, p.294) How could people in this village forget such an important ("important" only in the reader's eyes) date? The only reason is that (in Tessie's mind—actually in most of the villagers' mind) it is no longer of any special importance. It is something trivial instead. However, she is afraid of missing such an enjoyment—she "...came a-running", "craned her neck to see..." "...dried her hands on her apron", "she tapped Mrs. Delacroix on the arm as a farewell (a death farewell)..." (Jackson, 1982, p.294) and later she said (to Mr. Summers), grinning, "Wouldn't have me leave m'dishes in the sink, now, would you, Joe?" (Jackson, 1982, p.295)

All the descriptions vividly illustrate the frisky, in-a-hurry appearance of Tessie Hutchinson, whose behavior is so typical among the folks that she may be considered the representative for the whole townspeople. Note how essentially similar are the appearances of the other villagers, especially those women, compared with the outstandingly typical Tessie Hutchinson.

B. *Tessie Hutchinson during the Lottery*

The lottery in Shirley Jackson's story traditionally undergoes two phases of slip-selection. The first round is drawn by the heads of the families hosted by some big figure in the town, in which a representative of each family is arranged to select a paper slip from the weathered wood box, which will determine the family winning the lottery. The second round is exercised within that "lucky family", when each member selects a slip and the only final winner is revealed.

1. **First round—fate of the family as a whole**

At this moment, the heads of families are required to draw a paper each on behalf of the whole family. When the name Hutchinson is called by Mr. Summers the chairperson, "'Get up there, Bill,' Mrs. Hutchinson said, and the people near her laughed." (Jackson, 1982, p.297) Although Tessie seems somewhat funny, she is still a representative for all those women—their behaviors are of no essential difference. For example, the behavior of the other two women:

a. Mrs. Delacroix—"There goes my old man,' Mrs. Delaxoix said. She held her breath while her husband went forward." (Jackson, 1982, p.297)

b. Mrs. Graves—"We are next,' Mrs. Graves said..." (Jackson, 1982, p.297)

Though there are some subtle differences in their words and behaviors, their anxieties and agitations are of the same essence as those of Tessie Hutchinson's. There might be some minor differences in the details of the women's acts, but there is definitely one thing in common, and that is their casualty and fun-seeking attitude during the ceremony. Surely there are more women or even men of the same or similar cases.

It seems difficult to compare Mrs. Hutchinson with the others as the result of the first round has already come out, for they are then in the opposite positions. In another sense, however, we may make a vertical comparison between them. "...when all the slips of paper were opened. Suddenly, all the women began to speak at once, 'Who is it?' 'Who's got it?' 'Is it the Dunbars?'... 'Bill Hutchinson's got it.'" (Jackson, 1982, p.298) Understandably, Tessie makes no words now, for her family has been too "lucky" not to win the lottery, which separates her from the other women instantly then. But we can imagine Tessie's performances in the previous years, when it was not the Hutchinson that "won" the lottery. It is likely that the following words uttered by Tessie Hutchinson (Jackson, 1982, p.298), "You didn't give him time enough to take any paper he wanted. I saw you. It wasn't fair", were similar to, if not the same as those words by the

victims in the past years. While the two sentences (Jackson, 1982, p.298), “Be a good sport” by Mrs. Delacroix, and “All of us took the same chance” by Mrs. Graves, could possibly be spoken out by Tessie Hutchinson in the past years. So in this sense, Tessie Hutchinson continues to be the representative of the villagers.

2. Second round—inside-family lottery

In the second stage of the lottery, it seems even more difficult to compare Mrs. Hutchinson with the other townspeople, even with the other members of the Hutchinson family. Yet it is of great importance to. Bear in mind that a representative should at least have something in common with the group of people s/he is to represent. When Mr. Summers asks Bill, “You got any other households in the Hutchinsons?” ““There’s Don and Eva,’ Mrs Hutchinson yelled. ‘Make them take their chance.’” (Jackson, 1982, p.299) In these two short sentences, we unwillingly find the diminishment of the motherhood and humanity.

“Tessie reacts like a frightened animal; but, unlike the animal mother, the human mother does not always seek protections for her offspring. In fact, instead of giving her life for her children, Tessie prefers that they take their chances also—and she tries to have her (married) daughter Eva (and Don)...include in the fatal drawing to increase her own chances for survival.” (Gunton, 1979, p.231)

This chillingly evil nature as a mother astonishes the reader. However, Tessie’s intimates, the other members of the family, are no better. Once they find that they are not the chosen sacrifice, they feel relieved and laughs, not at all concerned about their mother’s or wife’s immediate death. As it was stated by Cleanth Brooks and Robert Penn Warren, “...More over, even the individual members of the Hutchinson family are themselves relatively unconcerned once each discovers that he is not the victim chosen.” (Gunton, 1979, p.225)

For this reason, “...Nancy and Bill, Jr. opened theirs at the same time, and both beamed and laughed, turning around to the crowd...” While later “...Bill Hutchinson went over to his wife and forced the slip of paper out of her hand...” (Jackson, 1982, p.299) In the sense of the indifference to the family relationship, Tessie Hutchinson represents the whole family, for the non-concerned attitude of the other members actually has the same nature as Tessie’s loss of motherhood.

Further more, in a broader sense, Mrs. Hutchinson remains a representative for the villagers as a whole, for their behaviors are essentially comparable to, and of the same evil root as, that of Tessie Hutchinson. “A further point is this: human beings find it difficult to become exercised over ills not their own. Once a family group sees that the victim is not to be selected from among themselves, they proceed to observe matters with a certain callous disinterest.” (Gunton, 1979, p.225)

C. Tessie Hutchinson after Result Discovered

As has been briefly discussed at the beginning, the duality in Tessie Hutchinson’s character is of typical nature. Her behaviors during the whole event serve as a strong evidence to the double-sidedness inside herself. She is enthusiastic to take part in the lottery at first—she is then the representative for most of the villagers, if not all, who are probably more agitated than Tessie, as all of them come to the square earlier than Tessie Hutchinson. How does she change as the ceremony goes on? We readers all know that she protests the “unfair” (but open indeed) slip-drawing procedures, and even that her protest changes gradually with the development of the lottery. When it is discovered that the Hutchinson has got the Lottery, “Tessie Hutchinson shouted to Mr. Summers, ‘You didn’t give him time enough to take any paper he wanted. I saw you. It wasn’t fair.’” Then as she is told that “daughters draw with their husbands families”, again, “‘It wasn’t fair,’ Tessie said.” (Jackson, 1982, pp.298-9)

Then as the inside-family lottery begins, though she is still protesting, Mrs. Hutchinson does behave as a “good” sport, “She hesitated for a minute ... went up to the box. She snatched a paper out and held it behind her.” (Jackson, 1982, p.300) The only reason for her sportsmanship is that she still holds the chance or the hope to survive, for it is possible that any of the other members may “win” the lottery. And so long as she might escape to be doomed, anybody else in the family is non-of-her-business. But, the final result smashes her tiny hope. Her duality seems ridiculous to us, yet she represents the attitude of the other members of the family, surely also most of the people in the village.

“Tessie Hutchinson shows both the evils and the weakness of mankind faced with immediate death. Her hypocrisy indicates that she would willingly take part in the stoning; but, when she is the chosen sacrifice, she is not willing to be a good sport about giving up her life.” (Gunton, 1979, p.231) So commented the critics. From this point of view, Tessie Hutchinson is a representative not only for her own family but also for all the villagers, even the whole mankind. The dark side of human nature becomes darker in the sunlight.

III. TESSIE HUTCHINSON—A SCAPEGOAT

Some literary critics hold that the theme of *The Lottery* is a modern representation of the scapegoat (Gunton, 1979, p.223). In the introduction to *The Lottery* in CLC, it is stated that “many critics observe that the story reflects humankind’s ancient need for a scapegoat, a figure upon which it can project its most undesirable qualities, and which can be destroyed in a ritually absolving sacrifice.” (Gunton, 1979, p.221) But the authentic theme remains a controversy for so far the author Shirley Jackson made no further interpretations to the story. However, the author of this paper holds, Tessie Hutchinson in *The Lottery* does really plays the role of a scapegoat. Whenever something unpleasant takes place, there must be someone to shoulder the responsibility for it. In the war, it may be a general; in a recession, it may be the

Minister of Treasury.

A. *Definitions of a Scapegoat*

A scapegoat is defined as “person who is blamed or punished for the wrongdoing of somebody else” in *Oxford Advanced Learners’ English-Chinese Dictionary* (Hornby, 1997, p.1338), or “someone who is blamed for something bad that happens even if it is not their fault” in *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (Longman, 1997, p.1271).

In Frazer’s *The Golden Bough*, a scapegoat is more broadly defined as:

“...an animal or human being used in public ceremonies to remove the taint or impairment consequent upon sin which, for one reason or other, cannot be saddled upon a particular individual. Such a scapegoat is a means of ‘cleansing’ a community of a collective stain, which cannot be wiped out by the normal procedure of individual penitence, restitution, and reform. The execution or dispatch of it is always and necessarily accomplished by a blanket public confession.” (Guntton, 1979, p.231)

Further more, Frazer discusses the four aspects of scapegoats and scapegoat rituals as following.

First, the scapegoat provides a “visible and tangible vehicle for bearing away a community’s invisible and intangible evils.” Second, “when a general clearance of evils is resorted to periodically, the interval between the celebrations of the ceremony is commonly a year, and the time of year when the ceremony takes place usually coincides with some well-marked change of season.” Third, Frazer states out “that this public and periodic expulsion of devils is commonly preceded or followed by a period of general license, during which the ordinary restraints of society are thrown aside, and all offences, short of the gravest, are allowed to pass unpunished.” And finally, Frazer notes that the scapegoat victim is often believed to be divine, “the employment of a divine man (woman) or animal as a scapegoat is especially to be noted.” (Frazer, 1999, pp.575-6)

Now let us make an observation into Tessie Hutchinson’s conditions to approve that she does act as the scapegoat in this “holy” event, respectively according to the definitions above—the ones by the dictionaries and by Frazer.

B. *Tessie Hutchinson as a Scapegoat*

1. **In Accordance with Dictionary Definitions**

Obviously, the innocent Tessie Hutchinson is blamed or punished to death, not because she has done something wrong or bad. And the “wrongdoing/ something bad” that happens within the village is certainly not her fault—though we are not sure what the wrongdoing/something bad really is. Possibly this something is concerned with fertility or harvest as hinted by Old Man Warner’s proverb “Lottery in June, corn be heavy soon” (Jackson, 1982, p.297), something superstitious commonly seen in remote parts of the world at the time.

2. **In Accordance with Frazer’s Definition**

Firstly, there is no doubt that as a village woman Tessie Hutchinson herself is “visible and tangible”—everyone can see her coming running alive to the square. While the evils of the small village she is going to take away with her death are “invisible and intangible”. Nobody in the village has even seen in person the evil, not even the oldest ones. Although it is no more than something legendary or imagined and passed down from generation to generation, the townspeople would rather believe in the existence of such a spirit and make sacrifice to it annually with the life of a person, man or woman, young or old.

Secondly, we have known, from the words by the villagers, especially by the Old Man Warner’s “Seventy-seventh year I have been in the lottery...seventy-seventh time”, (Jackson, 1982, p.298) that this sacrifice ceremony is held annually. Seventy-seven lives deminished in his lifelong participation in the ceremony! How many all together from the very start of THAT tradition? We also get ideas from Warner’s “Lottery in June, corn be heavy soon” (Jackson, 1982, p.297) that the time of the lottery is the turn of season, or at least we can infer that it is “key time” for vegetation. To ensure abundance in agricultural uptup, in th eyes of the villagers, the sacrifice of a life annually is rather worthwhile. Otherwise the ceremony would have been abandoned long long ago.

Thirdly, we here venture to interpret Frazer in short as: The ceremony in which a scapegoat appears or is chosen should be of so great a significance that the people involved must quit their daily work in order to take part in it. It so happens that in *The Lottery*, when the children are recently freed from school, which is only possible in public hoildays in modern time. Yet the more important fact we should notice is that the adults, male or female, young or old, all stop their working at hand and gather on the square, except the leg-broken Dunbar. All this shows how serious they are on this very occasion—it is much more important than many other important days in the place: birthdays, wedding days, funerals, and the like. And,

Finally, as the divinity of the victim/ scapegoat is concerned, it is necessary to mention the leg-broken Clyde Dunbar, who is then excluded from being chosen in the ritual. The divinity of the ceremony requires the sacrifice to be healthy so as to express the respect for the unknown spirit. Contrary to Dunbar, Tessie Hutchinson satisfies the lowest criterion of divinity—she is at least physically wholesome.

Such a blind belief in the intangible shows how primitive and stupid they are. But there are more brutal examples in legends of the world. For instance, as is said in Chinese legends, in an ancient place Ye, where there was a drought, people would send a couple of virgins—male and female, as a sacrifice for the God of River. The children were then drowned into the river to convey the piety of the local people. The innocence and purity of children were pondered as

divine while adults were no longer qualified for sacrifice as they were dirty and their flesh untasty.

Through the discussion in the foregoing several paragraphs, Tessie Hutchinson is in the proper position of a scapegoat required by the dictionary definitions and Frazer's interpretations. Physically wholesome, she is selected by the people and, more importantly, by herself, to receive a fatal punishment for the unknown "wrong doing" of the villagers, which is targeted at the better.

According to Seymour Lainhoff, the scapegoat rite generally has a double purpose: "to exorcise the evils of the old year by transferring them to some inanimate or animate objects, and ...to insure fertility." (Gunton, 1979, p.223) Based upon his purpose-oriented interpretation, the lottery in the story is, beyond doubt, exactly in this case. On the one hand, though we are not yet clear what the evil is (Possibly it never really exists, but the villagers hold the idea of evil merely upon their tradition or custom), it is transferred to an animate object, i.e, Tessie Hutchinson. On the other hand, we know from the Old Man Warner that the lottery is to ensure fertility. Then we come to the conclusion to this part, in the form and function, Tessie Hutchinson in *The Lottery* performs the victim as a scapegoat in the story.

IV. CONCLUSION

Now a conclusion on the doubleness in Mrs. Hutchinson's character can be naturally drawn. Tessie Hutchinson is a representative of as well as a scapegoat for the townspeople, as has been discussed in the previous parts. She represents the primitive evil nature of human being in the modern society. Her tragedy at the same time is a representative of the tragedies of those people chosen as the sacrifice in the past, and will continue to be thereafter. In *The Lottery*, Shirley Jackson makes Tessie Hutchinson sacrifice her life, which has to a high degree been implied by her behavior from the very start, and makes her a character representing most of the villagers. As the scapegoat of this year, Tessie Hutchinson, just like those who had already sacrificed their lives before her and those who will do so after her, is also a representative. In a word, Tessie Hutchinson is a blend of a representative and a scapegoat. If Shirley Jackson would rewrite the story, it is not impossible that Tessie Hutchinson might be replaced by the name of another person, who would to a great extent inherit the identity of a scapegoat and a representative.

As similar ceremonies are to be found in different parts of the world in its history, earlier here and later there, *The Lottery* in itself serves as a representative of all those brutal and primitive worships to the spirits, an important memory in human history. In her own way, Shirley Jackson reminds us of the true values of the civilization and the promotion of human nature in this brief but classical story.

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Error Analysis and Second Language Acquisition

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Abstract—Error Analysis is one of the major topics in the field of second language acquisition research. Errors are an integral part of language learning. The learner of English as a second language is unaware of the existence of the particular system or rule in English language. The learner's errors have long been interested for second and foreign language researchers. The basic task of error analysis is to describe how learning occurs by examining the learner's output and this includes his/her correct and incorrect utterances. There are two major approaches to the study of learner's errors, namely contrastive analysis and error analysis. Error analysis cannot be studied properly without touching upon the notion of contrastive analysis. Contrastive analysis and error analysis have been commonly recognized as branches of Applied Linguistic Science. This paper examines in detail the three most influential error theories: Contrastive analysis, Error analysis and Interlanguage theory. Corder (1978) maintains that interlanguage can be seen as a restructuring or a recreating continuum and, therefore; evaluates their role in second language acquisition.

Index Terms—error, contrastive analysis, error analysis, and interlanguage

I. INTRODUCTION

The term applied linguistics seems to have originated in the United States in the 1940's. The creation of applied linguistics as a discipline represents an effort to find practical applications for modern scientific linguistics (Mackey, 1965). Applied Linguistics is often said to be concerned with solving or at least ameliorating social problems involving language. "Applied Linguistics is using what we know about (a) language, (b) how it is learned, and (c) how it is used, in order to achieve some purpose or solve some problems in the real world" (Schmitt and Celce-Murcia 2002, p.1). Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis have been commonly recognized as branches of Applied Linguistics Science.

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, several researches pointed out that the language of second language learners is systematic and that learner errors are not random mistakes but evidence of rule-governed behavior (Adjemian 1976; Corder 1976; Nemser 1971; Selinker 1972). Applied Linguistics has viewed errors not merely by native speakers, but also by non-native speakers. According to Smith and Bisazza (1982) "A speaker's comprehensibility in a language is usually based solely up on the judgment of the native speakers of that language. We are convinced that this criterion is no longer appropriate for speakers of English as an international language. A more useful evaluation of one's English language comprehensibility should be based on the judgment of both native and non-native speakers. English native speakers should be judged for comprehensibility by non-native speakers too" (p.259).

"In the 1950s and 1960s the favored paradigm for studying FL/SL learning and organizing its teaching was Contrastive Analysis" (James, 2001, p.4). "Contrastive Linguistics has been defined as "a subdiscipline of Linguistics concerned with the comparison of two or more languages or subsystems of language in order to determine both differences and similarities between them"(Fisiak,1981,p.1). Carl (1971) maintained that Contrastive Analysis is a necessary component of a second language learning model which reliably forecasts that the speaker of an arbitrary first language is liable to produce grammatically deviant second language sentences, the structural descriptions of which will resemble those of analogous first language sentences.

Error Analysis, a branch of Applied Linguistics emerged in the sixties to reveal that learner errors were not only because of the learner's native language but also they reflected some universal strategies. This is a reaction to Contrastive Analysis Theory which considered native language interference as the major source of errors in second language learning what behavioristic theory suggested. "Applied error analysis, on the other hand, concerns organizing remedial courses and devising appropriate materials and teaching strategies based on the findings of theoretical error analysis" (Erdogan 2005). Richards (1971, p.1.) explained "the field of error analysis may be defined as dealing with the differences between the way people learning a language speak and the way adult native speakers of the language use the language". Norrish (1983) argued that let us call a systematic deviation, when a learner has not learnt something and consistently gets it wrong, an error...A common example is using the infinitive with to after the verb must (e.g. I must to go the shops). Let us suppose that the learner knows the verbs want (+ to), need (+ to) and perhaps ought (+ to); by analogy he then produces must (+ to) until he has been told otherwise, or until he notices that native speakers do not produce this form, he will say or write this quite consistently (Norrish, *ibid*, p.7).

From this developed the conception of "Interlanguage", the proposal that second language learners have internalized a mental grammar, a natural languages system that can be described in terms of linguistic rules and principles (Doughty and Long 2003). When a learner of a language produces the processes are used in learning of the language differs from both his/her mother tongue and the target language is called an interlanguage.

II. CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS APPROACH

The American linguist C. C. Fries initiated the study of contrastive linguistics in 1945. This assumption was taken up by Robert Lado more than ten years later in his book, *“Linguistic Across Cultures”* (1957) in which the theoretical foundation of C.A was laid down. The supporters of C.A claimed that the similarities and differences between various languages was enough to deal with the problem of teaching these languages (Ghadessy 1980). Lado(1957) claimed that for the students whose target language is second or foreign language, those elements of the target language that are similar to his/her native language will be simple for him/her and those elements that are different will be difficult. Therefore, Contrastive Analysis gained much important to investigate learner errors in the field of second language acquisition, in which two languages were systematically compared during the 40's and 50's.

The various studies based on C.A have attempted to compare the systems of the native and target language either within the framework of the structure models of language description or within the framework of transformational generative model. The contribution of contrastive analysis relevant to second language pedagogy is: “The description of practical grammar which is made up of sum of differences between the grammar of the source language and that of the target language” (Nickel, 1971, p.9).

Its objectives are summarized in Theovan Els, et al (1984:38) as follows:

- a) Providing insight into similarities and differences between languages;
- b) Explaining and predicting problems in L2 learning;
- c) Developing course materials for language teaching.

Bose (2005) mentioned that one of the reasons for learner errors is the interference of his mother tongue, which is described as the negative and positive transfer between the mother tongue and the target language. The negative transfer happens when the forms of the target language and those of the learner's mother tongue are different from each other whereas, the positive transfer between the mother tongue and the target language is similar. He added that a teacher can plan remedial teaching after he corrects the written compositions of his learners and collects their common errors in a note book. Ferguson (1965) pointed out that one of the major problems in the learning of a second language is the interference caused by the structural differences between the native language of the learner and the second language. A natural consequence of this conviction is the belief that a careful contrastive analysis of the two languages offers an excellent basis for the preparation of instructional materials, the planning of courses and the development of actual classroom techniques (Ferguson *ibid*, p. 4). Mackey (1965) claimed that it has been stated as a principle of applied linguistics that all the mistakes of the language learner are due to the makeup of his native language. This is demonstrably false. Many mistakes actually made have no parallel in the native language. He added that different learners with the same native language do make different mistakes. Mackey again argued “the first language itself is not the only influence on second language learning” (Mackey, *ibid*, p. 4).

Fries (1945, p. 9) argued that “the most effective materials (for foreign language teaching) are those based on a scientific expression of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner.

A. *Different Versions of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis*

Wardhaugh (1970) pointed out that the CA hypothesis can exist in two versions: a strong version claims that the difficulties of the learner can be predicated by a systematic contrastive analysis and teaching material can then be devised to meet those difficulties and a weak version claims that no more than an explanatory role for contrastive linguistics: Where difficulties are evident from the errors made by the learners. Comparison between the mother tongue and the target language of the learners may help to explain them. The third version of the Contrastive Analysis was proposed by Oller and Ziahosseiny on the basis of their analysis of the spelling errors committed by some foreign learners of English with different native language backgrounds. They (1970, P. 184) stated that “the categorization of abstract and concrete patterns according to their perceived similarities and differences is the basis for learning; therefore, wherever patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning in one or more systems, confusion may result”. In addition, spelling errors of foreign students whose native language employed a Roman alphabet were compared with spelling errors of foreign students whose native language had a little or no relation to such an alphabet. Oller and Ziahosseiny concluded that as far as English spelling is concerned, knowledge of one Roman writing system makes it more difficult, no less, to acquire another Roman spelling system.

B. *Criticisms of Contrastive Analysis*

Contrastive Analysis was criticized by the proponents of error analysis; they have argued that Contrastive Analysis focus on differences between L1 and L2 and ignore factors which may affect the second language learner's performance such as his learning and communication strategies, training- procedures, overgeneralization, etc. It shows certain difficulties which do not actually apparent in the learner's performance and conversely and does not predicts many problems which are apparent in learner's actual performance. Fisiak (1981, 7) mentioned that “the value and importance of Contrastive Analysis lies in its ability to indicate potential areas of interference and errors. Not all errors are the result of interference. Psychological and pedagogical, as well as other extra linguistic factors contribute to the formation of errors”. A number of researches of learner's errors have been carried out by several researchers in the filed of error

analysis indicated that the influence of the L1 was much less than that said by Contrastive Analysis. Thus, all the mistakes of the language learner are not due to the makeup of his mother tongue. Researches show that factors such as analogical replacement, sheer muddle are cause of errors. Replacement based on analogy often causes the learner to make mistakes when he sets out to apply the rules of second language which he has learnt indiscriminately. Sometimes ignorance of the correct pattern, bad teaching or inadequate practice or a combination of the two yield samples of errors. It is not surprising to see the decline of Contrastive Analysis in the 1970 and replaced by other explanations of learning difficulties such as error analysis and interlanguage.

III. ERROR ANALYSIS

In recent years, studies of second language acquisition have tended to focus on learners errors since they allow for prediction of the difficulties involved in acquiring a second language. In this way, teachers can be made aware of the difficult areas to be encountered by their students and devote special care and emphasis to them. Error Analysis is a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on the errors learners make. It consists of a comparison between the errors made in the target language and that target language itself. Error analysis emphasizes the significance of learners' errors in second language. It is important to note here that Interferences from the learner's mother tongue is not only reason for committing errors in his target language. As Richards (1971) classified errors observed in the acquisition of English as a second language as follows:

- a) Overgeneralization, covering instances where the learners create a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structure of the target language;
- b) Ignorance of rule restriction, occurring as a result of failure to observe the restrictions or existing structures;
- c) Incomplete application of rules, arising when the learners fail to fully develop a certain structure required to produce acceptable sentences;
- d) False concepts hypothesized, deriving from faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language.

Some errors can be attributed to weaknesses or failure of memory (Gorbet, 1979). He added that the theory of error analysis proposes that in order to learn a language, a person creates a system of 'rules' from the language data to which he is exposed; and this system enable him to use it.

According to Sharma (1980) "Error analysis can thus provide a strong support to remedial teaching", he added that during the teaching program, it can reveal both the successes and the failures of the program.

Dulay et al (1982) mentioned that the term 'error' to refer to a systematic deviation from a selected norm or set of norms. Error analysis is useful in second language learning because this will reveal to us- teachers, syllabus designers and textbook writers and the problem areas. It can used to design remedial exercises and focus more attention on the trouble spots. Corder (1974, p.125) stated that "The study of errors is part of the investigation of the process of language learning. In this respect it resembles methodologically the study of the acquisition of the mother tongue. It provides us with a picture of the linguistic development of a learner and may give us indications as to the learning process." Richards et al (1992) mentioned the study of errors are used in order to (1) identify strategies which learners use in language teaching, (2) identify the causes of learners 'errors, and finally (3) obtain information on common difficulties in language learning as an aid to teaching or in development of teaching materials (cited in Khansir 2008).

Analysis of second language learner's errors can help identify learner's linguistic difficulties and needs at a particular stage of language learning. In general, Error analysis has several implications for the handling of learner's errors in the classroom as follows:

1. Devising remedial measures
2. Preparing a sequence of target language items in class rooms and text books with the difficult items coming after the easier, ones
3. Making suggestions about the nature or strategies of second language learning employed by both first and second language learners.

A. *Difference between Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis*

Error analysis differs from contrastive analysis as follows:

1. Contrastive analysis starts with a comparison of systems of two languages and predicts only the areas of difficulty or error for the second language learner, whereas error analysis starts with errors in second language learning and studies them in the broader framework of their sources and significance.
2. EA unlike CA provides data on actual attested problems and so it forms a more efficient basis for designing pedagogical strategies.
3. EA is not confronting with the complex theoretical problems like the problem of equivalence encountered by CA.
4. EA provides a feedback value to the linguist, especially the psycho-linguist interested in the process of second language learning in ascertaining.
 - a. Whether the process of acquisition of first language and second language learning are similar or not?
 - b. Whether children and adults learn a second language in a similar manner or not?
5. EA provides evidence for a much more complex view of the learning process- one in which the learner is seen as an active participant in the formation of and revision of hypotheses regarding the rules of the target language.

6. CA studies Interlingual error (interference) whereas EA studies intralingual errors besides Interlingual.

B. *Some Criticism of Error Analysis*

Some Criticism of Error Analysis is considered as follows:

Error Analysis Hypothesis might have many merits, but it has not escaped criticism at the hands of certain linguists. The main allegation laid against it is that it makes no allowance for “avoidance phenomena” (Schachter 1974). It is meant that the learner strategy of avoiding what is difficult. The informants may not use certain structures, because he knows he gets them wrong. Instead, he might use structures he is certain he will get right. CA predicts difficulties and therefore does not face this avoidance problem. Another reason for weakness of EAH is due to what Ellis (2008) mentioned: “weaknesses in methodological procedures, theoretical problems, and limitations in scope”. Schachter and Murcia (1977) argued that the Analysis of errors in isolation focuses the attention of the investigator on errors and thus excludes the other corpus from consideration, the classification of errors that are identified is not usually proper, statements of error-frequently are quite misleading, the identification of points of difficulty in target language is usually not very correct, the ascription of causes to systematic errors may not be right, and the biased nature of sampling procedures supplies another point of criticism of EA. It meant that so far the collection of data from a number of informants is considered, the very nature of data collection and selection of informants is biased. Therefore trying to drawn statistically significant findings from such samples may be a questionable practice.

IV. INTERLANGUAGE THEORY

The concept of interlanguage was suggested by Selinker (1972) in order to draw attention to the possibility that the learner’s language can be regarded as a distinct language variety or system with its own particular characteristics and rules (jie,2008).Based on the theory that while learning a second language , learners build up a system for themselves which is different in some ways from their first language and second language systems. The system which the learners build up for themselves has been called interlanguage. According to Adjemian (1976) interlanguages consist of a set of linguistic rules which can generate novel utterances. He claimed about the structure of interlanguages can be derived from grammatical theory; and like natural language, interlanguages can be idealized to make them amenable to linguistic analysis.He added that the universal generalizations that hold for the primary languages also hold for interlanguages. Eckman (1991) claimed that interlanguages are languages and, further, that proposed linguistic universals are fully universal, in the sense that they apply to non- primary as well as primary languages. Ellis (1990) maintains that interlanguage theory can provide an explanation for how both children and adults acquire a second language. According to Tarone,et al (1976) interlanguage productions have the following characteristics:

a) Second Language speakers rarely conform to what one expects native speakers of the target language to produce ,
 b) Interlanguage Productions are not an exact translation of native language utterances (i.e., first language interference does not play the primary role in the information of interlanguages), c) Utterances in the second language are not randomly produced, and d) Interlanguages are spoken either by adults or by children when second language acquisition is not simultaneous with that of the first language.

Selinker (1972) used the term fossilization to refer to the tendency of many learners to stop developing their interlanguage grammar in the direction of the target language. He argued that interlanguage is a separate linguistic system resulting from the learner’s attempted production of the target language norm; he identified five fossilization processes as follows:

1. Language Transfer: sometimes rules and subsystems of the interlanguage may result from transfer from the first language.
2. Transfer of Training: some elements of the interlanguage may result from specific features of the training process used to teach the second language.
3. Strategies of Second Language Learning: some elements of the interlanguage may result from a specific approach to the material to be learned.
4. Strategies of Second Language Communication: some elements of the interlanguage may result from specific ways people learn to communicate with native speakers of the target language.
5. Overgeneralization of the Target Language Linguistic Materials: some elements of the interlanguage may be the product of overgeneralization of the rules and semantic features of the target language.

Jie (2008) mentioned several important criticisms about interlanguage studies as follows:

1. “The concentration on morpho-syntactic development and the failure to deal with semantic development. Interlanguage study is mostly limited to the scope of morpheme and syntax.
2. The failure to define the concept clearly. Spolsky raised a problem with the notion of interlanlanguage which was the tendency to confuse a process with a competence model (Spolsky, 1989,p.33). Selinker seems to prefer a processing model in spite of his use of competence terminology.
3. The failure to develop effective approaches to facilitate empirical studies. The research methods of interlanguage study such as longitudinal and cross-sectional studies are technically inadequate in themselves”.

V. CONCLUSION

In summary, from what has been discussed above can be a positive learning experience in order to help the learners improve their language and use English flawlessly. All of the three theories can be considered as important factors in second language acquisition. In conclusion, it is important to bear in mind that assesses the contribution of the concept each of these three theories to our understanding of the process of second language acquisition. It is clear that the theories relevant to the issue of linguistic competence of English learner. In addition, the theories concentrate largely on the nature of the Learner's performance.

Behaviorists believed that errors as a symptom of ineffective teaching or as evidence of failure. They also view it as being due largely to mother tongue interference that the teacher has failed to predict and allow for when errors do occur. They are to be remedied by a bombardment of correct forms. This bombardment is achieved by the use of intensive drilling or over teaching. However, for behaviorists, errors are wrong habits that can and should be eradicated while for some others are manifestation of "transitional competence". Corder (1973) called it as an "idiosyncratic dialect".

Learner's errors are seen as an integral part of language learning which is used in teaching grammar, linguistics, psychology etc. Therefore, an integration of three schools is needed to deal with the complexities of second language acquisition and provide empirical evidence for the improvement of teaching methodology, syllabus designs and teaching techniques in English language teaching classroom.

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A Comparative Analysis of HBV in Korean, Chinese and English*

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Abstract—Human body vocabulary (HBV) is one part of the core vocabulary in Korean, Chinese and English. The fact that Korean, Chinese and English belong to three different types of languages results in some different lexical and semantic features in HBV of the three languages. But due to the common physiological phenomenon and similar experiences shared by the people speaking different languages, Korean, Chinese and English HBV shows some similarities as well. In terms of morphological productivity, HBV of the three languages differs in number, structure and collocation but has the similar processes of word formation, that is, derivation, compounding, conversion, and etc. HBV of the three languages experiences some similar ways of semantic change as well as semantic asymmetry, such as, transposition, overlapping, misplacement, or vacancy.

Index Terms—human body vocabulary, lexical features, semantic features, morphological productivity, semantic shift

I. LITERATURE REVIEW

Human body vocabulary (HBV) is one part of the core vocabulary in Korean, Chinese and English. HBV can be classified into four big semantic fields of head, trunk, limbs and viscera. Head can be subcategorized into face, ear, eye, nose, mouth, tooth and tongue; trunk into neck, shoulder, chest, breast, back, abdomen and hip; limbs into hand, arm, leg, foot and knee; and viscera into heart, liver, kidney, lung, stomach and gall bladder.

Scholars have conducted the intra-lingual and inter-lingual research on HBV mainly from the semantic or pragmatic perspective in the early stage and then from the cultural and cognitive perspective in recent ten years. Korean HBV has been studied much earlier (Kang, 1972; Kim, 1976; Lee, 1977) than that of Chinese and English. The studies of Chinese HBV started with the brief introduction (Wang, 1981; Xie, 1981) and non-systematic analysis (Wu, 1988; Zhao, 1993). Recent studies are mostly confined to the cognitive analysis of *heart* in English and Chinese, discussing three image schema in the conceptual metaphor system of *heart* (Wang, 2001; Wu, 2004; Qi, 2003, 2004, 2007), the constructing system of cognitive metaphor of *heart* (Zeng, 2006; Xie, 2007; He, 2008) and the polysemic network of *heart* (Zhang, 2005, 2006). Cognitive analysis of other HBV, such as *face* (Zhang, 2003), *hand* (Gao, 2005), and *eye* (Jia, 2008) has been done as well. Feng (2008) and Korean scholar Lee (2003) have conducted a general and detailed study of Chinese HBV. Huang (2009) and Zhao (2010) have analysed cognitively the semantic system of HBV in Chinese and English. English HBV has been studied only as examples in the books or articles on cognition (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Lakoff, 1987; Johnson, 1987; Ungerer & Schmid, 1996; Heine, 1997) with the statement that the whole human body is mapped to the objects and plants around the human beings. Studies of Korean HBV are broader in scope as well, ranging from specific organs, such as *mouth* (Son, 1990), *hand* (Yang, 1983; Ma, 1996; Ha, 2005) and *eye* (Kim, 2006), to the whole (Hong, 1985-1993; Bae, 2001; Lee, 1999, 2006). Korean HBV has also been studied in a comparative way but mainly with reference to Japanese and/or in terms of idioms (Choi, 2003; Choi, 2004). Chinese scholars have done some comparative studies between Korean and Chinese idioms from the cultural perspective (Jin, 1988; Zheng, 2007; Quan, 2008) or from the cognitive perspective (Sun, 2009), as well as cognitive analysis of Korean and English *hand* (Wen, 2008), cognitive analysis of Korean, Chinese and English *eye* (Nan, 2011) and the features of Korean, Chinese and English HBV in word formation (Nan, 2012). These studies on Korean HBV have been done mostly in a separate or less systematic way and given inadequate attention by Chinese or western scholars.

In summary, the research of HBV at home and abroad has experienced from macro to micro studies, and from static to dynamic studies. Korean HBV is studied mainly from the lexical and semantic perspective, studies of Chinese HBV and its comparison with English HBV are focused on the cognitive analysis of *heart* and other parts of human body, while the comparison between Korean and Chinese or English are mainly confined to idioms.

Based on the search for the related usage of HBV in the corpora of Korean, Chinese and English, syntagmatic analysis of Korean HBV will be conducted in both lexical and syntactic level by means of lexical semantics. The focus

* This research was supported by the Academy of Korean Studies Grant (AKS-10R-42): *Typological Analysis of Korean HBV in Comparative Perspective*, and “211” Project of Yanbian University for the third Key Disciplinary Construction: *A Comparative Study of English and Korean Word Formation*.

of this research is on how Korean, Chinese and English HBV “lives” in real language, that is, morphological productivity, ways of word formation, semantic changes in collocation so as to get better understanding of the features of Korean, Chinese and English HBV.

II. LEXICAL FEATURES OF HBV IN KOREAN, CHINESE AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Korean, Chinese and English HBV is very active in word formation, such as compounding, derivation or conversion. It is also active in collocation, especially unique in the collocation with other HBV or color words.

A. Word Formation

Korean, Chinese and English HBV, as free morphemes, can form derivatives and compounds while some Korean and Chinese HBV, as bound morphemes, can form derivatives. English HBV can be converted into verbs, adjectives, adverbs or exclamations, Chinese HBV can be converted into prepositions or classifiers.

1. Compounding

All HBV in Korean, Chinese and English can form compounds, most of which are noun compounds, and some verb and adjective compounds. A few adverb compounds of *heart* can be found in Chinese, e.g. “精心 (carefully)”, “潜心 (with concentration)”, and some in English, e.g. “headlong”, “shoulder-high”, “backstage”, “backwards”, etc. Compounding of Korean, Chinese and English HBV with some words of color, direction or HBV displays some special lexical and semantic features. For example, Chinese HBV is very rich in compounding two different HBV while English HBV is famous for compounding two same HBV connected with “and” or “to”. What’s more, compounding of the same HBV and the same color may convey different meanings, or compounding of the same HBV and different colors may have the same meaning. Compounding of HBV and some words of direction are very popular in Korean and Chinese, which is expressed by prepositional phrases in English. Chinese is unique in compounding different kinds of words which are composed of the same morpheme but in different orders. For example, the compounding of *stomach* and *intestines* “肠胃” and “胃肠” which have the same meaning, the compounding of *hand* and *under* “下手” and “手下” which means “to act” and “at hand of someone” respectively. Other examples are “头小 (small head)” and “小头 (small part of the whole)”, “手抓 (hold with hand)” and “抓手 (key points)”, and etc.

2. Derivation

Most of Korean, Chinese and English HBV, as free morphemes, can derive new words by the addition of prefixes or suffixes or both. Since Chinese is a type of language with a low morpheme-per-word ratio, it is not so active in derivation as Chinese or English which is the most active in it. By the addition of prefixes, Korean HBV of head and limbs can form noun derivatives only, while English HBV can derive nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, but Chinese HBV cannot form any derivatives with prefixes. By the addition of suffixes, Korean and Chinese HBV can derive nouns only while English HBV can derive nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. By the addition of both prefixes and suffixes, Korean HBV and English HBV can derive nouns and adjectives, which cannot be found in Chinese.

All English HBV can be used only as stems to derive new words. But some Korean and Chinese HBV have been grammaticalized and thus can be used as suffixes to derive new words. Korean “머리 (head)” and “다리 (leg)” can be used as suffixes of nouns, for example, “버르장머리 (manners)”, “인정머리 (compassion)”, “늙다리 (old person)”. Chinese “头 (head)”, “面 (face)” and “手(hand)” can be used as suffixes. “头 (head)” can be suffixes of nouns, verbs and adjectives and either doubles a syllable or derives a noun (e.g. 里头), “面 (face)” can be bound to words indicating direction (e.g. 东面, 前面) and “手(hand)” means “a person with certain profession” (e.g. 选手).

3. Conversion

Conversion is possible for Korean, Chinese and English HBV, but only “머리 (head)” in Korean can be converted and used as a classifier “마리” by vowel change from “ㅏ” to “ㅓ”, e.g. “돼지 한마리 (a pig)”. Chinese HBV “头 (head)” and “面 (face)” can be converted into conjunctives, meaning the parallel of two actions or two things, e.g. “一面/一头看书, 一面/头喝茶 (drinking tea while reading)”. “头” can be converted into adjectives while “面” into verbs, e.g. “头一天 (the previous day)” and “面谈 (talk face-to-face)”, and “眼 (eye)”, “头” and “面” can be converted into classifiers, e.g. “一眼井 (a well)”, “一头猪 (a pig)” and “一面镜子 (a mirror)”. English HBV is most active in conversion, which can be converted into verbs, adjectives, adverbs, exclamations or classifier, e.g. “face the truth”, “back pay”, “sit back”, “My foot!”, “6-foot high”.

B. Collocation

Same HBV in different languages needs the company of the same or different words. For example, “코 (nose)” in Korean can be collocated with such verbs as “긱다(bend)”, “빠지다(pull off)”, “꿇이다(pierce)”, “납작해지다(flatten)”, “박다(stick)”, while in Chinese “穿(pierce)”, “牵(hold)”, “刮(rub)”, and in English “count”, “pull”, “bite”, “break”, “lead”, “pay”, “rub”, etc. Due to the same physical and physiological reaction of human body to the stimulus, *mouth* in Korean, Chinese and English can be modified by the same adjectives and mean the same as well.

For example, “달다, 甜, sweet” and “더럽다, 脏, foul” in Korean, Chinese and English, “바르다, 直(straight)” and “빠르다, 快(quick)” in Korean and Chinese, and “거칠다, crude” in Korean and English. But because of different culture and customs, different adjectives are used to modify *mouth* in Korean, Chinese and English, for example, “짧다(short)”, “무겁다(heavy)”, “가볍다(light)”, “여물다(ripened)”, “쓰다(bitter)”, “굵다(thick)”, “높다(high)”, “무섭다(frightening)” in Korean, “硬(hard)”, “笨(stupid)”, “长(long)”, “尖(sharp)”, “紧(tight)”, “懒(lazy)”, “软(soft)” in Chinese, and “hungry”, “clean”, “loud”, “wide”, “mealy”, “big”, “good/bad”, “poor”, “useless” in English.

Synesthesia is another feature in the collocation of HBV in the three languages. It is a neurologically based condition in which stimulation of one sensory or cognitive pathway leads to automatic, involuntary experiences in a second sensory or cognitive pathway. It often leads to cross-sensory metaphors in languages, wherein the mixing of sensations or the stimulation of one sense that produces a mental impression associated with a different sense, as in the description of one kind of sense impression by using words that normally describe another. For example, “차거운 눈길”, “冷眼” and “cold eye”, where the word “cold” which is usually used to describe the sense of touch is employed to describe visual motion. Other examples are “입이 무겁다”, “嘴尖”, “sweet face”, and etc.

C. Idioms of HBV + HBV

Most of Korean, Chinese and English HBV can collocate with the same or different kinds of HBV to form idioms, among which Chinese idioms of HBV + HBV are unique both in number and types.

There are some correspondent idioms of HBV + HBV in Korean, Chinese and English, which have not only lexical meanings, but also metaphorical meanings. For example, the combination of *eye* and *ear* forms “눈귀”, “耳目” and “eyes and ears” which all refer to the person who gets information in a secret way. Other examples are “머리부터 발끝까지”, “从头到脚” and “from head to foot”, meaning “covering the whole body”, or “손에 손잡고”, “手拉手” and “hand in hand”.

Some Korean idioms are composed of one HBV while the corresponding ones in Chinese and English are composed of two same HBV. For example, “얼굴을 맞대고”, “面对面”, “face to face”, or “어깨를 나란히 하다”, “肩并肩”, “shoulder to shoulder”, or “한마음”, “心连心”, “heart-to-heart”.

Chinese is rich in the idioms of HBV + HBV both in number and types, especially “心 (heart)” which is unique in forming a lot of four-word idioms with other HBV, for example “赤胆忠心 (loyalty)”, “十指连心 (intimately connected)”, “耳软心活 (credulous)” and etc.

III. SEMANTIC FEATURES OF HBV IN KOREAN, CHINESE AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE

People get to know and then describe new things through something familiar to them. HBV is the most familiar to human beings and therefore used quite often to describe some new concrete and abstract things, which enables the meanings of HBV has been extended. But the degree and scope of extension are different in Korean, Chinese and English.

A. Semantic Extension

By means of metaphor and metonymy, the meanings of most HBV in Korean, Chinese and English have been mapped from human body domain to non-human body domain, such as color domain, time and space domain, emotional domain, and thus refer to space, time, feelings, attitudes, manners, and etc. with the help of certain nouns, verbs, adjectives or prepositions.

1. Certain kinds of person or thing

Korean, Chinese and English HBV can be used metonymically to refer to people, a person with certain features or certain skills or abilities, wherein a specific part of something is used to refer to the whole. For example, such parts of a person as “새 얼굴 (new faces)”, “新手 (green hand)” and “old bones” are used to describe certain kind of people. “주먹코 (bulbous nose)”, “메기입 (wide mouth)”, “蒜头鼻 (bubble nose)”, “blue eyes” and “loudmouth” refer to a person with certain appearance or personality, while “눈귀 (private eye)”, “千里眼 (farsighted person)” and “silver tongue” refer to someone with a special skill. The principle of least effort is employed in this case. People will naturally choose the most convenient way or the path of least resistance to understand and describe new things. In the above-listed examples, a certain part (face, hand or bones) or nature (skill or ability) of a person is used to substitute for a person. Korean, Chinese and English HBV can also be used metaphorically to refer to something with the shape or function of certain organ, for example, “바늘귀 (eye of a needle)”, “감자눈 (eye of potato)”, “火舌 (tongues of flame)”, “针鼻 (eye of a needle)”, “mouth of the river”, “nose of plane” and etc..

2. Space and time

In Korean, Chinese and English, *heart* can mean “center”, for example, “국가행정의 심장부”, “市中心”, “heart of city”. Some HBV in Korean, Chinese and English, collocated with some prepositions of space, refer to short distance or short time. For example, “코아래 입”, “눈코 사이”, “眼皮/鼻子底下”, “before/in front of one’s (very) eyes” and “under one’s nose” mean short distance, while “눈앞”, “코앞”, “眼前”, “眼下”, “before hand” and “in the twinkling of an eye” mean short time. *Head* is also used metaphorically in the three languages to refer to “the starting time of something” or “the front part of something”, for example, “침대머리 (head of a bed)”, “해질머리 (start of the sunset)”, “船头 (bow of a ship)”, “从头到尾 (from beginning to end)”, “head of the stairs” and “have a good head for business”. *Nose* can convey the same meaning in Chinese and English, for example, “鼻祖 (originator)” and “nose of a plane”.

3. Feelings

One of the main features of viscera is “inner” or “inside”, which determines its extended meaning of “inside world”, that is feeling or thought. Apart from *kidney* and *stomach*, other components of viscera can mean feelings or emotions in Chinese, most of which can be conveyed only by *heart* in English, a few by *stomach* or *kidney*. English compounds or idioms of *heart* with the meaning of feeling can find their equivalence with Chinese ones of different components of viscera, e.g. “肺腑之言 (words from the bottom of one’s heart)”, “互诉衷肠 (heart-heart-talk)”, “热心肠 (warm-hearted)”, “肝肠寸断 (heartbroken)”, “胆小如鼠 (chicken-heart)”, “心肝 (sweet heart)”. Chinese “心 (heart)” has the meaning of thought, which is expressed in English by “mental”, e.g. “心算 (mental calculation)”.

Five sense organs are often used in the idioms showing one’s such feelings as anger, horror, sadness or happiness. When someone is angry, he will “눈을 부릅뜨다 (with eyes wide open)”, “咬牙切齿 (grit one’s teeth)”, or “jump down one’s throat”. When someone is happy, he will, “입이 찢어지다 (grin from ear to ear)”, “合不拢嘴 (grin from ear to ear)”, or “smile from ear to ear”, but “코를 실룩거리다 (have a lump in one’s throat)”, “触目伤心 (heart-breaking)” or “down in the mouth” when he is sad, and “입이 얼어붙다 (mouth-frozen)”, “目瞪口呆 (stare openmouthed)”, “tongue-tied” when he is frightened.

4. Attitudes and manners

When someone behaves as if he were more important than other people, he would naturally look up or down. Therefore, the collocation of HBV with words like *high* or *air* is used to describe a haughty person, for example, “눈이 높다 (high eye)”, “코가 높다 (tall nose)”, “鼻孔朝天 (with one’s nose in the air)”, “眼高手低 (high eye)” or “with one’s nose in the air”, and the collocation of HBV with words like *lower* or *down* is used to show one’s arrogance, for example, “눈을 깔다 (eyes down)”, “下眼相看 (eyes down)” or “look down one’s nose at”.

B. Semantic Shift

Both semantic symmetry and asymmetry exist in the expressions with HBV in Korean, Chinese and English. To express the meaning of many people, we have the same phrase in the three languages, “입이 많다”, “嘴多”, “many mouths”, where *mouth* is used to mean people. Other examples are “입가에 거품을 물다”, “口吐白沫”, “foam at the mouth”, or “입을 열다/떼다”, “开口”, “open one’s mouth”.

Arbitrariness between the signifier and the signified result in semantic discrepancies among Korean, Chinese and English HBV, by means of which semantic shifts or semantic asymmetry arise among the lexical equivalents of Korean, Chinese and English HBV. According to *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary*, asymmetry is the appearance of something whose two sides or parts are not the same in size or shape. Semantic asymmetry occurs mainly when two words or phrases sharing the same conceptual meaning display different associative meanings or when the same associative meaning is expressed by different words or phrases.

1. Semantic Transposition

Semantic transposition across languages takes place when the same associative meaning is expressed by different words or phrases in different languages. To express the meaning of not acting in a way that supports what one says that he believes, the combination of *mouth* and *belly* (“입다르고 배다르다”) is used in Korean, the combination of *mouth* and *heart* (“口是心非”) is used in Chinese, and *face* (“two-faced”) is used in English. Another example is that *nose* (“코를 박다”), *head* (“埋头”) and *eye* (“be up to one’s eyeballs in sth.”) are used respectively in Korean, Chinese and English to express the meaning of being busy with.

2. Semantic Overlapping

Semantic overlapping takes place when the semantic range of a word or phrase in one language partly covers that in

other languages. For example, Korean “머리” and Chinese “头” cover the meaning of both *head* and *hair* in English. Therefore, when we say “wash hair” and “shake head” in English, the same word is used in Korean (“머리를 감다” and “머리를 흔들다”) and Chinese (“洗头” and “摇头”). Here are some more examples. “입이 달다”, “嘴甜” and “sweet mouth” are all composed of *mouth* and *sweet*, and have the same associative meaning of engaging in flattery, but “입이 달다” ranges more semantically, meaning having good appetite.

3. Semantic Misplacement

Semantic misplacement occurs in the seemingly equivalents, that is, when the same form in different languages has different associative meanings. For instance, “고개가 수그러지다”, “低头” and “get one’s head down” have the same combination of *head* and *down*, and the same conceptual meaning of lowering one’s head, but their associative meanings are totally different. “고개가 수그러지다” means respect or admiration, “低头” means yielding and “get one’s head down” means avoiding attracting attention. Another example is “머리가 크다 (grown up)”, “头大 (dizzy or powerful)” and “big-headed (arrogant or conceited)”, which are all the combination of *head* and *big*.

4. Semantic Vacancy

Semantic vacancy occurs when a word or phrase has an associative meaning in one language but only a conceptual meaning in other languages. “입이 쓰다”, “嘴苦” and “bitter mouth” are equivalent both in expression and conceptual meaning of having bitter smell in the mouth because of abnormal condition in alimentary system, respiratory system or cardiovascular system. But the first one has an associative meaning of having bad appetite or bad mood. It shows that physiological conditions can cause the effect on psychological condition. Other examples are “발이 차갑다”, “脚凉” and “have cold feet” are equivalent both in form and conceptual meaning, but the English one has figurative meaning of having a feeling of worry that is strong enough to make someone reconsider the plan.

IV. CONCLUSION

Typologically, Korean, Chinese and English belong to three different types of language. Korean is agglutinative, Chinese is isolating and English is inflectional analytic. Therefore, HBV shows some different lexical and semantic features in Korean, Chinese and English. In terms of morphological productivity, HBV of the three languages differ in number and structure, while in terms of collocation, due to different cultures and thinking modes, there exist semantic asymmetries, such as transposition, overlapping, misplacement, or vacancy. On the other hand, common physiological phenomenon and similar experiences make the people speaking different languages have the similar cognitive styles, which can be seen in the similarities of Korean, Chinese and English HBV in word formation, collocation and semantic change.

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Investigating the Use of Thinking Aloud Protocols in Translation of Literary Texts

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Abstract—Mental constructs and processes in general and translation processes in particular have been the focus of much research in the past three decades. Among the techniques used in studying such cognitive processes and strategies, the use of Thinking Aloud Protocols (TAPs), has extensively been proposed. Though much has been written on the use of TAPs in recognizing the mental processes translators experience, very little if any can be found to address the mechanisms and mental processes they undergo while translating a piece of literary text. Having this in mind, the purpose of the present study was to investigate the strategies senior translation students of Islamic Azad University, Bandar Abbas Branch apply while translating literary texts using Thinking Aloud Protocols. To achieve this end, 12 senior translation students of Islamic Azad University, Bandar Abbas Branch participated in the study. Participants were chosen according to the convenience sampling method. The subjects, then were asked to translate four literary texts and while translating verbalize whatever goes on in their mind within a TAP framework. The “think aloud protocols” were categorized based on the frequency table and the translations were analyzed qualitatively. The data was analyzed to reveal the strategies used by the respondents. In the analysis of the strategies, just the types of strategies were of importance to the researcher though the frequency of each strategy was also, collected and reported. Based on the findings, fourteen strategies were detected with Look-up was as the most frequent strategy used by the subjects in the study. Using imagery and Paraphrasing were the second and third most frequent strategies used by the subjects respectively. Switching to L1 while translation was found the lowest strategy as reported in TAPs by the subjects. Deductive reasoning strategies were the second lowest strategy reported. Such strategies as Resourcing and referencing, evaluating and monitoring, problem solving and co-text recourse stood in between.

Index Terms—think-aloud protocol (TAP), translation process, literary text

I. INTRODUCTION

Mental constructs and processes in general and translation processes in particular have been the focus of much research in the past three decades. (Kussmaul and Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995; Pöntinen and Romanov, 1989; Jääskeläinen, 1999; Jensen, 1999; Künzli 2007 among others). To date many speculations have been proposed on what might occur in the translator’s mind during translation. Human cognitive processes – and particularly the mental process of translation can be investigated in different ways such as observing reactions to specific stimuli, analyzing the errors and the results of a task performance, etc. Over the last three decades, however, think-aloud protocols (TAPs) have become a widely-used method to investigate the complex process of translation. This method allows data collection about the translator’s thoughts at the same time he verbalizes them. The focus on such techniques has its roots on the way translation is defined and conceptualized in the field. To many translation theorists, translation is a process, in which we should transfer meaning and sense of the source language into the target language, and to the extent that we can attain this objective, our translation would be more acceptable. Again, since this process is a science and art due to its characteristics, the translator should be able to master the target language grammar and writing skill to transfer this actual sense completely. On the other hand, translation is a process between two languages and the translator has to produce a bridge between these two and for strengthening this bridge and reaching the aim of translation, the translator should be familiar with the culture, grammar and other characteristics of the source and target language and be able to process all these appropriately. According to Jakobson (1959), translation is whole message transference from one language into another rather than the transfusion of single separate code units. He, also, believes that what the translator does is understanding the whole message of source language and transferring it into the target language. Hence, understanding the sense and aim of the source language is the main task of the translator which is a process than a mere product.

So, the translator stands at the centre of the complex process of translation, as a mediator between the producer of the source text and its target language readers. The translator is first and foremost a mediator between two parties for whom

mutual communication might otherwise be problematic. (Hatim & Mason, 1990). Translation theories are fundamentally concerned with rendering a source language to a target language. Different translation theorists have expressed different views on what the characteristics of a good translator should be. But something has commonly been agreed upon and that is the fact that more knowledge of the language can not by itself be sufficient to make one capable of handling translation from the source language into the target language (Miremedi, 2001) if the very process of translation is ignored. The tasks gets much more complicated when the type and genre of the translation requires quite different mental strategies for rendering the given text or texts. One such type of texts is the literary text which seems to require more demanding mental processes in translation compared with other genres due mainly to the complex interaction of language and culture in such texts.

In 1990, Susan Bassnett and Andr e Lefevere announced that neither the word, nor the text, but the culture becomes the operational ‘unit’ of translation. Herzfeld (2003) states that a literary translation is a device of art used to release the text from its “dependence on prior cultural knowledge. However, it is not an easy task to transplant a text steeped in one culture into another. Particularly demanding from the translator’s point of view is the use of culturally specific metaphors and allusions. As Kussmaul and Tirkkonen-Condit, (1995) argue There has always been a kind of empirical research, like translation criticism and error analysis, but this was product- and not process- oriented. By comparing the target text with the source text or looking at errors of the translated text, one could only speculate about what has occurred in the translator’s mind during translation. What was needed was a way to discover what actually happens, to get a glimpse into the ‘black box’.

As it was stated above such a view towards translation led to a surge of interest into finding and applying techniques which could unravel the processes which the translator underwent to render a piece of texts. One such technique was the use of thinking aloud protocols.

II. METHODOLOGY

The project was discussed with the senior students majoring in English translation at Islamic Azad University, Bandar Abbas Branch. 12 students voluntarily took part in the first phase of the study based on a convenience sampling method. Participants were trained how to present think aloud protocols in two sessions of training and practicing it one by one in the classroom. Then they were given four literary excerpts taken from four great short stories. Both the stories and the excerpts were extracted on a random basis. Due to the nature of literary texts, readability index was not taken into account in this study to observe the authenticity of the texts. The participants were asked to translate the texts from English to Persian and keep records of their first drafts including corrections, crosses, and developmental stages of their work up to the end of the exam session. They were also asked to provide the researcher with the think- aloud protocols in Persian and in their own handwritings. The data were collected, categorized and analyzed. The “think aloud protocols” were categorized based on the frequency table and the translations were analyzed qualitatively.

Material

A translation test consisting of four literary excerpts was the main instrument of the study. The texts completed through TAPs protocols were *The Death of Ivan Ilyich* by Leo Tolstoy, *The Dead* by James Joyce, *The Cask of Amontillado* by *Edgar Allan Poe* and *Young Goodman Brown* by Nathaniel Hawthorne .They were taken randomly out of a pool of 75 great short stories from the following website: www.theshortstory.org

III. DISCUSSION

This study investigated the strategies senior translation students of Islamic Azad University, Bandar Abbas Branch apply while translation of literary texts using Thinking Aloud Protocols. In so doing, first the results of the study are summarized in Table.1 followed by a more detailed elaboration and argumentation. Finally, conclusion, implication, and limitations of the study are presented.

Table.1 summarizes the results of subjects’ verbalization of strategies they have used while translating the literary excerpts they received in the study.

TABLE.1
THE STRATEGIES USED BY THE PARTICIPANTS IN THEIR TAPS

| Strategies applied | S1 | S2 | S3 | S4 | S5 | S6 | S7 | S8 | S9 | S10 | S11 | S12 |
|--|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|-----|-----|
| Using Imagery | 8 | 7 | 10 | 9 | 8 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 9 | 8 | 6 | 5 |
| Analysing & Reasoning | 4 | 5 | 3 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 6 | 3 | 5 | 6 |
| Contextual recourse | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 3 | 3 | 4 |
| Look-up | 12 | 12 | 13 | 11 | 9 | 10 | 12 | 11 | 10 | 9 | 8 | 10 |
| Resourcing & referencing | 7 | 5 | 4 | 8 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 4 | 7 | 2 | 6 |
| Self-recourse | 7 | 9 | 5 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 3 |
| Switching to L1 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 1 |
| Paraphrasing | 9 | 8 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 6 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 8 | 6 | 7 |
| Guessing Game | 4 | 6 | 5 | 7 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 |
| Problem solving | 8 | 6 | 5 | 6 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3 | 8 | 5 | 4 | 6 |
| Inductive inferencing | 5 | 4 | 8 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 2 |
| Deductive reasoning | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 2 | 4 | 4 |
| Co-text Recourse | 7 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 8 | 6 | 4 | 6 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 5 |
| Evaluating & monitoring | 8 | 6 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 8 | 7 |
| Other Compensation Strategies e.g. Association | 4 | 4 | 6 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 2 | 5 | 4 | 5 |

As it can be seen from the table.1, subjects have employed variety of cognitive, met cognitive and compensation strategies in the translation of the literary excerpts.

Based on the frequency of the reports, the main translation strategies which subjects had resorted to while translating the literary texts were:

1. Look-Up (127 times)
2. Using Imagery (109)
3. Paraphrasing (92)
4. Evaluating and Monitoring (81)
5. Co-text Recourse (71)
6. Problem Solving (69)
7. Self-Recourse (68)
7. Resourcing and referencing (67)
8. Contextual Recourse (59)
9. Analyzing and Reasoning (57)
10. Inductive Inferencing (54)
11. Other Compensation Strategies (54)
12. Guessing Games (53)
13. Deductive Inferencing (40)
14. Switching to L1 (32)

These findings are in line with the previous research while the terminology adopted in this study is a little bit different from some seminal models in the literature. For example Krings (1986) offers the following list of translation strategies reported in TAPs:

1. The subjects' explicit statement of problems
2. The use of reference books
3. The underlining of source-language text passages
4. The semantic analysis of source-language text items
5. Hesitation phenomena in the search for potential equivalents
6. Competing potential equivalents
7. The monitoring of potential equivalents
8. Using Specific translation principles
9. The modification of written target-language texts
10. The assessment of the quality of the chosen translation
11. Paralinguistic or non-linguistic features (Krings, 1986: 267)

As for those translation strategies, which subjects resort to when automatic processing breaks down, Krings suggests that these can be classified as strategies of comprehension

(Inferencing and use of reference works), equivalent retrieval (especially interlingual and intralingual associations), equivalent monitoring (such as comparing Source Text (ST) and Target Text (TT)), decision-making (choosing between two equivalent solutions) and reduction (for instance of marked or metaphorical text portions).

Again as it can be seen, some of these strategies though the terminology is a bit different. For example, for comprehension strategies, inferencing, inductive and deductive reasoning have been used in the study for equivalent retrieval and equivalent monitoring, paraphrasing, self recourse and evaluation have been proposed based on Oxford's 1990 classification of cognitive and metacognitive strategies as translation process is assumed to involve such mental routes.

There are other classifications too. For example one has been proposed by Gerloff (1986) who defines text-processing strategies as any metalinguistic or metacognitive comments made or specific problem-solving behaviors affected, during the decoding and rendering of the translation text. The strategies she suggests are:

1. Problem identification
2. Linguistic analysis
3. Storage and retrieval
4. General search and selection
5. Text inferencing and reasoning
6. Text contextualization
7. Task monitoring.

While inferencing, reasoning, monitoring, and analyzing are more or the less the same terminology as has been reported in chapter four of this study, with some modification, other strategies too can be mapped on what has been found in the study under investigation. It goes without saying that, due to the nature of the genre in this study, there are some strategies which can be argued to be attributed to literary texts. For example, using imagery is a strategy been resorted to in many cases by the subjects while translating the literary excerpts. Self recourse and contextual resorts are other examples.

Mondhal and Jensen (1996), further, distinguish production from evaluation strategies. The former are further subdivided into achievement strategies and reduction strategies. Among achievement strategies, which are characterized by an attempt to remain as close as possible to the ST, are spontaneous association and reformulation. Among reduction strategies, which are characterized by their inherently remedial nature, are avoidance and unmarked rendering of marked items. Finally, evaluation strategies involve, for instance, reflecting on the adequacy and acceptability of translation equivalents. Though the direction in taxonomizing translation strategies is quite different in this latter categorization, still, a lot of overlap can be found in the given so-called taxonomy of translation strategies regarding literary texts.

Séguinot (1996) proposes four types of translation strategies as being typical of 'professional' translation, namely:

1. Interpersonal strategies (brainstorming, correction, phatic function),
2. Search strategies (dictionaries, world knowledge, words)
3. Inferencing strategies (rereading ST and TT, consult) and
4. Monitoring strategies (reread ST and TT, consult, compare units).

In line with these studies, Lörcher (1996) compares the strategies adopted by professional and non-professional translators (foreign language students). He points out that, although the two groups do not differ qualitatively in their use of translation strategies, they do differ quantitatively, i. e. in the distribution and frequency of the strategies employed. This, also, has been shown in this study, though the dichotomy of professional vs. non-professional translators was not the focus of the study.

Séguinot (1991) suggests that native speakers of English translating into their mother tongue show more efficient monitoring and revising strategies, and work more at the textual level, whereas non-native speakers seem to rely more on learned principles and lexical-level processes something which was not exclusively found in this study.

Drawing upon Lörcher's definition, Jääskeläinen (1993) proposes a classification of translation strategies distinguishing between global and local strategies, the former applying to the whole task (considerations about style, readership etc.), the latter to specific items (i. e. lexical searches). On the basis of this distinction, she is able to claim that global strategies are much more frequently used by professionals and semi-professionals (translator trainees) than by non-professionals in her study. After making a plan, the former appear to follow it systematically through the task, whereas the latter seem to proceed in a more haphazard way.

Overlaps between findings in this study and the previous research on the use of TAPs in Translation Studies

Although Think Aloud Protocols (TAPs) have become a major instrument in process-oriented Translation Studies (TS), serious questions challenge the validity of their results. Putting methodological issues aside, the unsystematicity of the findings on one hand and lack of a unified cognitive mechanism on the other hand demands a more inclusive study. Indeed, despite the genre of this study, i.e. literary texts, the purpose of this study on a broader scope was to see if the translation strategies found in this study could get closer to a more unified pattern of cognitive processes behind the act of translation. Accordingly and avoiding any possible bias, a bottom up approach was adopted in the analysis of the strategies reported by the subjects in the study. As it was elaborated, a closer look at the strategies found demonstrates a lot of overlap even though, we cannot and should not ignore the effect of the genre and the context on the type and frequency of strategies used.

To summarize the strategies found in the corpus, a summary of the main and other compensation strategies are given below followed by some brief explanations:

1. Using Imagery and Look-up

Extract (4)

(1) او نمی دانست که فیث ایمان آورده است یا نه. وقتی خودش را در میان شب آرام و تنها می دید، به سختی حرف می زد. به غرش بادی که از میان جنگل می وزید گوش می داد. او تلو تلو خوران به سمت صخره رفت و احساس کرد که سرد و نمناک است. این در حالی بود که شاخه ای آویزان که قبلا در آتش سوخته بود سردترین شبنم را بر روی گونه ی او پاشید. صبح روز بعد، گودمن براون جوان آهسته وارد خیابان دهکده ی سالم شد و مثل یک آدم گیج اطرافش را نگاه می کرد. کشیش پیر در مسیر قبرستان قدم می زد تا اشتهاش برای صبحانه باز شود و روی خطابه اش تمرکز کند. وقتی از کنار گودمن براون رد می شد دعایی را زمزمه کرد. او خود را از قدیس قائم کرد انگار که از چیز منفوری دوری می کند.

Subject 10): At first, I read the whole text. **I imagine the pictures in the story.** I want to write whatever I got from the text. Now, I read the source text again. I read it till breakfast. **I refer to bilingual dictionary to find good equivalence for the words that I don't know their meaning** or I'm not sure about them. This text is very hard. I try to make short sentences.

2. Assessing comprehension and problem solving

Subject 5): I read the whole text. **It is full of words that I don't know their meaning.** I look up words in dictionary. I translate some sentences back to front for better understanding of Persian readers. Text is so descriptive and I try to keep this condition in Persian words. I want to transfer these pictures and in fact the atmosphere of the story in the target text as a way that they are in the source text.

I don't know what it means, it's like..... I don't know what it means. But I have to do something ,So I start translation anyway

3. Monitoring the task

Subject 5): I read it the text again, and try to see if my translation is good,I monitor my translation all the time to make sure that nothing is missed.....

As it has been stated in the literature review, these are some kind of metacognitive strategies. The following are however some examples of cognitive strategies:

4. Hesitation for finding better equivalence or Pausing in silence

Extract (4)

(1) او نمی دانست که از عبادتگاه اطاعت می کند یا خیر. هنگامیکه خود را در انزوا و سکوت شب یافت، به سختی می توانست صحبت کند. روبروی صخره تلو تلو خورد و سرما و رطوبت آن را حس نمود، درحالیکه شاخه ی کوچک بالای آتش، قطرات شبنم را به روی گونه اش می نشانند. صبح روز بعد، گودمن براون به آهستگی وارد خیابان دهکده ی سالم شد، مانند یک مرد گیج به اطرافش خیره می نگرست. کشیش پیر خوب در امتداد گورستان قدم می زد که برای صبحانه اشتها پیدا کند، موعظه اش را کوتاه نمود و گودمن براون را تبرک نمود. او کلمات مقدس نیایش قدیس گرامی را برای خودداری از کفر، کوتاه نمود. دیکن گوکین پیر در نیایشگاه خانگی بود و کلمات مقدس نیایشش از میان پنجره ی باز شنیده می شد. گودمن براون گفت: این جادوگر چه نیایشی با خدا دارد؟ گودی کلویز، مسیحی پیر محترم در آفتاب صبحگاهی در کنار پنجره اش ایستاده و برای دختر کوچکی که برایش یک پاینت شیر آورده بود، موعظه می نمود. گودمن براون بچه را طوری دور کرد گویی او را از چنگال شیطان نجات می دهد. به سمت عبادتگاه چرخید و به بالای آن نگرست، با اشتیاق به آن دختر با روبان صورتی نگرست و آه از نهادش برآمد درحالیکه دختر خیلی جدی رد شد و حتی سلامی هم نکرد.

Subject 5): **I read the whole text.** I hardly can communicate and relate with this text. Sentences are nonsense for me. **I have to look up some words in dictionary and read the source text again,** then I think, let's see. **[pause, rereads silently] Ah,** I start to translate the text without looking at the source text, **I don't know this way or method is true or not but this is my method for translation.** Now, **I want to check and compare my translation with the source text.** Primitive sentences are so ambiguous for me, **I hardly translate them. [pause]** But from line 4 to end, translation is easier. I want to find adequate equivalents for descriptive words. Actually, I don't like this text and always my feeling affect on my translation.

5. Rereading portions of text aloud without adding any comments

Subject 6): **I read the text aloud .** I hardly can understand this text. Sentences eccentric....

6. Co-text Recourse; relating text to previous or subsequent excerpts (going back and forth within the text)

Subject 7): **Like previous text,** at first, I look at the whole text in order to find words which I don't know the meaning of them. **Then, I refer to dictionary to find the meaning of those words. I cannot find the meaning of words "doth" and "catechizing".** I try to read the whole text many times to get the concept and main idea. **Sometimes I refer to the previous texts and sentences.** Now, I want to start translating and writing my sentences into target language with considering to the background conception of the text and meaning of the words. Some words that I cannot find their meaning **I replace another word with them with considering the whole text and the preceding sentences.** I write my conception of the phrase "with the coldest dew" and the sentence "What God doth the wizard pray to? quoth Goodman Brown" instead of word by word translation. When I read the text for the first time I thought that the meaning of "Faith" is "belief" but **when I read it again and refer back** I noticed that "Faith" is a proper noun. **and now I go back and see if I can understand that sentence that I have not been able to understand in the middle of the text.**

7. Using background knowledge, Linguistic Knowledge and self re-course besides other compensation strategies

Subject 11): As the previous, at first I read the whole text. **And analyze sentences for the unfamiliar words and grammatical points..** some times **I have to refer to my background language and world knowledge. my**

experiences help me find out the meaning of some words. As this text is full of happening and works with a subject (he), I decided not write "او" at the beginning of each sentence because **I think the repetition of a word in translation makes the text boring and the reader is not eager to continue it.** In the first sentence, **I look up "waltz, shuffle and sweep".** And since in Persian waltz is unknown I give an explanation in parentheses for it. In the second part, **I look up the words "retort, dispel and cuffs".** I try to translate the concept **based on my own knowledge.** As I mentioned I don't translate "he" at the beginning of sentences to avoid repetition. And sometimes in translation, **I change the sequence of phrases in a sentence to be read more fluently. In the third part, I look up "clacking, air, pantry and utter".** I try to have an informal translation because there are some sentences that are his thoughts or he thinks with himself not with an official person. In the last paragraph, I look up the words "flaccid, erect, part, vivacious, puckers, creases and braid". Here, I am in doubt to translate "aunt" as "عمه" or "خاله". **Although in European Countries, it is not important but in Persian culture it makes difference but as I am aunt (as "عمه") I translate as "عمه".** By finding new words, the meaning became easy. I try to translate concept but I observed the faithful translation like the fourth sentence of this paragraph.

8. Resourcing and using reference books

Subject 10:

Extract (1)

(1) پیتر ایوانوویچ از ته دل آهی کشید و فدروانا بازویش را از روی سپاسگزاری فشرد. موقعی آن ها به اتاق پذیرایی رسیدند که با رنگ صورتی تزیین شده بود و بوسیله لامپ روشن شده بود. آن ها پشت میز نشستند، او روی یک مبل و پیتر روی یک کوسن کوچک که فنرهای آن زیر وزنش تسلیم شده بود.

Subject 10): At first, I read the text and mark the words that I do not know the meaning of them by a red pen. **Then, I start to find the meaning of words in different dictionaries but I have difficulty in finding a good equivalence for the words, So I refer to literary thesaurus and a handbook.** And I think if I translate sentence by sentence it is better because I can find a better equivalence regarding to context.

9. Looking for similarities with L1 (Switching to L1)

Subject 6): Understanding the sentences and whole the paragraph is hard for me. I read it more then I try to translate. **Before that I try to conceptualize it in my mother tongue to grasp all the story I look up for gloom, dispel, arrange, cuff and bows.** I don't understand the meaning of bows so I use a meaning that I think is good for here. I don't know what's the meaning of cuff **I look up in other dictionary such as English to Persian one then I map it to My mother tongue equivalents** and change the meaning of arrange and then I translate word for word.

(1) سپس کاغذ کوچکی را از داخل جیب جلیقه اش بیرون آورد و نگاهی به سر فصل های نوشته شده ی سخنرانی اش کرد. او درباره ی خطوط برگرفته از روبرت براونینگ، تردید داشت. چون او می ترسید که این مطالب در حد فهم شنوندگان نباشد.

Subject 6): I don't translate paragraph easily. Translation of last part of this sentence is hard. "he feared they would be above the heads of his hearers" **I translate it in Persian .some times I try to paraphrase it in Persian** but when I study more I understand that my translation is wrong so I change it. **I translate the conception of paragraph. I don't care about exact words so I change them repeatedly.** but now I see it is

Subject 5): I read the whole text. I hardly can communicate and relate with this text. Sentences are nonsense for me. **I have to look up some words in dictionary and read the source text again,** Now, I want to check and compare my translation with the source text. Primitive sentences are so ambiguous for me. I hardly translate them. But from line 4 to end, translation is easier. I want to find **adequate equivalents for descriptive words.** Actually, I don't like this text and always my feeling affect on my translation.

10. Evaluating (Evaluating with reference to academic literary knowledge (i.e. referring to author's style, figurative language, characterization, setting, point of view, irony or author's intention)

(1) وقتی که به مهمان خانه ی روکش شده با پارچه ی نخی صورتی و روشن شده با لامپی کم نور رسیدند سر میز نشستند. زن روی یک مبل و پیتر روی مبل کوسنی کوتاهی نشست که فنرهایش زیر وزن او به طور نامنظمی خم شده بودند.

Subject 6): I don't know what the meaning of cretonne is so, **I look up in dictionary.** I don't understand the meaning. **I search for figurative meanings ,and other figures of speech.....**the meaning of spasmodically I check in Babylon dictionary but I cannot find a good meaning so I translate the synonyms of spasmodically; I find convulsively and fitfully instead of it then I find the meaning and translate. I check meaning of pouffe but **it is too long so I read its meaning for several times then I translate it.** I know the meaning of yield I look up in dictionary again. At the end I translate all sentences. **Then I evaluate my translation and in so doing compare it with some original works....**

11. Highlighting as another compensation strategy

Subject 6:

1. I study each paragraph completely then I think about the sequence of events and try to imagine places, characters, concept and main idea of whole paragraph. **I look up in dictionaries (BATENI, Oxfords, and Babylon (Webster, Word net, Concise Oxford) and at the end I translate each sentence.**

2. My tenses are simple present and simple past and I try to pay attention to the sequence of tenses. **I underline some difficult words and write some notes besides them**

12. Analyzing and reasoning

Subject9:**Extract (1)**

(1) پیترا ایوانویچ هنوز از ته دل و مایوسانه آه می کشید. پراسکویا فدوروانا بازویش را به آرامی فشار می داد. وقتی به اتاق پذیرایی که به پارچه کتان صورتی آراسته شده و با سو سوی لامپی روشن شده بود رسیدند، پشت میز نشستند. او روی مبل و پیترا هم روی کوسن نشست. فنرهای کوسن رو به جلو حرکت و تسلیم وزنش شدند. پراسکویا فدوروانا می خواست به او بگوید جای دیگری بنشیند اما فکر کرد چنین پیشنهادی برای آن شرایط مناسب نیست و نظرش را عوض کرد. همانطور که پیترا ایوانویچ روی آن کوسن نشست ایوان ایلچ را به یاد آورد که چگونه این اتاق را مرتب کرده بود و در مورد این پارچه ی صورتی و برگ های سبز با او مشورت کرده بود. اتاق پر از مبلمان و خرت و پرت بود. همانطور که به سمت مبل می رفت تور شل سیاه آن بیوه زن به لبه ی میز گیر کرد. پیترا ایوانویچ از جایش بلند شد که تور را جدا کند، همین که بلند شد فنرهای کوسن از زیر فشار رها شدند و او را به جلو هل دادند. بیوه زن خودش تور را جدا کرد. پیترا ایوانویچ دوباره سر جایش نشست. فنرهای متمرده کوسن را لعن و نفرین کرد اما مثل اینکه بیوه زن هنوز نتوانسته بود خودش را رها کند و پیترا ایوانویچ برای دومین بار از جایش بلند شد و فنرهای سرکشش به غرغز افتادند. وقتی همه ی این ماجراها تمام شد دستمال کتانی تمیزی را بیرون آورد و شروع به گریه کرد.

Subject 9): At first, I read the story; I mean the text, to know the type of text. **I analyze whole the text and think about the best possible ways to translate the text**. I can understand 90 percent of it and the only problem that I have is about new words. **I can classify this problem into two parts:** I look up for some words in dictionary to find a good definition. I can't find a good definition for I write translation of sentences but it is not as good as English understanding so I add some preposition.

13. Guessing Game

Subject 9): I have some problems with some expressions ...1) **The words which I can guess the meaning and the words which I cannot. I guess the meaning of those words due to my imagination and context and write my equivalence down.** Then, I **look up in a bilingual dictionary for those unknown words. I try to write whatever come to my mind, then rewrite and rewrite and match the original text with target one.** I believe these two sentences: 1) the springs of the pouffe, relieved of his weight....2)The widow had not quite freed.... Cannot be translated word by word, **so I translate them by using Persian expressions.**

14. Deductive reasoning and inductive inferencing

(2) همان طور که مرد روی مبل کوسنی می نشست پیترا ایوانویچ به یاد آورد چگونه ایوان ایلچ این اتاق را آراسته و با او در مورد این پارچه ی نخي صورتی با برگ های سبز صحبت کرده بود.

Subject 6): I look up in dictionary and make sure about the meaning of arrange then I translate. But translating the last sentence is hard because I can't find the best meanings. **So I try to figure out something in my mind.** I look up in other dictionary I change my translation more than 10 times it doesn't good for me. Translating is not easy I read for several times then I look up for arrange, consulted and regarding I know their meanings but they are not suitable for this paragraphs. **Finally I get the point from some phrases..and contextual clues...**

(3) اتاق پر از اسباب و اثاثیه و زلم زیمبو بود در راه رسیدن بیوه زن به سمت مبل، نوار دستمال گردن مشکي اش به لبه ی میز گرفت.

Subject 6): I love the words knick-knacks and Persian meaning. I know the meaning of knick-knack I don't check it again. I imagine the room as the biggest room which is full of rubbish materials. I look up in dictionaries for: lace, shawl, caught on. I write the meanings in Persian then **I analyze everything in mind and come up with some idea..I translate the text.**

15. Contextual recourse and paraphrasing

(4) بیوه زن شروع به جدا کردن دستمال گردنش کرد و پیترا ایوانویچ بار دیگر نشست و آشفتگی فنرهای مبل کوسنی زیرش را فرونشاند. هر چند که بیوه زن هنوز خودش را کاملاً آزاد نکرده بود و پیترا ایوانویچ بار دیگر بلند شد و باز هم مبل کوسنی جهید و حتی غرغز کرد.

Subject 6): I don't understand what are the roles of the shawl and the springs here? Why they were mentioned more than Ivan's name? There is no conversation between characters. The scene is going to be finished by the sound of pouffe and its rebel. I understand the meaning of paragraph but **I don't know what the meaning** of suppressing, rebellious is and creak. **So I check the context to get the meaning.** Before that however, **I reword the whole passage and simplify the text.....**

16. Other Compensation Strategies

There are some other strategies found in the corpus which are worth mentioning in this part, however, we just suffice to mentioning them. These are making analogies with other L2 words, using knowledge about word formation. Using knowledge about typographical conventions. Looking for similarities with L1. Using knowledge about punctuation, and analyzing textual organization and text type

All in all, the strategies found in this study can be classified as the following:

1. Using Imagery, 2.Look-up, 3.Contextual recourse, 4.Analyzing and reasoning, 5.Resourcing, 6.Self-Recourse 7 Contextual recourse 8.Deductive reasoning, 9.Inductibe inferencing, 10.Co-text recourse, 11.Switching to L1, 12.Paraphrasing, 13.Problem-solving and 14.Other Compensation strategies

IV. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

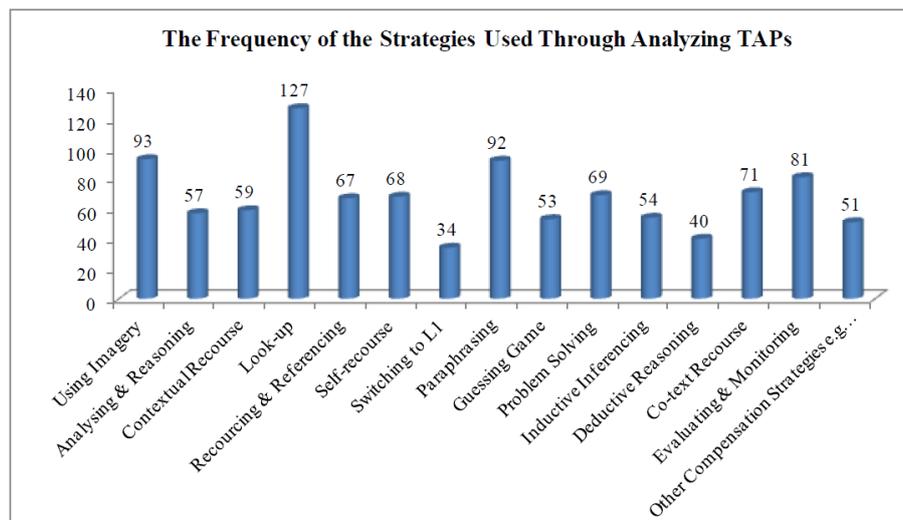


Figure.1 shows the graphic representation of the strategies detected in the verbatim verbalization of subjects in the study.

As the graph.1 shows, Look-up was the most frequent strategy used by the subjects in the study while translating the literary excerpts. Using imagery and Paraphrasing are the second and third most frequent strategies used by the subjects respectively. As it can be seen, switching to L1 while translation is the lowest strategy has been reported in TAPs by the subjects. Deductive reasoning strategies are the second lowest strategy reported. Such strategies as Resourcing and referencing, evaluating and monitoring, problem solving and co-text recourse stand in between. Avoiding terminology confusion, one can refer to other compensation strategies used by the subjects that either overlaps the current classification of strategies as adopted in this study or in some way approach in many cases to the classification reported above. Furthermore, there were other less important strategies which could be added to table.1. However, either for semantic overlap or low frequency rate, they are just referred to here briefly below. These are Concentration on grammatical features of the text or word order, focusing on the theme and content of the texts under translation, Re-reading the texts under translation, searching for the clues, hesitation to find better equivalents, writing the meaning of new words in Persian, and final edition and revision.

V. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The significance of this study is threefold: Theoretically, the findings of this study will contribute to the mainstream TAP research in general and TAP in translation studies in particular. Though much has been written on TAP studies in different genres and different groups of students, we are still far from a unified body of literature in the field. This and other similar studies can help the development of a more unified theory of the application of TAP in translation studies in general and literary translation in particular with a much more cognitive orientation.

Practically, one of the most significant purposes of TAP studies in general and translation in particular is to extract and delve into the processes through which the act of translation and interpretation can be much more convenient. This study in line with other studies in the field, will pave the way for those researchers who are interested in the cognitive and practical constraints with which translators are entangled with especially in the translation of literary texts.

Also, this study has some pedagogical implications for translation students in general and EFL learners in particular on one hand and translation teachers and trainers on the other hand. The findings of this study and similar studies can give a good image to learners and teachers to have a more vivid picture of the translation process and will show them how to avoid the use and application of incorrect and demanding strategies in their translation process.

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Tracing Cultures behind the Struggling Experience of a Chinese High School Student Writing Application Letters in English

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Abstract—By examining the affect, behavior and cognition (the ABCs) involved in the writing process of a Chinese high school student composing application essays in English (a foreign language) as a case study by means of ethnographic approach and under the notion of small culture, this study aims to illustrate how different cultural forces interact with one another and how they come to play in the shaping of rhetorical differences between learner's native language (L1/NL) and second or foreign language (L2/FL) writing. Data were collected and analyzed from various sources --essay drafts, interviews, personal reflections, and email exchanges. The findings show that multiple cultural forces ranging from national culture (Chinese culture, for example) to small cultures such as L1/NL and L2 /EFL writing instruction and family education and the like, interact with one another and co-influence L2/EFL learner's writing practice. And the intensity of struggle in L2/EFL writing somewhat relates to the interaction between the mentioned cultures.

Index Terms—rhetorical differences, small cultures, EFL writing, L1/L2 instruction

I. INTRODUCTION

The issue of culture and writing has been widely addressed since Kaplan pioneered the contrastive rhetoric (CR) research with his 1966 seminal work (see Connor, 1996, 2002 for overviews). In this (1966) study, Kaplan maintained that rhetoric was language and culture specific, and that L2 rhetorical organization was the result of the transfer of L2 rhetorical organization. Echoing these assumptions, numerous attempts have been made to explore the influence of culture on L2 writing (see Hirose, 2003; Kadar-Fulop, 1988; Purves, 1988; Uysal, 2008, for examples), and insightful findings have been generated to inform the teaching of ESL and EFL writing.

While it has had successful application for more than forty years, CR has also invited harsh criticisms in recent years, for being too simplistic in its research methodology and conceptualization of the CR notion (Martin, 1992; Matsuda, 1997; Scollon, 1997; Spack, 1997; Zamel, 1997); for overgeneralizing and stereotyping about rhetorical conventions (Leki, 1991, 1997; Hinds, 1983); for ignoring L2 developmental variables or the difficulties of writing in a second language (Mohan & Lo, 1985); and for considering transfer from L1 as a negative influence (Kubota, 1998a; Canagarajah, 2002). Central to the criticisms is the notion of culture, as Li (2008) wrote:

In my view, many of the flaws in our research stem less from the misconceived notion of culture, a notion that is both pervasive and elusive and probably all too broad as an analytical category, than from the misguided view of culture as an omniscient explanation and the assumption that there is one cultural prototype that students from the same cultural background would all pay homage to. (pp.18-19)

Li is not alone in contending that the underdeveloped notion of culture has limited CR in explaining differences in written texts and writing practices. As early as 2002, Connor noted that the view of culture most widely assumed in accounting for textual forms and practices has been overwhelmingly a received one, leading to problems such as the conflation of cultures with national entities, the valorization of internal consistency and consensuality, and the neglect of the place of unequal power relations and the role of conflict in describing influences and processes. In addressing the critiques, Connor(2004) went further to suggest a change of the name of contrastive rhetoric to intercultural rhetoric to encapsulate broadening trends of writing across languages and cultures. To accomplish a “text”-to-“context” shift in intercultural rhetoric research, Connor called for the inclusion of ethnographic approach to language study, and a dynamic definition of culture. Atkinson’s “small culture” model (2004) was a response to this call.

II. SMALL CULTURES AS CONCEPTUALIZATION

Given the situation that previous contrastive rhetoric is limited in accounting for differences in writing texts and

writing practices for viewing culture as static national entities, Atkinson, echoing Holliday (1999), distinguished a small sense of culture (“small culture”, i.e. classroom culture, disciplinary culture, student culture, etc.) in an attempt to make the notion of culture “a more flexible analytical tool” (2004, p. 285). Drawing on the studies of Holliday (1994, 1999), which discussed the array of complex and overlapping social institutions that any truly appropriate methodology would have to take into account, Atkinson (2004) developed a modified version of Holliday’s diagram (see figure 1 below), which indicates the sizes and levels of these interacting cultures and the partially overlapping relations among them. For example, student culture would have both its own unique internal norms and practices in any particular education situation, and this would overlap national cultural norms and practices, etc. The idea behind the notion of small cultures, according to Atkinson, is that “when we break our analysis down into complexly interacting small cultures, we get a much more complex notion of the interactions of different cultural forces” (2004, p. 286). Considering that

in no sense, then, could the “cultural action” taking place in any particular educational setting be accounted for solely in terms of the national culture in which that educational setting appeared to be located, as has often been done in the past. (Atkinson, 2004, p. 17)

Atkinson suggested intercultural rhetoric research need to consider the complexly interacting small cultures in any educational or other intercultural situation. Two studies listed below are cases in point.

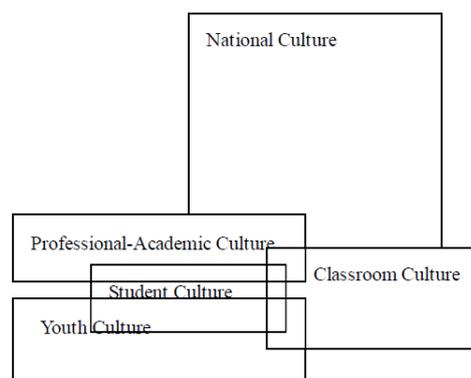


Fig.1. Complexly interacting small cultures in an educational setting

Petric’s 2005 study is an attempt to incorporate the notion of “small culture” into exploring the role of contrastive rhetoric in writing pedagogy in the context of a monolingual class, where a group of students from the Russian Federation studied at an English medium university in Central Europe. The study compared students’ argumentative essays written before and after a short writing course, which aimed to address cultural differences in writing in a non-prescriptive, exploratory, manner. The comparison focused on a culturally based textual element: the thesis statement. The analysis revealed that the essays written after the course display higher occurrence of thesis statements, more uniformity in the position of the thesis statements and less variation in the thesis statement sentence structure and lexical choices.

Uysal (2008) made another attempt to explore rhetorical patterns and bidirectional transfer in L1 and L2 essays of Turkish writers with reference to the notion of “small culture”. The study examined whether writers from shared cultural backgrounds displayed common writing patterns in their texts and whether these patterns differ while writing in L1 versus L2. The study explored the presence and bidirectional transfer of rhetorical patterns in eighteen Turkish participants’ writing in relation to previous writing instructional context defined as “small culture.” Participants were first given a survey about their writing instruction history. Then, each participant wrote two argumentative essays in Turkish and English. These texts were analyzed and stimulated recall interviews were given to discover the reasoning behind certain rhetorical patterns and their transfer. The results revealed some rhetorical preferences and their bidirectional transfer. However, although most rhetorical patterns could be traced to the educational context, various other influences, such as L2 level, topic, and audience were also found to account for these patterns and their transfer.

Diversified as they are in subject matter, the aforementioned two studies all agree that the small culture of the writing classroom, with its specific characteristics, should be the basis for decisions about the implications of CR findings for a particular group of students.

The current study, in a similar vein, adopts a “small culture” approach to the rhetorical differences emerging in the process a Chinese high school student went through in writing application letters in English. But different from Patric and Uysal, which pinpoint the “small culture” to the writing classroom, and seek relevance between CR findings and the teaching situation, this research attends to the interactional dimension of different levels of cultures, and their influence on L2 writing.

III. THE STUDY

A. Purpose

The study reported here aimed to investigate how different levels of cultures interact with one another and

co-influence L2/ELF writing by examining the process a Chinese high school student went through in writing application letters in English, the findings of which were interpreted in the notion of “small cultures”.

B. Method

The method used in this study was, broadly speaking, ethnographic, with a single case study format. In order to achieve an element of triangulation, data from several sources were collected for the study. The focal point of analysis and point of orientation of the other sources were the drafts (with detailed comments from an English writing expert) and the final version of a writing task in the UW (University of Washington) application. The author of the application letters was a 12-grade Chinese senior high school student, referred to here as Tony (a pseudonym), who planned to pursue graduate study abroad. Other sources include: our in-depth interviews with Tony; email exchanges between Tony and Prof. X (a pseudonym), the writing expert; Tony's blogs; teaching reflections by some of Tony's teachers (a Chinese language teacher and an English writing teacher) on the web, and field notes.

C. The Participant

1. English education background

The time when he decided to study abroad, Tony was 12th grade student of a foreign languages school attached to a local normal university, who had talents in informatics (first award winner in the National Olympiad in Informatics). At the same time, Tony was a good Chinese writer, whose articles were always read to the class, and some of them, won awards in writing competitions of different levels.

Given the nature of the school, Tony had more exposure to English than his peers in non-English-oriented middle schools. "We have two more English lessons per week than other schools. And we study two textbooks, while only one is taught in other schools." (Interview: Tony, January 30, 2011)

He also mentioned that various kinds of English activities such as a 10-minute daily speech at the beginning of each English class, debates, English drama night, etc, were organized to improve students' skills. Speaking of the English performance of the students in his school, Tony could not conceal his pride: "Students in our school always far exceed other students in English tests. We can easily finish a test of two hours within 40 minutes, and score high." (Interview: Tony, January 30, 2011). When asked about the focal point of the English training, Tony quickly referred to grammar, vocabulary and oral English. Although they did have English writing class every two weeks in the final year of the senior high school studies, regular and systematic writing practices have never occurred to them due to the heavy workload of the writing teacher (who has more than 10 classes to attend to, and each class has more than 50 students!), the priority on grammar and vocabulary over writing, and the requirement and style of test on writing in college entrance examination which, in Tony's words, "is a piece of translation or description work of no more than 120 words" (Interview, Tony, January 30, 2011). Tony further stated that concepts such as "thesis statement", "topic sentence", and "five-paragraph writing pattern" were mentioned in the writing class, but soon forgotten and failed to get developed into skill due to lack of practice, and due to their unawareness of the importance these concepts mean to English writing.

It was clear from Tony's account of his English learning experience in high school that in comparison to grammar, vocabulary, and oral English, writing, especially, whole composition writing, receives far less attention. While students in the school can score high in English tests due to their larger repertoire of vocabulary and solid grammatical knowledge, and can express themselves much better in interviews, they cannot, nonetheless, easily produce English essays that meet western writing norms. This observation was confirmed by L (a pseudonym), an English writing teacher in Tony's school, who wrote in a reflection journal:

Driven by the college entrance examination, the (English) composition training has been simplified. Students hardly have any opportunity to practice writing systematically. Given this situation, a majority of them (the students) resort to the memorization of model essays. (Personal reflection: L, May, 2010)

To gain an edge in English writing, which was crucial to academic success in the States, Tony joined a short-term SAT training program (staffed by native speakers) in Shanghai (a metropolitan in east China) during the 2010 summer vacation, with an emphasis on essay writing.

We were expected to complete an essay within 20 minutes. In order to be reader-friendly, we were taught to position the thesis in the opening paragraph, use examples to support the thesis in the body paragraph, and reiterate it in the concluding paragraph. (Interview: Tony, January 30, 2011)

The Shanghai experience, if not producing an overall effect on Tony as an effective writer due to its shortness in time, made Tony realize that English writing was not a simple translation of thoughts. The fact that he could write good Chinese articles did not necessarily mean that he could make an efficient English writer.

When I started learning TOEFL writing (in the SAT training program), my articles were below standard, but my Chinese writing often got high scores. I was so confused. (Personal reflection: Tony, November 8, 2010)

But Tony's real challenge in making an effective English writer began with the writing of application letters, the success of which would decide whether he would be accepted by the target universities.

2. Tony's struggle in writing application letters

Taking into account of his academic strength and interest, and financial situation, Tony decided to apply for undergraduate programs at two universities in the US. One is University of Washington (UW), the other, Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT). Following the decision was the writing of application letters. But Tony felt somewhat

uncertain about his writing ability, though the one-week intensive training in Shanghai did offer him insight into writing as a second language learner. Tony then turned to Prof. X, the writing expert, for help.

From December 9th-15th, 2010, Tony stayed in close contact with Prof. X via emails, wherein timely and detailed feedbacks on the draft application letters were offered. A total of 46 pieces of comment (all written in Chinese) were made over 10 drafts on 5 writing tasks. Problems mentioned in the comments are summarized and translated into English as follows:

TABLE 1:
WRITING PROBLEMS IN TONY'S FIRST DRAFTS OF THE FIVE TASKS (LISTED IN THE ORDER OF OCCURRENCE)

| Problems | | |
|----------|---|------------|
| | Types | Categories |
| 1 | Vague reference and expressions (<i>expressions without elaboration</i>) | Local |
| 2 | Assertion (<i>claims without support, statements without hedges</i>) | |
| 3 | Repetition (<i>overlapping expressions</i>) | |
| 4 | Improper word usage (<i>Chinglish, wrong word</i>) | |
| 5 | Redundancy (<i>wordy expressions</i>) | |
| 6 | Improper use of rhetorical devices (<i>overuse of rhetorical devices</i>) | |
| 7 | Improper citation (<i>quotation without giving source</i>) | |
| 8 | Irrelevance (<i>ideas off point</i>) | |
| 9 | Lack of voice | Global |
| 10 | Jumping logic (<i>Ideas not developed in a linear order</i>) | |

As suggested in the table, 10 writing problem types were identified among the 46 pieces of feedback from the expert, roughly divided into two categories (global and local). At the global level, Tony's essays were considered ineffective for the lack of the author's own voice and jumping logic, while at the local level, problems related to language use (vague expressions, assertion, repetition, redundancy) and coherence (irrelevance) were observed. For the convenience of discussion, "improper citation" was included in the local problems.

To better illustrate the occurrence of the above-listed problems, Tony's efforts in dealing with them, and more importantly, the cultural elements that contribute to Tony's struggle, one of the writing experiences was reported below in a chronological order of the revision process. The task involved is one to articulate how the work of a poet is similar to that of a scientist in no more than 300 words.

In Draft 1, under the title "The similarities between the work of a poet and that of a scientist", Tony produced a five-paragraph essay of 546 words, while the word limit was "no more than 300 words". The structure of the essay was a typically linear, deductive one, with thesis statement "there are some similarities between the work of a poet and that of a scientist" in the beginning paragraph, and topic sentences "Both the scientist and the poet need to consider the things from the essence", "Scientists need to see the world from both a macro view and a micro view, so is the poet", and "The work of a scientist is creative, as well as that of a poet" as topic sentence for each of the body paragraph, and a summative sentence as the conclusion. Moreover, one or two examples were provided in each body paragraph to help illustrate the point. It seems that Tony, at the moment of writing the application letter, was already familiar with the English rhetorical pattern.

Soon Tony received a response from Prof. X, which read

The essay has a neat structure, but it appears lengthy for redundancy—the inclusion of irrelevant information, and the use of imprecise expressions; the thesis is more a common knowledge than an individualized point of view; the argument sounds weak and superficial because it is too general. (Email exchange: Prof. X, December 10, 2010)

In addition to this holistic evaluation, pieces of revision directions (in Chinese) were offered for the underlined parts as indicated in the appendix. Here are two examples (For convenience's sake, the problems identified by the expert are underlined and the revision prompts presented in the footnotes).

1. Poetry and science are often considered as two different things with little connection, for one uses words to describe the world and thoughts, while the other uses principles^①. But in fact, there are some similarities between the work of a poet and that of a scientist, for example, the way they consider about things, the perspective from which they see the world^②, and the creativity needed in their work.

2. These two different scales also can be found in poems. In TO SEE A WORLD IN A GRAIN OF SAND^③, it reads:

*"To see a world in a grain of sand,
And a heaven in a wild flower,
Hold infinity in the palm of your hand,
And eternity in an hour."*

Tony was quite ready at the feedbacks received. "Quite normal", was Tony's response to the writing problems and the feedbacks (Interview: Tony, February 25, 2011). As a novice writer, he never expected his first draft free of problems. That is why he sent to Prof. X every piece of his effort for comment.

^①Vague reference (expression).

^②Repetition.

^③Where is it from? Give the source of the citation. Otherwise, plagiarism.

When asked about the source of the textual knowledge displayed in the essay, Tony mentioned the SAT training program, Prof. X, and the faint memory of the English writing course.

I would have placed the thesis statement at the end of the essay, like what we usually do in writing Chinese compositions, if not informed by the SAT training and Prof. X. Anyway, Flexible organization of ideas has always been highlighted by our Chinese writing teachers since primary school. A delayed thesis is an exhibition of this flexibility. (Interview: Tony, February 25, 2011)

But Tony also admitted that the general-specific-general organization proposed in Chinese writing somewhat facilitated his English writing, as both need to break down a general idea into specific ones and gather data to support them.

In Draft 2, the revised version was also in a 5-paragraph-essay pattern, but reduced to 350 words, much shorter than draft1 (546 words). To achieve this brevity, Tony nearly recomposed the essay. Besides an attention to accurate use of words and the inclusion of necessary information, Tony rewrote the controlling idea of the thesis, cutting three areas of discussion (“the way they consider about things, the perspective from which they see the world, and the creativity needed in their work”) into a single one—“they are both to make a better world”. And new examples were gathered to support the rewritten thesis. With these efforts, Tony expected to achieve a vigorous argument.

However, to Tony’s surprise, the revised essay invited even more serious criticisms from Prof. X:

Lack of voice. Frequent appearance of vague/general expressions and assertive statements make you speak like an official, a religious leader, or a representative of the human being, whereas your own voice has been shadowed. And it is hard to tell whether the thesis is a common knowledge, a truth, or your viewpoint. Subjective. Your essay sound less objective by using opinions instead of facts as evidence. A mixture of styles. The later part of the essay was in a typical style of Chinese prose, which is inconsistent with the linear structure of the essay as a whole. (Email exchange: Prof. X, December 12, 2010)

In an interview recalling his response to the feedback, Tony admitted that he was rather difficult at the result. In deed, compared with draft1, draft2 did see obvious improvement in essay length, brevity, word choice, and coherence. For example, problems such as repetition, redundancy, and improper choice of words rarely appeared, and the word number was cut to 3/5 of the 1st draft. However, as the quote revealed, when it came to concepts related to “voice”, “objectivity”, and “specification”, which are crucial to Western writing yet not receiving equal attention in its Chinese counterpart, Tony exhibited difficulty in dealing with them. This could find full evidence in the fact that although Tony almost recomposed the essay, the problems of “lack of voice” and “being general” still existed. “I was confused to find that I received similar comments on the 2nd draft”, said Tony (Interview: February 25, 2011). On retrospection, Tony realized there being something other than language that prevented him from writing effectively. In a personal reflection, Tony wrote:

...I realized it was because of cultural differences in writing. In Chinese argumentation essays, the emotional and the ethical appeals are preferable to logical appeal. Sometimes the imprecision in logic can be hidden under the flowery language. On the contrary, in western culture, logic, critical thinking and organization are the most important thing... (Personal reflection: Tony, December 12, 2010)

In an email exchange with Prof. X, Tony further mentioned that the Chinese composition instruction in high school had a strong bearing in his writing problems.

...upon entry into the final year of the senior high school, the **practice of Chinese gaokaozuowen** received great attention, which considerably enhanced the **rhetorical features** of this type of writing. At the same time, we lacked of systematic training in English writing...it is difficult to change our writing style. (Personal reflection: Tony, December 13, 2010)

When asked for elaboration, Tony said some of the problems such as “being general”, “being assertive”, “flowery language”, and “lack of logic”, to some extent, could be traced to his Chinese literacy practices. From elementary school to high school, “*sanwen*” (prose), characterized by its expressive language, was a dominant genre for both reading and writing. Students were encouraged to memorize and use beautiful words and expressions to channel feelings, to express concerns, or to display morality. “*shuqing*” (being emotional), “*youmei*” (being poetic), “*linghuo*” (being flexible), and “*daqì*” (being powerful) are basics to make a good writing.

Language in this type of writing, you know, is always poetic, general, assertive, and fluid, as its major function is not to inform or persuade, but to express feelings. It has little to do with logic. (Interview: Tony, February 25, 2011)

Tony went on to tell that argumentative writing had been introduced to them since junior high school, but limited attention had been directed to it. “Yilunxing sanwen”, a combination of argumentative elements and a prose style, was a preferred genre. Most of the high/full-score model essays fell into this style of writing, and got replicated by students who imitated it. Speaking of the writing instruction in senior high school, Tony commented that their writing practices were largely examination-oriented.

We finish up all our courses by the end of the 4th semester so that we had enough time to prepare for the college entrance examination in the final year. Our Chinese teacher did not teach us genre knowledge, for gaokaozuowen (composition in Chinese language test in the college entrance examination) does not prescribe a certain genre to write with. We learned to write by following the model essays (full-score **gaokaozuowen**) provided and commented by our teacher. And we were encouraged to write with *wencai* (a long-celebrated feature of good writing, realized by a mastery

of rhetoric). As raters have barely 30 seconds to score a composition, articles with *wencai* (grand tone, wild quotations, and beautiful language) would easily attract their attention, and win high scores, though logic problems might exist. Given this situation, it is important to learn to use rhetorical devices (parallelism, personification, metaphor, etc), poems, and quotation of classics to please them. (Interview: Tony, February 25, 2011)

Regarding the problem “lack of voice”, and the related comment “speak like an official, a religious leader, and spokesman of the human being”, Tony mentioned the social context.

We learned how to voice our opinion through imitation. TV news, newspapers, books, even articles included in the textbooks, which are so close to us, are mainly delivered in a grand tone, with general expressions, and in an assertive way. It seems people around all speak in that way. So do I. It is part of our culture. We don’t even feel it. (Interview: Tony, February 25, 2011)

However, Tony denied that he was a follow-man. He said, heavily influenced by his father, a History teacher in a university, he learned to view things from a critical perspective, and to think independently from childhood. This self-evaluation could find evidence in a couple of his Chinese compositions that challenged mainstream thoughts and common wisdom, and in his blogs, wherein he conveyed an authentic voice as a talented and strong-minded middle school student (cf. an official, a religious leader, and a spokesman of human being).

Compared with his receptive attitude towards Prof.X’s feedbacks on the first draft, Tony was more involved in the second round of revision. The somewhat unexpected sharp criticisms on the second draft aroused a mixed feeling in him (first frustrated, then confused), and compelled him to think. Following serious reflections on the “why” issue, as revealed in the foregoing account, Tony said he came to a deeper and better understanding of the writing problems and the rhetorical differences.

In the final version, with a renewed understanding of English writing, Tony set out to work on the draft again. In response to “lack of voice”, Tony used the phrase “in my opinion” to introduce the thesis. Weighing the points mentioned in draft1 and draft2, he finally located the focal point of discussion on the illustration of “scientists and poets are creative people”. To be more specific, he further limited the discussion of “creativity” to both scientists and poets “conceptualizing the complicated world and express it in simple ways”. In the body part of the essay, Tony carefully chose 6 examples (all concerning famous figures) to support the argument, following a point-by-point style of comparison. To avoid vagueness, Tony replaced general words with specific ones. With these efforts, Tony put an end to the writing task, strugglingly but rewardingly.

To get a bird’s-eye view of Tony’s recurring writing process, the introductory part of each draft is extracted as below:

Draft1: Poetry and science are often considered as two different things with little connection, for one uses words to describe the world and thoughts, while the other uses principles. But in fact, there are some similarities between the work of a poet and that of a scientist, for example, the way they consider about things, the perspective from which they see the world, and the creativity needed in their work.

Draft 2: Poetry and science are often considered as two different things with little connection, for one uses words to describe the world and thoughts, while the other uses formulas. But in fact, there are some similarities between the work of a poet and a scientist, for example, they are both to make a better world.

Final version: In my opinion, scientists and poets are creative people who conceptualize the complicated world and express it in simple ways; scientists describe in simple formulas the complex material world with so many objects, and poets express in several lines the meaning of life and complex feelings of the mental world.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This ethnographic investigation of the writing process of a Chinese high school student writing application letters in English illustrates how different cultural forces come to play in the shaping of rhetorical differences, and how they interact with each other. The study identified 10 types of problems occurring in Tony’s writing, including lack of the author’s voice, jumping logic, vague expressions, repetition, redundancy, improper citation, irrelevance, etc, though not all of them got fully discussed. A close examination of the formulating process of one of Tony’s application essay writing tasks has revealed that Chinese culture was not the only source for the writing problems, other cultural forces, such as Chinese vs. English writing instruction and family education, known as small cultures (Holliday, 1994, 1997; Atkinson, 2004), also had a bearing in affecting Tony’s English writing practice.

The study has also indicated that Tony’s struggle in the recurring revision process, in a certain sense, was a result of the interaction among different levels of cultures. A case in point was the interaction between Chinese composition instruction and that of the English. The Chinese composition instruction taught Tony to write with *wencai*, *shuqing*, and *daq*, features of good writing that emphasized expressive function. On the other hand, the SAT training program and the instruction from an English writing expert informed Tony that “objectivity”, “specification”, “logic”, and “voice” were crucial to English writing. Further, while Chinese composition practice received great attention in high school, as it constituted a big part of the Chinese language test in the entrance examination, English writing training was hardly systematic due to various reasons. Given the rhetorical differences and the imbalanced effort directed to two types of writing, it was possible that Tony grappled with the strong influence of Chinese in the process of composing English essays.

Also noteworthy is the interaction between family education, Chinese literacy practice, and national culture. As

revealed in the ethnographic account, Tony was strong-minded and had a strong sense of self identity due to liberal family education. Yet “lack of voice” made an enduring and big problem for him. Unfamiliarity with the strategies to express voice in English was one reason. The Chinese literacy that directed Tony to communicate in a/an “official, religious leader, and spokesman of human being” way was another, which was further related to the Chinese culture characterized by high power distance and collectivism. In all, situated in a context that favors a collective voice, even Tony had a critical mindset, when English rhetoric was not familiar to him, his voice went suppressed.

To survive the daunting revisions, Tony’s prior knowledge of English writing from SAT training program and the writing expert came to his help. His willingness to cooperate with the English writing expert and accept radical cutting and rewriting also worked in his favor. Moreover, instead of following them passively, Tony adopted a critical and reflexive attitude toward the editing advices, digging out the rational behind them, which gained him a deeper understanding of the rhetorical differences between the two languages. Although it is hard to say to what extent Tony’s difficulties were specific to his situation as a second language writer, it is true that high school students who are not so critical like Tony seem likely to experience most. In view of this situation, Tony’s strategies to overcome the difficulties were illuminating.

The current study sheds light on developing an appropriate pedagogy for second language writing by urging L2 instructors taking into consideration the complexity of the writing backgrounds of the writer. As revealed in Tony’s case, the ESL writing process is influenced by multiple cultural forces ranging from national culture (Chinese culture) to small cultures (L1 and L2 literacy, family education). And the intensity of struggle in ESL writing somewhat relates to the interaction. Knowing what kind of cultural forces function behind the writer, and which is the most influential one (Matsuda, 1997) will help the ESL researchers design the course accordingly.

The ethnographic inquiry into Tony’s writing experience provides far richer issues related to L2 writing than what has been discussed here, such as the L2 writer’s perception of the problems (linguistic, educational, cultural), and of the cultural forces that work on him (identities, power, hegemony). It is also interesting to document the change of the L2 writer’s attitude towards feedbacks received at different revision stages (receptive-skeptical-retrospective) and its effect on writing. However, due to limits of time, energy, and space, only the aspect of culture, specifically, the coexistence and interaction of different levels of culture behind L2 writing are discussed. Even within such a reduced scope of discussion, there is room for further and fuller study, if variables such as language proficiency, writer identity, etc., and perspectives such as comparative study, critical discourse analysis, etc, are considered. Given the tentative nature of the study, all those areas uncovered in this paper can be treated as directions for future study.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We’d like to extend our heartfelt thanks to all the participants for their support in the process of the study, especially to Professor Ouyang Huhua for his inspiration in the writing of this paper.

APPENDIX 1: DRAFT 1

The similarities between the work of a poet and that of a scientist

Poetry and science are often considered as two different things with little connection, for one uses words to describe the world and thoughts, while the other uses principles (指代不明). But in fact, there are some similarities between the work of a poet and that of a scientist, for example, the way they consider about things, the perspective from which they see the world(一个意思), and the creativity needed in their work.

Both the scientist and the poet need to consider the things from the essence. In physics, when describing the movement of a falling object, regardless its shape or color, scientists often consider it as a mass point, ignoring other characters, which have no effect on movement. Similarly, poets do the same thing. Imagoes (Imaginary?) are often used to allude other things, and readers can understand the metaphor because there are several inner similarities between the imago and the thing. For instance, in ODE TO THE WEST WIND, the imago West Wind represents the force of people who are changing the world. Wind is powerful that can blow away decaying leaves, which stands for the force of evil. So is the force of people.(混乱不清。)Therefore, the work of poets and scientists needs to abstract the similarities from specific stuffs, and then make a conclusion or connection.

Scientists need to see the world from both a macro view and a micro view, so is (does)the poet. Albert Einstein is the most famous scientist whose work was to think about the world. He had put forward two well known theories: Quantum Light Theory and The Theory of Relativity. The former is in scale of photon and the latter is in the scale of universe. These two different scales also can be found in poems. In TO SEE A WORLD IN A GRAIN OF SAND,(哪里来的, 要引述出处, 否则是剽窃) it reads:

*“To see a world in a grain of sand,
And a heaven in a wild flower,
Hold infinity in the palm of your hand,
And eternity in an hour.”*

World, Heaven, Infinity and Eternity are things in a macro scale, while Sand, Flower, Hand and Hour are in micro scale.

The work of a scientist is creative, as well as that of a poet. In scientific research, making hypothesis is the most important, even more important than proving it. Many discoveries were made due to the creativity of scientists. In the history of chemistry, scientist had been confused about the law between particles and the numbers of their protons until Mendeleev creatively put forward Periodic Table. There are many other examples: the discovery of DNA structure, Benzene structure, and the invention of aircraft. Looking back to the history of poetry, every revolution was made by creative poets. In the ancient times, people use poet to describe their life. Then, to make it easy to remember, poets created rhythm. Later, metaphors were added into poems, making them richer in content. Gradually, the poems become what it is today, and the poets are still creating. They try to produce more complex rhetoric and new imagoes(这种相同没有区别意义, 什么都可以说). Without creativity, the science would stop developing and the poems would be simple and dull.

Above all, the work of a scientist is similar to that of a poet.

APPENDIX2: DRAFT2

The similarities between the work of a poet and a scientist

Poetry and science are often considered as two different things with little connection, for one uses words to describe the world and thoughts, while the other uses formulas. But in fact, there are some similarities between the work of a poet and a scientist, for example, they are both to make a better world.(不够深度, 基本没意义)

Many people might be hit by falling apples, but seldom did they noticed(语法错) the reason why they were falling downward instead of upward. The scientist, Newton, was the first person to think about it, (谁是许多人? 谁在说话? 前面两句话也是同样没有主人。怀疑挑剔的读者会认为你在替人民说话, 是扮演自我任命的国家, 民族, 宗教, 的领袖。也代表他们, 他们作为个人主义的人, 会非常反感如此的被代表。) and then, he discovered the law of gravity, which showed the world can be understood and described accurately. With this discovery, human had stepped into a new century(是吗? 谁认为如此? 反科学的宗教人士? 包括反对现代物理的其他科学家? 你如何能够证明?) Soon after, more laws were concluded, and human started to find the beauty and the usage of knowledge:(同理? 你不可以说你无法证明的话! 也不可以代替他人顺便认为)

machines were built to improve the productivity, which reduced starvation and improved the living conditions.(是吗? 其他人, 包括蒸汽机的发明者, 电的发明者, 等等, 会认同你的如此极端排他的观点吗? 科学史是这样教你的吗? 饥荒只与牛顿有关? 自然呢? 其他的各种因素呢? 比如战争呢? 经济呢? 你的因果关系这么容易得出?) The world has been changed by several simple but beautiful formulas.(读者能猜到是哪几个? 一定要猜? 不可以有其他的可能? 不可以有认为科学造就丑恶的观点?)

Poets' work is to discover the beauty of the world, express them, and ask people to notice them(是吗? 谁说的? 那本书会如此简单定义? 不可以相反?) Images in the poems are common, such as leaves, winds, the sun, and they often represent things like time, life and happiness that are precious in life. Reading poems, readers can learn to(一定吗? 只能吗? 一般现在时的意义是非如此不行, 是你的意思吗?) discover and treasure the beauty in life. For example, Dante's poem, Divine Comedy shows the beauty of freedom, equality, which aroused people's yearning and begun the Renaissance. The revolution had brought freedom and equality to the world, making it much better.

In my life, I have experienced the great changes of my country, both in technology and ideology (与主题无关: 科学不是技术! 意识形态也不是诗歌!) Ten years ago, many fathers sent their kids to school by bike, but nowadays, by private cars or motorbikes. Because of the influence of western life-style shown in poems, people have pay (是吗? 如何证明?) more attention to enjoying life, rather than working all the time: many people choose to travel during vacation as my family do, instead of earning more money. (与题无关, 跳跃到宇宙去啦!)

This is how (如果真是如此, 没有任何学校会接受你入学的, 小牙!) the scientists and poets make our world better.

总评:

没有证据! 因为作者个人的主观认识是不可以当成证据来支持作者自己的观点的。

也没有观点! 因为没有说是你的个人观点, 还是你认为是常识, 真理, 产权不清。

笼统得不能再笼统了! 无法看到你个人的真正想法因为不是你的体验和认识!

绝对得不能再绝对了 - 任何没有程度等限制的真理是不存在的!

逻辑太一相情愿了, 彻底忘了你的怀疑的西方读者的阅读前提!

后面已经变成典型的中文散文了.....

APPENDIX 3: THE FINAL VERSION

The similarities between the work of a scientist and a poet

In my opinion, scientists and poets are creative people who conceptualize the complicated world and express it in simple ways; scientists describe in simple formulas the complex material world with so many objects, and poets express

in several lines the meaning of life and complex feelings of the mental world.

Albert Einstein created the three-character equation $E=mc^2$ to indicate a mass-energy theory. Similarly, the laws of motion and gravitation by Newton presented the calculation of the huge orbit of stars in only three basic formulas. The same is true of poems. For example, Gabriela Mistral, a Nobel Prize winner in 1945, used only 14 lines in the third sonnets of her SONNETS OF DEATH to describe her complex feelings for her friend's death and her comprehension of it.

To deal with such challenging jobs, both scientists and poets need creativity. One of the 2010 winners of Nobel Prize in Physics, Andre Geim, once won the Ig Nobel Prize in 2000 for his creative use of magnetic field to make a frog float in the air as if it could fly. He was awarded the 2010 Nobel Prize also for his simple but creative use of a pencil and a scotch tape to get one of the most solid materials, Graphene.

Writing poems is also a creative job. A case in point is that Tagore, a Nobel Prize in literature in 1913, used "summer flowers" and "autumn leaves" to describe the life in his mind—full of passion when alive, and calm before death—as in the sentence "Let life be beautiful like summer flowers and deaths like autumn leaves" in STARY BIRDS. More examples of creative use of images can be seen in poems by Bai Li (the most famous Chinese poet in history), Zhimo Xu (a good friend of Tagore).

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The Impact of Task Complexity on Iranian EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension across Anxiety and Proficiency Levels

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Abstract—This study investigates the impact of task complexity on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension across anxiety and proficiency levels. To this end, two intact EFL classes including 54 Iranian EFL learners at an English department (F=39, M=15) were selected. Test-takers' anxiety was assessed by filling an anxiety questionnaire (Abolghasemi et al, 1997) and their proficiency was assessed by a proficiency test. Three task dimensions, namely planning time, perspective, and prior knowledge, each under two +/complex & -/simple conditions (i.e., task manipulated for complexity and simple task) were used in test-takers' listening performance. The participants' listening performance was analyzed using descriptive statistics, one-way ANOVA and post hoc Tukey's HSD test. Results showed that test-takers' listening performance was a little better under simple conditions than complex ones for all task dimensions. Another is that except planning time ($p = .012$), between low and average proficiency levels under simple condition, no significant differences were found in the listening task performances among the three proficiency levels. Finally, the results didn't show any significant difference among performance of three different anxiety levels under both simple and complex conditions. In short, this study didn't show any considerable effect of proficiency and anxiety on task complexity.

Index Terms—task complexity, task difficulty, task condition, perception of task difficulty, students' anxiety, students' proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

A task is seen as a differentiated goal-oriented process with a number of steps which draws on a series of cognitive and communicative procedures and that has a defined outcome. Additionally, tasks are sequenceable and can be subject to pedagogical intervention. Apart from its pedagogic dimension, tasks can be manipulated for empirical enquiry. Michael Long (1985, p. 19) defined task in its everyday meaning as follows: "A piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of task include painting a fence, making an airline reservation, etc."

In this sense the concept of task is used when discussing human skills performance models. Crookes (1986) suggested that in Long's definition, the category task has a psychological reality. According to Long (1985), Much, if not most, of human activity, whether in employment or in the classroom can be seen a series of tasks – some having a communicative aspect, others not.

Gilbert (2004) elaborated on the tasks in Long's example; a simple task in which language is not involved would be painting a fence and an example of a complex task is one in which language is required: Interviewing a source in the domain of journalism (decision making process, contacting the source, documenting the interview, etc.).

As far as pedagogic tasks are concerned, following previous task definitions, Skehan (1998, p. 95) identified a series of defining traits most researchers would agree on when conceptualizing a task:

A task is an activity in which meaning is primary; there is some kind of communication problem to solve; there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities; task completion has some priority; the assessment of the task is in terms of outcome.

According to Bygate (2001), however, tasks are susceptible to pedagogic intervention; tasks can be influenced by learner choice and can be potentially reinterpreted by learners. As Bygate (2001) pointed out, tasks may have a static, controllable nature if used for research, and they may include more dynamic and extended qualities if they are used for teaching purposes. That is why they pointed out that it may be necessary to clarify the definition of task under different circumstances, who to determine the tasks' goals and how to sequence tasks.

In a study for exploring task difficulty in ESL listening assessment Brindley & Slatyer (2002) adopted the definition of 'task' proposed by the Association of Language Testers in Europe (2001) defined as following:

A combination of rubric, item, and response. For example, a reading text with several multiple-choice items, all of which can be responded to by referring to a single rubric.

As Davies et al. (1999) in their study pointed out, the terms 'item' and 'task' tend to overlap:

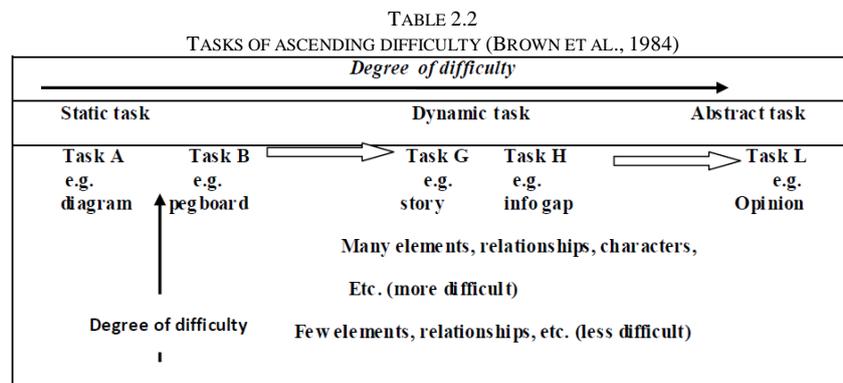
Item is smaller and less complex, while a task is larger and more complex. A test would typically include either a large number of relatively short items or a small number of relatively complex tasks.

As we can see above, a task for assessing the listening competency described above would thus consist of the input text that learners hear along with the accompanying set of items and instructions.

The three main approaches to the characterization of tasks are interactional approaches, information-processing approaches, and test-method approaches. One tradition, stemming from the work of interactionists (e.g., Pica, 1994; Pica, Kanagy, & Falodun, 1993), has attempted to determine the interactional characteristics of tasks and their impact on negotiation in dyadic communication. A second tradition, the information processing approach, perhaps best known in the work of Skehan and Robinson (1996, 1998; 1995), has examined the impact on performance of the cognitive characteristics of tasks, and links have been explicitly made with predictions of task difficulty. A third tradition, in which test task characteristics are defined as test methods (for example in work by Bachman & Palmer, 1996), has suggested that the impact of task differences can best be understood as a question of test-method effects. Of course, our study has focused on second tradition, information processing approach, to examine the impact of cognitive characteristic of tasks on task difficulty in listening.

The concept of task complexity was emerged from the need to establish criteria for sequencing tasks in a syllabus from easy/simple to difficult/complex in a way that will foster interlanguage development. Rather than looking at the linguistic features of language activities, syllabi that used tasks as their units have focused on task design in order to find out how tasks impose cognitive demands on learners.

One of the first attempts at sequencing tasks from simple to complex was done by Brown et al. (1984). They distinguished among three different types of tasks which they presented as ranging from easy to difficult. Table 2.2 shows an example of tasks arranged in ascending difficulty as suggested by Brown et al. (1984):



Another suggestion for sequencing tasks in a syllabus comes from the “Bangalore Communicative Teaching Project” in India, in which Prabhu (1987, p. 47) suggested the grading of tasks according to a number of criteria which he described as “rough measures of cognitive complexity.” Figure 2.3 shows a brief view of these criteria.

FIGURE 2.3
CRITERIA SUGGESTED BY PRABHU (1987) TO DETERMINE TASK COMPLEXITY.

| – | <i>Degree of difficulty</i> | + |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>Few elements</i> | AMOUNT OF INFORMATION | <i>Many elements</i> |
| <i>Few steps</i> | AMOUNT OF REASONING | <i>Many steps</i> |
| <i>Precise terms not needed</i> | DEGREE OF PRECISION | <i>Precise terms needed</i> |
| <i>Unfamiliar</i> | DEGREE OF FAMILIARITY | <i>Familiar</i> |
| <i>Objects and actions</i> | DEGREE OF ABSTRACTNESS | <i>Concepts</i> |

Robinson (2001a) shifted the focus from grading and sequencing to the cognitive processes involved in task production. Robinson (2001a, p. 28) said that:

Task complexity is the result of the attentional, memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task on the language learner.

Robinson proposed three-dimensional model (see Table 2.2) that distinguishes between three different types of factors:

TABLE 2.2
ROBINSON'S MODEL OF TASK COMPLEXITY, BASED ON ROBINSON (2001A; 2001B; 2003A)

| Cognitive factors | Interactive factors | Difficulty factors |
|--|---|--|
| Task complexity a) Resource directing e.g., +/- few elements +/- Here-and-Now +/- No reasoning demand b) Resource dispersing e.g., +/- planning +/- Single task +/- Prior knowledge | Task conditions a) participation variables e.g., one way/two way convergent/divergent Open/closed b) participant variables e.g., gender Familiarity Power/solidarity | Task difficulty a) affective variables e.g., motivation anxiety confidence b) ability variables e.g., aptitude proficiency intelligence |

By task difficulty, Robinson (2001a; 2001b; 2003a) meant what learners bring to the task, and suggested that differentials in ability variables (e.g. working memory capacity) affect learners' perception of the task with consequences for performance and learning (e.g. a learner with low proficiency may find a task so hard that he or she cannot produce or learn anything from it). To summarize, task difficulty is determined by learner variables (affect, e.g., confidence, and physical abilities, e.g., eyesight).

Skehan's conception of task-based learning comes from a communicative approach to language teaching (based on Brumfit, 1984; Widdowson, 1972). Skehan (1998; Skehan & Foster, 2001) suggested a three-way distinction of difficulty, to which learner factors can also be added (2.3).

TABLE 2.3
SKEHAN'S (1998) MODEL OF TASK DIFFICULTY.

| Code complexity | Cognitive complexity | Communicative stress | Learner factors |
|---|--|---|---|
| Linguistic complexity And variety Vocabulary load and Variety | Cognitive familiarity Familiarity of topic Familiarity of discourse Genre Familiarity of task Cognitive processing Information organization Amount of computation Clarity of information Sufficiency of information | Time pressure Scale Number of participants Length of text used Modality Stake Opportunity for control | Learner's intelligence Breadth of imagination Personal experience |

The difficulty may be traced to the instruments chosen to measure anxiety in some of the studies and also multidimensional view of anxiety. As an example Endler's (1980) proposes that to study anxiety is to study the interaction of the person in the situation producing that anxiety. Some situations arouse anxiety while others do not, so both the individual and the context must be taken into consideration. Instruments such as the Taylor (1953) Manifest Anxiety scale or Spielberger's (1983) State-Trait Anxiety Inventory attempt to define a personality trait of anxiety applicable across several situations, but this may not be the best way to measure anxiety in a language Learning context.

Gardner and Macintyre (1993) recognized foreign language anxiety as an affective factor in foreign language learning and normally discussed alongside other individual learner differences that this area is still considered to be a relatively new and developing within foreign language research. Different researchers have approached FLA from different aspects. From a broader perspective, anxiety itself was defined by psychologists like Spielberger (1983, p.55) as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system". Literature usually differentiates between three types of anxiety:

- **Trait anxiety** – which is a personality trait (Eysenck, 1979)
- **State anxiety** – which is apprehension experienced at a particular moment in time
- **situational anxiety** – which is anxiety experienced in a well-defined situation (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a)

According to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1991), possible causes of FLCA are communication apprehension (The inability either to express oneself or comprehend another person), test anxiety (apprehension over academic evaluation), and fear of negative evaluation (negative social evaluation or impression). According to Macintyre and Gardner (1989), these three components reviewed by Horwitz and Cope (1991) show to have a deleterious effect on second-language acquisition.

In study by Kleinmann (1977), he considers two types of anxiety, facilitating and debilitating. Facilitating anxiety is considered to be an asset to performance and showed the predicted positive correlations with Arabic students' willingness to attempt difficult linguistic structures in English. Debilitating anxiety, which is the more common interpretation of anxiety, is considered to be detrimental to performance, but did not show the expected negative correlations with performance. The concept of second-Language anxiety has also been investigated in the context of attitudes and motivation and their relationship to proficiency. Because the primary focus is on attitudes and motivation, detailed information is not always given about the relationship of anxiety to proficiency.

Macintyre and Gardner (1989) claim that while the instruments used to measure language anxiety should be specific to the language area, theoretical links to the more general anxiety literature can be strengthened. For example, Tobias (1986) proposes a model of the effects of anxiety on Learning from instruction. He suggested that anxious persons tend

to engage in self-directed, derogatory cognition rather than focusing on the task itself. These task-irrelevant thoughts compete with task-relevant ones for limited cognitive resources. Non-anxious individuals tend not to engage in such self-preoccupations, giving them an advantage when the task at hand is taxing. Tobias's theory helped to explain the often cited finding of an interaction between anxiety, task difficulty, and ability (e.g. Sarason, 1986; Spielberger, 1983).

According to Tobias (1986), interference may occur at three levels: input, processing and output. At input, anxiety may cause attention deficits and poor initial processing of information. In short, not as much information is registered. For example, people with higher anxiety seem easily distracted from the task because time is divided between the processing of emotion-related and task-related cognition. If the task is relatively simple, anxiety may have little effect on processing. The more difficult the task becomes, relative to ability, the greater the effect of anxiety on processing. Interference with the rehearsal of new information would be an example of this type of effect. At output, anxiety may interfere with the retrieval of previously learned information. The experience of 'freezing on a test can be attributed to the influence of anxiety at the time of retrieval.

Subsequently, one needs to identify measures (e.g., of learner production and comprehension on task) that will capture the effects of the proposed complexity differential. The degree of precision in language use that a task requires, as well as the propositional load and amount of information storage and retrieval that it imposes on the interlocutors will be factors to consider (Givon, 1989; Sridhar, 1988). Long (1989) stated that tasks requiring accurate or precise use of language, and requiring the expression of multiple propositions drawn from memory, are more likely to "stretch" the interlanguage resources of second language users than are tasks not requiring them, and so will lead to greater communicative resource expansion.

As Robinson (2001) stated, in contrast to affective variables, ability variables such as aptitude, intelligence, and cognitive style can often be diagnosed ahead of syllabus implementation but here again there is as yet no clear research evidence of stable and predictable interactions between them and L2 task complexity and performance. A fourth ability variable, proficiency, is often the basis of placement into different levels of a programme. Therefore proficiency is not likely to be a factor that is available for on-line methodological manipulation. However, proficiency level will, of course, influence decisions about task content and the level of language input to a task. According to Slatyer et al. (2000), one possible explanation which would need to be explored empirically, is that learner factors – such as anxiety, confidence, and motivation – produce different levels of stress and engagement during task performance and that, in result, these interact in complex ways with the characteristics of the tasks themselves. Iwashita and Elder (1997) in a study on expert feedback found that language proficiency was a more powerful factor than any other background variable in determining their participants' reactions to the listening component of a Japanese proficiency test for teachers.

In line with this research tradition and to make up for the lack of systematic research on this issue in Iran, the present study was designed to focus on effect of proficiency and anxiety on task complexity in context of listening performance of Iranian university EFL learners and to determine possible quantitative differences.

II. METHODOLOGY

This study aimed to compare the listening performance of EFL learners on different simple and complex tasks and to examine the effect of anxiety and proficiency on this complexity. The study used a mainly quantitative framework to answer the following research questions.

1. Is there any difference between test-takers' task performance with different proficiency levels under simple and complex performance conditions in listening comprehension context?
2. Is there any difference between test-takers' anxiety and their task performance under different performance conditions in listening comprehension context?

A. Participants

A total of 54 students enrolled in an EFL conversation class (M=15 F=39) participated in the present study and provided the English listening samples needed for the analyses. This quasi-experimental design for data collection was selected to allow for the control of performance conditions. The participants, aged from 18 to 24, were second-year intermediate learners based on their placement records and institutional proficiency records. They were majoring in English literature at the University of Kashan, Iran. They had passed two introductory conversation courses, and at the time of data collection, they were on a third course in the English department called "Advanced conversation" which does not of course teach what its name implies. The main focus of the "Advanced conversation" course is to teach the participants the key concepts of communication strategies including listening and speaking strategies for opening, maintaining and closing conversations.

B. Instruments

An institutional version of TOEFL listening comprehension proficiency test was used to control any differences between test takers' proficiency levels. Four listening comprehension texts or tasks (totally 24 items from TOEFL, each 8 multiple choice listening task for a dimension) were selected from a version of TOEFL test (Test Preparation Kit) for three specified dimensions of task complexity described by Skehan (1996; 1998) cited in Mc Namara et al. (2001) and

Robinson (2001a) models of task complexity mentioned in following table. Two different conditions for each dimension resulting six task conditions as shown below.

TABLE 1.
DIFFERENT TASK CONDITIONS USED IN THIS STUDY

| Dimensions of task complexity | Condition one (-) | Condition two (+) |
|--|-------------------|----------------------------|
| <i>planning time, Perspective, Prior knowledge</i> | Simple | Manipulated for complexity |

The rationale for varying the comprehension conditions within each dimension was that this would either make the tasks easier (i.e., less cognitively demanding) or more difficult (i.e., more cognitively demanding) for students. There were two comprehension conditions labeled plus (+/complex) or minus (-/simple) according to the predicted difficulty for students (see Table 3.1).

TABLE 2.
TASK COMPLEXITY CONDITIONS ADAPTED FROM SKEHAN (1996; 1998) CITED IN MC NAMARA ET AL. (2001) AND ROBINSON (2001A) MODELS OF TASK COMPLEXITY.

| Dimensions | Predicted difficulty (according to assumed degree of cognitive demand) | |
|------------------------|--|--|
| | Complex/+ | Simple/- |
| <i>Planning time</i> | Not having time to look at the listening items before listening to the tasks | Having time to look at the listening items before listening to the tasks |
| <i>Perspective</i> | Answering the task items after listening to task with third person point of view | Answering the task items after listening to task with first person point of view |
| <i>Prior knowledge</i> | Listening to the task and answering the task items without prior knowledge | Reading related written prior knowledge before listening and answering the task |

A questionnaire on the students' trait anxiety was completed (A 25-item questionnaire with a four-point Likert scale; never, seldom, sometimes and always; prepared and validated by Abolghasemi et al, 1997). Based on students' score of anxiety, we divided them into three high, low and average groups and compared their performances.

C. Procedures

All participants were assigned to two groups. The data were collected in language laboratory of the University of Kashan. Data collection was done at two sessions. Since our complex tasks were the same as simple ones with some manipulations under complex conditions, we did two measures to decrease the test effects. First, we placed a four-week interval between the two sessions. Second, to reduce the test effect, counterbalancing of simple and complex tasks was done. In order to counterbalance such effects, the following measures shown in the following table were taken:

TABLE 3.
MANNER OF ADMINISTRATION BASED ON COUNTERBALANCING.

| sessions | Dimensions: | Planning time | Perspective | Prior knowledge |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-----------------|
| | Groups | | | |
| First session | Group A | Simple | Complex | Complex |
| | Group B | Complex | Simple | Simple |
| Second session | Group A | Complex | Simple | Simple |
| | Group B | Simple | Complex | Complex |

Note: Complex task is the same task manipulated for complexity.

At the first session, test-takers were briefed about how to answer the anxiety questionnaire and listening tasks. Then, they were asked to complete an anxiety questionnaire (Abolghasemi et al, 1997) for ten minutes. After listening to a sample listening task, test-takers in two groups listened and answered to the tasks for three task dimensions respectively as it was explained in Table 3.3. To recognize and control listening comprehension tasks, one point was rewarded to each correct answer and no point for incorrect answers.

D. Data Analysis

Different kinds of statistical analyses are used in this thesis: Regarding two research hypotheses, participants' listening performance scores for low, average and high levels of anxiety and proficiency under simple and complex task conditions were analyzed using descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviation. To determine the significant differences between three different levels of students' proficiency and anxiety under simple and complex conditions, One-Way ANOVA were also applied. A follow-up post hoc Tukey's LSD (limited significant difference) test was conducted to examine the mean differences among the three levels of proficiency and anxiety for each task. A p value of $< .05$ was used as the criterion of statistical significance for t-test ANOVAs, and pos hoc tests. A Microsoft Excel spreadsheet was used to enter data and to design graphs. All statistical analyses were carried out using statistical package SPSS 15.00 for Windows.

III. RESULTS

H1: There is no difference between test-takers' task comprehension with different proficiency levels under simple and complex conditions

This section explores the difference among three levels of proficiency for each of three task dimensions under two conditions (simple and complex).

To this end, students' listening performance for low, average and high levels was identified, and then the mean scores and standard deviation of students, as summarized in table 1, under + complex/- simple conditions were compared.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR STUDENTS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION SCORE FOR THREE LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY UNDER +/- CONDITIONS: MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION.

| Task dimensions | condition | Low level | | Average level | | High level | |
|-----------------|-----------|-----------|-------|---------------|-------|------------|-------|
| | | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD |
| Planning time | + | 3.16 | 1.085 | 3.27 | .800 | 3.33 | .786 |
| | - | 3.33 | .907 | 4.09 | .927 | 4.12 | 1.044 |
| Perspective | + | 2.76 | .895 | 3.27 | .831 | 3.28 | 1.421 |
| | - | 3.91 | 1.085 | 4.00 | 1.118 | 4.00 | .944 |
| Prior knowledge | + | 3.78 | .943 | 4.04 | 1.274 | 4.09 | 1.446 |
| | - | 4.50 | 1.618 | 5.00 | 1.155 | 5.55 | 1.809 |

As the Table 1 shows, In the planning time dimension, mean results showed better performance for high level (4.12) than average and low levels (4.09, 3.33) in - condition (having time to look at the listening items before listening to the tasks). In + condition (not having time to look at the listening items before listening to the tasks), the rank of students' listening scores was according to the students' proficiency levels high, average and low (3.33, 3.27 and 3.16), that is the higher the proficiency, the higher the listening score.

Given perspective, mean results illustrated equal listening score for high and average levels (4.00) and for low ones (3.91) in - condition (listening to task with first person point of view). Although high proficiency students compared to low level ones outperformed on the test, high and average level score are the same. In + condition (listening to task with third person point of view), students' listening scores for high, average and low levels were 3.28, 3.27 and 2.76, respectively. This shows little difference between students' listening performance (esp. for average and high) with different proficiency levels.

Considering prior knowledge, Mean results indicated following listening scores for high, average, and low levels 4.09, 4.04 and 3.78, respectively under + condition (without prior knowledge). For - condition (with prior knowledge), results were for high, average, and low levels 5.55, 5.00 and 4.50, respectively. Like in + condition, in - condition the higher proficiency students outperformed on the tasks. Of course, students generally did better under simple condition than complex one.

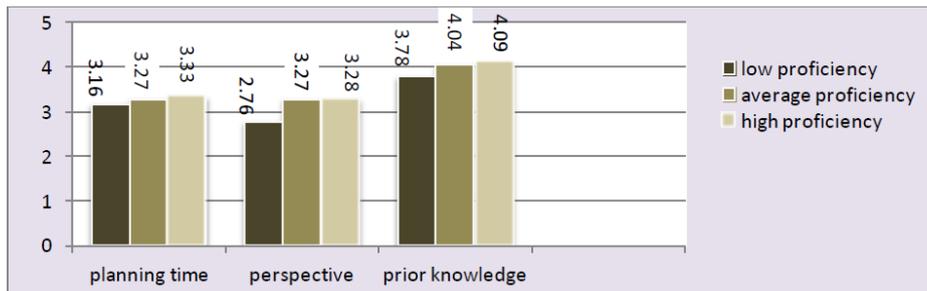


Figure 1. Students Comprehension for Three Level of Proficiency under Complex Condition

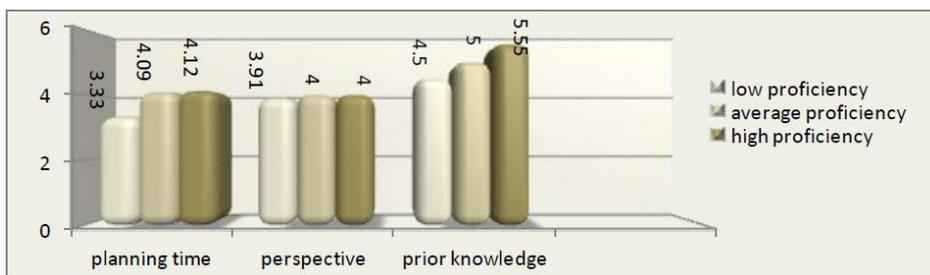


Figure 2. Students Comprehension for Three Level of Proficiency under Simple Condition

As Figure 1 demonstrates, high proficiency students outperformed on all three dimensions of planning time, perspective and prior knowledge under complex condition. Of course, none of these differences were significant. But as shown in Figures 1 and 2, students had better listening performance scores under simple condition than complex one for

all proficiency (low, average and high). It can be observed that there are slight differences between students' comprehension and proficiency level for all three task dimensions under the two +/- performance conditions.

To see whether the mean differences reported above are significant and to test hypothesis 1, One-Way Repeated Measures of ANOVA was performed (Table 2 and 3). As shown in Table 1, there is a significant difference among three proficiency levels only for -/simple planning time (having time to look at listening items), $F(2, 51) = 3.424$, $p = .040^*$ (See Table 2).

TABLE 2.
RESULTS OF THE TESTS OF BETWEEN-GROUP AND WITHIN-GROUP EFFECTS MEASURED BY REPEATED MEASURES ANOVA FOR SIMPLE TASKS.

| Dimensions | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig |
|-----------------|---------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|--------------|
| Planning time | Between group | 6.483 | 2 | 3.241 | 3.424 | .040* |
| | within group | 48.276 | 51 | .947 | | |
| | Total | 54.759 | 53 | | | |
| Perspective | Between group | .652 | 2 | .326 | .307 | .737 |
| | within group | 54.182 | 51 | 1.062 | | |
| | Total | 54.833 | 53 | | | |
| Prior Knowledge | Between group | .762 | 2 | .381 | .249 | .781 |
| | within group | 78.071 | 51 | 1.531 | | |
| | Total | 78.833 | 53 | | | |

TABLE 3.
RESULTS OF THE TESTS OF BETWEEN-GROUP AND WITHIN-GROUP EFFECTS MEASURED BY REPEATED MEASURES ANOVA FOR COMPLEX TASKS.

| Dimensions | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig |
|-----------------|---------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|------|
| Planning time | Between group | .599 | 2 | .300 | .351 | .706 |
| | within group | 43.549 | 51 | .854 | | |
| | Total | 44.148 | 53 | | | |
| Perspective | Between group | 3.573 | 2 | 1.786 | 1.740 | .186 |
| | within group | 52.353 | 51 | 1.027 | | |
| | Total | 55.926 | 53 | | | |
| Prior Knowledge | Between group | 4.714 | 2 | 2.357 | 1.045 | .359 |
| | within group | 114.990 | 51 | 2.255 | | |
| | Total | 119.704 | 53 | | | |

In addition, a Tukey's LSD test on the pairwise comparisons revealed a significant difference between low and average proficiency level ($p < .05$), as demonstrated in Table 4.8. This means that average proficiency group yielded better performance than low proficiency group.

TABLE 4.
RESULTS OF THE POST HOC LSD TEST ON PROFICIENCY LEVEL MEASURED BY REPEATED MEASURES ANOVA

| Dependent Variable | (I) Levelprof | (J)Levelprof | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|------------------------|---------------|--------------|-----------------------|------------|--------------|-------------------------|-------------|
| | | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| Planning time (simple) | Low | average | -.787* | .301 | .012* | -1.39 | -.18 |
| | | high | -.485 | .372 | .199 | -1.23 | .26 |
| | Average | low | .787* | .301 | .012* | .18 | 1.39 |
| | | high | .302 | .352 | .395 | -.40 | 1.01 |
| | High | low | .485 | .372 | .199 | -.26 | 1.23 |
| | | average | -.302 | .352 | .395 | -1.01 | .40 |

As an important point in relation between complexity and proficiency levels, this study wanted to indicate the effect of proficiency on task complexity. As we can see in the above tables, results illustrate that only significant difference ($p = .012$) is between low and average just for simple condition. On the basis of these findings and F values found in analyses, our null hypothesis that predicted no difference between students' listening performance and proficiency was rejected only for immediacy under simple condition.

H2: There is no difference between learners' anxiety and students' task comprehension under different performance conditions.

To see the effect of anxiety on task complexity, the total scores of the student's task performance for three levels of anxiety (low, average, high) were analyzed using descriptive analysis of mean and standard deviation. Mean comparison was run between simple & complex conditions. Results of descriptive statistic were presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF STUDENTS' COMPREHENSION SCORES FOR THREE LEVELS OF ANXIETY (LOW, AVERAGE, AND HIGH) UNDER +/- CONDITIONS.

| Task dimension | Condition | Low level | | Mid level | | High level | |
|-----------------|-----------|-----------|-------|-----------|-------|------------|-------|
| | | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD |
| Planning time | + | 3.23 | .951 | 3.20 | 1.304 | 3.13 | .815 |
| | - | 3.60 | .894 | 2.83 | 1.029 | 2.62 | .983 |
| Perspective | + | 3.20 | 1.095 | 3.13 | 1.140 | 2.92 | .935 |
| | - | 3.96 | 1.022 | 3.96 | 1.076 | 3.80 | .837 |
| Prior knowledge | + | 4.08 | 1.055 | 4.00 | 1.225 | 3.78 | 1.413 |
| | - | 5.13 | 1.576 | 5.00 | 1.225 | 4.73 | 1.511 |

In the planning time dimension, mean results showed better listening for low, average and high anxiety levels (3.60, 2.83, and 2.63) in - condition (i.e., having time to look at the listening items before listening to the tasks), respectively. For + condition (not having time to look at the listening items before listening to the tasks), this order was low, average and high anxiety levels (3.23, 3.20, and 3.13), respectively. The results show that the lower the anxiety, the better performance on the task. Given perspective, mean results displayed better listening scores for low and average levels (3.96, 3.96) than for high (3.80) level in - condition (i.e., answering after listening to task with first person point of view), that is the lower the anxiety, the higher the task performance. In + condition (i.e., answering after listening to task with third person point of view), students' listening scores in low level (3.20) were greater than high and average levels (2.92, 3.13). The results are according to the expected condition, i.e. the lower the anxiety, the better the performance. For prior knowledge, mean results showed highest listening scores respectively for low, average and high levels of anxiety (5.13, 5.00 and 4.73) under - condition (i.e., listening to the task items with prior knowledge). For + condition (i.e., listening to the task items without reading prior knowledge), rank of listening scores are from low to high (4.08, 4.00 and 3.78), respectively.

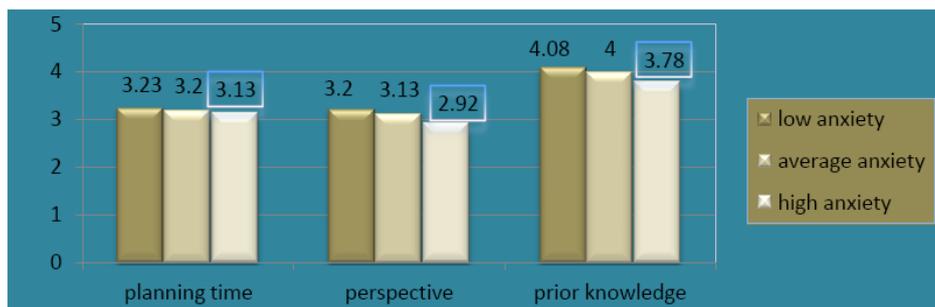


Figure 3. Mean of Students' Comprehension Scores for Three Level of Anxiety (Low, Average and High) under Complex Condition.

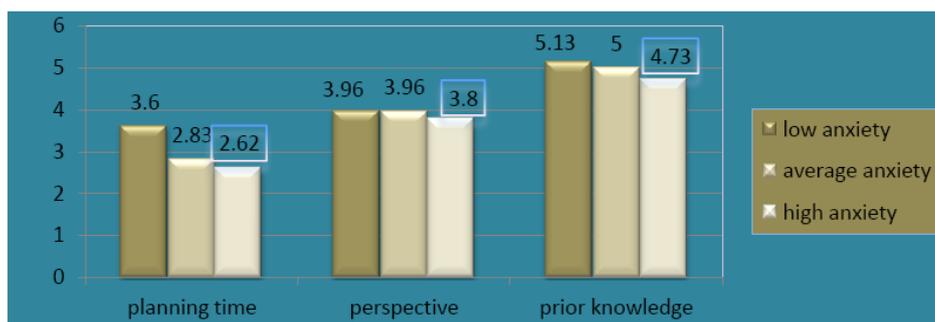


Figure 4. Mean of Students' Comprehension Scores for Three Level of Anxiety under Simple Condition

As Figures 3 and 4 demonstrate, there are slight differences between students' performance and level of anxiety for all task dimensions under the two (+/-) performance conditions. As shown in Figures 3 and 4, first, students outperformed under -/simple condition rather than complex /+ one and second, no remarkable differences were found for different levels of anxiety under different performance conditions.

To see whether the mean differences reported above are significant and to test hypothesis 2, One-Way Repeated Measures of ANOVA was run. Results, summarized in Table 6, showed that there are not any significant differences among the three anxiety levels under both simple and complex conditions.

TABLE 6.

RESULTS OF THE TESTS OF BETWEEN-GROUP AND WITHIN-GROUP EFFECTS MEASURED BY REPEATED MEASURES ANOVA

| Dimensions | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig |
|---------------------|---------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|------|
| Planning time (S) | Between group | 3.566 | 2 | 1.783 | 1.776 | .180 |
| | within group | 51.193 | 51 | 1.004 | | |
| | Total | 54.759 | 53 | | | |
| perspective (S) | Between group | .181 | 2 | .091 | .085 | .919 |
| | within group | 54.652 | 51 | 1.072 | | |
| | Total | 54.833 | 53 | | | |
| Prior Knowledge (S) | Between group | .941 | 2 | .471 | .308 | .736 |
| | within group | 77.892 | 51 | 1.527 | | |
| | Total | 78.833 | 53 | | | |
| Planning time (C) | Between group | .724 | 2 | .362 | .425 | .656 |
| | within group | 43.425 | 51 | .851 | | |
| | Total | 44.148 | 53 | | | |
| Perspective (C) | Between group | .163 | 2 | .081 | .075 | .928 |
| | within group | 55.763 | 51 | 1.093 | | |
| | Total | 55.926 | 53 | | | |
| Prior Knowledge (C) | Between group | .150 | 2 | .075 | .032 | .969 |
| | within group | 119.554 | 51 | 2.344 | | |
| | Total | 119.704 | 53 | | | |

As Table 6 illustrates, although there are no significant differences among all three anxiety groups, students tend to perform better on low level of anxiety. On the basis of F values found in analyses of all anxiety levels for, our null hypothesis that predicted no difference between students' listening performance and anxiety was confirmed for all task dimensions under simple and complex conditions.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

H1: There is no difference between test-takers' listening performance with different proficiency levels under simple and complex conditions.

There is some evidence, however, that prior knowledge may interact with proficiency level in facilitating task performance. Clapham (1996) found prior knowledge of a domain did not facilitate performance for subjects taking reading tests who were at a low level of proficiency, but increasingly facilitated performance for subjects at higher levels of proficiency. According to Wigglesworth (1997), all second language learners at all levels of proficiency have, to some degree, a choice about what they will say, and the structures that they will use to say it. As they become fluent and competent speakers of their second language, learners are ultimately moving towards automatization, and the decisions they make about what they practice are crucial in determining their future language use since the planning period will to some degree determine what aspects of their interlanguage will and will not become automatized. Wigglesworth (1997) in "an investigation of planning time and proficiency level on oral test discourse" found that for high proficiency candidates, planning time may improve accuracy on some measures where the cognitive load of the task is high, but that this effect does not extend to the low proficiency candidates. In a study by Urwin (1995), he investigated the effects of prior knowledge on the lecture comprehension of adult second language learners of Chinese. Urwin's (1995) study results showed superior performance by the prior knowledge groups relative to the control group only on inference questions.

Operationalizing students' proficiency level by dividing them into three levels based on the proficiency test, test-taker's listening comprehension scores was compared with their proficiency levels (low, average and high) under two +/-complex and - /simple conditions for each dimension. Considering the planning time, rank of proficiency level on students' listening score for both simple & complex conditions were high, average and low, respectively. These rankings illustrate exact correspondence between proficiency level and students' performance for both simple & complex conditions (i.e., the higher the proficiency, the better the performance).

Given perspective dimension, rank of proficiency level on students' listening score for - & + conditions were (high = average) and low and high, average and low, respectively. Regarding the perspective, students with all three levels of proficiency had better listening performance on first person perspective (simple/-) than third person one (+/complex). The high proficiency students roughly had the same listening comprehension as the low proficiency ones under both simple and complex performance conditions. For prior knowledge, order of proficiency level on students' listening score for both - & + conditions were high, average and low. It can be concluded that high proficiency students outperform under both - & +. Results showed that all three levels of proficiency had better listening comprehension on the presence of prior knowledge (-) than lack of prior knowledge (+). The high proficiency students had slightly better performance under complex condition.

H2: There is no difference between learners' anxiety and students' task comprehension under different performance conditions.

According to Tobias (1986), interference may occur at three levels: input, processing and output. At input, anxiety may cause attention deficits and poor initial processing of information. In short, not as much information is registered.

For example, people with higher anxiety seem easily distracted from the task because time is divided between the processing of emotion-related and task-related cognition. If the task is relatively simple, anxiety may have little effect on processing. The more difficult the task, the greater the effect of anxiety on processing. Also Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1991) consider FLCA as “a distinct complex of self perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process”. In all of these specifications, the context or situation dependent nature of foreign language anxiety was emphasized

With regard to planning time dimension, rank of anxiety level on students' listening score for both -/simple & +/-complex conditions were low, average and high, respectively. Total correspondence was found between anxiety level and students' performance under both + & - conditions. Results showed that under both - & + conditions students with low level of anxiety had better performance than those with high level of anxiety. This is in correspondence with the statement that the lower the anxiety levels, the higher the listening performance.

Given perspective dimension, rank of anxiety level on students' listening score for conditions -/simple & +/-complex were low = average and high, and low, average, and high, respectively. These rankings proved that except equal score for low and average levels under simple condition, there is total correspondence between anxiety level and students performance for both + & - conditions. Results showed that all low, average and high anxiety levels had better listening performance on simple condition (first person perspective). Shortly, students with low level of anxiety did not better on complex task. For prior knowledge, rank of anxiety level on students' listening score for both + & -conditions were low, average and high, respectively. These statistics revealed complete correspondence between anxiety level and students comprehension (the lower the anxiety, the higher the listening score) under both + & - conditions. Statistics showed that students with all three levels of anxiety had better listening comprehension on simple task (presence of prior knowledge). Of course, low level anxiety students had better comprehension than high level anxiety students on complex task.

V. CONCLUSION

To sum up, in this study focus was on what is the effect of task difficulty factors, proficiency and trait anxiety on task complexity conducted through different performance conditions, simple and complex. For example, do test-takers with high proficiency and low anxiety experience less complexity in their task performance or do these task complexities correlate more with manipulation of performance conditions or maybe with some other difficulty factors like proficiency and anxiety. It has shown that the conditions, under which tasks are completed, can have a marked effect on the resultant nature of comprehension. The study has confirmed the generally beneficial effects of different performance conditions on student's listening comprehension across task dimensions, here, prior knowledge, planning time, and perspective. For the first research question, little difference was found in the listening comprehension among the three proficiency levels but totally high level students had better comprehension under both -/simple & +/-complex conditions. High level students performed slightly better than other two levels but no significant difference was found among three different levels of proficiency under two simple and complex performance conditions. To conclude, it should be emphasized that our first hypothesis, there is no difference between test-takers' task comprehension with different proficiency levels under simple and complex conditions, is confirmed.

With regard to second research question, as far as the effect of test-takers' anxiety is concerned; students had better comprehension for simple tasks than complex ones for all three levels of anxiety. As demonstrated in results of study, there was a total correspondence between test-takers' level of anxiety and their task performance. Although there were slight differences between test-takers' anxiety level and task performance under different performance conditions, no significant differences were found among three different anxiety levels under both simple and complex conditions. It can be concluded that our second hypothesis, there is no difference between learners' anxiety and students' listening task performance under different performance conditions, is confirmed. From the findings of this study, it can be concluded that slight differences between performance of test-takers under simple and complex conditions were mostly of performance condition and not of proficiency and anxiety.

One of the limitations of the present study was factors affecting task performance such as motivation and anxiety that are hard or impossible to diagnose in advance of test task performance, and so are problematic as a basis for a priori prospective decisions about sequencing tasks. Undoubtedly, the full extent of variation in task listening comprehension cannot be reduced to any one factor or dimension of that factor alone. However, it was attempted to make a case for basing sequencing decisions in task-based approaches to syllabus design on distinctions between the cognitive demands of tasks which contribute to their relative complexity. Ellis (2003, p.20) maintains, “One of the goals of task based research is to establish what language and cognitive processes are likely to occur when input, conditions, and procedures are systematically varied.” Therefore, influence of other kinds of input tasks needs to be examined in future research. In the meantime, the goal of designing valid and reliable tasks for assessing listening competencies will remain vague. Third, the role of task conditions needs to be explored further. More sophisticated methods may need to be found for future research. Lastly, more studies that examine the value of task complexity and task difficulty within listening comprehension contexts need to be conducted. The findings in this thesis may also contribute useful information to the area of task-based testing. In this sense, they can be a contribution to the need of

conceptualizing comprehension and the processing conditions which influence it. The different conditions under which tasks are performed have shown to generate radically different results.

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Introducing Some Psychometric Tests for Researching on Cognitive Processes of the Translators/Translation Students

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Abstract—The recent interest in Cognitive Translation Studies have entailed a growing number of empirical study in translation process research designs (Jaaskelainen, 2000; Hansen, 2003; Munoz, 2008; Baqi & Mobaraki, 2011). Among other methodological issues, subject profiling has become a key factor if we are to control an experiment. Individual differences can act as independent variables, manipulated by researchers in order to gauge their effect, or extraneous variables not directly related to the purpose of the study, which need to be controlled. In Both cases, it is advisable to quantify them. There are different types of instruments for Psychological Evaluation and Description e.g. test measuring, most used in psychological constructs in Translation Studies; together with some factors to bear in mind when selecting the appropriate test for a given study design. Finally, according to the standards of Educational and Psychological Testing, some recommendations for bettering test administration are given.

Index Terms—cognitive translation studies, cognitive processes of the translator, psychometric testing, research methodology, subject profiling

I. SUMMARY

The growing academic interest in the cognitive translation studies has been accompanied by an increase in empirical researches which designs translator's mental processes (Munday, 2011; Munoz, 2008). Among methodological aspects, in this type of experiment, it is necessary to address the psychological differences of individuals in this study. Depending on the research design, these individual differences can act as independent organismic variables, manipulated by the investigator/researcher to determine their effect(s), or as extraneous variables not directly related to the purpose of the study. In both cases it is necessary to quantify.

This paper describes the different types of psychological assessment instruments available to the researcher. Here are the most commonly used tests to measure different psychological constructs that may be of interest to Translation Studies. Finally, after reviewing the factors to consider when choosing the most appropriate psychometric testing are some recommendations for the administration of standardized tests, in accordance with professional standards of the main international regulatory body in this field.

II. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the growing academic interest in the cognitive translation studies has been accompanied by an increase in empirical research which designs translator's mental processes (Jaaskelainen, 2000; Hansen, 2003; Munoz, 2008; Baqi & Mobaraki, 2011); also it has raised some concerns about the methodology used. Jaaskelainen (2000) proposes to enrich the empirical studies on translation and translators from the experience of psychological research and, in line with Hansen (2003), asserts that we need more information about the subjects' profile which is so far, mainly, one of the experimental materials in our field. The recent findings of a preliminary investigation of Munday seem to point in the same direction.

Among other methodological aspects, in this type of experiment, it is necessary to address the psychological differences of individuals in the sample. Depending on the research design, these individual differences can act as independent organismic variables, manipulated by the researcher through selection to determine its effect, or as

extraneous variables not directly related to the purpose of the study, which should be checked, too. In both cases it is advisable to quantify. Given the importance of the choice of appropriate instruments for collecting data on the profile of the subjects, and their proper management, this paper describes the different types of psychometric tests available to the researcher which are the most commonly used tests to measure different psychological constructs, responsible for intersubject variability, which may be of interest to translation studies. Finally, after reviewing the factors that must be taken into account when selecting the most appropriate for each research design, there are some recommendations for the administration of standardized tests, in accordance with professional standards of the principal regulator international field.

III. TYPES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS AVAILABLE

“Psychological assessment instruments are information-gathering procedures that allow observation and description of certain behaviors and can be classified as self-reports, observation, subjective techniques, projective and objective techniques” (Moreno Rosset, 2005, p. 93).

The types of self-testing are questionnaires, scales, inventories, techniques of self-registration and interview. The former are characterized by collecting the items in question form. Nearby examples of its use in the field of empirical research on translation are the PETRA sociolinguistic group questionnaires and questionnaires of problems and knowledge translation research group PACTE (2009; 2011).

The scales are sets of statements used to measure the degree of agreement or disagreement of an individual to their content and are proper evaluation, among others, of the motivational aspects.

The inventory contains a list of traits, preferences, attitudes, interests and capabilities in order to evaluate the characteristics and abilities of an individual and is used frequently to assess aspects of personality.

The technique of self-registration, one of the most used in the clinical setting, has the great advantage, unlike the interview, allowing the collection of variables of interest at the moment in which they occur. In the same way, the verbalization of thought protocols has been widely used in the field of research on cognitive processes of the translator (Hansen, 2003). The method has evolved and, today, verbalization coexists in real time and retrospective use in conjunction with the dialogue (Hansen, 2008; Defeng and Cheng, 2007). The sessions are recorded for later analysis. Among the most criticized are those who do not take into account the automatic processes involved in translation and distortion that occurs in the translation activity and results verbalization itself (T.Bell, 2009).

The interview involves a conversation and interpersonal relationship with a given purpose, in which each participant adopts a particular role. There are different types, depending on the purpose, which can be distinguished as that to decide on the assignment and not a subject for a specific investigation; the "diagnosis" allows the information gathered to compare with that obtained by other instruments or the advisory to answer a specific question. We can also differentiate between structured, standardized and a pre-established, with the advantage that it can resolve questions that arise every individual on the fly; in the semi-structured, even if there is a script, you can include spontaneous questions during development. Finally, in free meeting, open questions allow the interviewee prefers to decide which aspects abound. It is also necessary to take into account the characteristics of the subjects, especially their age and academic background, and the time of the research process in which they occur, if at the beginning, during the data collection or at the end such as that of retrospective interview PACTE (2009; 2011).

The methodology allows the systematic collection of observational data of reality without exercising any control over the variables. In observation data can be obtained from direct contact with the subject, while the non-participant interaction hardly exists. In the mode of participation and observation, both figures are closely given; the prior relationship between them is a kind of e.g. teacher-student relationship. Caution should be exercised to avoid the emergence of the three major biases: 1) the reactivity or disruptive behavior upon learning of the subjects; 2) the observed influence of the observer's expectations on what it believes to perceive, and 3) technical biases that may affect the equipment used or the organization of the process.

In recent years, thanks to the emergence of new technological tools, it is possible to observe and record the behavior of subjects in a much more accurate way (Dam-Jems & Heine, 2009). Beyond the video recordings, Translog application developed by Jakobsen recorded the writing process of translation to collect the keystrokes in real time; unlike the methods of verbalization of thought, he does not interfere with process. Discussing the rhythm and speed of creating the translated text, and between the parameters investigated so far, are segmentation and textual revision, the connection breaks and actions immediately preceding or following text, the distribution of subtasks and alternating rhythm of the beats and breaks (T.Bell, 2009). The screen capture programs has a high level of ecological validity, allowing recording all activities performed on a computer as digital video, but no information about which segments and images capture the attention of users. This last problem can be solved with the joint use of monitoring tools eyeball, also increasingly used, and allow to relate the cognitive effort and eye movement to calibrate fixed points where the look, the way and the pupil size of subjects (Hansen 2008).

As we know there are subjective methods for collecting information on the psychological structure, contents and processes of subjective views and personal meanings about oneself and the world. The most widespread grid techniques are the semantic differential, hermeneutic and narrative methods, but given their lack of relation to the contents traditionally investigated in our discipline, and the space limitations of this article, we will not stop them. Something

similar happens with projective techniques, traditionally used for the study of personality from the "projections" (perceptions, feelings, etc..) of subjects with a series of standard stimuli (Rorschach test and TAT) in which does not deepen.

When measuring individual differences, standardized psychological tests are often the tool of choice, because they are objective, systematic and standardized ways to compare the behavior of two or more persons with certain guarantees of reliability. They are defined as instruments or procedures that contain a sample of a subject's behavior in a specific area for evaluation by a score assigned according to a standardized process. The instructions given to subjects, the conditions under which the test is performed and the process of assigning scores for each test follow a specific pattern.

There are several categories of psychometric tests, depending on the nature of the construct they purport to measure. Intelligence tests intended to gauge the basic capacity and potential of an individual to understand the world around oneself, assimilate one's functioning and apply that knowledge to improve the quality of life. Personality tests are used for research or diagnosis. They are often used in educational and human resources, and try to measure performance, ability, and the degree of knowledge of a subject on a particular topic or to what extent dominates an area. The neuropsychological tests assess possible deficits in cognitive functioning that may come from some kind of brain damage. The occupational ones try to match an individual's interests with those of different professions to find which one best fits one's profile. Clinicians measure factors such as level of anxiety or depression of an individual. In the next section we will try some tests belonging to the first two categories.

IV. CONSTRUCTS AND PSYCHOMETRIC TESTING OF INTEREST FOR RESEARCH ON COGNITIVE PROCESSES OF THE TRANSLATOR

One the most widely used intelligence test is the WAIS III, Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scales, giving three IQ scores (verbal, manipulative and totally from the previous two), and four independent indices, three of which are of interest to our discipline: the scale of working memory, the subtests of arithmetic, digits and letters and numbers, the scale of processing speed of subtests with key numbers and search for symbols, and verbal comprehension scale, with subtests in vocabulary, similarities and information. Given the limited space of this article, I refer the reader to the work of Kaufman & Lichtenberger (1999) on the application and interpretation of evidence and the overall view offered by Martin Munoz (2008) on the applicability of these three factors in Translation Studies researches.

The Tower of Hanoi is a test used to measure executive functioning, by manipulating different increasing radius disks that are stacked on a stake to insert into another in the same order following certain rules. In translation studies, this test has been used in empirical research on creativity and automation to translate to test the relationship between problem solving potential of well-defined and ill-defined problems (Hubscher-Davidson 2006).

Allport coined the term "cognitive style" in 1937, but there were cognitive psychologists in the fifties and sixties of last century, who showed that there are clear individual differences in the usual way in which individuals process information and use their resources, face a process of decision-making or problem solving, but remain consistent and stable throughout life, can be modified through training.

Psychology has identified several categories of cognitive styles, according to the extreme polarity. Among the most studied dimensions in translation studies are the following: impulsivity-reflexivity, as an individual store to demonstrate the first solution that comes to mind even incorrect, ignoring the errors and making decisions quickly or let time pass before proposing a solution to avoid making mistakes independent field-dependent field, to assess whether it serves more to a particular aspect of the information or is perceived as a unitary phenomenon and is more used in context-serial-holistic, depending on whether one analyze in detail all the elements of a problem and ordered sequentially or simultaneously processing multiple complex to form a unit.

Among the most commonly used tests to determine cognitive styles are the following: the Matching Familiar Figures of Test or MFFT (Kagan, 1965), to measure the size of reflexivity impulsivity, in which the subject selects from several alternative figures that adjusts to the reference and get two indices, speed of response and the number of errors; the EFT, Embedded Figures Test, Witkin et al. (1971) to calibrate the field dependence and independence by identifying a simple geometric figure in the context of a more complex, and the Stroop Test (Golden, 1975) to assess cognitive flexibility-rigidity, taking into account the ability exchange of a strategy to inhibit the typical response and deliver a new face of certain stimuli.

Not very often there has been empirically established links between personality and cognitive processes of the translator, which does not mean that this area does some interest and is the subject of study in the coming years. So Jaaskelainen (2000, p. 73) suggests that "some differences found in the performance of some experimental subjects could be due to personality traits". According Tirkkonen-Condit (2000, p. 141), "tolerance to uncertainty, which is part of every cognitive process involving decision-making, is a personality trait that deserves to be taken into account in the training of translators". It is a little studied factor, largely because of the lack of adequate instruments.

Since Bandura (1977) introduced the concept of self-efficacy or belief in one's ability to organize and execute courses of action required to produce concrete results; it became an important piece of research in Social Cognitive Psychology applied to fields such as learning, performance and motivation. It is a mediating variable in processes as diverse as decision making or the success of teaching and learning, objects of interest in translation (Hansen, 2003).

The attention of many researchers has recently led to another construct closely related to previous or perceived collective efficacy trial or assessment of the group members to their performance capabilities when performing a specific task. This is a property that emerges at the group level, not simply the sum of the efficacy beliefs of individual members, and affects, among others, the way the group uses its resources to the effort invested in getting their goals and even one's vulnerability to dissatisfaction with the difficulties (Bandura, 2000). An important finding is the fact that groups highly engaged in collective efficacy are able to persist even after they have faults, showing even more effective relations (Little and Madigan 1997). Although they are still being validated, there are instruments available to measure collective efficacy drives (Huici & et al, 2004).

Finally, following in the field of study of the working groups, their structural and functional complexity is manifested in the phenomenon of group cohesion, singular expression of emotional integration, functionality and value. Traditionally, in applied research, group cohesion has been operationalized as the attraction each of the group members feel about each other and with the group itself, parameters usually measured by self-reports and questionnaires. Carron et al. (1985) distinguished two blocks of aspects of cohesion: the individual-group size and task-related, this is the basis of the Group Environment Questionnaire (GEQ). Along these lines, a preliminary study in the university classroom indicates the existence of a close link between group cohesion and perceived collective efficacy in students of translation (see Baqi & Mobaraki, 2011).

V. KEY FACTORS IN SELECTING APPROPRIATE PSYCHOMETRIC TEST

The starting point when choosing the most appropriate psychometric test for a research design is to define exactly what construct is to assess, for what purpose; for example, whether it is in a first phase of research, pre-select subjects according to their scores for inclusion in different treatment groups, or if necessary obtain the most accurate measure of each of them to triangulate the results, and finally, the main characteristics of the sample specific population to which scholars apply, such as age, availability, socio-cultural level, etc..

The next necessary phase then is documentation of phase of testing, preferably standardized, available to measure this parameter. It may address, in particular, whether they can be applied to subjects of similar ages to those of the selected sample, whether they are individual or group application, time management, formatting, and their appropriateness for purpose of the study; for example if it comes to selecting individuals who obtain higher or lower scores it may be applied to a test group for their detection and then a pre-selected individual subjects. In addition, this phase also involves gathering information on the validity and reliability of psychometric tests to select those that, being applicable under the conditions of our experiment, present the strongest quality criteria.

The validity is directly related to the fact that a test actually measures the dimension that is supposed to be calibrated (see Jafarpour, 2010, chap. 6). "This is an estimate of the veracity of the inferences made from test scores" (AERA & APA, 1999, p. 9), and their often used three strategies of evaluation are not mutually exclusive: the content analysis, the analysis of the construct measured and the contrast of test scores with other measures or criteria of interest.

The purpose of content validity is to analyze how the elements or items that comprise the test are relevant and representative sample of the construct on which you will be making inferences (see Jafarpour, 2010, p. 103) and is usually applied more frequently in performance testing or knowledge. It denotes a group of experts to ensure that the test does not include irrelevant aspects but all the more important ones.

Construct validity seeks to ensure that the variable measured by the test is acceptable within a theoretical system. After defining the scientific concept of interest from existing theoretical bases there are established assumptions about the relationship, on the one hand, between it and certain behaviors directly observable, and, on the other, between one and other constructs given, then designing a measuring instrument to obtain empirical data on the interrelationships between test scores and the variables hypothesized.

Validity refers to the criterion or predictive involves finding out how test scores can be used to infer the behavior of subjects in a different independent variable, called criteria, i.e. it is "evaluating the relationship between test hypothesis and criteria" (Jafarpour. 2010, p. 321) to express the convergence of indicators.

The validity coefficient values are within the range -1 to +1, with values close to 1 indicate a strong positive linear association between two variables, and values close to -1 indicate a strong negative relationship, with no relationship made between the variables when the correlation coefficient is 0. Therefore, the higher it is, the greater the validity, but keep in mind that tend to be lower than the reliability (between 0.20 and 0.30 are considered very low and above 0.90, very high).

Meanwhile, reliability is directly related to the stability and accuracy of the measure, i.e. the extent to which similar scores obtained when assessing the same trait, with the same test in similar conditions, and to what extent we can say these values are free from measurement errors, i.e. the proportion of observed variance explained by the true variance, the variance discounting non-systematic measurement errors.

The procedures used for calculating reliability are four. The method known as "test-retest" measures the stability of the test and the reliability coefficient calculated by the correlation between the scores obtained by a group of subjects in a first application and that found in a second, in this way are taken into account possible measurement errors arising from differences between the two conditions and has the great advantage of not requiring more ways than the same test. The method involves parallel form, as its name suggests, and builds two versions of the test, so that errors can be

avoided due to the reagents and different application times. This time this is given to half of the first test sample and the second half at first to cross in the second application.

The third method is based on internal consistency and only requires an application of the test, so you can control factors such as the interval between tests and memory or learning. After obtaining the scores, the test is divided into two halves of similar difficulty and content to calculate the correlation between the scores of subjects on both sides using different statistical methods. Finally, we can evaluate the consistency between two or more judges or assessors when the test correct, although this method is usually considered as complementary to those described above, not as a substitute.

Jafarpour (2010) recommends rejecting the evidence showing a low reliability coefficient (less than 0.65), use half reliability (between 0.75 and 0.85) only as a screening or preliminary tests and, whenever possible, use evidence of high reliability (above 0.90) when the goal is to take a relevant decision. In any case, do not forget that "a test can be reliable without being valid, but may not be valid without being reliable" (Jafarpour, 2010, p. 65).

Finally, when selecting appropriate standardized psychometric test, it should be considered whether the criteria is to obtain scores, showing a certain degree of skill in absolute terms, and is this all we need, or it would be preferable to refer to the standard scores. In psychometrics, "norm" refers to statistical information that summarizes the distribution (variability) of the scores on a test by a group of subjects. The rule is, in short, the benchmark score of a particular parameter (the measure) for a population group. If we compare the score for a given subject to the standard of their reference group, we will have valuable information for interpreting test results. If we opt for the latter type, it will be necessary to consider regulatory information gained from previous research. For example, in the case of tests from other countries, it is important that they have been suitably adapted to our culture, besides being translated, tests must have been applied to different populations with subsequent statistical analysis.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF STANDARDIZED TESTS AND CONCLUSION

When psychometric tests are applied in a teaching context, there are certain restrictions imposed by ethics, for example, the inability to use a control group for a long time, since all students should receive the same methodology, content and teaching load or the limited number of hours, which prevents theoretically necessary time to devote to the administration of psychometric tests and can lead to solutions such as the administration of tests created for an individual application of a group.

Following the standards on the implementation of educational and psychological tests of the American Educational Research Association, the American Psychological Association and the National Council on Measurement in Education (AERA & APA, 1999), the main professional bodies in this field regulators, suggested whether to use a test in a way that has not been fully validated or to modify it in some way of standardized administration procedures; so it is necessary to justify its new use and data are collected much relevant information as data that justify its validity.

In those cases in which, given the absence or unavailability of proven psychometric tests of validity, the use of other reliability or validity of which has not yet been proven in a large enough sample, the results should be interpreted with caution, always be possible, try to triangulate the data.

Special attention requires the use of psychological tests in a language that does not match the student's native language, even if they have some mastery of the language or are supposedly bilingual, a relatively frequent in the field of translation studies. The performance profile is obtained and capabilities may be adversely affected, so that, as the research objective, one might dismiss these scores or use an alternative test.

Also, some tests require that the person who manages or owns interpret certain professional qualifications, training or experience, and so records them in their manuals. A classification of the instruments on three levels, used by publishers for marketing tests: those that require only training and experience in the specific field of application, which require some knowledge of the theory of tests and statistical methods; and those required to possess an advanced degree in psychology, psychiatry or psychology and professional experience. In these cases, we may respect that rule and, in general, whenever deemed necessary, we may seek the advice of a professional.

Finally, it is necessary to inform the subjects tested on the objective of the test, the method of administration, the factors taken into account when scoring their responses, how these scores are used, for how long do we keep the results and under what conditions they will be disclosed.

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On the Translation of Chinese Current Political New Words

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Abstract—The continuous emergences of new words as well as the gradual disappearances of old words are the law of the development of language and vocabulary. Along with the development and progress of Chinese society, there are large numbers of new words emerged in our daily lives. The quality of the Chinese new words' translations, especially those new words related to the nation's current politics and economy, directly affects China's foreign political, economical and cultural communications. Therefore, it is of vital significance to make researches on the translations of the current political new words, so as to strengthen the Sino-foreign exchanges and cooperation in various aspects. This paper starts from some elementary translation theories, combines with China's current situations, and tries to find some proper basic principles and specific methods to translate Chinese new words.

Index Terms—current political new words, problem, strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

For the past three decades of reform and opening up, with the overall development of Chinese society, there emerged a large number of new things and phenomena. All kinds of new words have sprung up, the core of which are the new words in terms of current affairs. The translation of the current political new words is a mirror between our country and the international society, by which our country's fundamental situations and development conditions can be fully understood by the outside world. Good translations can promote the understandings of foreigners about China, and convey an open and progressive national image to the whole world, whereas not ideal translations will affect the international communications, even undermine our country's international image. Therefore, perfect translations of current political new words can enable this mirror to play a good role, so as to better promote the communications and cooperation between China and the other countries.

Therefore, in order to improve the overall quality of the English translations of the current political new words, translators should make further researches on both theories and practices of the translations. Enhance our senses of responsibilities, strengthen our studies, pay more attention to the current political knowledge and heighten our capabilities of translating Chinese current political new words.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Regarding the definition of the current political new words, it is still a little bit confusing. Classified according to their political origins, this kind of glossary includes current national significant events, political situations as well as major policies and aspects involving economy and cultures. People learn current affairs by the channels of television, newspapers and network, through which we can understand the country's major policies. Translators should pay attention to the point that when translating general cultural words, we should take China's cultural structures and historical backgrounds into consideration. And if mistranslations occurred in the translations of the current political words, the direct consequence is the foreigners' misunderstandings to our country's policies, thus becoming their laugh stocks or unnecessary troubles. With regard to the national influences, the impacts are more significant; what is more, these words may be used by the anti-Chinese forces in the international communications and become their weapons to attack China. Therefore, we should consider deeply in the translating process. There are two characteristics of Chinese political new words, i.e. gradualness and Chinese elements.

First of all, the key of the current political new words lies in "freshness", namely gradualness. In some significant conferences or important situations, the country leaders will formulate some new policies according to the concrete conditions, followed by large numbers of new words emitting like mushrooms after rain. For example, the expression of "harmonious society" comes from the concept of "building a harmonious socialist society". These terms appear repeatedly on major media, becoming the focus of the country and the people, thus making extraordinary effects. The emergence of these new words is a reflection of the country's major policies at a certain stage, such as "seize the chance and develop ourselves".

Secondly, the current political new words have rich Chinese elements. The Chinese culture is broad and profound. For instance, more than two thousand years ago, Chinese thinker Confucius proposed a political ideal "大同世界",

namely “utopia” in the western world, which is precisely one kind of yearning for a harmonious society. The statement of “harmonious society” not only manifests the national development targets, but also contains essence of Chinese culture. When we translate these glossaries, we should be accurate and manifest their characteristics as much as possible.

English as an international lingua franca in the political, economic, trade, cultural and other spheres have been widely used. Thus, with the rest of the world in China's external political and economic propaganda, we also bound to the use of English expressions of political affairs with Chinese characteristics, terminology. Because in any English dictionary on the impossible to find a direct correspondence we use expressions, so we need to grasp the English language used at the same time, creating a Chinese-English expression. As we all know, “Three Represents”; “four cardinal principles”; “the Four Cardinal Principles”; “keep pace with the times”; and “well-off society”: build a well-of society in an all-round way, and so on expressions are recognized by the international community and accepted by Chinese English expression. Thus, when we translate the current political terminology, you need to pay attention to two aspects: on the one hand, to avoid the Chinese taste being too heavy and does not correspond with the English expressions in English, that is, “Chinglish”; On the other hand, translators should thoroughly understand the inner meaning of political terms, avoiding the wrong translation and mistranslation, to end political ambiguity. Political terms and phrases often have a strong policy, therefore, the process of translation can not arbitrarily increase, by which the language and the use of the word. Therefore, it is a challenge for translators. Politics vocabulary according to their different content, different uses can take several different methods of processing and translation.

III. PROBLEMS OF TRANSLATING CHINESE NEW WORDS

A. *Difficulties in Translating Current Political New Words*

As far as the present situation of translating Chinese current political new words is concerned, the overall level is not high. The characteristic of “New” has also become the most difficult part in the translating process. Because of the “new”, most words have no precedents to be possible to look up, so that the translators are unable to integrate from the general comprehensive Chinese-English dictionaries to obtain fixed answers. It is also because the “new” makes the compilation of new dictionaries quite troublesome, and often couldn't catch up with the birth of new words. Therefore, the promotion of the new words is quite difficult, the translators could only translate words according to their own understandings, and in this way a new word often have many kinds of translations. This is also a reason why the translation of current political words is very chaotic at present. In recent years, there are very few books about the Chinese-English new words, the majority of which only compile the new words by categories and make simple explanations, so most of them are unable to be used in the actual translation work. Moreover, the theoretical studies on the Chinese-English new words are few at domestic, and the books and papers about this respect are extremely rare. This undoubtedly brings much inconvenience to the translators.

B. *Existing Questions*

The existed questions are misunderstanding, Chinese-type of English translations, and negligence of the cultural differences.

1. Misunderstanding

Accurate understanding of the original texts is the prerequisite for translation. Incorrect translations often appear because of the lack of accurate understanding of the connotation and extension of the original texts. For example, a phrase related to Taiwan problem such as “和平统一” is mistranslated as “peaceful unification”, which neglects the fact that Taiwan is one part of China. The correct translation should be “peaceful reunification”. Another example is “三角债”, some translators mistakenly translate it as “triangle debts”, such a translation only translate the literal meaning of the new word. This “三角债” actually refers to the problem of many companies delay each other's debts, thus should be translated as “debt chains”. Another example is “拳头产品”, which should be translated into “knock out product”.

2. Chinese-type of English translations

Some translators stuck to the original words too rigidly, taking it for granted to “take a seat according to ticket number” mechanically and literally. For instance, some people translate “豆腐渣” project as “bean curd residue project”, haven't transformed the vivid analogy of “豆腐渣”. The so-called “豆腐渣” project refers to architectural engineering built by cheats on labors and materials and of inferior quality. The word “豆腐渣” coincided with constitute equivalents with the English word “jerrybuilt”. “Jerrybuilt” is a derogatory term in English, meaning “quickly and cheaply built without concern for quality”. Therefore, to translate “豆腐渣” project as “jerrybuilt project” can have effects of the equally good results from different methods.

3. Negligence of the cultural differences

“In terms of linguistics, languages are not only the reflections of cultures, but also the direct and effective tools to master one culture”. (Chen Anding, 1998: 269). The identical things or concepts have different connotations under different cultural backgrounds. Therefore, the translations of new words also need to consider the cultural particularities. For example, “四小龙” is translated as “the four dragons” in Asia. In the eastern countries, “dragon” symbolizes good luck and wealth, whereas in the Western culture, “dragon” is considered as a kind of horrible animals which symbolizes

evil. Therefore, “the four dragons” is quite likely to bring bad imaginations to the westerners. The common translations are “the Four Tigers” or “the Asian Tigers”, which borrow a lively and dynamic “tiger” in western culture to translate “dragon”, the symbol of good luck and wealth in Chinese culture.

IV. TRANSLATION PRINCIPLES AND METHODS

The translation of the Chinese new words is an inseparable part of our country’s image, therefore besides the analyses of translation theories, we should make researches on the translation principles and methods of Chinese current political new words to solve the practical problems.

A. Translation Principles

In terms of the translations of the current political new words, we should first pay attention to their faithfulness and expressiveness. Only when we understand their meanings can we grasp the intrinsic essences of the words and translate them accurately. For example, the original understanding of “小康” is “relatively comfortable”, it seems too complex to use it in the translation of “全面建设小康社会”. Meanwhile, the original understanding is not right. “小康” was originally considered to be relatively well-off economic life, not having political or cultural meanings. Therefore, “全面” should be understood as the whole country and translated into “across the country”. Actually, “全面建设小康社会” refers to a high level of well-off society involving over one billion people. Thus, the phrase should be translated as “build a well-off society in an all-round way”. But in the translations of the documents of the Tenth National People’s Congress second conference, the phrase was translated as “build a moderately prosperous society in all respects”.

Terms of political affairs must be followed by development of the times, political, economic, cultural and many other areas at different periods of development and changes. Some terms as “Iron rice bowl” (the iron bowl), “four modernizations” (the Four modernizations), etc. possess a distinct expressive characteristics of the times, and have now been recognized, and as a fixed view and continue to be adopted. But relative to some of the terms update, such as: “carried forward”(carry forward our cause into the future), “through science and education” (national rejuvenation through science and education) and respond to and in accordance with the present trend of the times.

Then we should consider “elegance”, such as the translation of “以德治国，依法治国”。“法治” has the fixed phrase “rule of law”, however, there is no such a word “德治” in English. But in Chinese, “法治” and “德治” are on cross-references themselves. According to Nida’s view, the translators should try to use an appropriate phrase to make “法治” and “德治” correspond to each other, thus achieving the aim of “reciprocity”. Therefore, this phrase can be translated into “We need to govern the country by combining the rule of law and the rule of virtue”. By using the phrase of “rule of virtue”, the entire English sentence not only achieves the goal of “expressing one’s ideas”, but also appropriates with the original texts very formally.

B. Specific Methods

In the translation practices, translators may adopt the following translation strategies to solve the practical problems, they are literal translation, free translation, transliteration, translation by restoring the borrowed words and borrowed corresponding English affixes.

1. Literal translation

Literal translation may be divided into three kinds of situations, complete literal translation, literal translation with explanation, and proper transformations of literal translation. As we all know, some of the political, economic, cultural and other aspects of terms or expressions are based on the condition of our country, which are unique in their meaning. Consequently, for the foreign readers who are lack of a certain background knowledge may find it difficult to understand. At this time, we need to take an explanatory translation. The ‘three emphases education (the intensive education in the need to stress study, political awareness and integrity) (3 stresses education). In such process of translation, we must adopt the method of literal translation with footnotes, and then some explanation, make sure the vocabulary can explain the specific content of the implied terms and be translated clearly.

Firstly, complete literal translation. If there are equivalent words in English, it is better to make literal translation. We must select appropriate words and expressions according to the English customs to accurately transform those images which can be explained directly. For example, traditional Chinese families are families of several generations living together. Along with the changes of times, Chinese society has gradually formed a kind of core family-based structure. It seems a little bit of Chinglish if we only translate “大” “小” according to their Chinese meanings, that is to say, “big family” and “small family”. Other examples are “机构改革”(reform of the organizational structure) and “减轻农民负担”(alleviate farmers’ burden).

Secondly, literal translation with explanation. This approach has been recognized by the majority. It is generally agreed that in English there exist little words that are equivalent to the current political new words with Chinese characteristics. We adopt the method of literal translation with explanation could not only preserve the Chinese characteristics, but also make sure not to lose the accuracy. Such as “863” Plan, which is our country’s high-tech research and development program. If we translate it into the “863” Program is too general, the foreign audience certainly could not understand. But if we translate it into “the March 1986 High-tech Program”, the short explanation is

simple and brief and may let the reader understand. Another example is “草根工业”, which should be translated into “grass root industry” (refers to village and township enterprises which take root among farmers and grow like wild grass). If we simply translate it as “grass root industry”, it may cause a lot of confusions.

Thirdly, proper transformations of literal translation. The primitive images of the source texts cannot carry the same meaning in the target languages, and there are other images to express in the target languages, at this time we can use the method of proper transformations of literal translation to translate the figurative meanings. But attention should be paid to this kind of situations that both Chinese and English should have images, although the images are different, they can express similar meanings.

2. Free translation

Free translation may be divided into two kinds of situations, ordinary circumstances and the translation of fuzzy words.

First of all, ordinary circumstances. As a result of the Chinese inherent characteristics, some words do not exist in English at all. If we translate them literally, it will only cause wrong translations. Moreover, if the translations of the current political words are wrong, the images of Chinese policies will be damaged abroad, and the consequences will be inconceivable. Then we should drop their Chinese forms and make free translations. Such as the phrase “发展才是硬道理”, “硬道理” is a word with Chinese characteristics. But in the foreigners’ opinions, “reason” is not “hard”. It is better to translate it into “Development is the top priority”. When we use “top priority” to express “硬道理”, although we can not express the metaphor in Chinese, the basic meaning has been expressed.

Then, the translation of the fuzzy words. Chinese traditional culture has fuzzy features, whereas the Western culture is precise. This is the natural result resulted from the self-intuitive thinking and logical thinking advocated by the Chinese and Western culture respectively. The fuzzy features are also manifested in the current political words. For example, “继续做好文化科技下乡, 扶贫工作”. Culture, science and technology are unable to go to the countryside, so we should clarify who are going to the countryside. Then the sentence should be translated as “We will work hard to bring culture, science and technology to the rural areas, continue aid-the-poor programs”. In the translation of the fuzzy words, we should pay attention to reduce the traces of Chinglish and enhance the readability of the translation. Such as “一刀切”(impose uniformity on) refers to use one kind of routine to do any things. If we translate the phrase according to the literal meaning, then we may “kill people”.

3. Transliteration

Some words, if translated by literal translation or free translation, would lead to the loss of some Chinese meanings. Some commonly used words can fully take the form of transliteration which not only manifest the Chinese culture, but also play the propaganda role. For example, China’s giant pandas presented to Taiwan were named as “团团” “圆圆” and translated as “Tuantuan” and “Yuanyuan”. “福娃”, the mascots of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games was firstly translated as “Friendliness”. But the translation has suffered much controversy since its publication, and has been officially changed to “Fuwa”. In fact, many Chinese pinyin words have already been incorporated into the English vocabulary, such as “wushu” “yinyang” and “fengshui”.

4. Four-character combination of words and Translation

Four-character combination of phrases or idioms are more widely used in Chinese expression, and is a unique character of Chinese language. The form is simple, but is a welcome means of expression. And this four-character phrase, or idiom is characterized by the connotation of words which are not merely the meaning of their respective components of its meaning while it is often implied in the phrase being, therefore, in the process of translation they cannot be translated word for word. At the same time, when the Chinese proverbs are translated into English, it is not easy for the translator to maintain its original flavor, so the actual translation as far as possible to be translated in English with relative and other expressions. If it is not a perfect right to do so, then the translator have to follow the principle of faithfulness in order to convey the original meaning, thus avoiding the “Chinglish” phenomenon.

5. Translation by restoring the borrowed words

The external words have composed a part of Chinese new words. There is no doubt that when translating the borrowed words, we can also employ the method of restoring translation. Here restoring translation refers to return “the imported products” to the true themselves, such as “峰会” (summit conference) “克隆” (clone) “传销” (multi-level marketing) “生物恐怖主义”(bio-terrorism) “白皮书”(white paper) and so on. Another example is “第三产业”(tertiary industries). Some translators take for granted that it is a new Chinese phrase, and translate it as “the third industry”. To avoid this kind of situation, the translators should read English newspapers and magazines frequently; in this way can we distinguish the borrowed words and make restoring translations.

6. Borrowed corresponding English affixes

Affixation is one kind of derivation methods, which constitutes new words by using the affixes in the grammatical form. As the prefixes and suffixes have strong expression power, when appropriately used might add much color to the translations of many new words that have no precedents to follow. Moreover, they can save a lot of space, which can be described as simple and expressive, twice the result with half the effort. For example, the English prefix “N” which stands for “nuclear”, is translated into “核”. Therefore, “核工厂” “禁止使用核武器” should be translated into “N-plant”, “N-bans” respectively. The following are also some affixes contributing to the translations of Chinese new words. For

example, “单”(single;-;one-)“单亲家庭”(single-parent family),“单身母亲”(single mother); “防”(anti;-;proof; counter;-;-resistant).

V. CONCLUSION

Language Translation aims to better serve the cross-cultural communication to help the Chinese (SL) people have their own unique things introduced to the English(TL) people. Translation of the political new words is to promote the spirit of innovation, not rigidly adhere to a fixed form, to follow a consistent trend of the times and development. Meanwhile, it is a good grasp with Chinese characteristics to avoid creating a puzzling “Chinglish” expression in order to promote communication in politics, economics, culture and other aspects with the western world, to enrich the connotation of the Chinese language as well as enhancing China’s influence in the world, so that “China English” variant of the English language can be recognized and accepted worldwide. In short, the accurate and appropriate translations of current political new words may promote smooth progress of Chinese and foreign countries’ exchanges, and let the whole world understand that China is very important. Based on the above researches, we have learned many useful methods of translating Chinese current political new words into English. Besides, to avoid the emergence of a variety of translation problems, translators should enhance their senses of responsibilities. At the same time, translators should strengthen their studies, understand and master the current political knowledge, improve their comprehensive qualities, earnestly study the solutions of the translation problems and heighten the capabilities of translating Chinese new words.

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Mining Perspective and Rhetorical Patterns in Reading for Revision: A Case Study of Iranian Intermediate EFL Readers

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Abstract—This paper aims to find how reading skills are influenced by metacognitive strategies of revising and text-mining in Iranian intermediate students majoring in English Translation. A total number of 70 students participated in 2 series of consciousness-raising instructions. The first line of instructional trainings in this study followed from 20 sessions of instruction in reading metacognitive awareness and revising strategies and the second encompassed 20 sessions of instruction on expository rhetorical patterns and their associate discourse markers. Many research studies have proved the role of metacognitive awareness in students' learning outcome and achievement; however, in this study, the effects of such awareness of revision strategies were not found to be promising in lower-intermediate EFL learners. To address this drawback, the second line of instructional trainings began: the quantitative and qualitative results of this study satisfactorily demonstrated that the lower-intermediate students as well as the upper-intermediate ones developed their reading skills through their awareness of rhetorical organizations and their discourse markers. Pedagogical implications of these findings are discussed in relation to Iran's instructional status.

Index Terms—metacognition, revising strategies, text-mining, rhetorical patterns, discourse markers

I. INTRODUCTION

What we learn from reading practice may differ depending on our purpose of reading and reading tasks involved. Generally, reading is encouraged for the matter of text comprehension. Some other ways of reading, however, may have the characteristics which are missing in reading for comprehension and yet important (Yoshimura, 2009, p. 1872). Hayes (1996) compared reading for revision with reading for comprehension and found that when people read to revise, they pay close attention to language form for the problems and effectiveness.

In addition, reading for revision occurs when readers are forced to see the text from a writer's perspective. Anticipating writing (output) may itself shift the reader's attention toward important input for their own output (Yoshimura, 2006). "Mining" advocated by Greene (1993) may also shift readers' attention toward useful input for other domains of language learning. According to Greene (1993, p. 36), mining is "part of an ongoing effort to learn specific rhetorical and linguistics conventions" from reading and make them "their own repertoire for writing on different occasions". Thus, reading behavior and what can be learned from reading may change depending on the characteristics of a specific reading task.

In 1992, Greene explored some ways students employ metacognitive strategies which are involved in recognition of these organizational patterns. He termed such techniques "mining", a text-reconstructing context for inferring or imposing structure and seeing choices in language. Mining suggests a strategic process that consists of mapping out the territory by examining the situation or context. It also entails imposing or inferring the *rhetorical structure* based on informed guesses about where the object or objects of inquiry might lie, as well as exploring possible options and choices by representing one's plan in different ways in language (Greene, 1992, p. 155).

In addition to exploring the relationships between learner metacognition and performance, researchers are interested in the effects of metacognitively-oriented strategic instruction on reading comprehension (Alderson, 1984; Garner, 1994; Bernhardt, 2000; Chamot, 2005; Zhang, 2010). The efforts are aimed at developing learner autonomy, independence and self-regulation. It is crucial for EFL readers to be aware of what metacognitive strategies of reading tasks are and how they can employ the strategies to monitor and evaluate rhetorical structures and finally revise their comprehension. Considering the significance of metacognitive awareness of reading strategies and explicit knowledge of rhetorical patterns and their associate discourse markers, the present study formulated the following research questions:

1. In what way metacognitive strategies of revision improve the process of reading comprehension in Iranian intermediate EFL readers?

2. Does knowledge of rhetorical structures and the practice of text-mining assist reading skills?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Simple comprehension of meaning of words is not sufficient to comprehend a text while reading. Recent studies also show that effective and good readers undergo constructive and reconstructive processes by undertaking certain mental activities. Explicit awareness upon one's own learning and active application of revising techniques in one's learning process are highly effective both on achieving comprehension in reading and realization of learning (Lenski & Lewis, 2008; Keer & Verhaeghe, 2005; Wormeli, 2004; Allen, 2003).

A. *Metacognition*

At the heart of metacognitive instruction is the concept of metacognition which was introduced in cognitive psychology more than thirty years ago by Flavell (1976). Metacognition is defined as "cognition about cognition" or "knowing about knowing" or "awareness and management of one's own thought" (Kuhn & Dean, 2004, p. 270). Flavell also asserted that metacognition includes 'the active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration' of information processing activities (1976, p. 232). It involves knowledge about when and how to use particular strategies for learning or for problem solving (Metcalf & Shimamura, 1994) or as Birjandi (2006) believes it is as the 'seventh sense' and one of the mental characteristics that successful learners use.

It has been found that explicit metacognitive knowledge about task characteristics and applying appropriate strategies for task solution is a major determiner of language learning effectiveness (Mahmoudi et al., 2010). The reason lies in the fact that metacognitive strategies enable learners to play active role in the process of learning, to manage and direct their own learning and eventually to find the best ways to practice and reinforce what they have learned (Chari et al., 2010). This puts them in a privileged position to process and store new information and leads to better test performance, learning outcome, and better achievement (Mokhtari et al., 2002; Zimmerman et al., 2001).

Moreover, metacognitive knowledge characterizes the approach of expert learners to learning (Wong, 1986; Nickerson et al., 1985; Baker & Brown 1984), it enhances learning outcomes (Dickinson, 1995; Zimmerman & Bahdura, 1994), facilitates information recall (Nickerson et al., 1985), assists comprehension of written texts (Schommer, 1990; Brown et al., 1986), improves the rate of progress in learning (Victori & Lockart, 1995) and the quality and speed of learners' cognitive engagement (Pintrich et al., 1993).

B. *Metacognitive Strategies of Revision*

Metacognitive strategies are especially ubiquitous when it comes to the discussion of self-regulated learning. Being engaged in metacognition is a salient feature of good self-regulated learners. The strategies of selection and application include those concerned with an ongoing attempt to plan, check, monitor, select, *revise*, and evaluate (Brown, 2000, p. 133).

Among the less explored facets of metacognitive strategies are the revising strategies which are tightly related to two processes of monitoring and evaluation. According to Carter and Nunan (2001, p. 221-225), revision means going over a text in order to:

1. Check your understanding.
2. Make links between different topics to see how the whole subject fits together.
3. Remind yourself of material you have forgotten.
4. Reinforce your learning.
5. Identify and fill gaps in your knowledge.

If these characteristics are integrated and implemented in reading instructions, learners may reinforce their reading comprehension while they read for revision.

C. *Rhetorical Patterns and Text Mining*

Text mining, practically fostered through awareness of 'rhetorical organization', refers to the process of deriving high-quality information such as patterns and trends from text (Greene, 1992, p. 155). Mining a text usually involves the process of deriving patterns within the structured data, and finally evaluation and interpretation of the text. Typical text mining tasks include text categorization, text clustering, concept/entity extraction, production of granular taxonomies, sentiment analysis, document summarization, and entity relation modeling (i.e., learning relations between named entities).

'Rhetorical organization' is part of the macrostructure of a text and contains the logical organization of the text which the writer has used to represent the intended meaning (Sharp, 2002, p. 112). As readers interact with the text to construct meaning, their comprehension is facilitated when they organize their thinking in a manner similar to that used by the author. Readers who struggle with text comprehension sporadically do so because they fail to recognize the organizational structure of what they are reading, and they are not aware of cues that guide them to particular text structures. Meyer (1975) and Armbruster (1984), among others, have recognized five groups of rhetorical relations in expository texts:

1. *Listing*: a listing of items or ideas where the order of presentation of the items is not significant.

2. *Comparison/contrast*: a description of similarities or differences between two things.
3. *Temporal sequence*: a sequential relationship between ideas or events considered in terms of the passage of time.
4. *Cause-effect*: an interaction between at least two ideas or events, one considered a cause or reason and the other an effect or result.
5. *Problem-solution*: this is similar to the cause-effect pattern in that two factors interact, one citing a problem, the other a solution to that problem.

Writers use discourse markers as cohesive devices that cue text function, coherence relations, marking transition points within a sentence and between sentences; consequently, to understand the written texts, readers are expected to signal how rhetorical patterns of texts are organized through discourse markers (Grabe, 1997, 2000). One effective way to help students identify expository rhetorical structures is to teach words and phrases that frequently signal organization. For example, if students acknowledge that words such as like, unlike, and in contrast are often used when one thing is being compared to another, they can readily spot the author's intention and they'll be better equipped to understand the text as a whole.

Teaching rhetorical patterns

A major issue concerning the influence of text structure is the extent to which such knowledge can be directly taught to students so that it will lead to improved comprehension. There are two major lines of research on the effect of text structure instruction. The first line of research involves the impact of direct instruction, which explicitly raises student awareness of specific text structuring (Carrell, 1985; Armbruster et al., 1987; Miller & George, 1992; Duke & Pearson, 2002). This research emphasizes the uses of transition words, topic sentences, sentence-initial phrases, anaphoric linkages and definite reference to prior text ideas, and the role of various grammatical structures to build coherence in texts.

The second line of research develops student awareness of text structure through graphic organizers, semantic maps, outline grids, tree diagrams, and hierarchical summaries (Taylor and Beach, 1984; Alvermann, 1986; Berkowitz, 1986; Guri-Rosenblit, 1989; Armbruster, et al., 1991; Tang, 1992; Taylor, 1992; Vacca & Vacca, 1999; Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002; Vacca, 2002). This research demonstrates that students comprehend texts better when they are shown visually how text information is organized (along with the linguistic clues that signal this organization).

D. The Importance of This Study

One of the biggest challenges facing reading teachers in Iran's EFL educational settings is how to teach reading comprehension skills and not just assess comprehension. Comprehension questions can be very useful if they initiate discussion about how to monitor and evaluate reading processes, how the text is organized, and where to explore the main information in the text for detailed understanding. Providing students the metacognitive knowledge of predicting, clarifying, summarizing, monitoring and revising, noting rhetorical organization, and recognizing their pertinent discourse markers can lead to real comprehension instruction for students. But can such kind of metacognitive awareness necessarily lead to practical and strategic techniques of reading? The researchers of this study noted that metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategies are two distinct components of the term metacognition and there might be cases that turning such knowledge into practice would be unworkable for some students.

On the other hand, when considering more advanced EFL students, a much greater emphasis is typically placed on expository prose processing (Grabe, 2002, p. 9). These students need to understand the more abstract patterns of text structuring in expository prose, which informs the reader's efforts at comprehension. But there is a noteworthy problem in Iran's English curriculum that such resourceful knowledge of text is provided when students are passing writing courses while they have passed the reading courses without having any understanding of text organization. This study tends to prove the possible influences of familiarity with rhetorical structures on reading abilities of Iranian intermediate language learners (freshmen and sophomores).

III. METHOD

A. Participants and Setting

The sample population included 70 sophomores majoring in English Translation in Academic Centre of Education, Culture, and Research (ACECR), Ahvaz, Iran, from two English reading classes. Their age range was nineteen to twenty-two and the research was conducted throughout two semesters in the 2010-2011 education years; the classes were co-educational and held twice a week.

B. Materials

The data for this study were collected through two subsequent semesters. In the first semester, students participated in a simulated TOEFL iBT proficiency test; the test was extracted from "Barron's Educational Series: TOEFL iBT", 13th ed., 2010. Next, there was a pre-instruction reading tasks test. Then, for the instruction of metacognitive strategies, a comprehensive pamphlet, devised by Vandergrift (2003), was provided for the experimental group to raise students' awareness about metacognitive strategies applicable in reading tasks. To measure such awareness of strategic reading processes before, while, and after reading tasks, a questionnaire was designed which was the combination of two: one devised by Schmitt (1990) and the other provided by Doty, Cameron, and Barton (2003) which aimed to measure

reading metacognitive knowledge. At the end of the semester, there was a post-instruction assessment of the same reading tasks involved in the pre-instruction but reasonably the text were more advanced.

The second semester was devoted to the rhetorical patterns instruction. All the students participated in a pre-test reading exam to reestablish their initial status. After 20 sessions of instruction of five expository rhetorical patterns and their associated discourse markers, a post-instruction assessment of reading skills was conducted to check whether there was any significant difference between the experimental and control groups' reading skills.

C. Procedures

Following the aims of this study, at the beginning of the first semester, students' English proficiency was measured by a simulated TOEFL iBT test; the test was extracted from "Barron's Educational Series: TOEFL iBT", 13th ed., 2010. Their scores ranged from 30 to 64, which is indicative of intermediate level. According to the test result, the population was divided into two groups of reasonably parallel experimental and control.

During the first week of the first semester, all the students sat for a pre-instruction reading tasks test. The test took a complete session; students were assigned to answer questions including techniques such as: skimming and scanning, clarifying text meaning, summarizing, guessing the meaning of new words through the context provided by the original author or through the analysis of the word stems and affixes, and predicting what will come later (Grabe & Stoller, cited in Cele-Murica, 2001, p. 195). The reading passages were authentic and were carefully selected from the book "Inside Reading 2", published by Oxford University Press, 2009.

The third phase was the instruction of metacognitive strategies, specifically the techniques of revision: during 14 weeks, 20 strategy training sessions were conducted for students in the experimental group. The implementation was carried out in two steps: The first step focused on providing students a comprehensive pamphlet based on the one devised by Vandergrift (2003) to raise awareness about metacognitive strategies applicable in reading tasks. The second step focused on practicing specific strategies related to the monitoring strategy of "revision".

As metacognition is not directly observable in students (Sperling et al., 2002), it is argued that self-report and think-aloud methods that ask respondents to describe their use of particular strategies, rely too heavily on verbal ability (Whitebread et al., 2009) and as the students were not sufficiently competent to express themselves truly in writing, a multiple choice questionnaire was provided. Therefore, in the fourth phase of data gathering, measurement of metacognition awareness of the experimental and control groups of students was done to see whether experimental participants proved their superiority in metacognitive awareness to the control ones. The questionnaire applied for this study was a careful combination of two questionnaires to measure metacognitive awareness of revising strategies while and after reading tasks: one devised by Schmitt (1990) and the other provided by Doty, Cameron, and Barton (2003); directions for scoring the students responses which indicated awareness of metacognitive strategies of revising were also provided. Finally, at the end of first semester, to distinguish the differences between students' strategic reading skills, the two groups sat for the post-instruction assessment of reading tasks.

In the next phase of the study, which coincided with the beginning of the second semester that the students were participating in this study, the two groups were assessed through a pre-instruction exam to manifest their initial state for the new treatment of the second semester. The experimental group began to learn about rhetorical patterns of the authentic passages of their book, "Inside Reading 3", by OUP, 2009. The experimental students were instructed to identify rhetorical organizations through their associate discourse markers (signal words); a comprehensive pamphlet was provided to focus the students' attention toward numerous discourse markers of each of five expository text types of listing, problem-solution, comparison/contrast, temporal sequence, and cause-effect.

In the second semester, students were passing the course of Reading 3, which is actually the last reading course that Iranian EFL students pass during their B.A. program at college. This phase continued for 14 weeks and the experimental participants received 20 training sessions related to rhetorical structures including text features and discourse markers. In equal time intervals, the five fore-mentioned rhetorical structures were introduced, analyzed, instantiated through authentic reading passages, practiced, and reinforced by related metacognitive strategies. As it has been noted by Sharp (2002, p. 113) that texts used should be accurate representations of the rhetorical patterns, the selection of the reading passages in this phase was meticulously done from "Inside Reading 3", published by Oxford University Press, 2009.

Finally, at the end of the second semester, the experimental group was ready to take the second post-instruction reading test. This test was designed to check the same reading tasks pursued in pre-instruction test, however, the passages were different and logically more advanced. The same test was conducted for the two groups of control and experimental. The aim of this test was firstly to see whether there was significance difference between the performances of the two groups regarding the especial treatment of this research; the second aim was to see whether there was any difference between the results of these two subsequent treatments.

D. Data Analysis

Firstly, descriptive statistics were calculated for the pre-instruction assessments to determine whether the participants of both groups had the same starting points in reading skills. Secondly, the data obtained from post-instruction assessments were analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively using descriptive statistical procedures including independent samples t-test to examine whether significant differences exist between the two groups of learners

regarding their final metacognitive and rhetorical awareness resulting from the training sessions held throughout the two semesters of instruction.

IV. RESULTS

A. Pre-instruction Assessment

For a more fine-grained analysis of individual learner's behavior patterns and to make it possible to rule out any pre-existing differences among participants and groups, the session of pre-test was conducted. According to the results presented in table 1, the pre-test scores of the subjects in the experimental and control groups indicated that there was not a statistically or practically significant difference in their mean scores. This trait established an identical basis for the two groups.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PRE-INSTRUCTION ASSESSMENT

| Groups | Mean | N | Std. Deviation |
|--------------|-------|----|----------------|
| Control | 19.57 | 35 | 3.36 |
| Experimental | 19.14 | 35 | 3.57 |

B. Measurement of Metacognition Awareness of Text Mining and Revising

Due to the 20 training sessions that the experimental students received on metacognitive strategies of text-mining and revising, these students depicted their superiority in metacognitive awareness. Following table (Table 2) compares how significantly experimental participants' metacognitive awareness superseded control ones':

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND T-TEST RESULTS OF METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS OF READING TASKS
*MEAN IS SIGNIFICANT AT 0.05 LEVEL (P<0.05)

| Groups | Std. Deviation | Mean | Std. Error Mean | Sig. (2-tailed) | t |
|--------------|----------------|-------|-----------------|-----------------|--------|
| Control | 3.57 | 15.11 | .604 | .002 | -3.250 |
| Experimental | 3.55 | 17.88 | .600 | .002 | -3.250 |

C. Post-instruction Assessments: First Semester

As it was noted in the "materials" section above, the procedure of this study entailed two series of training sessions and hence two post-instruction assessments; the first one was taken at the end of first semester to check the influence of metacognitive awareness in such intermediate students. Table 3 demonstrates learners' reading abilities influenced by metacognitive awareness of revising strategies:

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND T-TEST RESULTS OF POST-INSTRUCTION ASSESSMENT OF READING TASKS
*MEAN IS SIGNIFICANT AT 0.05 LEVEL (P<0.05)

| Groups | Std. Deviation | Mean | Std. Error Mean | Sig. (2-tailed) | t |
|--------------|----------------|-------|-----------------|-----------------|-------|
| Control | 4.55 | 18.00 | .769 | .044 | -2.05 |
| Experimental | 4.75 | 20.28 | .803 | .044 | -2.05 |

With the benefits of the training sessions, the performance of experimental group was satisfactory. Statistically, table 3 indicates that there was a significant difference in the final output of the two groups ($p < 0.05$) due to the effect of the training sessions which benefited the performance of experimental group.

D. Second Semester: Post-instruction Assessment

At the end of the second semester, there was the second post-instruction assessment to evince the possible effects of 20 sessions of instruction on rhetorical patterns and the pertinent discourse markers on students' strategic reading tasks. Table 4 demonstrates learners' reading abilities influenced by the awareness inspired through these training sessions. Statistically, table 4 indicates that there was a significant difference in the final output of the two groups ($p < 0.05$).

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND T-TEST RESULTS OF POST-INSTRUCTION ASSESSMENT OF READING TASKS

| Groups | Std. Deviation | Mean | Std. Error Mean | Sig. (2-tailed) | t |
|--------------|----------------|-------|-----------------|-----------------|-------|
| Control | 3.93 | 19.34 | .664 | .019 | -2.39 |
| Experimental | 4.05 | 21.62 | .686 | .019 | -2.39 |

To check the developmental trends of the study, the pre-/post-tests scores of the two groups were compared successively. Figure 1 and figure 2 illustrates that through the two semesters, the performance of experimental group improved noticeably, compared with that of the control group.

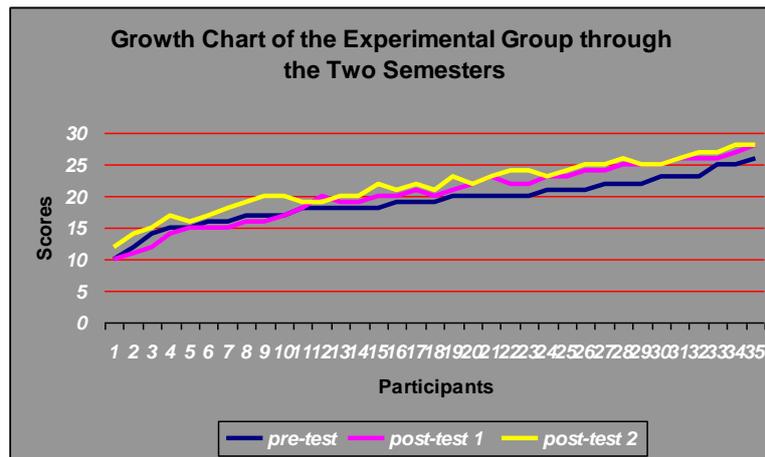


Figure 1 A comparison of pre-test and post-tests of experimental subjects subsequent to training sessions of the metacognitive strategies of revising (post-test 1) and rhetorical patterns and discourse markers (post-test 2)

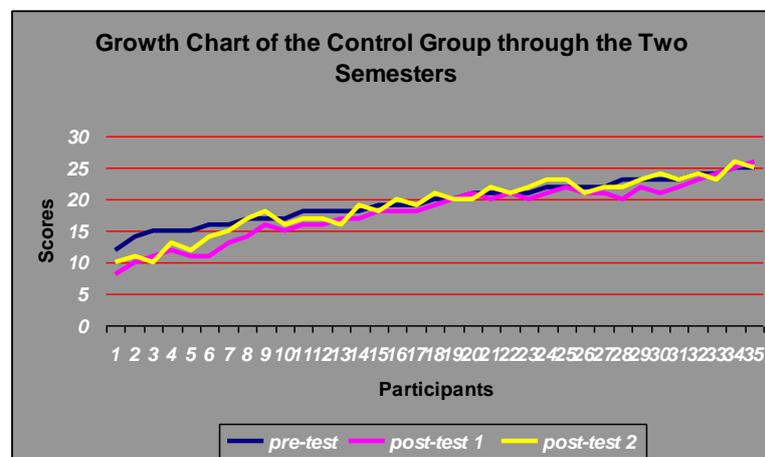


Figure 2 A comparison of pre-test and post-tests of control subjects, 1st semester post-test (post-test 1) and 2nd semester post-test (post-test 2)

V. DISCUSSION

The first line of instructional trainings in this study follows from instruction in reading metacognitive awareness and revising strategies. Many research studies have focused on finding the role of metacognitive awareness in students' learning outcome and achievement. There is extensive evidence that learners' metacognition can directly affect the process and the outcome of their learning (Palmer & Goetz, 1988; Carrell et al., 1989; Purpura, 1997, 1998; Boekaerts, Pintrich, & Zeidner, 2000; Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002; Block and Pressley, 2002; Bolitho et al., 2003; Eilam & Aharon, 2003).

The quantitative analysis of the *first* post-instruction assessment (Table 3), which assessed the influence of metacognitive awareness on reading skills, demonstrated that there was a meaningful difference between the learning outcome of experimental group over the control group; however, the qualitative analysis (Figure 1) of how the experimental participants performed reveals that metacognitive awareness in intermediate students does not necessarily lead to the application of metacognitive strategies of revision and hence the improvement of learning outcome for all the participants.

It can be inferred that minute differences in proficiency levels played a great role; in accordance with what Schraw and Moshman (1995) found, upper-intermediate students benefited improvements in their ability to select appropriate monitoring strategies to allocate resources but it seems that lower-intermediate ones have difficulty monitoring and revising their thinking during task performance; in Oxford's (1994) terms, students' strategies usage increases when they are in upper classes. Further reasons for lower-intermediate students' poor comprehension compared to the upper-intermediate ones can be attributable to their limited vocabulary range and the fact that they were not motivated enough to employ self-regulatory revising strategy, which is considered essential for cognitive information processing (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001).

Moreover, the researchers believe that these students' weakness in use of monitoring and evaluation (=revising) strategies could be partly attributed to educational context in Iran where students have very restricted opportunities for functional practice of strategies especially in large heterogeneous classes. Zhang (2001) points out another possible

drawback; he asserts that the explicit knowledge of reading metacognitive strategies may not be sufficient condition for the acquisition of reading skills for less-proficient students since planning and revising appear to be late-developing skills or in Kuhn's term (2000) very gradual.

Another rationalization may come through Halliday's (1975) classification of language learning into a matrix of "learning language", "learning about learning", and "learning through language". Learning language is the process of acquiring a language as a communicative tool. Learning about language regards language itself as the object of study. Learning through language is to gain and construct knowledge through the medium of language. According to the results of post-instruction assessment of metacognitive awareness, lower-intermediate students were not proficient enough to "learn language through language", to convert their awareness and their consciousness-raising activities into strategic reading processes and learning output, however, it seems that the upper-intermediate students had sufficiently mastered "zones of proximal development" (Vygotsky, 1978) and acquired English language up to some level that the consciousness-raising activities appeared meaningful and communicative so they could experience a superiority of their reading tasks compared to their initial performances.

The second line of instructional trainings in this study encompassed 20 sessions of instruction on expository rhetorical patterns and their associate discourse markers. The qualitative results of the post-instruction assessment confirmed that the treatment brought about a meaningful difference between the experimental participants and control ones. This result was of course not surprising as several researchers have found that awareness of text structures is highly related to reading comprehension (Taylor, 1982; Englert & Hiebert, 1984; Berkowitz, 1986; Armbruster, Anderson & Ostertag, 1987; Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Block & Pressley, 2002). The main purpose of this treatment was to provide lower-intermediate students, who could not benefit the first treatment of this study, a reliable technique to depend on for an effective reading which is critical in EFL contexts (Carrell, 2006).

Once students began to learn how text information was organized in consistent ways, they began to recognize various discourse signals as contributing to a small set of recurring patterns. Grabe (2002) noted that, owing to explicit attention to rhetorical patterns, these signals no longer were seen as individual and arbitrary cues (that can seem very confusing to students). Rather, they could be seen as working together to help convey the larger text structure. Students were able to connect information in ways that assisted their overall comprehension of texts.

The qualitative results of this study (Figure 2) satisfactorily demonstrated that the lower-intermediate students as well as the upper-intermediate ones developed their reading skills through their awareness of rhetorical organizations and their discourse markers. The success of this treatment can be attributed to different factors. First of all, according to the schema theory, Carrell (2006) states that three issues are important in an effective reading comprehension: readers' prior linguistic knowledge (linguistic schemata), levels of proficiency, and knowledge of rhetorical structure of the text (formal schemata). In this study, the interaction of these three issues was taken into account so that there was an integration of bottom-up and top-down processing of the textual information. Experimental students tried to understand passages through their instruction on how to make inferences and draw conclusions about the varied textual patterns and features of expository reading texts in combination with their linguistic and lexicon knowledge and finally responded by providing evidence from text to support their understanding.

Secondly, as Perego and Boyle (2000) found, text structure knowledge enhanced comprehension by helping readers to anticipate and predict the direction of a plot or argument, thereby facilitating attention to the larger meaning of the text. As readers interact with the text to construct meaning, their comprehension is facilitated when they organize their thinking in a manner similar to that used by the author. Concurrently, Grabe (2002) maintains that rhetorical patterns and discourse markers have functional purposes and these purposes are recognized by good readers. Moreover, these discourse mechanisms extend to the level of genre and larger frames of discourse that organize textual information for the reader. There are well recognized conventions and systems that lead a reader to preferred interpretations, assuming a reader is genuinely interested in understanding what the writer had intended.

Thirdly, there is a rich literature that claims readers who adopt the strategy of identifying the author's organization structure will be able to recall more information than students who did not (Meyer *et al.*, 1980; McGee, 1982). Koda (2005) also believes that EFL and ESL reading teachers should provide their students a preview about the text and the topic rather than merely asking the students reading the texts so that students can be able to use macro-structures to organize their recall and build a coherent model of the text.

VI. CONCLUSION AND INSTRUCTIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study demonstrated that there was a clear difference between how intermediate students developed their reading skills through two different approaches of (1) metacognitive training of revising strategies and (2) explicit knowledge of rhetorical patterns and mining discourse markers. Empirical results indicated that Iranian lower-intermediate students could not benefit from metacognitive training as they were unable to turn what they learnt theoretically into actual practices of revising techniques to monitor and improve their reading processes. Possible causes were discussed but as Kuhn (2000) claims such skills are very gradual. This fact highlights that metacognitive knowledge should be incorporated in learners' training syllabuses even prior to university program to make their learning more efficient even at schools. In this regard, adequate attention should be paid to *what* reading strategies should be taught and *when* instruction should occur.

To provide less-proficient a reliable way to improve their poor comprehension of reading texts, the second treatment of this study was provided: mining discourse markers and rhetorical patterns which were found to be advantageous. As found by Grabe (2002, p. 14), information about text organizations provided ways to maintain more complex sets of information and make accurate comparisons and syntheses across related sources of information on a theme. This sort of complexity in language classrooms was also motivating because students were able to carry out more complex assignments successfully. Students knew that they were learning real information about the real world, something worth investing their time and energy into. And having more motivated students from these successes was really at the heart of language learning and reading instruction.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors are indebted to the participants of the study for attention, determination, and perseverance.

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The Investigation of Punctuation in Photographic Copies of Persian Writing

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Abstract—In spoken language, body language is used to show the intention of the speaker. Written language lacks such capacity and that is why punctuation, as a tool, is used to clarify spoken language features in written language and help the readers get the hidden meaning. Analyzing the punctuation used in Persian written language in photographic copies of five to eight centuries with different subjects revealed that in spite of Iranian point of view "believed the punctuation marks entered in Persian language from other languages and are imported", they exist some signs in these copies from ancient times. The data were gathered through taking photos from the original copies. Investigating the signs in these copies reveals that they have seven features of showing pause, decorating, making gap between verses, separating Arabic text from Persian, making some parts of the text prominent and showing the end of a subject. In comparison to recent texts, it is evident that nowadays authors use different tools and signs for showing the same cases. It should be taken into consideration that comma is the only sign which was present in Persian language, but nowadays is used with a different function.

Index Terms—spoken language, written language, punctuation, photographic copies

I. INTRODUCTION

The emersion of written language in comparison to spoken language is relatively new and is utilized as a means to save information and to refresh memory. Sentence making and punctuation are the most important rules in written language. Punctuation which is the compliment of sentence is defined as signs which reveal the author's intention and help the reader recognize the hidden meaning of the sentence. In other words, correct usage of signs in order to get the concepts in a sentence is defined as punctuation (Mansouri, 1997). In writing, body language which is the feature of spoken language, is absent, so one can use punctuation in order to clarify the meaning (Samiee, 2004).

Most of spoken languages around the world such as Persian are rhythmic and this fact will make the words of sentences more meaningful while speaking and one can change the meaning of a sentence by changing the intention and stress of a specific word. By making sure that signs are used correctly, one can avoid probable ambiguity. Otherwise the sentence will be interpreted differently; therefore, not paying attention to correct use of punctuation leads to misunderstanding (Ghorbaniyun, 2005).

Before starting the study, a brief history on the root of punctuation is given at the beginning. Then the Iranian and non-Iranian statements and views of punctuation are described followed by the Iranian belief on the use of punctuation in Persian language and also its function in this language.

From the fact that the question is how punctuations are realized in Persian language and how other languages have influence on it, the purpose of this study is to investigate the functions of different punctuation marks in photographic copies to contribute reader in getting the meaning. According to the kind of the study, the collection of the data is possible by taking photo from the original copies covering different subjects.

In general, the study attends to answer the following questions:

- 1) How punctuations are realized in photographic copies from fifth century to eighth century of lunar year?
- 2) What are the functions of these punctuations?
- 3) Is there any significant difference between the photographic copies with those of new writing?
- 4) Are there any substitutions for these punctuations in new writings?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Punctuation

Masaheb (1967) defines punctuation as a means of decorating the holy Quran verses in his dictionary. In other words the word punctuation is related to verses which are embellished by gold water. Moein (1995) believes that "Sajavandi" is the pioneer in this field and introduced seven signs and from that time the signs are known as punctuation and those holy books which are using these signs are called "punctuation Quorans". Also he mentions that these signs (written signs) are the ones which cause reading a text, a sense, and also writing formula in math and make differences in pronouncing the words.

B. Iranian Point of View on Punctuation

Atashparvar (1982) emphasizes using punctuation in a sentence that may help reader recognize the hidden concepts of a text. He compares punctuation with telescopic insects that not only endanger the health but also sometimes survive the people from death.

Amini (2010) mentions that one should use these signs properly, not too many not less than enough to confuse the reader and in other words as proper use may help the reader understand the meaning of sentences, on the other side improper use may cause confusion. He also states that punctuation is similar to traffic signs and both have hidden meaning, so one should learn its rules to get the meaning.

Adiboltani (1987) who is also the researcher in investigating the punctuation introduces it as putting specific signs in texts. He believes that it is possible in two ways, one showing the logical relationship between different parts of speech of a sentence and getting the hidden meaning by another, which is general and is called "logical punctuation". The second way is delivering the sensation and personal emotion that is specific and called "stylistic punctuation". He also emphasizes that improper use of punctuation leads to confusion.

Zolfaghari (1999), like other researchers such as Yahaghi (2005), Mansouri (1997), Ahmadigivi (2001), states that using punctuation in written language is necessary. He mentions that these pauses, stresses and intonations are not realized in writing, so in order to make a text readable, one can use punctuation. He comments that these signs divide a sentence into different clauses and clarify the logical relations between parts of a sentence.

Kakhi (2000) conducts a study on punctuation function. He mentions that punctuation contributes the reader to read a text correctly and without any problems in front of others. He believes that every single sign helps the reader change his intonation based on specific function. He also exemplifies that, for instance when a reader comes to a question mark, he may choose an intonation relevant to it or he may stop and pause while facing a comma. He emphasizes that punctuation in their early time, have these important functions, but gradually there were some changes in punctuation function and those readers who read text silently will get used to these signs.

Yahaghi (2005) like Mansouri and Zolfaghari state that use of punctuation helped a better understanding of a written text and also believes that punctuation would avoid any misunderstanding.

C. Non-Iranian Point of View on Punctuation

Bacon (1924) as one of the religion investigators emphasizes the importance of punctuation in written texts. He examines the meaning of a part of Bible in his article named "punctuation, translation, interpretation" and focused on the utilization of this punctuation in this holy book. He believes that punctuation invigorates the text.

Salisbury (1939), one of the researchers in this field, in his paper titled "psychology of punctuation", investigates the functions of these signs. He believes that these signs are the tools that help reader in reading and relate author's concepts to each other; in other words, the author's using of punctuation reveals the logical relationships between parts of the sentences. He generally divides these relations to three categories: 1) independence of sentences from each other: 2) dependence of sentences from each other: 3) the value of each sentence. He states that for each of these relations, there are certain signs that are utilized based on the relation present among sentences.

Singleton (1944) points out that understanding of punctuation in written language is related to the vision. For this reason he introduces "eye punctuation" because he believes that the reader sees these signs by his eyes and as a result will understand the text. In return, in spoken language he used the term "ear punctuation" and mentioned that phrases in spoken language are heard by ears.

Sparks (1953) believes that in order to get the hidden meaning of a text, analyzing the text and its sentence is required. He states that one can recognize the meaning easily and unconsciously without analyzing the sentence, but sometimes because of the complexity of some texts, the author should investigate each sentence and its relation to other sentences separately and punctuations are those tools which help the reader to understand the meaning correctly. Finally he states that usage of punctuation particularly in a complex text is important.

Johnson (1954) mentions that punctuation has remained the same during the time of the change in style of written language because punctuations associated with technique of speech. For instance full stop (.) which comes at the end of a declarative sentence or comma which separates a chain of sentences. He declares the appropriate use of punctuation as the delivering meaning of author.

Solomon (1990) in his paper titled, "the power of punctuation", recognizes that the function of punctuation is relevant to the author's style. He believes that those punctuations are present in written language, but are not heard. Based on his view, punctuations in written text may determine the speed, pitch and pause between words and sentences. For example, he mentions that full stop is the sign of stopping and finishing the sentence, comma decreases the speed of reading and question mark change the pitch scale. He considers punctuation as a music sign and says that as the different letters

make distinctive features in speech, punctuation marks also play an important role in transferring the meaning of a sentence.

Mann (2003) introduces some points in facing trouble with punctuation. He knows punctuation as a means to transfer the information. He mentions that there are some problems in learning how to use punctuation that one of the most significant ones is the relevance between punctuation and syntax and the grammar.

D. Punctuation in Persian

Adiboltani (1987) in his book named "the guidelines to make a book" states that punctuation has entered Persian language from overseas. He follows and explains that in ancient times, educated people in Iran were able to read the complex sciences and literary Persian books without any punctuation, but the reading of western books were difficult, that the dependence of these texts on punctuation reveal a shortcoming for languages. He believes that nowadays in European language, punctuation plays a vital role that not focusing on proper use of signs may cause misunderstanding. He also mentions that in the past there were not such problems in Persian language and in these recent 100 years these signs are entered from foreign language.

Khayam (1995) points out that for a long period of time, Persian texts were written without using any signs, while nowadays for writing different texts, the punctuation marks are utilized a lot. He emphasizes that one should pay attention to differentiate the signs from the words and also mentions that some signs may cause big problems.

Kakhi (2000) recognizes that function of punctuation in Persian language is different from European texts. He believes that because of these salient differences, there remains some limitations and that is why one should try to use the types of signs properly. He mentions that these signs are entered Persian from foreign language and stated that these signs are entered from French language for the first time and their equivalents are the same as French terms or combination of Persian and French language. In Persian sometimes both the French and Persian terms are used.

Samiee (2007) divides signs in to two categories, main signs and secondary signs. He points out that the first signs include full stop, comma, exclamation marks, semicolon, colon, underline and question mark. Apart from these signs, he believes that there are some secondary signs such as parenthesis and slash which regularly have certain meaning.

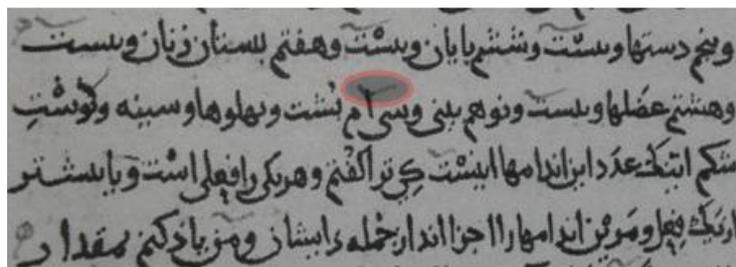
Yahaghi (2005) mentions that usage of punctuation in Persian language does not have a long history, and is common in Persian language in the current century based on western texts. He emphasizes that one should avoid using punctuation marks too many or fewer than what is needed and use signs according to sentences and Persian language structure.

III. RESULTS

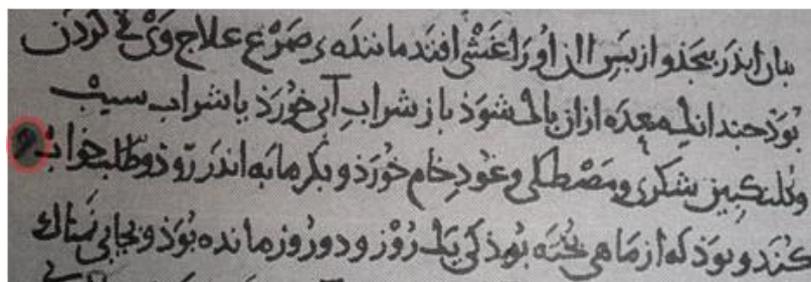
Analyzing the data in this study is based on the punctuations of photographic copies from fifth century to eighth centuries of lunar year which includes six copies. In order to clarify the subject of the study, examples are given for each copy. Since these are historical Persian notes, they could not be translated into English and are kept original.

1) "Hedayatolmotealin Fi Teb" was written by Akhvini Bokharai in 478 lunar year which consisted of traditional medicine. The signs used in this copy are given as follows:

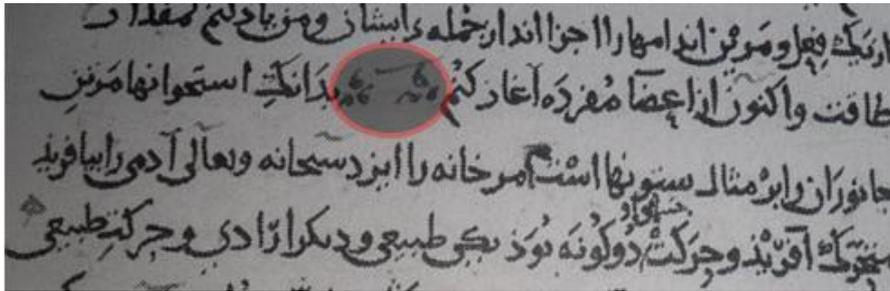
- The sign which is used at the top of words and count words in order to make them prominent and separate that part from others.



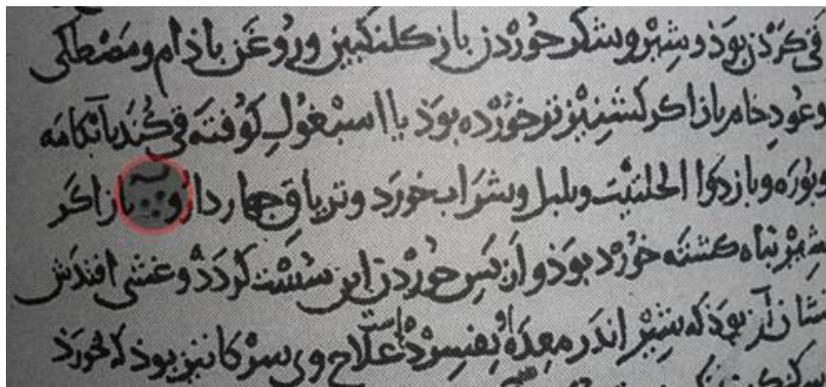
- The sign which is used to make a pause between two phrases, one at the end and one at the beginning of a line.



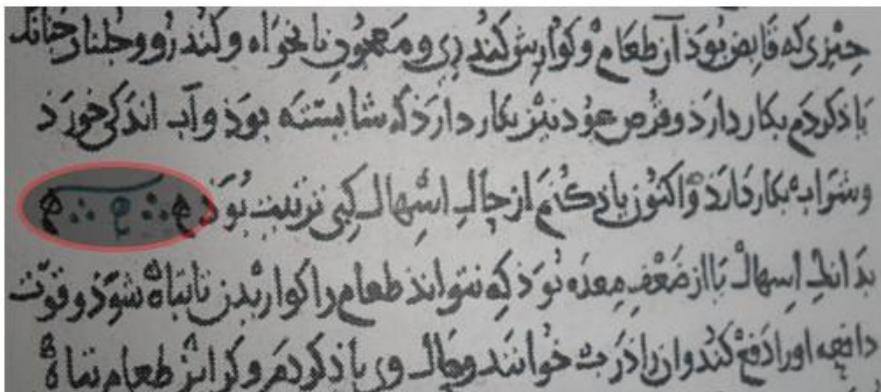
- The signs consist of three commas as a triangle along with a sign like (~) on the top of it to show that the sentence is finished and segregate it from the other sentence.



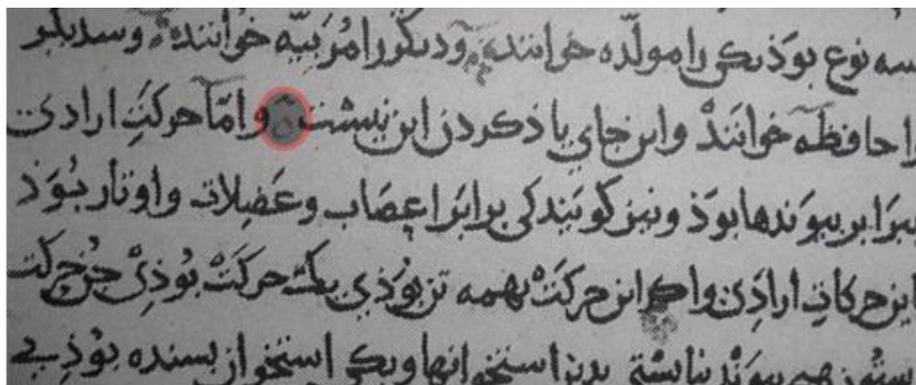
- The sign like three dots as a triangle used in order to reveal a gap and a long stop between two clauses.



- The sign which is combined of triangular dots and (∆) along with (~) on top of it to make a full stop among sentences.



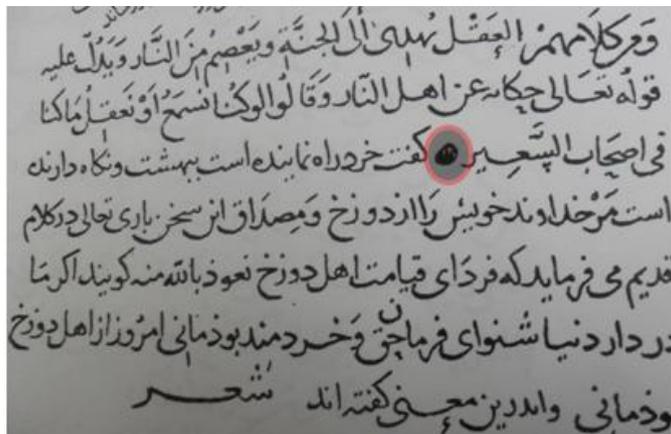
- The sign like number (5) in Persian along with (~) at the top to gap and halt between two subjects in a text.



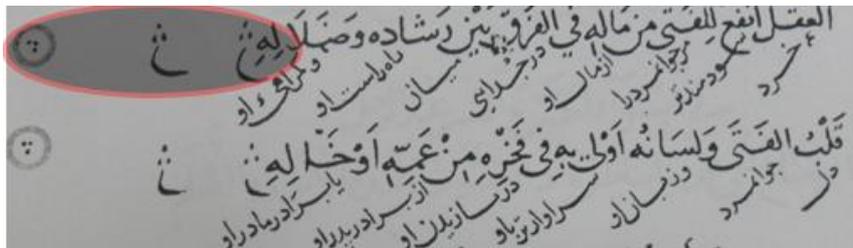
- The sign like four dots which is shaped like a diamond with (~) on its top to make a short pause between two phrases.

4) "Majmal aghval fi Hekam va Amsal" by Demanisi written in 693 lunar year. In this copy, the Arabic proverbs are translated into Persian and the signs used in it are as follows:

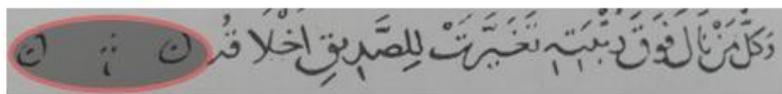
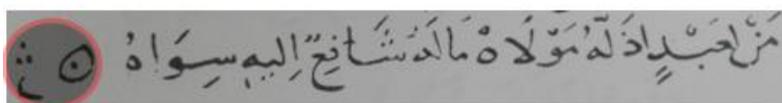
- The sign like a full circle used to separate the Arabic text from Persian



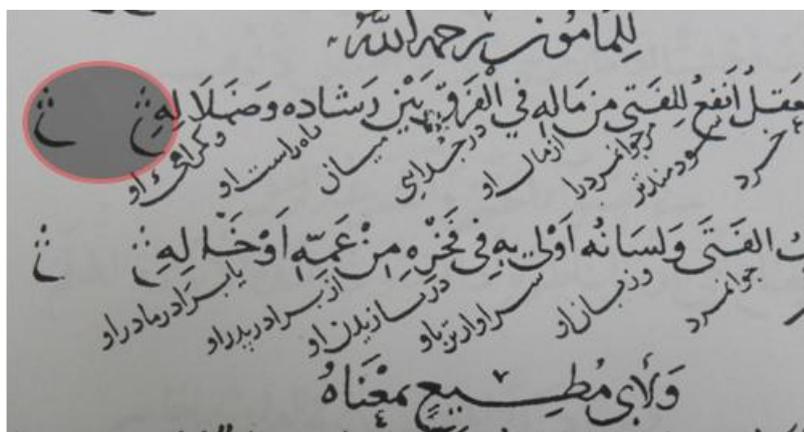
- The sign like two flowers in which there are three dots in the left side and in a circle is used to show the word by word translation of the Arabic text to Persian and also it has the function of decorating of the text.



- The sign like a circle in which, there is a black dot and at the left side of it, there is one flower. Sometimes there is just one flower between two circles (without a dot in between). It is used at the end of Arabic phrases and just has a decoration aspect.

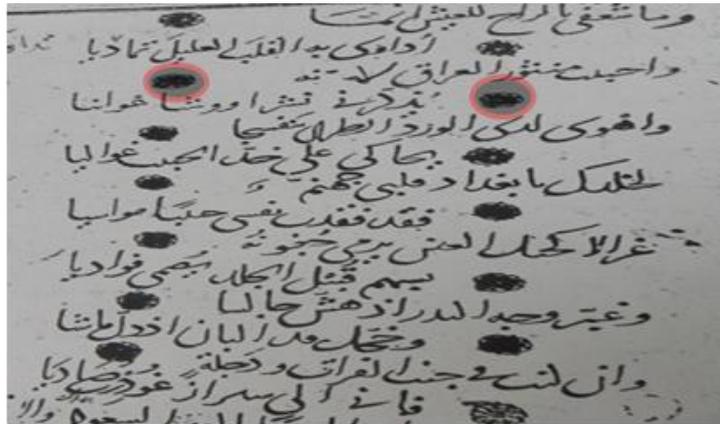


- The sign like two flowers with a space at the end of phrases and is used just for designing the text.



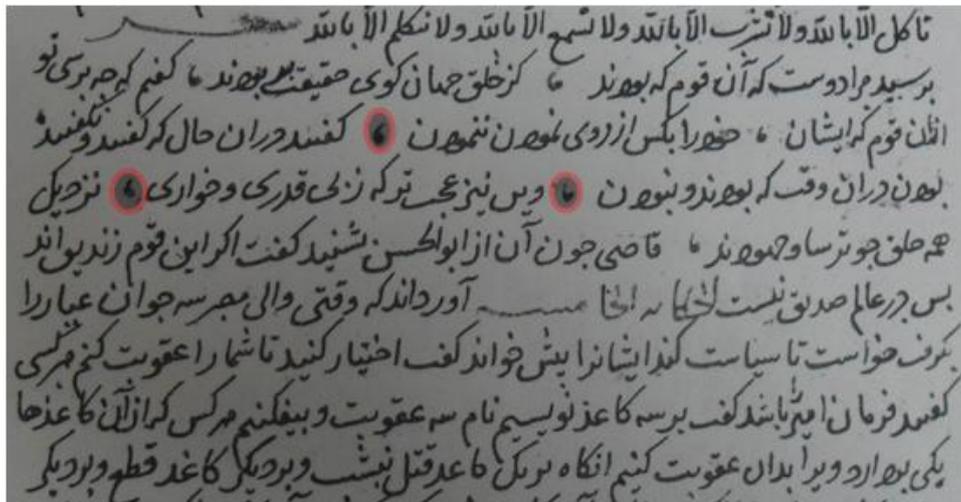
5) "Tajziyato Amsar" known as "Tarikh Vassaf" by Yazdi written in 730 lunar year. It has a historical theme. The signs are:

- The sign like a flower at the beginning and end of each verse for decorating a poem.

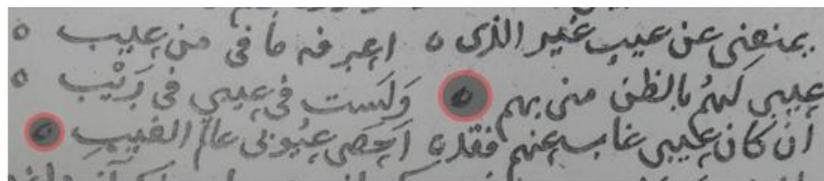


6) "Hezar Hekayate Sufian" with an anonymous author written in 883 lunar year with theosophical themes. The signs are:

- The sign like an eye drop between two verses to make a gap between them.



- The sign like an emptied circle between verses to show a gap between them.



IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Investigating the six copies with different subjects, revealed that in two copies there is no specific sign used by authors; that is why reading these texts is difficult and leads to misunderstandings. In other copies, the authors attempted to reveal the spoken language characteristics to aid the readers to recognize the appropriate and correct meaning. Therefore, there are some signs in these copies which are rarely used in Persian texts nowadays. They are categorized for applying seven functions:

Most authors used some signs to decorate the text and replete spaces. In recent texts, these signs do not appear and there is no substitution for them. So they are omitted from Persian manuscripts.

Some of the authors tried to reflect their short or long pauses among phrases in their texts by using some signs. In recent texts, comma (,) , semicolon (;) and full stop (.) play the same role.

Attempts are made to show the gap between words, phrases, sentences and verses from each other. Full stop (.) , dash (/) , underline (-) or sometimes comma (,) are substituted by these signs in recent texts.

In some cases the authors make a word or a subject prominent from other parts of text. These signs are used to denote titles, count numbers and key terms. This function is reflected by (" ") in recent years.

In some of these copies, some signs are used to separate Arabic texts from Persian ones. This role is demonstrated by using a blank space between two verses in recent texts.

Sometimes one complete word is used to indicate the final part of a sentence or a paragraph, whereas in recent text (* *) is used.

Some signs are often used to separate the Persian text from Arabic or irrelevant sentences. (()) in these days is substituted by these signs.

To wrap up, the numbers of signs used in analyzed photographic copies are realized in fourteen types and we come to the conclusion that using these signs, both their forms and their functions, were not written according to specific rules at that time and it was depended on author's interests, tastes and styles. It reveals that writer's felt such requirement in their writings and tried to solve the probable problems, but because of not having universal rules, they used these signs according to their interest. On the other side, there is one salient point about comma that it is the only sign that existed from ancient times but has different functions nowadays. It means that this sign was present in Persian writings earlier than other signs and also unlike other signs, was not imported from foreign language to this language.

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