Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

Teaching English through English: Exploring Anxiety in Non-native Pre-service ESL Teachers

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Abstract—The purpose of this study is to investigate the sources of foreign language anxiety experienced by non-native pre-service ESL teachers (NNPSET) in licensure program. 52 pre-service ESL teachers enrolled in a public university in Seoul, South Korea, participated in this study during their teaching practicum as part of requirement to pursue ESL licensure. 52 participants completed a 24-item modified survey based on Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) in order to figure out 1) which language anxiety factors would be the most influential among NNPSETs in their English practicum, and 2) which language anxiety factors strongly affect NNPSETs when they conduct micro-teaching sessions. The Principal Component and principal axis factoring tools were used to analyze the data of the survey. The results indicate that 4 major factors were found which affected NNPSETs language anxiety on the classroom situation. The most influential factor of all was clustered with Factor 1 – 'Language anxiety on using English in the class'. And the other three factors were identified as 'Language anxiety based on self-confidence', 'Language anxiety about class preparation', and 'Language anxiety overcome with efforts'.

Index Terms—affective domain, student teachers, foreign language anxiety

I. INTRODUCTION

It is clear that foreign and second language anxiety is a complex psychological factor to both its learners and teachers. Most research has already proved that foreign language production, improvement, and achievement can be impeded by the emotional symptoms of anxiety (Horwitz, 1988; Horwitz, 2001; Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Horwitz & Young, 1991; Huang, Eslami & Hu, 2010; Hussain, Shahid & Zaman, 2011; Liu and Jackson, 2008; Liu & Zhang, 2010; Macintyre & Gardner, 1989; Macintyre & Gardner, 1991; Ohata, 2005).

In particular, when it comes to a case of the pre-service ESL teachers who definitely lack of enough formal classroom teaching experience, let alone English language proficiency, the level of anxiety that they feel must be even higher as opposed to skillful ESL teachers. Moreover, supposing that these pre-service ESL teachers are non-native speakers of English, it is obviously considered that they may encounter even more serious anxiety in terms of teaching a lesson, using English language in the classroom.

As Dörnyei (1994, 2001) and Krashen (1987) suggest, the effective language teachers are regarded to be ones who develop students' self-efficacy, decrease their anxiety, promote motivation-enhancing attributions, encourage students to set attainable sub-goals, and increase the attractiveness of course content. However, assuming that ESL teachers keep a high anxiety level during the class, it may cause much more problems related with such affective factors as confidence, motivation, self-esteem, and risk-taking ability, which ends up with losing a great interest and confidence towards language teaching (Gebhard, 1990; Young, 1991).

Therefore, this study is designed to examine a Non-Native Pre-Service ESL Teacher's (hereafter to be called: 'NNPSET') foreign language anxiety in the classroom situation throughout the teaching practicum. This study first investigates which language anxiety factors would be the most influential among NNPSETs in their practicum classroom, and then explores which language anxiety factors strongly affect NNPSETs when they conduct micro-teaching sessions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Affective Filters

According to theory of second language acquisition by Krashen (1985), five main hypotheses are categorized; 1) Natural order hypothesis, 2) Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis, 3) Monitor Hypothesis, 4) Input Hypothesis, 5) Affective Filter Hypothesis. Among these five hypotheses, 'Affective Filter Hypothesis' focuses on affective variables identified as motivation, personality, self-confidence, self-esteem, and anxiety which play a facilitative role in foreign and second language learning. Krashen (1989) stresses that language learners with high motivation, self-confidence, and a low anxiety level are more likely to success in foreign and second language acquisition. In other words, learners with low

motivation, low self-esteem, and a high level of anxiety are easy to face the affective filter, causing a mental barrier which keeps comprehensible input from being used for acquisition.

As a matter of fact, NNPSTs were also in the same situations once they were taught English as ESL learners, so they understand how affective filters work in the foreign and second language class, and how powerfully those filters impact in foreign and second language acquisition. After all, based on Affective Filter Hypothesis, it is significant for foreign and second language teachers to keep in mind to low affective filters of foreign and second language learners, so that these learners can maintain risk-taking behavior in regards to practicing and learning a foreign and second language.

1. Anxiety

Anxiety is thought to be a normal feeling to human beings which can be brought about by any internal or external changes, uncertain situations, or feeling of uncertainty. That is, when people face a particular situation that is not familiar with, it is natural most of them have the same feeling, that is, nervousness, and tense, which can be also considered as anxiety. To foreign language learners or teachers, an oral interview, a presentation or a speaking test in the classroom can be good examples.

Through these situations, anxiety is considered to be related to psychological symptom. A psychologist, Spielberger (as cited in Horwitz, 2001, p.123; Cubukcu, 2007, p.133), defined anxiety as, "anxiety is the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system." Also, Hewitt (2011) defines anxiety as, "an abnormal and overwhelming sense of apprehension and fear often marked by physiological signs (as sweating, tension, and increased pulse), by doubt concerning the reality and nature of the threat, and by self-doubt about one's capacity to cope with it".

In this regard, anxiety is a psychological symptom which occurs when people feel nervous in unfamiliar situations. This cannot be expressed numerically, because it is deeply associated with feelings and emotions of human beings such as nervousness, tension, frustration, and uneasiness.

B. Language Anxiety

There have been a number of studies related to language anxiety, and language learning and teaching. Through those studies, researchers classified many types of language anxiety depending on perspectives of anxiety. Cubukcu (2007) divided anxiety into two types: a personality trait and a transient anxiety state, and it is more closed to related with a response to a particular anxiety provoking stimulus. In terms of foreign language learning and teaching, anxiety typically contains two components; one is cognitive anxiety as the mental aspect of previous anxiety experience including negative expectation, preoccupation with performance and concern about others' perception; and the other one is somatic anxiety, which refers to learners' perceptions of the physiological effects of the anxiety experience as reflected arousal and unpleasant feeling states.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) examined the relationship between language anxiety and other anxieties, and they classified anxiety into two categories; General Anxiety and Communication Anxiety. General Anxiety consisted of trait, state, and test anxiety, and Communication Anxiety is more related with speaking and communication situations. There is another category of anxiety, called Situational Anxiety, and it was defined by Lalonde and Gardner (as cited in MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991c). They found that this language anxiety through the test of motivation and attitude in language learning. In MacIntyre and Gardner's (1991b) study, they approached from anxiety in three perspectives. The first is a general personality trait in several situations, the second is an emotional state which was interested in the here-and-now experience of anxiety, and the last one is the specific forms of anxiety in certain given situations.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) found that the higher communicative anxiety students had, the slower students studied and did not remember well what they learned. They also figured out that there has been shown negative correlation between performance test results and anxiety, and they argued that foreign language anxiety affected not only output parts of speaking but also learning steps. Horwitz (2010) investigated what foreign language anxiety occurred in a foreign language classroom. They reported that when students had to cope with difficult situations, or to convey with personal messages in the class, they felt anxiety. Certain beliefs about language learning also contributed to the student's tension and frustration. ESL learners of a low level of English proficiency, for instance, have experienced more apprehension, solicitude and concern, and also had difficulty concentrating on the lesson. And such feelings made them show their avoidance behavior such as not participating in a class actively, not completing their homework, and even not attending classes.

Horwitz (1983) divided students' avoidance behavior into three major elements using Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale; 1) Communication Apprehension, 2) Test Anxiety, and 3) Fear of Negative Evaluation. According to his study, students who have got higher anxiety, students have got lower their final course grades, and performance (Aida, 1994).

C. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

Initially created by Horwitz (1983), the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) is regarded to be a situational anxiety experienced in the well-defined situation of the foreign language classroom (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a, 1991b, 1994). Horwitz and Cope (1986) defined FLCAS 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 Horwitz & Young, 1991, p.31). FLCAS contains thirty three items asking about learners' language anxiety during a foreign language class which is a trait-based scale.

D. Language Teachers' Anxiety on Teaching Practice

Horwitz (1996) claimed that many non-native language teachers feel anxiety in their target language classroom. Even though language teachers are supposed to be high-level speakers of their target language, language mastering to them is a still on-going work to achieve, and this is why most non-native language teachers are likely to have uncomfortable moments particularly in speaking their target language.

In fact, before they begin to teach the target language, once language teachers were once language learners. Previous studies have shown that students were affected by language anxiety, non-native language teachers might also be influenced by language anxiety because they were language learners, as well.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Setting and Participants

The participants of this study were total fifty two NNPSETs who enrolled ESL Teacher Licensure Program at a public university located in Seoul, South Korea. As pre-service teachers, all of them participated in teaching practicum as a part of requirement to acquire ESL initial licensure. During a semester-long teaching practicum, NNPSETs were observed and monitored by the cooperating teachers each time they gave a lesson, and also by ESL supervisors from the university four times during the practicum for the evaluation of their performance. To figure out participants' background, an information questionnaire was administered prior to study.

FIGURE 1. PARTICIPANTS' BACKGROUND INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

As shown in Figure 1, the format of the survey was an electronic version and the results show that 22 of 52 participants were male and the others were female. The average age of participants was 27.5, ranging from 24 to 31. Most of the participants were in their mid-20s. Except for 3, the rest of them marked their first language (L1) as Korean. The range of teaching experience was as follows: less than 1 year (n=23), between 2 year and 3 years (n=18), between 4 years and 5years (n=11). Also, the average time of formal English study was 12 years and, as regards amount time spent in English-speaking country, 8 responded more than 4 years, whereas average time for the rest was 1.5 years.

B. Instrument

For this study, as the first part of the survey a background information questionnaire was employed which was related to each participant's age, gender, native language, teaching experience, and length of English study. Besides,

there was a detailed follow-up survey (Appendix 1) consisting of a 24-item Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). All the items were placed on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. In addition to a FLCAS survey, there were two open-ended questions included at the end, which were provided to figure out the most influential factor among language anxiety as non-native pre-service ESL teachers, and to investigate the ways how to cope with it. And to gain an timely effective data, the questionnaires were all conducted through online, using 'Surveymonkey' (http://www.surveymonkey.com) which enabled the researcher to create a tailored web survey and to receive an instance result for the data analysis.

Part II. Questionnaire about Foreign Language Anxiety

The following questionnaire is designed for the purpose of academic research, targeting to investigate a Non-Native Pre-Service Teacher's foreign language anxiety in the classroom. Your responses to this survey questionnaire will not be shared with anyone but the researcher who is conducting this research. It will be kept confidentially. After analyzing the information received from every respondent, researcher will use the summary of information, not with the individual responses received. Thank you for your time and participation.

1. Whenever I speak English, I have never had a strong sense of confidence.

2. When I speak English, I have never worried about making any mistakes.

3. When I face to teaching a class in English, I feel nervous.

4. When I speak English, I am afraid of forgetting what I prepare in English.

5. When I speak English, I feel upset when someone provides any feedback.

6. Although I prepare for the lesson well, I feel anxiety to teach in English.

FIGURE 2. ONLINE QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY FROM SURVEYMONKEY.COM

C. Data Collection

This questionnaire adapted from the questionnaires developed Horwitz (1983) was distributed to all participants through online, and it contained 24 statements with which NNPSETs were asked to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed. And then, descriptive statistics were used in order to report the results of the questionnaire. In addition to quantitative data, the qualitative data for the study was obtained from two open-ended questions instead of having face-to-face interviews. To facilitate the process of eliciting supporting data, two carefully constructed questions were added, and each question contained a set of issues aimed at eliciting further information from the participants.

D. Data Analysis

In order to find factors which could describe individual NNPSETs' characteristics in the classroom,, the Principal Component and principal axis factoring tools which was followed by Varimax rotation performed using the statistical tool, IBM SPSS Statistics (version 19), and it was designed to calculate nearly identical results in terms of how the items were clustered. And simplistic statistics such as percentage, means, standard deviation, and comparing several means were used to analyze the survey results. In terms of analyzing the qualitative data gathered from two open-ended questions, the data were coded, and then categorized. The data obtained from both questionnaires and open-ended questions were constantly compared and contrasted before conclusions were made.

IV. RESULTS

The online survey questionnaire was used to determine the underlying structure of the concept of language anxiety measured by modified version of FLCAS. Twenty-four items on the survey were asked using a six-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly agree (6)' to 'strongly disagree (1). When this questionnaire was administered, possible scores were in the range of 23 to 138. Descriptive statistics for the questionnaire is presented in Table 1. The item 23 shows the lowest mean, 1.9341, whereas, the item 19 shows the highest mean, 4.3721. And standard deviations vary small ranging from 1.09042 to 1.60472.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATSTICS FOR THE LANGUAGE ANXIETY AS NNPSETs IN THE CLASS

Items	Means	Standard Deviation
B-1	2.2013	1.15236
B-2	3.6239	1.33561
B-3	2.3501	1.17992
B-4	2.3329	1.25724
B-5	2.3233	1.50081
B-6	2.4249	1.30304
B-7	2.7648	1.39250
B-8	3.6984	1.25254
B-9	2.6667	1.33199
B-10	2.2381	1.14602
B-11	2.5714	1.18749
B-12	2.2063	1.19351
B-13	2.7460	1.48072
B-14	2.5079	1.35448
B-15	2.1905	1.09042
B-16	3.2859	1.48106
B-17	2.2698	1.43916
B-18	2.5052	1.29357
B-19	4.3721	1.40768
B-20	2.1032	1.26960
B-21	3.9105	1.60472
B-22	4.1254	1.49774
B-23	1.9341	1.22965
B-24	2.3142	1.41327

For the present study, the researcher conducted the principal axis factor tools, and examined the scree plot. As can be seen the Table 2 below, Varimax procedure was converged in 7 repetition, and 4 factors were shown with eigen values of 9.259 (Factor 1), 2.142 (Factor 2), 1.719 (Factor 3), and 1.260 (Factor 4). Among those twenty-four items, only two items in the present survey which was modified and used, did not load on any one factor (items# 11, 21). These items were those with loading less than .5. Consequently, the subsequent analysis resulted in a four-factor solution, explaining about 62.523 of the total variance. Along with communalities, the factor pattern matrix with the four-factor solution and the percentage of the total variance accounted for this solution are presented in below Table 2.

TABLE 2.
FACTOR ANALYSIS SUMMARY

Items	Factors			
	1. Language anxiety on using English in the class	2. Language anxiety based on self-confidence	3. Language anxiety about class preparation	4. Language anxiety overcome with efforts
B-1	.286	.220	.576	.095
B-2	-.131	-.584	-.018	-.055
B-3	.203	.052	.783	-.019
B-4	.170	-.005	.866	.075
B-5	.690	-.307	.330	-.054
B-6	.234	.537	.576	.124
B-7	.544	.185	.059	.364
B-8	-.079	-.784	-.129	.197
B-9	.306	.657	.329	-.042
B-10	.659	.132	.235	-.155
B-11	.314	.449	.321	-.162
B-12	.753	.331	.295	-.011
B-13	.698	.241	.322	.213
B-14	.740	.344	.287	-.045
B-15	.793	.331	.207	-.158
B-16	-.091	.029	.335	.756
B-17	.682	.306	.281	-.071
B-18	.708	.446	.021	.223
B-19	-.660	-.015	.020	435
B-20	.786	.165	.152	-.119
B-21	-.274	-.409	.097	.072
B-22	-.164	.329	-.164	.697
B-23	.736	.274	.096	-.199
B-24	.524	.190	.121	.308
Eigen Value %	9.259	2.142	1.719	1.260
Variation Cum. %	40.225	9.313	7.475	5.480

As a step in labeling the factors extracted, the content analysis of the items clusters against each factor was followed. At the same time, the factor structure matrix and the factor pattern matrix were compared with others. As below Table 4 shows, twelve items (item# 5, 7, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 20, 23, 24) with factor loading greater than .5 were clustered into Factor 1. This Factor 1 shows the most influential factor among four factors extracted. These items identified the scope of teachers' using English language anxiety related with. It is named as 'language anxiety on using English in the class factor'. Because they are lack of confidence, teachers are concerned with making mistakes in general and in front of their students in language class. Factor 1 can be separated into 2 big categories, as well; the first one is speaking English, and the second is about speaking English in front of the class as a language teacher. This category is the most influential factor of NNPSETs' language anxiety on the English classroom. Even though they are language teachers, they feel a lot of stress and emotional pressures by language anxiety through this cluster.

TABLE 3.
FACTOR 1: LANGAUGE ANXIETY ON USING ENGLISH IN THE CLASS

Items	Statements
B-5	I am nervous that someone recognizes mistakes I make.
B-7	I often feel uncomfortable to speak English, even though I majored it.
B-10	The more I prepared for speaking English, the more confused I get.
B-12	I sometimes feel it is difficult to speak English in front of students in class.
B-13	I feel anxiety of making any mistakes in front of students in class.
B-14	I feel nervous when students in the class do not understand my English.
B-15	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak English
B-17	I feel more tense and nervous when English class starts.
B-18	I feel panic when my students do not react on what I teach English.
B-19	I sometime recognize my mistakes, and try not to make the same mistake next time.
B-20	I am embarrassed to talk to native speakers of English.
B-23	I am thinking too much of not making any mistakes while speaking English

As can be seen from Table 4, Factor 2 characterizes an aspect of how much NNPSETs feel confident when they speak English. These three items mean that participants of this study felt language anxiety with their degree of the self-confidence while they were talking with foreigners. According to this, Factor 2 is classified as 'language anxiety depending on the self-confidence factor.'

TABLE 4.
FACTOR 2: LANGUAGE ANXIETY BASED ON SELF-CONFIDENCE

Items	Statements
B-2	I don't care too much about making any mistakes in speaking English.
B-8	I feel comfortable when I speak English.
B-9	I can feel my heart beating fast whenever I speak English.

As displayed in Table 5, Factor 3 is composed of 5 items (item# 1, 3, 4, 6, and 24), and each five statement is closely related to their fear when they have to face with speaking or teaching English in the classroom. Therefore, these items are named as 'language anxiety about the class preparation factor.'

TABLE 5.
FACTOR 3: LANGUAGE ANXIETY ABOUT CLASS PREPARATION

Items	Statements
B-1	I feel confident when I speak English to teach a lesson.
B-3	I feel tense when I have to teach a lesson in English.
B-4	I am afraid that I forget things I prepared for classes in English.
B-6	Though I am prepared for a lesson, I always feel anxious about speaking English.
B-24	If I may teach English in L1, I think I can do it much better.

Table 6 shows that Factor 4 (item# 16, 22) explains the reaction to their anxiety while they speak English. Participants of the present study showed the feeling of satisfaction when they thought they spoke English well, and this fact led them to overcome language anxiety while they were talking in English. Thus, this Factor 4 is identified as 'NNPSETs' efforts to overcome language anxiety factor.'

TABLE 6.
FACTOR 4: LANGUAGE ANXIETY OVERCOME WITH EFFORTS

Items	Statements
B-16	I feel confident when I speak English to teach a lesson.
B-22	I try to overcome anxiety whenever I speak English.

The result of two open-ended questions shows that 52 NNPSETs had a common thought about having experienced language anxiety in various situations. In the Table 7 below, there are examples of all the answers categorized into five groups of answers. There were a variety of answers, but most of respondents had common opinions which they were not confident to speak and use English because their native language is not English. They also felt anxiety when their students did not understand what they spoke in English. But a majority of respondents frequently felt apprehension whenever they made mistakes while conducting a micro-teaching as a language teacher.

TABLE 7.
RESPONSES TO THE LANGUAGE ANXIETY IN THE LANGUAGE CLASS

Statements	Response (count)	Response (percent)
Because I am not a non-native speaker of English, I am worried about pronunciation, intonation, stress, and so on.	48	92.3%
I want to be an ESL teacher, but I am pressured to make a mistake while speaking English in front of my students. In addition, there are some students who have learned English as L1, so it gives me more pressure and stress, preventing me from making any mistakes.	46	88.4%
I want to have more opportunities and experiences to practice English teaching through English even after the teaching practicum.	38	73.1%
I do not feel language anxiety, but I feel strong language anxiety when I stand in front of the students in the class, because I may make mistakes. But if students are very supportive, I gain confidence to speak English.	34	65.4%
I wonder what would be the best way to teach English to ESL learners. To speak only English in the class may not be a solution.	31	59.7%

V. CONCLUSIONS

This study has sought to examine which language anxiety factors influence to NNPSETs when they face to speak and teach English through English in their practicum classes. And in order to find out those factors, a survey questionnaire was employed, and the results of this research are in accordance with findings from literature reviews on the types of language anxiety. The data resulted from the survey showed that NNPSETs felt difficulties in teaching through English, followed by lack of self-confidence about English, and its anxiety about using English in their ESL practicum classes. Based on the language anxiety factors they felt, four factors were categorized as a finding, which are the fear of English speech in the classroom (Factor 1), language anxiety depending on the self-confidence (Factor 2), language anxiety about the class preparation (Factor 3), and NNPSETs' efforts to overcome language anxiety (Factor 4).

Such findings may lead to a conclusion that NNPSETs should be trained to have more self-confidence and less anxiety to conduct a micro-teaching, or any classroom teachings, using English. For instance, it is highly recommended to provide exclusive English training classes for NNPSETs in ESL licensure program, which may help to control their emotional and affective factors with support from current faculty members in the teacher education program.

And it is also suggested that skillful ESL faculty members through exclusive English training classes can sustain NNPSETs based on their previous Know-Hows, guiding them to become effective ESL teachers who would overcome language anxiety. In addition to exclusive English program, to run a mentoring language program with native pre-

service ESL teachers (NPSET) can be beneficial to NNPSETs in that by communicating, learning and teaching collaboratively and interpersonally, as a team, NNPSETs can lower their anxiety level, accustoming themselves to English language and its teaching.

APPEDIX A. SURVEY QUESIONNAIRE

The actual survey is formatted differently from this document, in which the response options are simply on a clicking basis using a computer or any electronic devices.

The following questionnaire is designed for the purpose of academic research, targeting to investigate a Non-Native Pre-Service Teacher's foreign language anxiety in the classroom. Your responses to this survey questionnaire will not be shared with anyone but the researcher who is conducting this research. It will be kept confidentially, and after analyzing the information received from every respondent, researcher will use the summary of information, not with the individual responses received. Thank you for your time and participation.

Part I. Personal Background Information

Gender	Male ( ) Female ( ) Other ( )
Age group	20-22 ( ) 23-25 ( ) 26-28 ( ) 29-31 ( ) 31+ ( )
Native language(s)	Korean ( ) Chinese ( ) English ( ) Other ( )
Years of formal English study	5-8 ( ) 9-12 ( ) 13-16 ( ) 16+ ( )
Years of teaching English	Less than 1 year ( ) 1-2 ( ) 2-3 ( ) 3-4 ( ) 4+ ( )
Years of time spent in English-speaking countries	Less than 1 year ( ) 1-2 ( ) 2-3 ( ) 3-4 ( ) 4+ ( )

Part II. Questionnaire about Foreign Language Anxiety

Item #	Questions	Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Slightly Agree 4	Moderately Agree 5	Strongly Agree 6
1	Whenever I speak in English, I have never had a strong sense of confidence.						
2	When I speak English, I have never worried about making any mistakes.						
3	When I face to teaching a class in English, I feel nervous.						
4	When I speak English, I am afraid of forgetting what I prepare in English.						
5	When I speak English, I feel upset when someone provides any feedback.						
6	Although I prepare for the lesson well, I feel anxiety to teach in English.						
7	At times, I hesitate to speak English.						
8	I feel very comfortable in speaking English.						
9	When I speak English, I feel very nervous.						
10	The more I prepare for English class, the more nervous I become						
11	When I speak English, I feel so nervous that I may forget what I've got to know.						
12	When I speak English in front of students, I feel nervous.						
13	When I speak English, I am afraid of making any mistakes.						
14	When speaking English in class, I feel tension and frightened.						
15	When I speak English, my heart will beat faster ·						
16	When I speak English, I try to overcome such feeling of anxiety.						
17	I always feel anxiety in every micro-teaching session.						
18	When I do a micro-teaching, I feel very anxiety when students understand the lesson.						
19	I am aware of my mistakes while speaking English and try to practice not to make same mistakes.						
20	When I speak English to a native speaker, I feel nervous.						
21	When I speak English to a non-native speaker, I feel comfortable.						
22	When I speak English, I think my English should be perfect.						
23	When I realize I have made a mistakes, I become more nervous						
24	If I speak L1 in the class, I can teach English better than use English.						

Part III. Personal Opinions about Foreign Language Anxiety

Q1. As a pre-service ESL teacher, what do you think the most influential anxiety factors are, in terms of teaching in English and speaking English in the class?

Q2. What do you, as a language teacher think the better ways would be to overcome foreign language anxiety in ESL classroom?

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Production and Perception Problems of English Dental Fricatives by Yoruba Speakers of English as a Second Language

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Abstract—**Pronunciation is one aspect of language that cannot be easily mastered by a second language user, especially after the age of puberty. This paper discusses the difficulties involved in adult learners of a second language. The emphasis is on Yoruba learners of English as second language, with particular reference to the production of the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/, which are non-existent in Yoruba language phonology. It is opined that only young children who are ten years or under can truly master the intricacies of a second language, including its phonology. This study, used an unobtrusive observation method as a classroom teacher, complemented by an empirical study. The researcher watched and listened several times to adult student-teachers in their speech behavior. This led to the design of a special passage given to the teacher-trainees by the researcher and was analyzed through frequency counts, to confirm the unobtrusive observations. It was discovered that although there may be production problem on the part of Yoruba speakers of English as a second language, there seems to be no perception problem as mutual intelligibility is still attained, notwithstanding the mispronunciation of these sounds. The study's conclusion is that with the widespread of English globally, variations, especially in pronunciation, are bound to occur, and as long as such variations do not border on unintelligibility, either locally or internationally, they remain part of world's Englishes.**

Index Terms—**production problem, perception problem, English dental fricatives, Yoruba speakers of English, second language**

I. INTRODUCTION/RESEARCH ISSUE

The place of English as a global language is not in dispute. The number of people, spread across the different continents, that uses the language for one purpose or the other, attests to the fact that English is, indeed, a global language. Chinese is said to have a higher number of speakers. The staggering number of Chinese speakers is as a result of China's population, and not necessarily a consequence of the spread of the language across the globe. English, on its part, has been successfully exported round the world to the extent that, through language contact, according to Sinclair (1988), the native speakers no longer have control over it.

In Nigeria, English came in the 18th century with the slave trade. It came then as a foreign language (EFL) as it was and still not indigenous to the Nigerian linguistic environment. Folorunso (2004) conceives a foreign language in relative terms, as a means of communication which is external to the cultural and political homogeneity of the language community. With the colonization of Nigeria by British imperialists, English, being the official language, as well as the language of instruction in western education, grew in leaps and bounds in the country. Today, the language has since changed status from a foreign language that it was at its advent, to a second language that it is now.

A useful distinction is made between English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL), and this is useful for our present purpose. Okedara, (1983) posits that a language is foreign when it is restricted to the classroom as a mere school subject to be taught just as any other school subject. Ogunsiji, (2004) argues that when, however, a language is not only taught in the classroom as a school subject, but has its use extended to other domains and used extensively, in addition to the mother tongues, it has attained the status of a second language. In addition to the above, Ayodele, (2004) says a foreign language is distinguished from a second language by the higher priority of use which the latter enjoys and that it is acquired, almost as a matter of course as development is being experienced in the mother tongue. This has been the situation of the English language in Nigeria. With the colonization of Nigeria by British imperialists, English became the official language. Today, the language has also become a second language because its use extends to other domains and it is used extensively in addition to the various mother tongues. In Nigeria today, English is not just a subject taught in Nigerian schools, right from the kindergarten: it has also found usage in other areas outside the classroom, where it is used as a medium of instruction. It is also the language of government, commerce, judiciary and bilateral relations. Besides, Fakuade (2004) describes English as the language of social integration among the over two hundred and fifty ethnic nationalities that make up the country and that it is acquired by its users almost as matter of course as they are developing with the mother tongue.

In spite of the varied domains of English use and the manner of acquisition, second language English users in world second largest ESL country still find the articulation of dental fricatives almost impossible to accomplish. This is particularly about Yoruba speakers of English as a second language. As a teacher of English to second language English users at tertiary teacher training institution level, the problem under study always gives a cause for concern because the trainees are supposed to go out and teach at other levels of Nigeria's educational system. If as teachers they cannot correctly articulate these sounds, it then means they may not be able to make their students pronounce these sounds well even when the students are still within the critical age of language learning, because the teachers are not good models. This study was actually motivated by the failure of the persistent efforts of the researcher as a teacher of a course in Spoken English to make adult Yoruba learners of English as a second language produce these sounds correctly.

A. Sociolinguistic/Demographic Background

The Yoruba, the subjects of this study, are a race among the over 250 ethnic nationalities in Nigeria and they number several millions. They are located primarily in the Southwest Nigeria and scattered mainly in six states: Ekiti, Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo. The Yoruba language is also a major language spoken in the North Central States of Kwara and Kogi and parts of South East Edo State. Speakers are also scattered thinly across the country as traders, immigrants and civil servants, especially in the Federal Civil Service. Biobaku (1987) confirms that sizeable speakers are found in some parts of Delta state which was also part of the former Western Region, while Fafowora (2007) says the language is also spoken in parts of Benin Republic (Sabe and Ketu) and Togo.

The Yoruba language, according to Encarta Premium Suite (2006), belongs to the Niger-Congo family, found in substantial parts of "sub-Saharan Africa and includes such widely-spoken West African languages as Yoruba and Fulfulde, as well as the Bantu languages of eastern and southern Africa, which includes Swahili and Zulu". There are variants of the Yoruba language depending on the environment, but the variants notwithstanding, there is mutual intelligibility in whatever linguistic domain the language is used.

B. The Problem and Theoretical Background

Linguists have recognized the attendant problem of learning a second language after first acquiring one. Lamendella (1977) says this problem seems to be more acute in the case of adult learners who have passed a critical stage or 'sensitive' period of foreign language acquisition. Lennon (1993) confirms the general belief that only young children can learn to speak a foreign language without any trace of accent at all. O'Connor (1980) also affirms that a child of ten years or under is capable of learning any language, irrespective of the background, if the child is brought up surrounded by that language. This is because the habits of a first language have not become so ingrained that they become difficult to erase. As Rider & McCretton, (1991) in Jakobovits (1968) affirms, this is not unconnected with a psycholinguistic theory of language learning "which emphasizes the developmental nature of the language acquisition process and attributes to the child the specific innate competencies which guide his discovery of the rules of the natural language to which he is exposed" (p.72). Rider and McCretton opine that Jakobovits' theory finds a basis in Chomsky's Language Acquisition Device (LAD) which is a reference to a child's innate capability to derive meaning from the language of his immediate environment and to also construct internal grammar from this.

While it is easy for a young child to learn all the intricacies of a second language, the same cannot be said of adults. The case is even more problematical when it comes to speech. Both young children and adults can learn other aspects of language fairly well. According to Lennon (1993), there are no biological age constraints to the acquisition or learning of vocabulary as new words, and expressions can be acquired or learnt and can be integrated into the already internally stored semantic systems irrespective of the language.

From the foregoing, there is no barrier to the acquisition of new vocabulary and other grammatical structures even in foreign language learning. The same may not be guaranteed in the phonology of a second language especially for an adult learner of a second language. It has been confirmed, by Lennon (1993), that phonology is the strongest evidence that age is a constraint to foreign language learning. This is evident in studies on immigrants to the USA which indicates age of arrival rather than years of residence in the US as a determinant of the extent the speaker would acquire near-native pronunciation.

In this study, the problem of production/perception of the dental fricatives /θ/ and /δ/ is examined. These fricatives pose a problem to Yoruba speakers of English as a second language. This may not be unconnected with the non-existence of these sounds in the Yoruba language phonetic alphabets. Wachuku (2004) in a research into Igbo (another major indigenous language in Nigeria) confirms that Igbo also does not have these dental fricatives, thus Igbo users of English as second language, in Nigeria, also have this problem. The effect of this production problem impinges negatively on native speakers' perception of the sounds. This is, however, not the case with fellow Yoruba or Igbo speakers of second language English as they have the same production and perception potentialities.

What this translates to is that while there may be production problem for Yoruba speakers of English as second language, there may be no perception problem. This much is expressed by Awonusi (2007) as regards production and perception problems in English pronunciation by second language English learners and users. He says production deals with sound articulation and perception with discrimination or listening. This is illustrated with the *'fis' phenomenon* by Berko & Brown (1960) in phonology acquisition with a little kid, who was asked to pronounce fish which he pronounced (fis) several times. Trying to imitate the child, the frustrated teacher pronounced 'fish' as *fis* but the kid

retorted, 'No, it is *fis*, not *fis*'. This is evidence that although the child may have production problem, there is no perception problem. The above illustrates the same production versus perception problem of dental fricatives /θ/ and /δ/ by Yoruba speakers of English as a second language.

C. Justification for the Study

Akeredolu-Ale (2005) has observed that the spoken English of Nigerians is appalling and Ofulue (2007) says correct pronunciation skills are essential for intelligibility, in a second language context. The urge for this study was borne out of the researcher's concern for the consistent failure of second language English teacher-trainees to master these dental fricative sounds, considering the fact that, in the absence of native speakers, they are supposed to be models. Akeredolu-Ale (2005) also identifies these sounds as among those that "many Nigerians have great difficulties with…both when listening and particularly so, when speaking" (p. 51). She goes further to say "…the pronunciation of /θ/ and /δ/ as [t] and [d], though common, carries a heavy stigma because of its suggestion of Pidgin" (p.54). This is also without prejudice to the assumption that since speech is natural and does not require as much effort as we put into reading and writing, attention need not be accorded it, but the importance of speech cannot be over-emphasized, according to Ballard (2007), bearing in mind that "it provides us with a versatile and instant means of communication… [and] because human language materializes first and foremost as speech" (p. 219/210).

II. Procedure

The unobtrusive observation method as a classroom teacher was complemented by an empirical study. The researcher, a teacher in a College of Education as at the time of the research, watched and listened several times to adult student-teachers in their speech behavior. This led to the design of a special text (see appendix), by the researcher, to confirm the unobtrusive observations. The text was actually set as part of a final examination on a course in Spoken English.

One hundred and one (101) adult student-teachers (teacher-trainees) on a sandwich degree program were given a specially prepared passage that contains the consonant sounds under study, as a practical oral test on a course in Spoken English. None of the words was highlighted so as not to give undue importance to any, but the researcher knew what he was looking for. The copy with him had those ones highlighted. This was done for two different sets for two consecutive years. The 2004 sandwich year comprised 47 students, while the 2005 sandwich year comprised 54 students. There are 32 words in the given text that contain the sounds under study, but only 6, scattered all over the text, were specially focused. The criterion used to select the words out of the many that contain the sounds under study was to select those words that can be contrasted with other words in the text. To that extent the following words were selected:

three [θri:] contrasted with tree [tri:]
faith [feiθ] contrasted with fate [feit]
theme [θi:m] contrasted with team [ti:m]
then [δen] contrasted with den [den]
lather [la:δə] contrasted with ladder [lædə]
weather [weδə] contrasted with welder [weldə]

To recognize the perception problem, students in pairs were listened to read the prepared text containing the specific words the researcher was on the lookout for. One read, while the other one listened as the researcher watched. It was obvious, although it was difficult to measure, that there was no perception problem on the part of the listening respondent.

III. Result

The findings of the experiment for the different sandwich years using frequency counts and percentages are shown below.

2004 Sandwich Year (47 n)

	Wrongly Pronounced	Rightly Pronounced	Total
three [θi:]	39 (82.98)*	8 (17.02)	47 (100)
faith [feiθ]	41 (87.23)	6 (12.77)	47 (100)
theme [θi:m]	38 (80.85)	9 (19.15)	47 (100)
then [δen]	44 (93.62)	3 (6.38)	47 (100)
lather [la:δə]	43 (91.49)	4 (8.51)	47 (100)
weather [weδ]	43 (91.49)	4 (8.51)	47 (100)

2005 Sandwich Year (54 n)

	Wrongly Pronounced	Rightly Pronounced	Total
three [θri:]	47 (87.04)	7 (12.96)	54 (100)
faith [feiθ]	43 (76.63)	11 (20.37)	54 (100)
theme [θi:m]	49 (90.74)	5 (9.26)	54 (100)
then [δen]	42 (77.78)	12 (22.22)	54 (100)
lather [la:δə]	39 (72.22)	15 (27.78)	54 (100)
weather [weδə]	43 (76.63)	11 (20.37)	54 (100)

*Percentage in brackets.
Summary (2004 and 2005 Sandwich Years=101 n)

	Wrongly Pronounced	Rightly Pronounced	Total
three [θi:]	86 (85.15)	15 (14.85)	101 (100)
faith [feiθ]	84 (83.17)	17 (16.83)	101 (100)
theme [θi:m]	87 (86.14)	14 (13.86)	101 (100)
then [δen]	86 (85.15)	15 (14.85)	101 (100)
lather [la:δ∂]	82 (81.20)	19 (18.81)	101 (100)
weather [weδ∂]	86 (85.15)	15 (14.85)	101 (100)

The following table shows what obtains in the production/perception of the dental fricatives by this category of speakers of English as a second language.

	as in	produced as	perceived as	as in
/θ/	three[θri:]	tree[tri:]	three[θri:]	The match started at tree (three) O'clock.
	faith[feiθ]	fate[feit]	faith[feiθ]	Their coach, however, advised them to put their fate (faith) in God
	theme[θi:m]	team[ti:m]	theme[θi:m]	The team (theme) of his address was 'where there is will, there is away'.
/δ/	as in	produced as	perceived as	as in
	then[δen]	den[den]	then[δen]	He directed his little boy to use a ladder to bring down the jerseys and den (then) iron them.
	lather[la:δ∂]	ladder[læd∂]	lather[læδ∂]	The washerman had a little difficulty getting the jerseys clean as the soap used did not ladder (lather).
	weather[weδ∂]	welder[weld∂]	weather[weδ∂]	The welder (weather) was cloudy and the opponent put up a valiant fight.

From the empirical and the observations made, over the years, production problem was obvious, but there was no perception problem, as there was proper perception by all the respondents. Therefore, what Yoruba speakers of English as a second language have is not perception but production problem of English dental fricatives. From the sentences in the fifth column of the tables, intelligibility was not hindered notwithstanding the wrong production of the dental fricatives.

IV. IMPLICATIONS

The Yoruba phonetic alphabets do not contain the dental fricatives /θ/ and /δ/ and so cannot be acquired at infancy. At maturation, trying to learn them becomes difficult as there are immediate alternatives to these sounds in the Yoruba language. Some of the consequences of bilingualism or language contact therefore come into play and these are: interference, simplification and substitution at phonological level. What the Yoruba speaker of English does is to simplify these sounds by substituting the non-existing sounds with the closest in his language. Thus, he:

a. substitutes /θ/ with /t/ which exists in both languages and
b. substitutes /δ/ with /d/ which exists in both languages.

Since these substitutes have close resemblances, especially with their places of articulation very close to each other such as /θ/- dental and /t/- alveolar and /δ/- dental and /d/- alveolar, substitution becomes easy and this engenders mutual intelligibility, thus making it easier for Yoruba speakers of English as second language to achieve some level of intelligibility which Tiffen (1974), cited by Awonusi (2007) has been put at 64%. This common substitution strategy, according to Akeredolu-Ale (2005) is said to carry a stigma because of its suggestion of Pidgin.

The production problem of dental fricatives does not result into problem of perception by either second language English users or native speakers when they listen. Even when there seems to be an obvious case of wrong articulation, the linguistic environment of the mispronounced sound gives adequate context cue to the intended meaning. To this category of non-native speakers, either the correct pronunciation or the wrong one is perceived correctly, especially when heard in the right linguistic environment. Although such mispronunciation may sometimes affect international intelligibility; this problem can be solved by the context of usage and what Banjo (1996) calls international interaction.

The implications of the production problem of dental fricatives by Yoruba speakers of English may be said to be inconsequential as it may not seriously affect mutual intelligibility among other users of English as the linguistic environment will provide enough clues for comprehension when there is wrong production so that there is no breakdown in communication. That notwithstanding, Akeredolu-Ale (2005) has noted that "there is need for direct teaching, and …it cannot be completely assumed that learners automatically pick up an acceptable pronunciation" (p.52). The concern of this researcher is who will teach the younger ones, if teacher trainees who are supposed to be models are not getting it right?

Overcoming production problem of dental fricatives by Yoruba speakers of English as second language

The problem of production and perception of these sounds can be solved in a number of ways, instead of the substitution strategy with its stigma. One of the ways of overcoming the problem is training and practice in oral item discrimination and aural perception, with emphasis on the manner and place of articulation. The position of the tongue in the production of these sounds should be emphasized and properly complemented by drills involving these sounds in

contrast with their close substitutes to avoid this problem of production, thus helping in mastering the correct pronunciation of these sounds. This is the view of Olaniyi (2011), in a study of cogno-variability of spoken Nigerian English, where he comes to the conclusion that "education, training and exposure correlate markedly with the Nigerian English speakers' level of approximation to RP" (p.58)

V. Conclusion

The primacy of speech in human communication points to the priority of speech over any other form of communication. Be that as it may, it behooves speakers of any language, either in first or second language situation to pay necessary attention to articulation of sounds to ensure that communication is not impaired in any way. This paper discussed the Yoruba speakers of English as a second language to see their production and perception of the dental fricatives /θ/ and /δ/. It was discovered that because of the similarities between these sounds and consonant sounds that exist in both English and Yoruba, especially in their places of articulation that are close and the environment of the sounds, mutual intelligibility is not hindered even when there is mispronunciation. This, however, does not suggest that adequate measures should not be taken to address this problem, which can be done through direct teaching in oral item discrimination and training in aural perception.

This study also revealed that variations, especially in pronunciation, are bound to exist as a result of language contact. These variations, however, may not impinge negatively on mutual intelligibility. We also learnt from this study that contact with local languages may simplify pronunciation in English and still guarantee some measure of international intelligibility so that it may not matter much if it is found somehow different from the standard. Awonusi (2004) says this is acceptable, as there seems to be a relative unanimity among linguists that the concept of "a monolithic form of English"(p.204) no longer exists as the language is now colored by the nuances of host communities where it has been exported and subsequently domesticated. The simplification and substitution methods resulting from interference, one of the consequences of language contact is part of the domestication of the English language to confirm the fact among linguists that English is no longer a homogenous linguistic identity of any group. For example, Kachru (1982), cited in Awonusi (2007) has observed a high degree of mutual intelligibility between RP and many of the non-native, non-RP accents or the institutionalized non-native Englishes. Further, Awonusi (2007) says "statistics have shown that Ghanaian English had 71.5% intelligibility (Brown, 1968), Nigerian English 64% (Tiffen, 1964), Jordanian English is internationally acceptable (Elalani, 1968)". Trudgill & Hannah (1982) agree that if the contact with local languages makes pronunciation in English easier and without being wrongly perceived, and some measure of international intelligibility is guaranteed, it may not matter much, therefore, if it is found to be at variance with the standard or somehow difficult or different from the standard by native speakers. Ayodele (2004) believes this is part of language phenomenon that as a language spreads; it is modified in some minute ways because of peculiar concepts by the new users. Besides, Millar (2007) says "every language that is spoken continues to change, not just century by century, but day by day" (p.14) and we believe such changes in English become part of the world's Englishes.

Appendix

A facsimile of the administered text for ENG 204: Spoken English (2004&2005 Sandwich Academic Years)

The team played on a dirty pitch. The match started at three O'clock as fans stood under the trees that fenced the pitch. They had their jerseys seriously soiled and so had to be washed instantly. The launderer had a little difficulty getting the jerseys clean as the soap used did not lather. He put out the jerseys in the sun to dry and went to relax waiting for them to dry. He later directed his little boy to use a ladder to bring down the jerseys and then iron them. A new fate awaited the players when play resumed. It was like going to the lion's den. Their coach, however, encouraged them to put their faith in God, think positively and trust their ability. The weather was cloudy and the opponents put up a valiant fight. At the end of the match, the coach addressed them. The theme of the address was "where there is a will, there is a way". A welder was later called in to carry out repairs on some damaged iron bars.

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The Postcolonial Paradox in the (Self-)Orientalization of Taiwanese History in Wei Te-Sheng's Action Saga*

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Abstract—Viewed from a postcolonial angle, this paper intends to examine the paradoxical aspects of the Taiwanese director Wei Te-Sheng's action saga by analyzing both the Orientalization of the Taiwanese aboriginal saga/epic and the literary aesthetics of minor writing/literature that happens to create a resistance literature in this movie. In other words, I plan to examine the problematic aspects—both positive and negative aspects—of Wei's Orientalization of this epic/saga movie. And the main postcolonial literary theories appropriated in this paper are those of Said, Spivak, Bhabha and Deleuze.

Index Terms—postcolonial paradox, Seediq, Orientalization, Taiwanese, Japanese

I. INTRODUCTION

A Venice film review made by Deborah Young rightly pinpoints the controversial reception of Wei Te-Sheng's action saga (*Warriors of the Rainbow: Seediq Bale*)[1]:

Stunning to look at, authentic to a fault and a little tedious to follow for over two and a half hours, the Taiwanese action saga... tells the true story of Taiwan's aboriginal people who were almost wiped out by Japanese colonizers in the 1930s. Their rebellion under the leadership of Chief Mouna Rudo is recounted in a spectacular, almost non-stop sequence of grisly hand-to-hand combat scenes.

Though claiming to retell the historical tragedy (the Wushe Incident), the 1930 uprising against the Japanese colonization led by Mona Rudao, a chief of one of the aboriginal Seediq tribes, Wei has made a few alterations of the historical Wushe Incident in this epic movie when representing the historical massacre so that the heroic narrative could reach an epic scale. There are many positive and negative commentaries on the film at the same time. A descendant of one of the surviving Seediq warriors who participated in this uprising, Dakis Pawan (Kuo Ming-Cheng), who is also a historian and the Seediq dialect consultant of this movie, reminds the audience of the differences between history and the fictional movie, for he discovers there are several dramatic scenes being added to the representation of this tragic event (e.g., the group tattooing of the juvenile warriors). Yet, Dakis also highly values this movie for its recreation of some grandeur moments of the historical event. Given the above-mentioned, we may thus infer that Wei has created a historiographic metafictional "epic" film by reshaping several historical figures and scenes so that the past is revisited to the extent of opening itself "to the present, to prevent it from being conclusive and teleological." [2]

While narrating and representing the exotic Taiwanese aboriginal saga, Wei appropriates the ideas and features of a Western literary genre—"epic," which combines legend/myth and history. From a postcolonial perspective, Wei inevitably puts himself in a dilemma: to be true to the archives of the historical Japanese colonial rule over Taiwanese

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* In this paper, though basing on Said's concept of Orientalism, my ideas of its derivatives such as Orientalist or Orientalization connote more widely than Said's binary juxtaposition of the East and West. Rather, it connotes the intentional representation of the exotic ethnic or racial or cultural features undertaken either by the colonizer and the colonized elite class. In this movie, though the director Wei Te-Sheng is not a descendant of either the Japanese colonizer or the colonized Seediq, his intentional/artistic representation happen to correspond to Said's concept of the Orientalist project in a colonial context. In addition, Wei, a Taiwanese Han descendant, may be also considered a descendant of the Taiwanese Han colonizers from China. More importantly, Wei as a Taiwanese filmmaker, seems to "commit" the "sin" of doing self-Orientalization of Taiwanese historical event by focusing on the representation of the exotic cultural heritage of the aborigines as well as employing the Western mode of historical writing—the epic tradition.

[1] This is the second feature movie of the Taiwanese movie director Wei Te-Sheng. It has received high recognition and attention. Above all, it was selected as a contender for the nomination for the 84th Academy Awards for the Best Foreign Language Film in 2011. The main reception by the worldwide audience could be summarized as follows: "Early reaction to the movie has noted both the realism of its violence (which is due to the historical accuracy of its depictions of battle), and its undertone of Taiwanese nationalism"(excerpt from *Wikipedia*).

[2] See Linda Hutcheon, *A Poetics of Postmdoernism*, New York: Routledge, 1988, 109-10. Hutcheon argues that "historiographic metafiction is the most typical postmodern fiction, for it blends literature and history in one text while keeping from some critical distance from both of them (the literary and historical texts it refer to). Above all, "The postmodern paradoxes here are complex. The interaction of the historiographic and the metafictional foregrounds the rejection of the claims of both 'authentic' representation and 'inauthentic' copy alike... postmodern fiction suggests that to re-write or to re-present the past in fiction and in history is, in both cases, to pen it up to the present, to prevent it from being conclusive and teleological."

aborigines or to focus on the creation of cinematic dramatic effects by employing some Hollywood cinematic production techniques at the expense of historical truth for appealing to universal audience. Moreover, when representing the exotic scenes Wei is also doing some self-Orientalization of Taiwanese aboriginal culture and history. Above all, Wei declares that he is not narrating the uprising from some traditional historians' perspective. Rather, he intends to revisit the historical tragedy from a "warrior's" or "hunter's" perspective and to arouse some public contemplation on this historical event. As a result, Wei seems to create a counter-narrative that is characteristic of the Deleuzian minor literature. Consequently, from a postcolonial angle, this paper intends to examine the paradoxical aspects of the action saga by analyzing both the Orientalization of the Taiwanese aboriginal saga/epic and the literary aesthetics of minor writing/literature that happens to create a resistance literature in this movie. In other words, I plan to examine the problematic aspects—both positive and negative aspects—of Orientalization of this epic/saga movie. And the main postcolonial literary theories I intend to appropriate are those of Said, Spivak, Bhabha and Deleuze.

II. REWRITING (HI)STORIES: ORIENTALIZATION OF TAIWANESE ABORIGINAL SAGA/EPIC

In terms of the "connections between Orientalism as a body of ideas, beliefs, clichés, or learning about the East, and other schools of thought at large in the culture," Said has singled out two kinds of Orientalism: **latent** Orientalism and **manifest** Orientalism. The former is "an almost unconscious (and certainly an untouchable) positivity, while the other is the discursive field of "the various stated views about Oriental society, languages, literature, history, sociology, and so forth" (Said, 1994, p. 205-06). Latent Orientalism often "encouraged a peculiarly (not to say invidiously) male conception of the world" (Said, 1994, p. 207). In this movie *Warriors of the Rainbow*, women happen to be marginalized and represented as obedient and silent subjects in both the colonial discourse and the aboriginal epic/saga, as Said puts it, "women are usually the creatures of a male power-fantasy. They express unlimited sensuality, they are more or less stupid, and above all they are willing" (Said, 1994, p. 207). The women are thus silenced in the movie. They seldom speak for themselves. Instead, the male narrative voices speak for them. Women in this movie commit suicide together by hanging themselves on the trees in order not to become a burden to their husbands and sons in their fighting against the Japanese colonizer. Yet, according to some Japanese archives of the Wushe Incident, most women and children just surrendered (without the description of their suicide) to the Japanese army in charge of suppressing this uprising (*Wushe Incident: An Translation of the Japanese Archives*, Vol. 2, 84). This is a rewriting/Orientalization of the historical uprising. Coincidently, these women who kill themselves, just like *suttee* (the widow who sacrifices herself in the funeral of the dead husband) that Spivak depicts in "Can the Subaltern Speak?", are the victims of a double displacement (class and gender). Here, paradoxically, race is not a persuasive factor in the postcolonial context.

On the other hand, the male Seediq warriors are highlighted as extremely warriors fighting for their ideals (to enter the ultimate or eternal glorious battle field over the rainbow) and national/racial identity and dignity. In this movie, the male warriors sing some ancient heroic songs, especially the protagonist, Mona Rudao. He often isolates himself in meditation on the ancestral voice for directions about how to fight against the Japanese while communicating with the ancestral spirit. All the Seediq ancestral voice or spirit in this movie is male. The Seediq ancient spirit seems to be always male and eternal, brooding over the natural surroundings of the Seediq tribal villages and wilderness. The protagonist frequently turns to the ancestral spirit for inspiration, just like the ancient Greeks who often seek instruction from the oracles of sun-god Apollo.

Given the above, the director Wei seems to create a Orientalized Taiwanese epic out of the saga of the Taiwanese aboriginal tribe—Seediqs—so that this movie would look appealing to the universal audience. Originally a Western literary tradition (genre), epic nowadays has gained universal prestige and recognition. To create an epic, based on the Western epic tradition, first of all, the epic poet has to find a "proper" hero whose heroic deeds are connected with the collective fate of his people (with national significance). In the movie, the protagonist, Mona Rudao is almost deified so that his heroic deeds are celebrated to the extent of national historical significance. As a result, Mona Rudao becomes the tribal hero whose charisma and heroic deeds are singled out and canonized as the Western epic tradition goes. Therefore, an Oriental tribal saga is thus Orientalized by the Western literary modes of representation of the national heroes whose fate is equal to or bound with the national history, be it factual or somewhat fictional.

To further examine how the Taiwanese saga is Orientalized by Wei's appropriation and representation of the epic tradition in this movie, we should closely re-examine the variety and definition of Western epic tradition. Many literary encyclopedias or handbooks like *Merriam-Webster's Reader's Handbook* (1997) define *epic* as "[a] long narrative poem in an elevated style that celebrates heroic achievement and treats themes of historical, national, religious, or legendary significance" (Doherty and Cornog, 1997, p. 165). Besides, we may also distinguish "primary (also called traditional or classical) and "secondary (or literary) epics. Primary epic was "shaped from the legends and traditions of a heroic age and part of the oral tradition of literature, while secondary epic was "written down from the beginning and was self-consciously produced by sophisticated poets who adapted aspects of traditional epic for specific literary and ideological purposes" (Doherty and Cornog, 1997, p. 165). Viewed from the categorization of epic, we can see that "Homer's *Iliad* and *Odyssey* are primary epics; Virgil's *Aeneid* and John Milton's *Paradise Lost* are secondary epics" (Doherty and Cornog, 1997, p. 165). Given the above-mentioned, we may conclude that Wei's *Warriors of the Rainbow: Seediq Bale* is mostly following the Western secondary epic tradition, for it mainly re-writes several aspects of the traditional Seediq saga for "specific literary (artistic) and ideological purposes."

Originally part of a folk saga that has been orally handed down to the Seediq descendants, Mona Rudao's heroic deeds and his involvement with the Wushe Incident are thus re-written in Wei's historiographic metafictional epic movie. Though the Wushe Incident has been recorded in the historical archives of both the Taiwanese Han people and the Japanese, many episodes of Mona Rudao and his fellow warriors have been an oral heritage preserved by the elderly Seediq warriors who survived this catastrophe. Dakis, in his painstaking work, something like a documentary book—*Seediq Bale* (literally means ***real truth***)—records the Seediq cultural and historical heritage and makes a comparative study of the various perspectives of the Seediq elderly men and the movie staff. Dakis points out that he had spent about twenty years doing field studies about the tribal history and cultural tradition as well as the Wushe Incident by interviewing carefully the Seediq chiefs and the elderly Seediqs, especially those survivors of the Wushe Incident.   From this work, we can see that Mona Rudao's role as a Seediq national hero is disputed. Moreover, he did not participate in all the major battles against the Japanese (Kuo, 2011, p. 12).

Just like Zhou Wan-yao (who wrote the preface for Dakis's "documentary" book), a professor of history at National Taiwan University has indicated, Dakis realizes that there are several episodes or details in this movie that deviate, some of them seriously, from the historical truth. Yet, Dakis still recognizes the endeavors that Wei has made in making some alterations of the Wushe Incident for creating some cinematic or dramatic effects in this movie. For example, to foreground the wrath or confrontation between two heroic figures, just like ancient Greek or Roman epics, Wei singles out a scene in which Mona Rudao challenges his key opponent, Temu Walis, by saying "I'd never allow you to grow up," though this statement is strongly against the Seediq ethics (Kuo 2011). This alteration seems to duplicate the wrath of Achilles and the tension between him and Agamemnon in Homer's *Iliad*. Above all, in this movie, Wei just focuses on the dramatization of the charisma and bravery of the epic hero Mona Rudao by neglecting or diminishing the description of the courageous acts of other warriors, such as Mona's oldest and second sons and the other tribal chiefs who also participated in this uprising.

Nevertheless, despite the above-mentioned intentional historiographic metafictional writing of the uprising, Wei has created some counter-narrative of the minority (Seediqs)—minor writing—in reaction to/against the major (majoritarian) writing of the Wushe Incident, which is mainly from the colonizers' perspective (the Han people in Taiwan and the Japanese alike). Wei, in several interviews, emphasizes that he tries to represent the historical incident from a Seediq warrior's point of view. As a result, he not only defies the canonized historical archives preserved by both the Hans and the Japanese, but also re-writes some of the memories of the surviving warriors.   And the above-mentioned happens to coincide with Deleuzian micropolitics of minor literature/writing.

III.   Toward a Minoritarian Counter-Narrative of the Subaltern—Resistance Literature in Warriors of the Rainbow: Seediq Bale

We all know that history, just like other discursive texts, is a kind of human constructs, and thus is never transparent and free from human mediation. Thus, instead of closely basing on the surviving warriors' memories or perspectives, Wei decides to re-write the history of the Wushe Incident according to his strategic needs of arousing the long-neglected historical incident. Though some historians like Dakis challenged his representation of this historical event, Wei chooses to establish his postcolonial aesthetics of re-writing history without being subjected to the majoritarian historical writing by either the Japanese or the Han people (a historical perspective as oppressive as the Oedipal mechanism of Freudian/Lacanian psychoanalysis), as Deleuze puts it:

To write is not to recount one's memories and travels, one's loves and griefs, one's dreams and fantasies. It is the same thing to sin through an excess of reality as through an excess of the imagination. In both cases it is the eternal daddy-mommy, an Oedipal structure that is projected onto the real or introjected into the imaginary. In this infantile conception of literature, what we seek at the end of the voyage, or at the heart of a dream, is a ***father*** [emphasis added]. (Deleuze, 1997, p. 2)

To highlight the fact that all writing (including historical texts) is saturated with human ideological mediation, Wei makes some alterations, as Deleuze puts it: "There is no literature without fabulation" (Deleuze, 1997, p. 3).

To dramatize the lines of flight (becoming) of the Seediqs, Wei achieves a minor writing. This writing has nothing to do with the number of the people it aims to appeal to or the identity of the writer/filmmaker who undergoes the becoming of minority. Wei, just like Kafka (for central Europe) and Melville (for America), presents "literature as the collective enunciation of a minor people, or of all minor peoples, ***who find their expression only in and through the writer*** [emphasis added]" (Deleuze, 1997, p. 4). In other words, the long distorted or marginalized history of the Seediqs has been reclaimed by Wei in this movie as a minor writing of impossibility—"the impossibility of not writing, the impossibility of writing in Chinese/ Japanese, the impossibility of writing otherwise."[3] Wei has successfully reconstructed "the story not to pass on" of the Seediq victims in the Wushe Incident, even though most of the warriors are dead and the Seediq descendants and many outsiders nowadays neglect this historical tragedy of the Seediqs, Retelling the hi(story) from the Seediq warriors' perspective, Wei successfully "invents a people who are missing" in

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[3] This is an adapted quote from *Kafka: Toward a Minor Literature* (1986), in which Deleuze and Guattari depicts the awkward situation of the Jews living in Prague who *deterritorializes the major language*—German. Thus, Kafka's minor writing is something impossible: "the impossibility of not writing, the impossibility of writing in Chinese/ Japanese, the impossibility of writing otherwise" (16).

this minor writing to the extent of arousing the Taiwanese as well as the worldwide audience to revisit and retrieve this historical tragedy by challenging the existent historical archives of either the Japanese or the Han peoples in Taiwan. Just like "Thomas Wolfe 'inscribes all of America in writing insofar as it can be found in the experience of a single man,'" Wei's minor writing does not create "a people called upon to dominate the world. It is a minor people, eternally minor, taken up in a becoming-revolutionary" (Deleuze, 1997, p. 4). This is the political function of modern literature or cinema like *Warriors of the Rainbow*, as Daniel Smith explains:

If modern political literature and cinema can play a role in the constitution of minorities, it is because they are no longer undertaken on the basis of a "people" who are already there, awaiting their becoming conscious and the possibility of revolution. Rather they are constituted on a seot fo impossibilities in which the people are missing, in which the only consciousness is the consciousness of violence... For Deleuze, this is what constitutes the new object of a political literature or cinema: the *intolerable*, that is, a lived actuality that at the same time testifies to the impossibility of living in such conditions. ("Introduction," Deleuze 1997: xliii)

In addition, by means of depicting the warriors' return to the Absolute/Ultimate Realm of eternity, Wei happens to correspond to Deleuze's idea of becoming. Portraying the process of the warriors' return to the transcendental realm, Wei is undertaking an act of writing as becoming. In Deleuzian terms, writing is an act or a question of becoming, always incomplete, always in the midst of being formed, and goes beyond any livable or lived experience... Writing is inseparable from becoming: in writing, one becomes-woman, becomes-animal or vegetable, becomes-molecule to the point of becoming-imperceptible. (Deleuze, 1997, p. 1)

In the movie, Wei explores the transcendental aspects of the warriors' idealized refuge of eternity—the battle field for the courageous warriors over the rainbow, guarded by their ancestral spirit. The warriors' lifelong objective is to re-unite with their ancestral spirit, which is often referred to as a transcendental impersonal Central Divinity of Nature.

In the end of the movie, all the dead warriors are marching over the cloud toward the rainbow. Wei seems to emphasize the process of becoming-imperceptible with the idealized rainbow of the warriors. The rainbow has become a symbol of heaven where the courageous warriors can take refuge in and a token of comfort and reward for their torture and sacrifice. It is also a spiritual realm of purity. In other words, in Deleuzian terms, by fighting courageously against the Japanese colonial oppressive rule, the Seediq warriors seem to become a "*war-machine*," which is "irreducible to the State apparatus, to be outside its sovereignty and prior to its law" (Deleuze, 1987, p.352), undertaking a *jihad*, a holy war against the enemy, because the Japanese imperialist inflict blasphemy upon their ancestral spirit by depriving them of the link with their cultural heritage (e.g., facial tattoo and hunting). To be more specific, the rainbow is also a symbol of the Sublime, a desired refuge of eternity and glory for every Seediq warrior (though the women are marginalized here). The warriors are taking flight, becoming in order to reach the desired realm—the rainbow, just like Harry, who is the protagonist in one of Hemingway's well-known short stories "The Snows of Kilimanjaro," in which Harry shows "great spiritual attachment to a mountain/peak that is a symbol of purity and escape" (Yang, 2010, p. 44). We may interpret the Seediq warriors' lines of flight toward the rainbow as a kind of act of escape or refuge away from the Japanese oppression.

Paradoxically, this becoming-imperceptible of the warriors, namely their lines of flight, is achieved through ***becoming-savage***. As Mona Rudao has proudly declared when he decides to fight against the Japanese oppression because the Japanese colonial regime has always considered the Seediqs as ***savage***:

If civilization means humiliation and slavery, I would have them see the pride of the savages!!

For Deleuze, becoming-minor, becoming-animal or barbarian is always a minor writing, for it deviates from the major discourse and social modes that imposed on the individual who seeks lines of flight (deterritorialization). In repudiating the majoritarian ideology of the Japanese colonizers who consider the Seediqs as "savages," Wei tries to have Mona Rudao deterritorialize the Japanese majoritarian colonial discourse by becoming-savage.

IV. THE POSTCOLONIAL PARADOX IN THE ORIENTALIZATION OF TAIWANESE HISTORY

From the above analysis, we can detect that by Orientalizing the Taiwanese aboriginal saga, Wei has created both positive and negative effect. The former is his dramatic representation of the exotic features of the Seediq cultural heritage and the Wushe Incident according to the Western modes of representation (epic tradition), values and behavior; whereas the latter, the minoritarian or minor writing in reaction to/against the majoritarian or dominant historical writing. Nevertheless, even though Wei tries hard to reclaim the identity and dignity of the Seediqs by re-writing this tribal saga/epic, he has brought about many effects in a postcolonial context that he may not notice. We can hardly judge whether Wei's Orientalization is positive or negative for the colonized and marginalized minority—Seediqs.

Moreover, though there are both positive and negative aspects of Wei's Orientatlization of Taiwanese history, yet, according to Homi K. Bhabha's postcolonial perspective, there are also some paradoxical aspects in the colonial discourse (Orientatlization project), for it is never absolute and complete:

The objective of colonial discourse is to construe the colonized as a population of degenerate types on the basis of racial origin, in order to justify conquest and to establish systems of administration and instruction... colonial discourse produces the colonized as a social reality which is at once an 'other' and yet entirely knowable and visible.... It [colonial discourse] employs a system of representation, a regime of truth, that is structurally similar to realism. And it is in order to intervene within that system of representation that Edward Said proposes a semiotic of 'Orientalist' power, examining

the varied European discourses which constitute 'the Orient' as a unified racial, geographical, political and cultural zone of the world. (Said, 1994, p. 70-71)

By reviewing Said's concept of Orientalism, Bhabha pinpoints the paradoxical aspects of the discourse of colonialism with the idea of ***ambivalence***, which means the contradictory attitude of the colonizer toward the colonized, because in the colonial texts, the colonized are simultaneously "the signal points of identification and alienation, scenes of fear and desire" (Said, 1994, p. 72). Likewise, in the movie, on the one hand, though the Japanese name and treat the Seediqs as the" other" of the Japanese— "savages"; yet, on the other hand, the Japanese colonizers attempt to domesticate the colonized Seediqs and abolish their radical 'otherness,' bringing them *inside* the Japanese understanding through "the Orientalist project of constructing knowledge about them" (McLeod, 2000, p. 53). As a result, the objective of colonial discourse is never complete and absolute.

For example, the two Seediq young men who work for the Japanese police at the Wushe area are a good illustration of the ambivalence in the Japanese colonial rule over the Seediqs. Both of them have adopted a Japanese name respectively, Hanaoka Ichiro and Hanaoka Niro (花崗一郎與花崗二郎). In this movie, Wei takes pains to dramatize their inner struggle for the dilemma: to recognize the Japanese civilized colonization of the primitive Seediqs or to join their fellow Seediq warriors in this uprising. Both of them are torn between their inner struggles. Nevertheless, according to Dakis's investigation (Kuo, 2011, p. 18), these two Seediq young men are supposed to be "the accomplices" of the Japanese police that oppress and suppress the aborigines and the traitors to the Seediqs in the eyes of the Seediqs. How could they be informed of and participate in the Seediq warriors' uprising against the Japanese? Here, we may infer that Wei intends to have these "domesticated" Seediq elite young men raise questions and dramatize the dilemma of choosing between civilization and nationalism (national/cultural identity and dignity). Therefore, this episode, is supposed to be a minoritarian writing of the Wushe Incident in reaction to/against the majoritarian historical perspective that takes it for granted that all the colonized Seediqs are strongly against the Japanese colonial rule. It demonstrates the political function/destiny of minor writing through an invention of "a people who are missing," as Daniel W. Smith puts it,

Hence the belief that literature or even the cinema...could become an art of the masses, a supremely revolutionary or democratic art.... If art was to find a political task, Deleuze argues, it would have to be on a new basis, that is, on the basis of this very fragmentation and breakup: not hat of addressing an already existing people, but of contributing to the invention of a people who are *missing*. (xli-xlii)

V. CONCLUSION

In *Warriors of the Rainbow: Seediq Bale*, Wei, though intentionally creates some Orientalization of the Taiwanese aboriginal saga in parallel with the Western Orientalist project of the East, he successfully foregrounds several problematic aspects of this long-neglected historical tragedy. Wei seems to blur the borderline between history (reality) and fiction (cinema). Though he may be accused of intentionally representing some exotic aboriginal elements for creating universal appeal, Wei has successfully aroused the interest and awareness of universal audience for "intolerable"[4] historical moment in Taiwanese history and the need to revisit it. The audience tends to treat all the scenes and events represented in the cinema as historical truth by Wei's vivid and subtle cinematic narration.

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[4] See Daniel Smith's "Introduction" to Deleuze's *Essays Critical and Clinical* (1997). For Deleuze, the ***intolerable*** is "a lived actuality that at the same time testifies to the impossibility of living in such conditions," namely, the "new object of a political literature of cinema" (xliii).

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Task-oriented Conversations: The Implications of Drama for Second Language Acquisition

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Abstract—**Recently, there has been a growing interest in the utilization of conversations and dialogues in language pedagogy. The role of conversational task types in developing the L2 oral proficiency in the process of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has also received a great amount of attention. The present paper attempts at mulling over the current perspectives towards the role of dialogue and interaction in classroom environments with a stupendous emphasis on the implications of drama as a task-oriented conversation for SLA.**

Index Terms—**input, interaction, task-oriented conversation, drama, and second language acquisition**

I. Introduction

As Saville-Troike (2005) puts it, the role of input comprehension is of primary significance in the domain of the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research and theory. Language input to the learner is deemed to be absolutely necessary for either first language (L1) or second language (L2) learning to take place; however, the nature of its role is in dispute. Accordingly, Sanz (2005) argues that the emergent concern with the significance of the role of interaction with the social milieu has spawned a bulky agenda of studies rooted in the process of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in recent years. All knowledge, particularly but not exclusively the linguistic knowledge, is regarded as the outcome of the learners' interaction with their social context, and the acquisition process is accordingly identified in terms of both social and cognitive factors.

A. Input Hypothesis

Krashen's (1982, p. 21) Input Hypothesis makes the claim that that in order for a second language (L2) acquisition to proceed, a necessary but not sufficient condition recommends the acquirers progress from the stage i to the stage i + 1 through getting exposed to and understanding comprehensible input that encloses certain structures "a little beyond" their current level of competence, where understanding means focusing on the meaning and not the form of the message.

Krashen's (1982) answer to the apparent paradox regarding understanding language structures that one has not yet acquired lies behind the rationale that the acquirers make use of more than their linguistic competence to help them understand. They can also utilize the clues in the context, their knowledge of the world, and their extra-linguistic information on the way to help them understand the language directed at them.

B. Output Hypothesis

Swain's (1985, p. 249, cited in, Gass & Selinker, 2008, pp. 326-7) Comprehensible Output Hypothesis refers to the need for a learner to be "pushed toward the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently, and appropriately." That is to say, as Park (2002) puts it, apart from comprehensible input, comprehensible output is also an indispensable condition for the L2 acquisition, and that learners are obliged, and, hence, make their output more comprehensible if communicative demands are put on them. This perspective is said to contrast penetratingly with Krashen's Input Hypothesis, wherein the role of production or output is minimized.

C. Interaction Hypothesis

In general, Long's (1983, cited in, Gibson, 2004) Interaction Hypothesis posits that interaction in L2 learning gives rise to SLA opportunities through what he terms the interactional modification. Now generally known as the negotiated interaction or Negotiation for/of Meaning (NFM), Long's (1996) newly-defined Interaction Hypothesis characterizes the negotiated interaction for L2 learners in terms of the process via which, in an attempt en route for communication, learners and competent speakers offer and construe signals of their own and their interlocutor's perceived comprehension, thus provoking adjustments to the linguistic form, conversational structure, message content, or all three, until a satisfactory level of understanding is established.

D. Vygotsky on Interaction: Zone of Proximal Development

To put it in plain words, Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory (SCT) regards interaction as the bedrock of the process of language acquisition. To explain the relation between the interpersonal and the intrapersonal plane, Vygotsky (1978, p. 86) develops the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which he defines as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers."

Accordingly, Johnson (2004) posits that Vygotsky distinguishes between two crucial levels of development, i.e., actual and potential. The former represents children's ability to perform mental activities without help from a more capable peer. This independence indicates that the functions associated with the independently performed activities have been stabilized; no intervention from another person is necessary. The latter level, the potential level of development, indicates that certain mental functions have not been stabilized; therefore, some intervention, namely assistance from a more capable peer or tutor is required. The difference between these two levels can be mathematically presented; that is to say, the potential level minus the actual level equals the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

In an effort to explicate ZPD, Kumaravadivelu (2003) argues that two critical factors need to be emphasized; that is, the active participation by learners in meaningful interaction and the appropriate mediational assistance from competent speakers. From his perspective, Vygotsky's ZPD is an interactional construct in its own right.

To put it in plain words, Poehner (2008) muses that scaffolding is originally proposed as a way of actualizing learners' ZPDs; however, there has been an ongoing debate in the research literature over the extent to which assisting learners as they complete tasks is synonymous with mediating their development.

As discussed by Chapelle (1998), the SLA research directed at examining how learning activities can best be constructed to produce optimal input, output, and interaction has pointed out the importance of particular task features. Chapelle (1998) believes that the most useful perspective towards input, output, and interaction appears to be that of Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993, cited in, Chapelle, 1998). Chapelle (1998) muses that based on a review of research on L2 communication tasks, Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun identify two task features that play a role in prompting valuable interactions in L2 tasks. They categorize these features under two variables, namely the interactional activity and the communication goal that are expected to influence the learners' language proficiency in significant ways and indicate the importance of extralinguistic task characteristics in creating positive conditions for at least apprehension, comprehension, intake, and output. They argue for an expanded model of SLA which includes relevant task characteristics.

According to Dobinson (2001), the use of interaction in language classrooms in recent years has become the norm at least as far as the language teachers are concerned, with teachers interpreting the interaction as a kind of the verbal communication between either the teacher and the students or the students and the students during the lesson. A communicative lesson has become the yardstick for successful lessons and practitioners often feel uncomfortable if they have not found certain ways of making their lessons more interactive or communicative.

In discussing the pedagogical implications of Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis, Jordan (2004) holds that there is more evidence at this juncture of the theory progression, of how an originally well-formulated hypothesis is upgraded in the light of criticisms and developments in the field. From the perspective of Jordan, the commitment to classroom-based research is evident, and there are obvious implications for second language teaching. Two of the important implications of Long's (1996) hypothesis are that a task-based approach to classroom teaching is the most efficient, and that tasks can be selected and manipulated so as to maximize the opportunities for learners to turn input into intake.

In sum, Jordan (2004) maintains that, undoubtedly, the Interaction Hypothesis has amounted to the emergent support for a Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) approach to the classroom-based teaching where opportunities for the negotiation for/of meaning in Long's (1996) sense, and for noticing in Schmidt's sense are created. However, Jordan avers that the hypothesis occupies a limited domain and leaves untouched most of the questions relating to the SLA process.

II. Conversational Scaffolding and L2 Classroom Interaction

In view of foregoing debates, Ellis (1985, cited in, Kitao & Kitao, 1999) conducts an analysis of various studies and theoretical treatments of the subject and arrives at the conclusion that both input and interaction influence second language acquisition. He lists eight characteristics of input and interaction, which seem to facilitate rapid acquisition, based on this analysis. They are as follows:

1. A high quantity of input directed at the learner;
2. The learner' perceived need to communicate in the L2;
3. Independent control of the propositional content by the learner, e.g., control over the topic choice;
4. Adherence to the here and now principle, at least initially;
5. The performance of a range of speech acts by both the native speaker/teacher and the learner, i.e., the learner needs the opportunity to listen to and to produce language used to perform different language functions;
6. Exposure to a high quantity of directives;
7. Exposure to a high quantity of extending utterances, e.g., requests for clarification and confirmation, paraphrases and expansions; and

8. Opportunities for uninhibited practice, which may provide opportunities to try out using novel forms.

As discussed by Nunan (1991), the central research issue posed in this line of argument is related to the designation of the specific classroom task types and patterns of interaction that provide the learners with the greatest amount of comprehensible input. According to Nunan (1991), it has been argued that patterns of interaction in which learners are forced to make conversational adjustments promote acquisition. This view represents an indirect rather than direct relationship between environmental factors such as types of instruction and language acquisition. It also refers to research which, while questioning the comprehensible Input Hypothesis, supports the communicative tasks to which it has given rise.

As a matter of fact, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) argue that the modification of the interactional structure of conversation may serve as an appropriate candidate for a necessary but not sufficient condition for the process of acquisition to occur. The role it plays in the negotiation for meaning helps to make input comprehensible while still comprising unidentified linguistic elements, and, therefore, potential intake for acquisition.

According to Sze (1996), it is common practice for general-purpose second/foreign language programs to incorporate the teaching of speaking skills. Speaking is often broken down into sub-skills, one of which is the ability to take part in a conversation in the target language. To begin with, it seems appropriate to address the issue of what kind of talk qualifies as conversation. While monologues such as lectures, speeches, and TV news reports are obviously to be ruled out, talk involving more than one speaker does not necessarily constitute conversation. With respect to the classroom context, even though there may be a great deal of oral interaction between teacher and students during a lesson, few people would accept as true that the teacher is having a genuine conversation with the students.

From a second language perspective, Dufficy (2005) debates that more open forms of classroom communication only transpire when the teachers loosen the reins on the minds of the learners in their classrooms and support them to move into challenging novel cognitive domains through the utilization of dialogues and conversations for the duration of the classroom talk. When this takes place, the learners can learn not only the essential values of critical, independent thinking, but more profound values to do concerning others' viewpoints, have a tendency to put forward an unusual idea, trust in getting a fair hearing, and show a certain amount of flexibility as they come to perceive uncertainty and mistakes in thinking as the very building blocks of thought itself.

A. On Conversation

In defining conversation, Button, Oatley, and Draper (1989, cited in, Micarelli & Boylan, 1997) begin by proclaiming principles with which one could hardly agree more, including (1) even when engaged in smalltalk, people speak with a purpose, as philosophers of language like Austin (1962, cited in, Micarelli & Boylan, 1997) and Searle (1969, cited in, Micarelli & Boylan, 1997) have long pointed out; and (2) goals, like other aspects of meaning, are negotiated during a conversational exchange.

In line with the foregoing argument, Micarelli and Boylan (1997) present the debate that the basic scenario of a conversation if the term conversation implies, as it should, involves the negotiation of discourse goals through trade-offs that contrasts with the scenario of what language teachers call an open dialogue, involving a set exercise with constrained responses that generally express a pre-determined thematic flow, cleverly arranged to give the student the illusion of conversing. Micarelli and Boylan (1997) aver that open dialogue exercises, which abound in printed form in the better foreign language textbooks, are said to be a positive step forward, if compared to the old-fashioned fill in the blank grammar exercises.

B. Scaffolding and Situated Cognition

Firth and Wagner (1997, cited in, Larsen-Freeman, 2007) call for a more socially and contextually situated view of SLA research that has generated a great deal of discussion and debate in the domain of SLA. Larsen-Freeman (2007) discusses that given the individualistic, cognitive origin of the SLA field, such controversy is entirely understandable. With different ontologies and epistemologies, the two views, individual/cognitive and social/contextual, have had little impact on each other. In this sense, Larsen-Freeman (2007) argues for the theoretical pluralism that has prevailed in recent times and proposes to think of the possibility that requires a reframing of the current understanding.

Accordingly, Wagner and Gardner (2004) criticize the mainstream SLA on the grounds that it has been first and foremost a conglomerate of theories and methods; however, the main glue that keeps the diverse approaches in SLA theory together is the concept of language as primarily form, and the understanding of acquisition as individual cognition, i.e., an accomplishment of the (single) human mind. That is to say, theories in SLA model the learner as an input-output processing unit in a sender-receiver model of communication. Accordingly, they call for the incorporation of conversations in the second languaeg in the classroom enviornments.

As discussed by Mondada and Doehler (2004), both Sociocultural Theory (SCT) and Conversation Analysis (CA) congregate in maintaining the fundamental role of contextually embedded communicative processes in the accomplishment of human actions and identities as well as of social facts. In bringing these two lines of thought together, Mondada and Doehler (2004) are determined to stress that learning activities are both negotiated and accomplished in local contexts and transmitted and elaborated across historical contexts.

Mondada and Doehler (2004) present the argument that learning a language, in this sense, essentially means learning how to cope with contextualized, interactionally oriented discourse activities. That is to say, language learning

engrosses much more than a simple account of an expert-novice relationship and much more than scaffolded sequences of the negotiation. More specifically, Mondada and Doehler debate that language learning has its roots in the learners' participation in organizing talk-in-interaction, structuring participation frameworks, configuring discourse tasks, interactionally defining identities, and becoming competent members of the community or communities wherein they partake, whether as students, immigrants, professionals, or indeed any other locally relevant identities. Such participation gives rise to cognitive practices, forms of attention, and conjoined orientations that are embedded, publicly exhibited, and made recognizable in actual actions, and are socially mediated and collectively monitored through interaction. In this sense, Mondada and Doehler debate that cognition can be said to be socially situated in a twofold sense, in the sociocultural definition of the situation as well as in the local contingencies of everyday actions.

C. Second Language Conversations

Technically, Wagner and Gardner (2004) identify second language onversations as involving speakers whose first language is not the language of the talk that have become widespread in the globalized world. Such conversations may take place in a variety of situations in which people go about their daily routines in work and private life while interacting in a second language. The approach adopted by Wagner and Gardner (2004) assumes language to be embedded in the wider practices of verbal and non-verbal talk. It also assumes that talk is a collaborative construction created by all participants, at all times, so that neither language production nor reception, neither speaker nor listener are privileged in any analysis.

In the light of the foregoing, Wagner and Gardner (2004) debate that language serves as one vehicle for action, which is in turn an essentail element for the generation of the social world. As such, they place a primary focus on how participants manage to achieve successful outcomes in their interactions, rather than on the deficits they may have as non-native speakers. From their pespective, second language conversations should be conceived of in terms of normal conversations. This is not surprising when one takes into account that these second langauge speakers are not engaged in task completion exercises in the classroom or laboratory, but are engaged in everyday meaning creation and activities which mean something to them.

D. Task-oriented Conversations

Technically, Seedhouse (2004) adopts a critical perspective towards TBLT/SLA approaches and presents the argument that a number of problems have emanated from TBLT/SLA's current focus on the task-as-workplan. Seedhouse argues for the shift of attention to the task-in-process in the classroom inspired by the work of certain authors (e.g., Ellis 2001, cited in, Seedhouse, 2004). In this respect, he sketches certain characteristics of the task-oriented interaction as a variety of interaction and proposes to balance the rosy TBLT/SLA theoretical claims with the empirical evidence of certain less-than-rosy practical drawbacks.

From Seedhouse's (2004) point of view, the task-oriented interaction is identified in terms of a particular narrow and restricted variety of communication wherein the whole organization of the interaction is geared toward establishing a tight and exclusive focus on the accomplishment of the task. There are a multitude of different varieties of interaction in the world outside the L2 classroom, where there is certainly a lot more to communication than performing tasks. In the task-oriented context the pedagogical focus on the communicative and practical outcome of the activity and the turn taking system is reflexively related to the task-in-process and oriented to the successful accomplishment of the task. That is to say, the task-oriented interaction is by and large not relevant to the talk of topic or meaning; rather, the learners' focus is on the task.

According to Seedhouse (2004), there are various different sub-varieties of communication that can occur in the L2 classroom. Despite the seemingly impressive theoretical arguments put forward to promote TBL, it remains to be proven that the task-oriented interaction is more effective than other sub-varieties of the classroom interaction.

To shed more light on the matter, Taboada (2004) holds that the taxonomy of speech genres would contain the scheduling genre under a more general type of task-oriented conversations. In these, the participants come together to complete a task. That is, they enter into a process of collaboration. In Rich and Sidner's (1997, 117, cited in, Taboada, 2004, 34) term, it is "a process in which two or more participants coordinate their actions toward achieving shared goals."

Taboada (2004) brings to mind the imperative point that the defining characteristics of task-oriented dialogues are not collaboration and cooperation in and out of themselves. Rather, the most defining characteristic is grounded on the fact the goal is a practical one, which the speakers are committed to achieve. Other conversations have also goals; however, these might be of a less practical nature such as establishing rapport or maintaining social links. That is to say, conversational tasks are conducive to gain a communicative goal of a further practical nature.

Taboada (2004) muses that as the task-oriented conversation proceeds, the speakers are said to construct more common knowledge from the exchanged information. New information that is conveyed by one speaker is usually acknowledged as received by the other speaker, thus allowing them to enter the common ground. Grounding is conceived to be a collaborative process, namely the listener sends certain signals representing understanding, and the speaker cares for those signals. In case such a context of situation is not present she or he usually rephrases, repeats, or performs other comprehension checks. In view of this line of argument, the task-oriented conversation is considered as a collaborative process in which process is made only when the two participants share the same beliefs.

<div align="center">III. DRAMA AS A TASK-ORIENTED CONVERSATION</div>

To put it simply, Mehta, Dow, Mateas, and MacIntyre (2007) argue that an interactive drama is, in a sense, a pure hedonic experience, immersing the player in a dramatic social interaction without providing, as most games do, a clear player goal; that is to say, the player invents goals for herself/himself as the interaction with the characters unfolds. Interactive drama presents one of the most challenging applications of autonomous characters, requiring characters to simultaneously engage in moment-by-moment personality-rich physical behavior, exhibit conversational competencies, and participate in the dynamically developing story architecture. Successful future research in believable agents requires deploying such agents in completed dramas, evaluating the effectiveness of the agents in creating a compelling player experience and utilizing the results of the evaluation to guide future research.

As said by Mehta et al., (2007), conversation-centered interactive dramas, which put the player in rich social contexts of situation wherein the prime interaction is accomplished through conversations, proffer interesting evaluation challenges. In the first place, methodologies drawn upon to evaluate the task-based conversation systems are inappropriate, as they employ metrics based on efficiency and task accomplishment; players in interactive dramas do not merely complete tasks; rather, they are engaged in a dramatic experience. Second, as most interactive dramas to date have been small prototypes rather than fully-realized experiences, it has been difficult to develop evaluation methodologies. Finally, in an interactive drama, the success of a conversational turn hinges on whether and how the player is able to incorporate the conversational turn into his or her growing understanding of both the characters and the narrative situation. This inherently qualitative process resists simple approaches to quantifying the conversational turn success. It is worth mentioning that this dependence on player interpretation implies that system level technical failures such as misunderstood player input and/or the selection of incorrect responses, though helpful to know, do not necessarily cause a player-perceived conversational breakdown.

For Mehta et al., (2007), the design of the story itself, including the authoring of the conversational content, is instrumental in determining whether the player has a pleasant experience, and how and whether technical breakdowns impact this experience. Consequently, the effectiveness of technical and design techniques employed in the interactive drama needs to be related back to the player's perceptions during the interaction. Ideally, one wants a player-centric evaluation methodology that starts with the player's experience and analyzes how the technical and design approaches used in the system impact the experience, thus providing insights for creating more engaging player experiences in future systems.

A. Process Drama: A Tool for Classroom Conversations

From Wagner's (1990, cited in, Liu, 2002) point of view, the pragmatic use of language learned through Process Drama over a variety of activities, such as scenarios, improvisations, and meaning-negotiations practiced in the classroom prepares students for the better communication in the real life. Furthermore, through Process Drama, students from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds can build social skills and become more sensitive listeners and more apt and mature conversationalists. They also grow in their capacity to send and receive increasingly complex and mature verbal messages effectively, independently, creatively, and symbolically.

According to Evert (2008), through the use of drama as a teaching strategy the facilitator is said to implement certain activities, which would become a link between the learning outcomes, assessment standards, and the critical and developmental outcomes. It is through this strategy that one is likely to adopt a holistic approach rather than viewing the learning areas as non-related.

Evert (2008) believes that in order to achieve an integrated approach to teaching and learning, there needs to be a shared knowledge or certain guidelines for the facilitator. These rules are in addition to many others that are common knowledge to most facilitators. These guidelines act as a structure or compass that the facilitator can use to determine whether the learning activities will be beneficial to the learners and successful as a whole.

According to Byron (1986, p. 22, cited in, Evert, 2008, p. 14), the medium of drama and the drama as a teaching strategy as a whole has certain basic laws:

1. Drama explores human actions, attitudes, values, and relationships, through a shared fiction and by means of an agreement to pretend.

2. This fiction operates in the present tense, in now time, namely the participants including the class and teacher engage with the events of the drama as they are happening.

3. Drama is examined from a dual viewpoint, firstly from the viewpoint where participants become or represent the people in the drama and secondly from interactants' point of view, as people making and reflecting on the interaction, i.e., both as spectators and participants.

4. Drama is a teaching strategy wherein the primary medium of expression is the person. The learner's body and voice is the instrument. Practice and opportunity develop the control of this medium.

5. Dramas should occur in a safe environment. An established set of rules should determine the boundaries and ethos of the classroom. When the learners feel safety, they are more likely to express themselves in various ways.

B. Types of Drama in SLA Classrooms

According to Moody (2009), drama is a useful medium in the communicative language classroom where the focus is placed on the meaning of language rather than form. Activities come in various forms depending on purpose, curriculum, class size, or experience. Moody splits them roughly into two categories; work with text and work without text. Moody (2009) believes that the latter one in particular encourages learners to try to communicate using their own limited language resources. There is more freedom for students to create personal meaning from the activity. However, the advantage of working with a script is that it provides vocabulary and also helps students explore multiple viewpoints of the narrative.

C. The Role of Role Plays in the SLA Context

As Zafeiriadou (2009) puts it, drama in the L2 context can include dramatic play and improvisations, story enactment, imagination journeys, theatre games, etc. Because the emphasis in creative drama is process rather than product, teachers have the freedom to take as much time as needed with their classes.

According to Zafeiriadou (2009), during a fundamental technique of drama, role play participants empathize with a role either of a person or an object and experience new-fangled knowledge in three spatial dimensions, namely length, width, and height and three psychological dimensions, i.e., identification, internalization, and empathy. Additionally, three fundamental mental dimensions including representation, assimilation, and imagination; three social dimensions comprising of participating by taking on a role, interaction, and acceptance by others; and three personal dimensions identified as self-development, self-esteem, and self-actualization of role playing coalesce effectively to enable children to understand and to acquire the necessary skills to cope with the environment. All of these aspects are constructive in the process of language acquisition for the reason that they can make available a multidimensional base for stimulating and developing language.

D. Arguments for the Use of Drama in SLA Classrooms

For Zyoud (2010), drama is an engaging teaching strategy that props up cooperation, collaboration, self-control, goal-oriented learning as well as emotional intelligence skills. Drama bridges the gap between course-book dialogues and the natural usage and can also help to fill in a similar gap between the classroom and real life situations by providing insights into how to handle tricky situations. Drama strengthens the bond between thought and expression in language, affords practice of supra-segmental and para-language, and proffers good listening practice. If drama is considered as a teaching method in the sense of being part of the eclectic approach to language teaching, then it can become a focal support in the acquisition of the communicative competence. Drama activities facilitate the type of language behavior that should lead to fluency, and if it is accepted that the learners want to learn a language in order to make their identities understood in the target language, then drama does indeed further this end.

From the perspective of Zyoud (2010), one of the greatest advantages to be gained from the utilization of drama is that students become more confident in their use of English by experiencing the language in operation. Drama in the English language classroom is ultimately indispensable because it provides the learners with the opportunity to exploit their own personalities. It brings into play students' natural abilities to imitate and express themselves, and if well-handled should arouse interest and imagination. Drama encourages adaptability, fluency, and communicative competence. It puts language into context, and by giving learners experience of success in real-life situations it should arm them with confidence for tackling the world outside the classroom.

E. Tips for Facilitating Interactions through Conversations

To be precise, Gibson (2004) argues that EFL instructors teaching English conversation need to constantly remind themselves that their goal is to build up the conversation skills of their students. Large classroom settings are clearly not ideal for the teacher to facilitate such development. Nevertheless, it is important for teachers not to get discouraged by this. A full-fledged course design that allocates the students plenty of interaction in groups and pairs, homework activities that address the development of conversation skills, classroom activities and tests that are relevant to conversation development, and the discipline to be able keep to this course design week in and week out will bring about an English conversation course that lives up to its billing.

Technically, Gibson (2004) provides the EFL teachers with certain guidelines regarding the regulation of the conversational activities in the classroom settings, which are as follows:

1. During speaking activities the teachers are recommended be wary of the students who have memorized reading from notes. Legitimate questions concerning the message they are attempting to communicate should be asked. Probing for further information from the student is advisable, particularly if the teachers feel that the content has been memorized or is being read.

2. The teachers are advised to treat the conversation as an interaction with the student. If the instructors are not sure of the message that the student is trying to communicate, then they must negotiate the meaning with the student.

3. The teachers are required not to allow the students who visit their offices to take notes. The learners may refer to their notes before beginning the task; however, once the task has begun they are not permitted to draw on their notes. The teachers need to instruct the students to prepare well before engaging in the activity.

4. The instructors should encourage the students regardless of their communicative abilities. For example, the instructors can respond to all e-mails with a couple of lines to indicate that they are aware of the content of the message.

IV. CONCLUSION

   In due course, the present paper has made an attempt directed at scrutinizing a specific sub-variety of the classroom communication, namely the task-oriented conversations or dialogues. It is debated that the task-oriented conversations are distinguished from other types of conversational exchanges given that they require the interactants to achieve a communicative goal of a practical nature, which, according to Taboada (2004), amounts to the establishment of a common ground or a shared frame of reference by encouraging the learners to investigate the language through the meaningful interaction in, to fall back on Vygotsky's (1986, p. 99) terminology, a "non-threatening environment." It has been also the aim to take account of the genre of the interactive Process Drama as a tool for the accomplishment of such task types in the SLA classroom.

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Multiple Theme in English and Persian

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Abstract—The present paper addressed thematicity in academic texts between English and Persian aiming to see how Persian translators tackle thematic structure especially multiple theme and its subtypes, textual and interpersonal themes, and what may happen to these features when a text goes through a translation process. Unfortunately, few studies have been done in the area of how thematic structure is appeared in different languages. The gap is felt more when it comes to the comparison between English and Persian. Therefore, following Halliday's (1994) taxonomy, this study tried to investigate and compare these cohesive devices used in English and Persian academic texts. To this end, the first three pages of the first chapters of 8 English books in the field of teaching and their translation versions were selected. Results indicated that there were significant differences between the languages in focus regarding multiple theme.

Index Terms—thematic structures, thematic organization, multiple theme, translation

I. INTRODUCTION

While explaining something to another person, whether in speech or writing, we try to organize what we say in a way that makes it easier for the reader to understand (Bloor and Bloor, 1995). The structuring of language as a message is realized in the thematic structures of the consistuent clauses of a text. Theme/rheme play a major role in organizing the message and in enabling it to be communicated and understood clearly (Halliday, 1994). As Ventola (1995) states, there is no question about the usefulness of these analytical devices-thematic structures. This area is a fruitful one if investigated extensively (p 85). She also points out that "what is needed by is a more thorough investigation of the theme/rheme issues and the role they play in creating textuality and cohesion in texts" (p. 102).

Taking the importance of thematic structures in creating a more cohesive text into account, it requires shedding more light on the role of thematicity, but in translation. This means that to see what happens to the theme types and how they are tackled by translators when the text goes through a translation process. Making any unmotivated and unreasonable change into them may cause difficulties in conveying the intended meaning of source text's author and then getting readers into great troubles since thematic structures and progression may be quite different among various languages. In this line, Baker (1992 as cited in Munday, 2001) asserts that thematic structures are realized differently in different languages (p. 97).

Fries (1995) also states that systemic theory predicts that every language will have some grammatical function which serves to mark the point of departure for the clause (or other grammatical units) as message. Moreover, one would predict that although there will be a general similarity across languages in the functions of thematic material, the specific uses to which that material is put in the various languages of the world will differ (p. 1).

Ventola (1995) mentions that the translation choices by translator do not follow and display the same rhetorical principles and effects as the author's original text. The translator changes the thematic structure of the clauses. Consequently, he/she will succeed, to some extent, in displaying the unfolding of the global structure of the text in the translated version (p. 98).

The notion of thematicity has been discussed widely in linguistic literature, especially within Prague School of linguistics and systemic-functional theory. Various scholars have in recent years contributed to the study of textuality of texts by analyzing their theme, thematic structure, and thematic progression in text across different languages (Belmonte & McCabe, 2001; Green, Christopher, and Mei, 2000; Hasselgard, 2004; Khedri, 2008; Khedri & Ebrahimi, 2012; McCabe, 1999; Ventola, 1995; Williams; 2005) to find out how academic texts unfold thematically.

Ventola (1995) carried out a study in which she compared the role of thematic structure in German philosophy texts produced by German authors and their parallel texts in English, their translation. McCabe (1999) compared the thematic patterning in both English and Spanish history textbooks. She analyzed the ideational, textual, and interpersonal themes in both corpora and concluded that the similarity in content, purpose and audience results in texts which show similarities in textual features. Hasselgard (2004) worked on thematic structures in 1200 sentences in English and their translation in Norwegian. She found that there were significant differences between these two languages regarding the grammatical structure of sentence openings. Williams (2005) performed the analysis of thematic items referring to

research and researchers in the discussion section of Spanish biomedical articles and English-Spanish translation. And applying Halliday's (1994) thematic organization and McCabe's (1999) thematic progression, Khedri (2008) scrutinized thematic development and progression in English academic texts and their translations in Persian.

Even though many studies have been done on the role and function of thematic structures in translation, work on the status of theme between/among different languages is still extremely low. The gap is felt more when this scarcity comes to the status of theme in English and Persian languages. As pointed out by Ventola (1995), an area that is relatively unexplored is what happens to the texts' thematic organization and their thematic progression when the text goes through a translation process (p. 85). Therefore, this paper was put forward to scrutinize multiple theme, as an essential theme from the cohesion perspective (Hasselgard, 2000), in English academic texts and their counterparts in Persian. The reason behind putting multiple theme in focus are threefold: 1) it may contain several cohesive elements at the same time as it signals the thematic perspective of the sentence in producing cohesive text (Hasselgard, 2000), 2) it overlaps with thematic progression in so far as it frequently links a clause to the proceeding clause (Hawes & Thomas, 1997) and 3) it is a useful guide to the rhetorical path that the writer is following (Bloor & Bloor, 1995).

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Unit of Analysis

Different researchers have selected different grammatical units to study theme, according to their purposes. For Halliday, the basic unit for thematic analysis is the clause, for Whittaker, orthographic sentences, for McCabe, independent conjoinable clause complex or T-unit. For the purpose of this research, T-unit was adopted as the unit of analysis. Fries (1994) defined T-unit as "an independent clause together with all hypotactically related clauses which are dependent on it" (p. 229). The rationale behind this selection was that:

"Analyzing theme at the level of t-unit rather than the individual clause makes it easier to focus on patterns of thematic development in large amounts of text, and can also be justified on the grounds that the thematic structure of a dependent clause is often constrained by the independent clause. (Fries & Francis, 1992 as cited in North, 2005)."

B. Text Selection

The corpus used in this study limited to sample academic texts that were selected from the first three pages of the first chapters of 8 books in the field of teaching (4 in English and 4 in Persian). The selection was done with the aim of building a corpus representative of those books taught in the Iranian universities at BA and MA levels and translated into Persian. The corpus was divided into two subcorpora: sample academic texts in English and sample academic texts in Persian. The Persian texts were the translated versions of the same English texts. The obtained corpus contained 11606 words (5682 for English and 5924 for Persian). There were some reasons behind this selection. The first reason was that the first chapter of a book is usually its point of departure. The second one was to maintain the consistency of thematic progression among paragraphs in each text and avoid invalid judgment of thematicity. The third reason was that the texts chosen represented a variety of authors and translators. And the last one was, it appeared that this quantity was enough to allow the researcher to arrive at valid generalizations.

C. Instruments

In order to achieve a well-organized study, complete model is required for analyzing the data. The theoretical and analytical framework for this study in terms of thematic organization was one suggested by Halliday (1994). The major rationale behind the selection of the selected model was twofold: 1) as Martinez (2003, p. 108) mentions, the model in focus provides plausible and attestable mechanisms for determining the thematic structures of the texts correctly; 2) It is practical, reliable, and up-to-date model. Most of the studies that have been done in terms of thematic analysis have resorted to this model.

D. Procedure

The procedure applied in this study was firstly, the selection of sample texts from the first three pages of the first chapters of 8 books in the field of teaching. These sample texts were in English and their translations in Persian. Secondly, the texts, both original and translated versions, were compared and contrasted according to the above mentioned model to determine their multiple theme and its subthemes. Thirdly, the relationship between thematic organization (in this study, textual, interpersonal, and multiple themes) of the selected academic texts was investigated. Finally, the data was analyzed to scrutinize the similarities and differences that would exist in English and Persian languages concerning the above mentioned theme types. One problem with textual analysis of texts is that there is always the danger of making mistakes in interpretation. To avoid the threat of reliability in the analysis, the first three pages of one book in both languages from the corpus were also analyzed by an experienced researcher in the field of teaching and agreement was made on the method of analysis.

E. Data Analysis

To analyze the texts in the present study quantitatively, the frequency of different theme types (textual, interpersonal, and multiple) was calculated. Next, Chi-square as a significance test was employed to compare and contrast the

obtained frequencies to see the statistically significant differences. In sum, the data were analyzed using the statistics software SPSS (Statistics Package for Social Sciences).

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Multiple theme consists of textual or interpersonal or both beside the topical theme (Halliday, 1994). Concerning multiple themes, the frequency and percentage of textual and interpersonal theme types were calculated and displayed in table 1.

TABLE1.
FREQUENCY ANALYSIS AND PERCENTAGE OF TEXTUAL AND INTERPERSONAL THEMES

	English (%)	Persian (%)
Textual	45 (16.18)	91 (29.16)
Interpersonal	12 (4.32)	12 (3.84)

As it is quite clear, textual theme was applied in both corpora more than interpersonal theme. This is in line with Ghadessy's (1995; 1999), North's (2005), and Whittaker's (1995) results. Whittaker (1995) points out that this result is not surprising because scientific text tends to be impersonal and objective; moreover, the purpose of its writer is to persuade reader to read it (p. 109). She also argues that textual themes help the reader follow the organization of the argument of the text (p. 113), hence their greater inclusion.

Interestingly, the number of textual theme used in Persian translated texts was twice more than that applied in English original texts totaling 29.16% and 16.18% in respective languages. This means the greater tendency of translators in the application of textual theme resulting in the argumentative, impersonal, and factual tone of texts in Persian compared to that in English employing plenty of conjunctions and conjunctives functioning as textual theme to link each clause to the surrounding text and context (McCabe, 1999). The greater reliance of Persian translators, at least in the present research, made their translations be persuasive for the readers to follow the flow of information in a smoother way (Ghadessy, 1999). This result seemed to be in contrast to McCabe's (1999) results. She found the identically total number of textual themes in her corpus, English and Spanish history texts, 23.40% textual theme in English and 23.91% in Spanish.

Regarding interpersonal theme, as shown in table 1, this sort of theme was used with an identical number in both text types. It is worthy to point out that this similarity can be justified in terms of genre. To Halliday and Hasan (1985), texts belonging to the same genre represent a similar contextual configuration, that is, they show common characteristics in terms of field, mode, and tenor of discourse. Similarities in field, tenor, and mode engender similarities in textual choices and are reflected in the thematic choices preferred since the field, tenor, and mode can be realized in topical, interpersonal, and textual themes respectively. Therefore, theme as one of the textual choices provides interesting insight into establishing similarities within and between genre(s). This is in line with studies conducted by such researchers as Ghadessy (1995, 1999), North (2005), and Whittakar (1995). In their own words, different types of theme can reveal crucial characteristics of the texts regarding genre**.**

The frequency and percentage of different kinds of textual and interpersonal themes were clarified and compared in both English and Persian languages. Textual theme was analyzed in term of its theme types (conjunction, conjunctive adjunct, and continuative) and the results of the frequency and Chi-square analyses are illustrated in tables 2 and 3.

The data analysis illustrated that textual theme types with the exception of continuative that not used at all in both corpora, conjunction was employed more than two times in Persian in expense to English (71 cases and 33 cases in respective languages) and conjunctive adjunct was applied roughly two times by Persian translators compared to English authors totaling 20 tokens and 12 tokens respectively. Amongst all textual theme types, the most frequently used element was conjunction. The result agreed with McCabe's (1999), North's (2005), and Whittaker's (1995) findings. McCabe (1999) found that the most frequent type of textual theme used in English history textbooks was conjunction. Halliday (1994) states that conjuction is an item which relates a clause to the preceding clause in the same sentence or the same clause complex while conjunctive adjunct is that which relates a clause to the preceding text. Conjunction is similar in meaning to conjunctive adjunct but they differ in that, while conjunctive adjunct sets up a semantic relationship with what precedes, conjunction sets up a relationship which is semantic and grammatical simultaneously. It constructs the two parts into a single unit. So, it seems that this kind of textual theme is more important in comprehending and creating cohesive texts. Therefore, texts in Persian appeared to be more cohesive resulting from the over-use of conjunction. Concerning continuative, it was neglected in both text types. Such an event can be explained and justified regarding Halliday's (1994) definition. He contends that "continuative is a discourse signaler that shows a new move is beginning in the dialogue or a move to the next point if the same speaker is continuing". Thus, continuative is generally signaler of spoken discourse rather than written discourse.

In addition, the results of Chi-square analysis, as indicated in table 3, revealed that there was statistically significant difference between source texts and target texts only in terms of conjunction. This results in producing more cohesive translated texts in Persian.

TABLE 2.
FREQUENCY ANALYSIS AND PERCENTAGE OF TEXTUAL THEME TYPES

| | English | Persian | |
	F (%)	F (%)	Total
Conjunction	33 (31.73)	71 (68.27)	104
Conjunctive	12 (37.50)	20 (62.50)	32
Continuative	0	0	0
Total	45	91	136

TABLE 3.
CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF TEXTUAL THEME TYPES

	English	Persian	Chi-square	Df	Sig
Conjunction	33	71	13.885	1	0.0002
Conjunctive Adjunct	12	20	2.000	1	0.1573
Continuative	0	0	*	*	*

Tables 4 and 5 present the frequency and Chi-square analyses of different kinds of interpersonal theme used by authors and translators respectively. While the most frequent type of interpersonal theme in translated texts was modal adjunct, finite operator was applied more by authors in English texts. Finite operator occurred in a very low proportion and let's was quite neglected compared to modal adjuncts. To Halliday (1994), "modal adjunct expresses the speakers' judgment regarding the relevance of the message". The modal adjunct's high frequency in the corpus was in line with findings gained in McCabe's (1999) study. She found the relative similarity overall across Spanish and English languages, 39 cases or 2.67% and 40 cases or 3.09% of modal adjuncts in English and Spanish texts respectively. Following Halliday (1994), finite operator makes the proposition finite and brings it down to earth as it is something that can be argued and make it arguable so it can be concluded that translated texts in Persian were more argumentative in contrast to the original texts in English.

To the results taken from the Chi-square analysis, there was no significant difference between both text types in light of applying interpersonal theme types except in finite operators.

TABLE 4.
FREQUENCY ANALYSIS AND PERCENTAGE OF INTERPERSONAL THEME TYPES

| | English | Persian | |
	F (%)	F (%)	Total
Modal	4 (26.66)	11 (73.34)	15
Finite	8 (88.88)	1 (11.12)	9
Let's	0	0	0
Total	12	12	24

TABLE5.
CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF INTERPERSONAL THEME TYPES

	English	Persian	Chi-square	Df	Sig
Modal	4	11	3.267	1	0.0707
Finite	8	1	5.444	1	0.0196
Let's	0	0	*	*	*

In case of multiple theme, the data were analyzed and compared in both corpora. As results showed, multiple theme was more frequent in translated texts than in original texts. 87 (27.89%) in Persian and 52 (18.71%) in English. The most frequent type of multiple themes in both text types was textual ^ topical (75 cases or 86.20% in Persian and 40 cases or 76.92% in English). Though in both corpora this pattern was employed frequently, Persian was in a higher position. This is similar to Gomez's (1994) findings. She found that this pattern which represented 68% of all multiples was the most common of all. Interestingly, though not found in English original texts, 9 cases or 12% from 75 cases of the type textual ^ topical multiple themes in Persian contained more than one textual theme (e.g. textual ^ textual ^ topical, or textual ^ textual ^ textual ^ topical).

TABLE 6.
FREQUENCY ANALYSIS AND PERCENTAGE OF MULTIPLE THEME TYPES

| | English | Persian |
	F (%)	F (%)
Textual ^ topical	40 (76.92)	75 (86.20)
Inter ^ topical	7 (13.46)	6 (6.89)
Textual ^ inter ^ topical	5 (9.62)	5 (5.74)
Inter ^ textual ^ topical	0	1 (1.17)
Total	52 (18.71)	87 (27.89)

IV. CONCLUDING REMARKS AND IMPLICATIONS

Ventola (1995) contends that sometimes readers may find texts fuzzy since they consider some odd thematic

structures that are not typical of the target language. The fault in these texts is very often placed on the author's failures of argumentation and rhetorical skills; it is presumed that the author's logic is not functioning well and his/her argumentation and rhetorics are seen to fail. But often the original argumentation is clear and well-structured rhetorically in the source text; it is the translation that fails and distorts the argumentative and rhetorical patterns (p. 91).

Bearing such a problem in mind, this study was an attempt to investigate the status of multiple theme as a theme type in English academic texts and their translation in Persian. The main concluding remarks taken from the data analysis, both frequency and Chi-square, are as follows that may have some implications for translation:

1) Focus on theme and rheme structure especially multiple theme at the level of clause can have startling and immediate results in translation. Once the translators know how to properly arrange old and new information, they have gained a powerful tool for managing the original meaning of the text intended by the author. They can consciously and strategically draw on this knowledge to construct more cohesive translated texts.

2) Multiple theme is a highly effective and valuable feature in text cohesion. It enhances connectivity between ideas in the text. The results suggested that our understanding of how texts are created and interpreted would be much poorer without the concept of multiple theme. In translated text, multiple theme plays a key role in guiding the reader through the logical paths constructed by the translator since as results revealed both textual and interpersonal themes were employed in a higher proportion in the translated texts in comparison with those applied in the original versions.

In sum, this study has theoretical and pedagogical implications. From theoretical viewpoint, this study shed light on the status of multiple theme and its subtypes, textual and interpersonal themes, in both Persian and English languages which could be eventually useful in understanding the thematic structure of human language. From educational perspective, translators and those who are interested in translation profession can apply the findings of this study in translating any text type from English to Persian. Being conscious of grammatical structure of each language at least at the level of thematization especially multiple theme can be a useful device for conveying the intended message uttered by source texts' writers. All in all, doing so may lead to creating smoother translated texts and also may help the reader to follow the flow of information in a clear way.

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Kagan Cooperative Learning Model: The Bridge to Foreign Language Learning in the Third Millennium

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Abstract—**Cooperative learning has been a popular topic in educational circles for more than a decade. Researchers and practitioners have found that learners working in small cooperative groups can develop the type of intellectual exchange that fosters creative thinking and productive problem –solving. One of the best models of cooperative learning, it is kagan cooperative learning. The expended use of Kagan's cooperative learning structures could bring about increased language achievement .increased use of Kagan's cooperative learning structures may bring about outcomes including greater employability, social skills and language skills in order to prepare students (learners) for real world situation. The authors try to introduce this model to the world of language learning.**

Index Terms—**kagan, cooperative learning, structure, inside –outside circle**

I. INTRODUCTION

Teachers need to help students make connection between foreign language abstracts concepts and language concrete concepts .the days of teachers standing in front of class, lecture for 60 minutes and then assigning a text in the language book are no longer effective for today's students. The traditional mode of organization is a teacher –centered one with native speakers sitting in rows facing the teacher. The students spend most of their time repeating and manipulating models provide by teacher, the text book and the tape and develop skills in choral speaking and repeating. Change is necessary in order for students to become creative students in the learning language.

Sewell (2002) stated "learning is active process that allows students the opportunity to construct understanding through empirical investigation and group interaction " .(p 6)

Slavin (2000) stated " cooperative learning is one of greatest success stories in the history of educational innovation .Almost unknown in the mid-1970's cooperative learning strategies are now so commonplace that they are often seen as a standard part of educational practice, not as an innovation".

Kagan (2001) placed cooperative learning among"strongest of all methods for increasing student achievement .He insisted "students learn best when day can encourage and tutor each other". (p31)

Slavin (1996) listed over 90experimental studies. He concluded that the reason cooperative learning succeeds as an educational methodology is its use of convergent tasks: group goals based on individual responsibility of all group members leads to increased learning achievement, regardless of subjects or proficiency level of students involved (see figure 1)
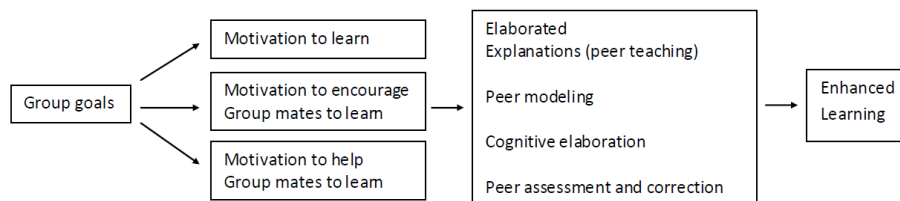
(Based on slavin 1996, p 78)

Rationale for cooperative learning in FL (foreign language)

Recent research and experience in language classroom have established the benefit of small- group activity in expanding student exposure to a new language and in providing many more opportunities to practice language naturally than are available.

In traditional whole- group instruction. Students (learners) participation in pair and small-group work following cooperative methods facilities second language acquisition along with the subject matter mastery. For these reason, educators concerned building students second language skills would benefit from learning about cooperative learning techniques.

Kagan cooperative learning model

Kagan (2010) defined cooperative learning as "a teaching arrangement that refers to small, heterogeneous groups of students working together to achieve a t common goal students work together to learn and are responsible for the teammate's learning as well as their own" (p.85). the kagan model of cooperative learning, based on the concept and use of "structures" is an innovate approach to classrooms instructions .these structures such as "numbered heads together "

"Quiz Quiz trade" and "rally coach" create greater student motivation higher student achievement and effective classroom management. The primary goal is communication about important and personal themes; the participation of foreign language students in traditional sequential class activities is inadequate. When students are given a variety of opportunities to practice listening and speaking with others can they develop mastery with communication. In a foreign language class,

More than in other classes, the true nature of the language arts became clear. Listening, speaking, reading and writing are developmental skills that are naturally mastered in sequence. language learners understand more of what is said to them than they can say in return ,and can read with comprehension more than they can write. Writing correctly demonstrates achievement of mastery with the principles of grammar, vocabulary and mechanics of language. Because exposure, practice and feedback provide the experiences that increase these skills, then the structural Approach to cooperative learning fosters language acquisition. The structures create additional students involvement and the optional for mastery.

What is structure?

Kagan has two definitions for structure:

A) Organizes classroom instruction. A structure is an instructional strategy that describes how the teachers and students interact with the curriculum.

B) is content – free and repeatable. Structures are used to explore the curriculum, But are not tied to any specific curriculum. They can be used repeatedly with different curriculum, creating new learning experiences.

There are 150 kagan structures. Structures have different functions. Some are designed to produce master of high consensus content, other to produce thinking skills and yet others foster communication skills.

Structures not lessons. The use of kagan structures is very much in contrast to other approaches to cooperative learning .the most important difference is that other approaches are lesson based. That is they ask teachers to plan cooperative lessons.

With the kagan approach rather than planning cooperative learning lessons we make cooperative learning part of any lesson by including structures. The structures can be inserted at any point in any lessons to create greater engagement and learning for all students.

This model has four basic elements.

The four basic elements are:

1) *Positive interdependence* occurs when gains of individual or teams are positively correlated.

2) *Individual accountability* is observed when all students in a group of held accountable for doing a share of the work and for mastery of the material to be learned.

3) Equal participation is noticed when each member of group is afforded equal shares of responsibility.

4) *Simulations interaction* is allowed when class time is designed to allow many student interactions during the period .these elements have come to be known as the basic principle of "P.I.E.S"

Why are structures important?

Structures control our behavior to a great extent, and different structures elicit different forms of behavior such as active /passive and social /asocial behavior.

Far too much of what goes on in schools; according to kagan is training in asocial behavior via competitive situations. One person wins if the others lose. The class conversation, for example, is a competitive structure: it encourages students to complete against each others for the teacher's attention and permission to answer. Only the strongest have a chance here ، which is why many opt out. Somewhat simplistically، one could say that the structure encourages asocial behavior and passivity. Interaction in pairs, on the other hand, we normally be a cooperative structure. It is hard to be passive in a situation where the tax is, for example, to interview each others in pairs. Cooperation and social behavior arise naturally here. But why so many structures? Because the aims of one's teaching can vary. If the aim is to acquire concrete knowledge one needs different structures than if the aim is to train communication skills or thinking skills .for this reason kagan categories structures according to the overall purpose (s) they serve best ، there by making it easier to choose the structure that is relevant, both in relation to the nature and amount of the material that is to be worked on and the teaching goal that has been set. The following domains of usefulness for the structures are used:

Team building

Class building

Thinking skills
Information sharing
Communication skills
Mastery

The overall categories refer to the overall learning goals which the individual structures are best able to promote, without excluding the possibility that one has positive spin-off at the same time. Kagan's categorization actually shows that many of the structures are equally good at promoting various different overall aims: Round Robin, for example, is grouped as a team-building, mastery and information-sharing structure.

The aim of these overall categories is to ensure that the teacher chooses a structure that is in line with his overall objective; just as suitable as the structures are to serve the aims for which they were created can they be unsuitable in relation to other objectives. If, for example, one wishes the students to acquire some concrete material, one should not choose a communication-skills structure such as Talking Chips (the storming (the aim of which is to generate new ideas) but a mastery structure such as Expert-Jigsaw, the aim of which is to become an 'expert' in certain material in order to explain it subsequently to others.

Advantage of kagan structures for language learners

Besides implementing for the PIES principles, structures have number of advantages, including:

* *greater comprehensible input*. Students adjust their speech to the level of their partner because they are working together.

Natural context. Language is used in real-life, functional interaction, reducing problems of transference.

* *Negotiation of meaning. Students have the opportunity to adjust their language output to make sure they understand each other.*

* *Lowered affective filter*. Whereas it is frightening to speak out in front of the class, it is easy for students to talk with supportive teammate

* *Peer support*. Students encourage and support each other in language use

* *Enhanced motivation*. Because the structures are engaging interaction sequence and students need to understand each other there is high motivation to speak and listen for understanding.

* *Greater language use*. Using a pair structure such as Timed Pair Share, it takes but two minutes to give every student in the class a full minute of language output opportunity.

Some of the benefits of cooperative learning based on Kagan model

* *social skills*. In cooperative learning increases a long list of social skills, including listening, taking turns, speaking، conflict resolution skills, leadership skills, and teamwork skills. Students coming from cooperative learning classrooms are more polite and considerate of others. They can make team learning in language learning and they say their ideas and attitudes to second language.

* *Class Climate*. Cooperative learning leads to increased liking for school, language class, academic content and the teacher.

* *Diversity skills*. As a result of working in heterogeneous cooperative teams, students learn to understand and work with others who differ from themselves. These skills are essential for the 21st century as we are becoming more and more diverse.

Memory systems and kagan cooperative learning

The ability to remember – whether it be facts, skills, new words or grammar rules – is essential for classroom success. Kagan introduces five *major memory systems* (figure. 1). Each memory system is a passport to a different type of academic success. All schooling is the process of creating memories in the minds of the learners. Can we truly say students learned a new word or grammar if they are unable to recall it?

Perhaps it was taught, but until it is in memory, it is not learned. What practical importance does education hold if students are unable to remember what they learned? Memory is learning.

1. *five major memory systems (SPEWS)*

Semantic: (fact memory)

Semantic memory is "fact" memory academic content knowledge such as ideas, words, answers and grammatical rules. Semantics memories are created through repeated practice. Students can quickly recall that two times two is four, the definition of a word or the dates of an event in history. Students may not know how or when they acquired the information, they gust know. It can take many, many repetitions to lay down long-term semantics memories. In fact, semantic memory is our weakest and most recently evolved memory system. Semantic memory is for information we have over –learned – content we have learned so well we just know it.

Procedural: (skill memory)

Procedural memory is "skill" memory. It is our "how to" memory system. This memory system is sometimes called the "motor memory" or "muscle memory"

Because often it involves physical activity such as riding a bike or driving a car.

Procedural memory is also referred to as "tacit knowledge" or "implicit knowledge" Because often it can be expressed only by performing the specific skill and people often have problem verbalizing procedural memories. We acquire procedural memories by doing. We remember how to perform the skill unconsciously. For example, learning to

ride a bike was difficult; it involved learning to simultaneously balance, pedal and steer. But with practice, it becomes so automatic we move on to doing wheelies, jumping .the same is true for classroom procedural memories. Words and verbal skills require repeated practice but eventually become automatic.

Episode (episode memory)

Episode memory is "episode" memory. Episode memory is not produced by repetition. Episode that occurred for one time in one place. without difficulty, we remember what we had for dinner or what we did yesterday. we store episode in long term memory if they are rich in sensory input ,stir our emotions ,or relate to prior experiences. Whether we won the spelling bee or broke an arm on the play ground these autobiographical events matter to us and are likely to be retained for years .although episodes are one –time events, frequent recall of episode enhance probability of future. Students relive event (for example a short story) in their minds by discussing, drawing, visualizing.

Working: (thinking memory)

Working memory is dubbed the "thinking" memory because it is inextricable from thinking .it is the short – term memory system where we hold the things that are at the forefront of our minds, literary. The more things in working memory, the lower its capacity to hold additional information and the less capable students are of new learning .this system allows students to talk through problems to themselves, and with partners and teammate. Verbalizing their thinking keeps students focused and provides auditory and social stimuli, two additional channels to make the content memorable. Enhancing student׳s working memory builds better thinkers and language learners.

Spatial (map memory)

Spatial memory is our "map memory" it includes our mental maps of where physical objects are located in our environment and how we know how to get from place to place. students can remember what category an object belongs to based on where it is written on the page for example when studying nouns and verbs , a student can list nouns on the left side and verbs on the right .mapping out the content is key to engaging spatial memory.

(Kagan 2005, smart card, kagan publishing)
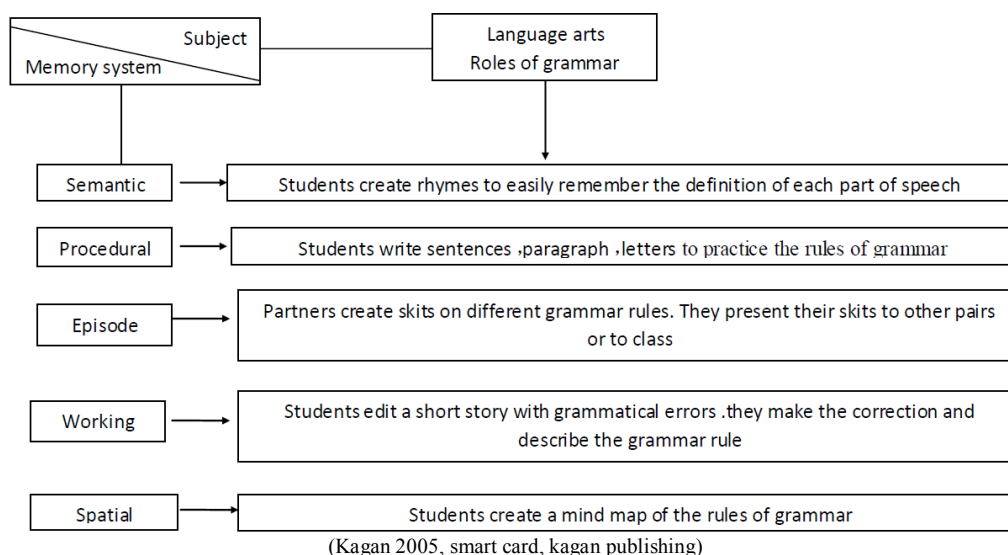
The five levels of language acquisition

a) Pre –production

b) Early production

c) Speech mergence

d) Intermediate fluency

e) Fluency

In a typical class room, there are students at several stages of language acquisition.

Even a group of students who arrive in the country and begin school on the same day will have acquired vastly different capabilities in the target language within a few weeks.

Kagan structures possess a unique capacity: they can be adapted to accommodate full inclusion of language learners at all acquisition stages at once .the same structure can involve limited as well as fluent speakers so that language practice and cogent mastery are combined. There is wide range of structures that can be used at each of levels of language production and many structures accommodate many levels simultaneously.

Pre-production. For students at the pre- productive language acquisition level there are structures that allow kinesthetic responses so students can engage in and demonstrate the full range of thinking skills: knowledge, comprehension, analysis,Application, synthesis and evaluation. In the classrooms where students exhibit A range of language acquisition stages, use of structures like line-ups, mix-freeze- group, similarity groups and corners offer all students the chance to participate equally. Similarly, kinesthetic response modes can be easily integrated into structures such as round table, rally table and others so students can demonstrate concepts through manipulative or drawing.

Early production. Students at early production stage benefit from choral response modes and gambit development that are associated with many kagan structures. Praising, asking critical questions and responding input from teammate or partners is integrated with the steps of many structures such as Time – paired share ,Fan – n – pick and find – someone – who . Using the musical intelligence to increase retention, poems for two voices, songs for two voices and reading boards involve the entire class in reading and reciting essential language.

Speech Emergence. At the speech emergence stage all kagan structures provide Appropriate language production opportunities. Because students at this stage are making errors and do not have large vocabulary, structures that accommodate brief responses fully include all students. Rally robin, numbered head together, show down, match mine, spin – n – review are examples of structures that are excellent for use at this stage with no accommodations required.

Intermediate fluency and fluency. All kagan structures are fully appropriate for Students at intermediate fluency and fluency. Talking chips, timed pair share, spin – n – think, one stray all structure extended language production opportunities.

What may be even more important than the opportunities for language acquisition in kagan structures in their focus on higher – level thinking and cognitive development?

Through full inclusion in classroom activities that require understanding concepts And applying new knowledge, language learners have full access to curriculum. Language proficiency truly can be acquired simultaneously with content mastery and achievement of challenging performance standards through kagan structures.

Coopertive learning and the language acquisition revolution

We are undergoing transformation in how we teach our student s a second language. The traditional methods failed. Yes, we got students to memorize vocabulary words and conjunctions and to give them back successfully on a weekly test. But no, we never produced fluency in the target language. Why not? Because memorizing concoctions and grammar structures produced at the best some knowledge about a language. *Knowledge about language* is very different from *acquiring the language.*

Why kagan cooperative learning fosters acquisition?

When we are implementing cooperative learning activities according kagan approach, we are putting into 4 principles of language acquisition:

1. Maximizing language output:

The simultaneity principle

We learn to speak by speaking. Students learn to speak in proportion to the extent to which they actually speak target language. And cooperative learning by implementing the simultaneity principle, maximize student language production.

In fact, the structure of the traditional classroom is exquisitely designed to prevent language learning. In cooperative learning we discard sequential structures for simultaneous structures. Rather than calling on the students to participate one –at – time ,we direct them to talk to each other in pairs, all students at once .the interaction is simultaneous, occurring all over the room.

2. Moving towards meaning:

The communicative Approach

When students answer a question posed by the teacher they are they are engaging in *display behavior.* They are showing off what they know, speaking to be evaluated. when students are sharing with each other what they did over the weekend they are engaging in communicative behavior .during communities behavior, words are produced not as an end in themselves, but as a means towards accomplishing a goal, communicating meaning .the student in the act of commutating is not offering him/herself up as an object be evaluated .in fact, during true commutation, the student forgets him/herself .the focus is on transferring meaning. When words are the means not the ends, words flow. Fluency in a language occurs when the language is used as a vehicle for communication. Fluency in a language is partially a function of opportunity to speak. it is also partially

A function of willingness to speak is determined by a simple formula:

(Willingness = attraction – fear)

3. Langauge learning and gambit development

The most important aspect of this structured natural approach for language acquisition is gambit development: students learn what to say and what to do, to work well together. For example, if a Joe begins to dominate a group, the other students learn verbal gambit like "Susan, I would like to hear you ideas on that".

Or "does anyone else on the team have anything to add?" Instead of put –downs, The students learn praising gambits such as, "great idea!" and you "certainly got that one right"

4. Peer pulling language

Language production is a push and pulls process. When I need to buy something, Share a feeling with a friend, or plan a trip with the family, language production

Is primarily a push process. That is, energy to express myself builds up, tending to push language out. On the other hand, when I am asked the time of day, or what I feel about war in Iraq, or possible topics for our team presentation, language production is primarily a pull process. That is, others around me are pulling language out. There are many a number of other ways in which peers facilities language acquisition : they provide a missing word or phrase ,they model

words and phrases which might have not otherwise be heard, and they adjust their level of language difficulty in order to be understood by their teammates , providing

Comprehensible input. With regard to this last point, the cooperative learning team can do something a teacher cannot .as teachers, we often face a dilemma:

When speaking with whole class, if we speak at a level of difficulty easy enough For the whole class to understand, we fail to provide adequate stimulation for the highest achieving students; on the other hand, if we speak to stimulate our highest students, we lose the lowest students. We cannot provide optimal language experiences for all students at once. Within a pair or team, however, the dilemma is reduced: students can adjust their level of language difficulty to make input more comprehensible for their teammates.

II. SOME OF THE SELECTED STRUCTURE

Juli (2010) explained kagan structures completely. In this here, we will describe some of them:

A. Inside –outside Circle

Half of the students in the class form a circle, shoulder to shoulder, facing outward. The other students each stand facing one person in the circle .the pairs briefly exchange greeting, interview each other, or review a few words or grammar items. at the teachers signal the students stop talking . The teacher gives instructions for their inside or outside circle to rotate to the left or right past a specific number of students before forming new pairs.

The repetition of word and grammatical structures in the target language with various other students provide a unique opportunity for students to rehearse and Master new information.

B. Round Table

In this structure, we have two steps:

Step1: the problem

The teacher asks a question with many possible answers, such as name all the sports you can or list any items you can identify in the classroom.

Step 2: students contribute

Teams have one piece of paper and one pen or pencil that rotate around team. Each student writes one answer on the list and passes the pen and paper .if any student is having difficulty thinking of what to write, the teammates can make suggestions.

Roundtable:

Alphabetical parts of speech lend themselves to the pace of the Round table format. Team round table nouns, verbs or verbs beginning with each letter of the alphabet or start with a different letter than "A".

C. Story Scramble

Teacher selects a story appropriate to the proficiency level of students. He /she cuts up a copy for each team into 4 strips. Teacher mixes up the strips and place them in an envelop. Team members each take one strip out of the envelop at a time and read it to the team .the teams then decide the sequence of the parts in the story. To increase the difficulty of the activity, select a longer story and cut the story into 8 or 12 strips, or choose a story in which the order of events could vary without changing the outcome. Each team member can read his or her part of the story as a team presentation.

III. CONCLUSION

Kagan cooperative learning structures enable students to work as teams, partner, classmate .these structures empower learners to work to together for learning language .By participating in kagan cooperative learning structures students (learners) are not frustrated alone, they are supported by each other .the students learn multiple ways to solve language problem and learn to tackle a language challenge as a group. These structures prepare happy place for learners and students so they don't feel tired. And they learn language concepts deeply.

Any teacher can easily learn some simple structures and be confident he/she implementing good cooperative learning. Students become skilled with others they can express their ideas, attitudes and feelings. Cooperative learning based on kagan model prepares a happy place .Learners learn language better because this environment is not boring. When they learn second language based on cooperative learning, they familiarize with culture society in second language. In Cooperative learning helps learners become a real language user in or out of class and learning environments. This type of learning prepares learners for entry into the Third Millennium.

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Application of Frame Theory in Translation of Connotation in Chinese Ancient Poems

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Abstract—**Chinese ancient poems give prominence to the property of Chinese language that lay focus on the connotation beyond linguistic expressions. There has been long debate on which strategy should be chosen among literal or liberal translation and domestication or foreignization in translation community especially concerning cultural factors like translation of Chinese ancient poems. Frame theory provides a new perspective on the long debate of translation strategies, it illuminates on the translators that proper linguistic expressions should be found in target language to activate the identical or similar frames to those of in the source language.**

Index Terms—**frame, Chinese ancient poems, cultural frames, connotation, translation**

I. INTRODUCTION

Translation studies have evolved greatly, increasingly taking on the interdisciplinary features. Anthropology, comparative linguistics, psycho-linguistics, socio-linguistics have been applied to illustrate translation studies by many scholars. The complication of translation process implies such a trend. Also the high frequency of intercultural communication has intensified this trend with the result that communicative perspective has become an important component in translation studies. The frame theory that would be applied in this paper on translation is compatible with the trend in translation studies. And it is also an effective communicative perspective in probing into translation, because translation is a cross-cultural activity essentially, and frame theory takes great consideration into cultural differences, which will be expounded on the following. According to Deng Jing (2010), the complicated translation process is not a simple activity of superficial linguistic decoding and encoding or rigid switches between languages. The author's intention, the target receiver's expectation and the translator's interpretation of the two sides should be taken due attachment. The new illumination on translation implies that studies on translation shouldn't be confined to superficial text or intra-linguistic aspect, and culture, society, politics as well as the translator's mental state should be components of translation studies.

Frame theory absorbed viewpoints from linguistics, psychology and artificial intelligence, comprehensively considering context, stereotype, perception and experience of agent. Therefore it can provide brand-new illumination on the complicated translation process and be high of value in studies on strategies of translation. However, the frame theory's application in translation studies is not as nourishing as expected (Deng, 2010). The review on the past literature on the application of frame in translation studies indicates that influential studies in such a perspective is rare and frame theory has not given a full play in translation studies. It is universally acknowledged that Chinese attaches great importance on expression of connotation or implicit meaning beyond superficial linguistic level, a semotactic language, which is opposite with English which has strict grammatical forms in expression, a morphotactic language. Chinese ancient poems, as the highly condensed Chinese, are laden with a sea of implicit meanings that should be fully grasped when translated into English. Successful convey of meaning of Chinese poems necessitates appropriate strategies or the target receiver would fail to feel the artistic conception disguised in the original poems.

The major task of translation of Chinese ancient poems is to perceive the implicit semantic relation and cultural information between lines. The paper will mainly explore strategies in translation of Chinese ancient poems by the application of frame theory.

II. FRAME THEORY

Frame theory was developed by Charles Fillmore with the purpose of showing a cognitive model for languages. Languages users interpret their surroundings, convey and comprehend messages and so on all according to their internalized frames. It gives prominence to the relationship between what a speaker says and the context in which he says it.

A. Notion of Frame

Fillmore's notion of frame originates from work conducted by Marvin Minsky, a computer expert in artificial intelligence in the 1970s. Concerning the notion of frame, Fillmore has given a series of definition of it. Initially, in

1975, Fillmore first defined the notion of frame as any system of linguistic choices-the easiest cases being collections of words, but also including choices of grammatical rules of linguistic categories –that can get associated with prototypical instances of scenes (Ungerer& Schimid, 2008). Such a definition means that a frame was regarded as any array of linguistic options which were connected with the "scenes", a notion similar to the term situation. The original notion of frames was indicative of a fact that frames has shifted towards cognitive interpretation. In 1985, Fillmore says that frames are specific unified frameworks of knowledge or coherent schematizations of experience. Still more recently he views frames as 'cognitive structures [...] knowledge of which is presupposed for the concepts encoded by the words'. The universally accepted notion of frame is that a frame is to be seen as a type of cognitive model which represents the knowledge and beliefs pertaining to specific and frequently recurring situation.

What this collection of definitions and explanations shows is that while frames were originally conceived as linguistic constructs, they have by now received a cognitive reinterpretation.

B.   Features of Frame

From the analysis of our familiar commercial event frame [BUY] (because the [BUY] frame is so classic and familiar, here some details would be omitted), some features of frame can be derived(Wang, 2005).

Firstly, different cognitive perspectives within the same frame would result in different linguistic expressions. The verbs *buy* and *pay* describe the commercial event from the buyer's perspective, while *sell* and *charge* describe the situation from the seller's perspective. So the linguistic expressions would be different when different perspectives are adopted.

Secondly, components of a frame are basic and steady. In the classic commercial event frame, the basic and steady components are buyer, seller, goods and money, and accordingly in the [DANGER] frame, they are victim, tools and places.

Thirdly, all components which constitute the network of frames are closely connected. Once a component is mentioned, it will activate the whole cognitive frame. For instance, the word *buy* in commercial event frame would activate a whole bundle of other components which belong to the same frame. People grasp the meaning of the linguistic expressions largely depending on the activation of cognitive frames.

C.   Frame System and Sub-frames

Any component of a frame can activate the whole frame which the component belongs to. In the [FLYING A PLANE] frame, the cognitive component *plane* would activate a whole bundle of other components which belong to the same [FLYING A PLANE] frame, such as *pilot, flight attendant, life vest, safety belt, first class, economy class, safety instructions* and so on. All these components and the specific relations that exist between them are part of the frame. But different components which activate the same frame would produce different perspectives. Such differences would lead to different frames in the same system. These different frames in the same system are regarded as frame system. Moreover, there are many so-called sub-frames which capture the knowledge of still more specific situations of a flight, such as [EATING], [WATCHING THE MOVIE] and [GOING TO THE TOILET]. Cognitive components play a major role within frames. Broadly speaking, components act as both anchors and triggers for frames, because it is in the format of components and their interrelations that frames are designed and it is by the same components that they are activated. A frame is composed of slots to which explicit or implicit information will be assigned when the frame is activated. As far as ancient Chinese poems concerned, more implicit information will be assigned. It indicates a further function of components is to provide so-called 'default assignments' (i.e. values for slots in the frame that apply under 'normal' conditions) by supplying context-dependent prototypes. For example, in the sub-frame of [EATING ON A PLANE] you will not expect to have your meal served on a huge dinner-table, set with expensive table-ware and a candle. As far as food and drinks concerned you will presumably not reckon with a gourmet meal accompanied by a vintage wine (unless you are used to flying first class). And it should be clear that the "default value" is also influenced by culture. Even the same frame will have different default value for cultural differences. For example, [CROW] in Chinese culture would be provided with default value-"hoodoo" or "bad luck", but in Japanese culture, [CROW] would be provided with default value-"auspiciousness". All these expectations that are based on our experience and stored in our long-term memory and influenced by specific cultural context are part of the frame-system and will influence our ability to produce and understand the related language.

Sub-frame and frame-system of [FLYING A PLANE] have no differences among all the languages, because the situation of flying a plane is almost the same all over the world. On the other hand, since people from different races, different regions or different languages have obviously different experiences, which have heavily influenced people's cognition, frame system and sub-frames. These different experiences would produce misunderstandings when communications take place between people from different races, places and language communities.

D.   Frame and Culture

Frame is on the basis of conventional cultural knowledge, and more importantly, knowledge stored in a frame would be shared by a group of people in a language community. It proves that frame has innumerable links with culture. People living in the same culture share the same historic background and similar geographic condition. Their semblance of experience would produce the probability that they share the same frames to the same event.

Moreover, there are many frames shared by the people all over the world, but in view of differences of experience, some frames are unique to specific cultural groups. Generally, on the basis of cultural differences, there are three situations concerning the different frames. Initially, there are frames shared by the largest number of people all over the world, such as [CINEMA] and [FLYING A PLANE]; The second are the frames that are unique to some specific cultures, for example, [KABUKI], it is unique to Japanese culture. The third are the frames that are shared by large numbers of people but differences can be perceived too, such as [FAMILY], in Chinese and English culture [FAMILY] all includes *father* and *mother*, but differently, in Chinese, it also comprises a *child* and *grandparents,* and in English culture it also includes *children that has not been married* and even their *pet dogs,* however, [FAMILY] in English culture doesn't include grandparent. Take an example of English-Chinese translation: *Do you have a family?* The sentence can't be translated as "你有家庭吗[1]?" or "你成家了吗?". The correct translation is "你有孩子了吗[2]?". The incorrect translation results from not being clear about the differences lying in the shared frame.

III. FRAME THEORY AND CHINESE ANCIENT POEMS TRANSLATION

It can be said that frame is a kind of implicit expression in a specific culture. In other words, frame can't be traced in linguistic expression structure, deeply ingrained in deep structure to organize knowledge so as to make linguistic expression sense in a specific cultural context. This point is conducive to the translation of Chinese ancient poems. True meaning of Chinese ancient poems is always obscured between lines; the translator should correctly grasp the knowledge of deep structure in the frame expressed in the poems and then seek the similar frames that can activate the artistic conception that is in line with the original poems to the target receiver in target language culture. According to the illustration of frame theory, the translator should initially have correct interpretation to the original poems depending on the stored or established frames in his mind and then find proper denotation of English language to reconstruct the poems so as to facilitate the target receivers' activation of the same or similar frame in their mind. The following sections are some translation examples on Chinese ancient poems by applying frame theory.

A. Creation of Frames to Convey Connotation

Chinese ancient poems are replete with specific cultural factors. Poets never thought that their poems would be disseminated into English culture. The shared knowledge between the poets and readers are left out in the poems. Chinese linguistic symbols activate the frames accordingly in the readers' mind. The default value filling the blanks in the poems enables the Chinese readers to understand the meaning in deep structure and appreciate the "beauty of artistic conception". The English readers are foreign to many Chinese cultural factors, the same frame may not activate the same frame in their mind, and so to attain the same effect on the English readers as on Chinese readers, the translator has to create new frames to convey the implicit meaning in Chinese ancient poems.

Sample1.

鹊桥仙-秦观

纤云弄巧，

飞星传恨，

银汉迢迢暗渡。

金风玉露一相逢，

便胜却人间无数。

Translation: **Meeting across the Milky Way-Qin Guan(1049-1100, Song Dynasty of China), to the tune of Queqiaoxia**n

Through the varying shapes of the delicate clouds
The sad message of the shooting stars,
A silent journey across the Milky Way,
One meeting of the Cowherd and Weaver*
Amidst the golden autumn wind and jade-glistening dew,
Eclipses the countless meetings in the mundane world.

(Translated by Qiu Xiaolong)

According to a Chinese legend, two constellations the Cowherd and Weaver, separated by the Milky Way, are allowed to meet across a bridge formed by the magpies once a year on the seventh day of the seventh month in the Chinese lunar calendar.

In this Chinese ancient poem by Qin Guan, a poet in Song Dynasty, some specific cultural factors are involved. To Chinese readers, Cowherd and Weaver is a predestined match separated by the Milky Way. "Cowherd and Weaver" in the poem can activate [COWHERD AND WEAVER] with the default value "yearning", "separation", "bridge formed by magpies" and "the seventh day in the seventh month in Chinese lunar calendar". Chinese readers can understand the exuded emotion in the poems and perceive the enchanting of eternal love of the poet by the activated default values. The translator knows that English readers have not the same cultural frame and cannot fully understand the meaning

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[1] The literal meaning is '*Are you married*?' in Chinese
[2] It also can be understood as '*Do you have any children?'*

behind the conventional images-Cowherd and Weaver. Therefore, the translator provides extra cultural information in Chinese legend. It is through the creation a new frame in target receivers' mind that the translator successfully conveys the disguised meaning to the target readers.

B. Modification on the Similar Frame

Chinese readers can follow the poet by the natural assignment of default values activated by the related linguistic symbols or conventional images. But due to differences in experience from English readers, related linguistic symbols or images may activate frames that are partially different from those of Chinese readers in spite of similarities. That means that some default values activated by the same symbols are different in two cultures. To make the connotations sense in target readers' mind, some modification should be made.

Sample 2.

枫桥夜泊-张继
月落乌啼霜满天，
江枫渔火对愁眠。
姑苏城外寒山寺，
夜半钟声到客船。

Translation: **Mooring near the maple bridge at midnight-Zhang Ji(712-715 to 779, Tang Dynasty of China)**

The moon was setting, the crows were cawing, and the frost flurries in the sky.
The maples and fishing torches on the river kept me in my sad dream.
Our boat was moored near a monastery on the outskirts of Suzhou.
The midnight ringing of the temple bell seemed to announce our arrival.

(Translated by Qiu Xiaolong)

The classic poem was written after the failure in imperial examinations. The description on the landscape and images all mirrored the poet's gloomy mind and loneliness.

The setting moon, the cawing crow and fishing torches in the river all constitute a melancholy picture and depict the internal world of the poet. All these images can activate the frame [SADNESS] with the default value "bad luck", "setback" and "forlornness". It should be pointed out that the image "crow" in the first line thickens the sadness in poet mind and gives a hint of twisted destiny of the poet. So readers in Chinese culture can easily understand the feeling of the poet. However, the image "crow" in English culture is different from that of Chinese culture. In Chinese culture, the image of crow is inauspicious and can bring about bad luck, but in English culture, the default values of [CROW] is "vanity", "bragging" and "stupidity". To English readers, the image of crow may not be suitable with the atmosphere of the poem. So the translator made modification on the frame by giving some background knowledge to help the readers grasp the connotation of the poem.

C. Addition of Default Value in the Poems

As mentioned before, Chinese language pays more attention to connotations beyond linguistic expressions. The highly condensed linguistic expression of Chinese ancient poems gives high prominence to this characteristic of Chinese language. Poets were accustomed to employing the most succinct expression to present the heaps of feeling in their internal world. Therefore many components are deliberately omitted in Chinese ancient poems. These omitted components should be added when the poems are translated into English, because English language lays emphasis on the standard format expression.

Sample 3.-

春思-贾至
草色青青柳色黄，
桃花历乱李花香。
东风不为吹愁去，
春日偏能惹恨长

Translation: **Spring feelings-Jia Zhi(718-772, Tang Dynasty of China)**

The yellow willows wave above; green grass below;
Peach blooms run riot and plum blossom fragrant.
The vernal wind can never blow my grief away;
My woe increases with each lengthening spring day.

(Translated by Qiu Xiaolong)

In the original poem, the spatial position of willow and grass is not pointed out. Moreover, "*whose-grief?*" and "*whose-woe?*" are not told too in the Chinese version. But readers in Chinese culture can feel the description of landscape and the poet's grief and woe. The omission of the components can provide a touch of being personally on the scene. To Chinese reader, the characters in the poem can activate related frames naturally. Default values-*above*, *below* and *my* all can fill the blanks in the poem to perceive the poet's feelings. However, English language has strict format of linguistic expression, the omitted default values should be added or the translated version will not be coherent and eventually the connotation of the poem can't be interpreted by the target readers.

D.   Addition of Default Value in the Poems

The above strategies in previous sections can prevent the target readers from bewilderment from the clashes of frames in Chinese culture and English culture. However, such strategies may constitute obstacles in cultural communication, because translation also should play the role of disseminating Chinese culture to the target readers. Target readers must hope to read Chinese ancient poems with Chinese characteristics, so deliberate domestication is not proper.

Therefore, to let the target readers learn about the authentic Chinese culture, some frames that can lead to clashes of frames in two cultures can be made no alteration to just seek format equivalence.

Sample 4.

碧云天，黄叶地，西风紧，北雁南飞，晓来谁染霜林醉，总是离人泪。-（关汉卿《西厢记》）

Translation: *Grey are the clouds in the sky and faded are the leaves on the ground. Bitter is the west wind as the wild geese fly from the north to the south. How is that in the morning the white-frosted trees are dyed as red as a wine flushed face? It must have been caused by the tears of those who are about to depart* (extracted from *The Romance of the Western Chamber* by Wang Shifu of Yuan Dynasty, translated by Xiong Shiyi).

It is familiar to us that "west wind" in English culture is warm and moist. But in the translated version the frame was not alternated though it may cause conflicts of cultural frames. No alteration of frames in source language can further propel readers in English culture that are interested in Chinese culture to pursue the profundity of it.

E.   Illumination of Frame on Chinese Ancient Poems Translation

It is a long tradition that translators all seek the equivalence between source language and target language in translation community. However, only equal face value was attained when translating but equivalence in deep level was neglected. It seems that disproportionate attention was paid to equivalence of format and cultural connotation deeply ingrained in culture was ignored with the result that literal translation was long preferred. Translation is based on the unit of culture, and its purpose is to meet the demand of exploring exotic culture of specific cultural groups. Chinese ancient poems are the crystallization of splendid Chinese culture, full of connotations that make sense only by depending on some frame systems that are different from other culture.

Professor Xu Yuanchong once proposed that "rhythmic beauty", "formal beauty" and "beauty of artistic conception" are three properties of Chinese ancient poems(Xu, 2004). To attain such beauties, poets always weighed word by word to voice their feeling with the most condensed language. Therefore, much shared knowledge between the poets and readers was omitted in poems. Poets deliberately left many blanks to the readers. The key to translate the Chinese ancient poems resides in maintaining "beauties" of original poems. The most important is to successfully convey the "beauty of artistic conception".

The poets and Chinese readers are immersed in the same cultural background, so the poet and the readers share almost the same frames, as enables the poets to write the poems with the most succinct language and shared knowledge was left out. Therefore connotations loaded between the lines need to be grasped by the activation of the familiar frames by the readers. Connotations in the poems are activated in the form of "default values" that fill the "blanks" left by the poets. So the exuded emotion or feelings and artistic conception can be understood by the readers.

Shared frames are the built bridges to connect the readers and the poets, facilitating the understanding to the poems. However, the English readers who live in a different culture are lack of the required cultural frames or different components to activate the same frames as the Chinese readers. It is not easy for them to fully understand Chinese ancient poems.

From the analysis of above sections, it can be concluded that frame theory can provide a new chink to cast light on the translation of Chinese ancient poems regardless of long debate on the choices of literal or liberal translation and domestication or foreignization and so on. It gives illumination on the translator that the priority in translation of Chinese ancient poems is to seek the most appropriate linguistic symbols to activate the similar or the same frames among the target receivers with the purpose of revealing the implicit meanings in the original poems.

IV.   CONCLUSION

The frame theory defines a cognitive frame in terms of a long established framework to be adapted to the reality, or of a network with components in the frame working harmoniously together. People all over the world are different in races, locations and languages, and these differences can lead to different experiences which largely influenced people's cognition, frame systems and sub-frames. There are polarities in frame systems, sub-frames and cultural frames between languages in the world. It is these polarities that produce some implicit information during the translation process, as is more apparent when Chinese ancient poems are translated into English.

As we know, linguistic expression functions both as triggers to activate and as anchors to stabilize the cognitive frames on which meaning depends. Beauty of artistic conception is the most important property of Chinese ancient poems. Artistic conception is disguised between the lines, and successful translation should also "translate" the artistic conception of the poems. The essence of translation is hence to seek in the in the target language the linguistic expressions to activate the cognitive frames identical or similar to those in source language. The harmony expressed in Chinese ancient poems should be reestablished by striving to avoid conflicts of frames when translate the Chinese

ancient poems.

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The Effect of L1 on Learning New L2 Vocabulary among Intermediate Proficiency Level Students

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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 ;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 students' reading comprehension ability and their ability in learning new English vocabulary. This study aimed to explore whether paraphrases vs. translations of new words in general English passages make any significant difference in intermediate proficiency level learners of English new vocabulary learning. It also aims to examine whether paraphrases or translations of texts at intermediate proficiency level affect significantly students' level of reading comprehension. The data for this study were collected through one proficiency test, 3 comprehension tests and one vocabulary test from 60 English students who study at SADR Private Language School in 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 new vocabulary and those who dealt with the paraphrase of the same new words and those who did not receive any L1 translation or paraphrase. The results for vocabulary test showed those who received the mother tongue definitions in front of each new word in the passage did perform significantly better on the vocabulary test than the other two groups. However study would help teachers and teacher trainers to construct and implement L1 and paraphrase in English classes more effectively.

Index Terms—L1 (here assumed as mother tongue or language that a child adopts by birth), learning L2 vocabulary, intermediate

I. INTRODUCTION

It is claimed by some that in any language the single biggest component is its vocabulary source. It is present every where in the language and without it any kind of attempt to convey a logical message will fail. Even in second language we can not deny its important role; it is known to both learners and instructors of English that how important vocabulary is. Without words to convey a wide range of meanings, communication is not possible in any meaningful way, no matter how successfully you mastered other areas of language. Before 1970 ,vocabulary was considered to be marginal and structure received primary attention (Carter,Maccarthy,1988).however after 1910 vocabulary received a primary attention .today, the question is how to teach vocabulary and not whether it is important or not. A number of ways have been suggested to teach new words:

1) Dictionary use
2) Keyword method
3) Semantic method
4) Translation method
5) Word list method
6) The use of cognates
7) Learning vocabulary through context

A number of studies support learning words in context through guessing and there have been a number of ideas and studies in support of learning vocabulary through context, there also have been a number of studies against it.

Mondrina and Wit-Deboer (1991) investigated the influence of contextual factors on guess ability and retention of words, their findings indicated that factors that were conducive to guessing were not conducive to retention. They hypothesized that if context makes meaning very clear, retention level is actually lowered when there is a strong association of context and meaning (p.262).

Jenkins, Stein and Wysocki (1984) pointed out that learning from context is still a default explanation (p.769).

The studies mentioned above and the ones which are going to be mentioned in the review of literature have supported either learning vocabulary from context or learning it out of context. Here in this study an attempt was made to keep the context but to expose the students directly to the meaning (Persian and English) of some new words.

II. Review of Literature

In applied linguistics and in every other fields of study, one wishes to come across a variety of books and articles covering all areas of that particular field .Although many studies carried out in the area of vocabulary but most of them partially ignored the determining role of it and investigated this area as part of their studies, and unfortunately didn't cast light on this domain specifically. Since our concern here is vocabulary in reading, the role of vocabulary in conversations and other areas are put aside and the focus will be on vocabulary.

Vocabulary learning in a non-native language presents a different picture. To begin with, the learners are equipped with an L1 and have passed the stage of learning where they match the form and meaning of a word. Furthermore, they have learned from their L1 experience how the world works and hence they are unlikely to retrace their L1 learning route and apply it to foreign language (FL) learning.

An interesting question then follows: in what manner is an individual's lexical forms mapped onto their respective meanings when one more language is added? In other words, how or where are an L2 learner's two languages connected? (Vygotsky 1986)

Na and Nation (1985) studied the factors that could affect guessing vocabulary in context; they replaced low frequency words at two different densities in a context by nonsense words. The subjects were 59 teachers of English as a second language attending a diploma course with proficiency in English. They were asked to guess the meanings of nonsense words by using context were easier to guess them in higher destiny in text; verbs are easier to guess than nouns, which were easier than adverbs and adjectives. He has argued that FL learning does not repeat the course of native language acquisition but instead employs the native language as a mediator. The FL learners use the semantics of the native language as a foundation and only translate the word meanings that are already well-developed in the native language.

It appears that the mother tongue exerts a great influence over the way a foreign language is learned (Corder 1994; Swan 1997).

Ames (1966) investigated the rate of success in guessing words from context. Ames doctoral level students successfully guessed 60% of unknown words. Their subjects with vocabulary glosses, half of which were explained in English and the other half were translated into their L1 equivalents. Meanwhile, the subjects were assigned to four different teaching modes—(a) isolation, i.e., word lists, (b) minimal context, i.e., in one meaningful sentence, (c) text-context, and (d) elaborated text-context, i.e., original text with clarifying phrases and sentences—in order to have the outcome of their memorization of new words examined. The results showed that learners had better retention of these FL words when their L1 equivalents

Stenberg and Powell (1983) distinguished between clues to the meaning of an unknown word in context and variables that facilitated or hindered the use of these clues. Were provided, irrespective of the mode in which the words had been learned.

Experienced FL learners appear to prefer L1 glosses to picture aids in learning new vocabulary.

Lotto and De Groot (1998) recruited Dutch undergraduates who had years of experience in FL learning to compare two teaching methods—word-association and picture-association. The results from two recall tests indicated that the presentation of L1-L2 word pairs during learning provided a better opportunity for acquiring L2 words than did the presentation of picture-L2 pairs.

Van Hell and Candia Mahn (1997) suggest that experienced learners, through their increasing experience in FL learning, prefer to associate the new vocabulary with the corresponding L1 words to achieve the most efficiency.

Coady *et al.* (1993) proposed that it was very likely that FL learners, in the case of English vocabulary learning, attached an English label to an already existing native-language schema rather than building an entirely new schema for frequently occurring universal concepts.

MacWhinney (2005), in the unified competition model, states that the L2 is parasitic on the L1 in terms of lexical learning because of the extensive amount of transfer from the L1 to the L2. In the initial stages of learning the L2 system, learners do not formulate a separate conceptual structure but rely on L1 forms to access L2 lexical meanings.

Nag, Herman and Anderson (1985) argue that the failure of Jenkins et als study to show substantial learning from context results from the experiments failure to consider truly the nature of learning from context. As a result of their research they estimated the probabilities of learning a word from context after just one exposure to be between 10% and 15 %.

Duiganam (1990) investigated the effectiveness of various types of context in facilitating the teaching of word meanings. He submitted 27 nouns to three treatments word in isolation, words in sentences from dictionaries and words in paragraphs from newspapers. The subjects were to translate, produce sentences using the English target words. The result was that the sentences using the English target words. The result was that the sentences from dictionary were superior to that of words in lists and words in paragraphs from newspaper.

In another experiment conducted with Finnish learners of English,(Pickering,1982) examined findings reported in Seibert(1930) that learning foreign language words in context was interior to learning word in pairs with native language translation of the items concerned.

The same general conclusion was reached by Cohen and Aphek (1980), in their work on the role of mnemonic association in foreign language word learning with reference to Hebrew and English.

They concluded that the recall of words in context in positively related to the proficiency level of the subjects. Perhaps the most realistic approach is to recognize that learning occurs along a continuum and that a mixture of approaches should be adopted. The results indicate the importance of the native language, to which learners attach the target language labels when attending to new words.

A. Questions

1- Is there any significant difference in comprehension when we provide mother tongue or target definitions within a context?

2- Is there any significant difference in vocabulary learning when the definitions are given in a context either in the mother tongue or in the target language?

B. Hypotheses

1- There are no significant differences in comprehension when we provide mother tongue or target definitions within the context.

2- There are no significant differences in vocabulary learning when the definitions are given in a context either in the mother tongue or in the target language.

III. METHOD

A. Introduction

Although there are some theories which advocate the acquisition of words in context, there have been also discrepant research findings which take the different stand. The purpose of this study is to see if providing definitions whether in mother tongue or target language in context will result in facilitating learning new words in context(in passages) or not?

To attain above goal, we choose six passages and 3 groups of learners. We provide the definitions of new words in English for one group; in second group we provide mother tongue definitions (Persian) on new words. (These definitions succeeded the words immediately in brackets). And in third group no definition will be provided. We compare the results of three groups in order to find which group will do better in learning of new words. We use two one-way ANOVAs and we make to null hypotheses as follows:

1: there are no significant differences among the three groups in comprehending the texts.

2: there are no significant differences among the three groups in learning the new words from the context.

B. Subjects

We choose 60 subjects, they are all female students, and they are all in the same level of study (intermediate level), in an English institute, SADR English language center, 2010. They are all between 14 to 20 years old. Their mother tongues are all the same (Persian) and they don't know other languages. The institute assigned them in to this level by giving them a placement test. We separate them in to 3 different classes, in each group we have 20 students, and we make sure they don't meet each other after class.

C. Materials

We use following materials:

1) A proficiency test consisting of three parts, namely, grammar, vocabulary and a reading comprehension section. We have this test in multiple format.

2) Three reading comprehension tests (for three groups), each consisting of six passages .each passage has multiple choice items. We choose 30- item test. Passages are all the same except for the definitions of the new words in them. In one test we give the definitions of new word in English in parenthesis immediately following each new word, in another test we provide these definitions in Persian and in the last test we have no definitions at all. The directions in tests will be given in Persian so that we make sure all the students will understand them perfectly.

3) A vocabulary test consisting of 50 items and it is a matching-type in format.

D. Procedure

First we make a pilot study; we give a test of 10 passages to these 60 subjects which were selected between the age 15-20 in the same level and same institute, SADR language center 2010.and we ask them to circle the words they didn't know. Then we choose the words which were difficult for more than 80 percentages of the students. And we put these words in 6 passages, and in order to make sure that the six passages have only these new words as an element of difficulty, we give these six passages to our pilot group and we ask them if there are other new words or structures that they don't understand. And if there are such words or structures we simplify them and we give same passages again to the subjects in order to assure that they understand everything in passages except those predetermined new words. Knowing that this goal was achieved, in next step we give these 3 passages to 3 classes (82subjects between15-20), studying in the same level in SADR language center, 2010). The subjects were a proficiency test whether they were at

the same level of proficiency or not? And we can use one-way ANOVA in this step after calculation of mean to assure that there is no significant difference between these three groups and they are all homogeneous.

TABLE1.
ANOVA FOR PROFICIENCY LEVEL OF THE THREE GROUPS

Source of variance	s.s	d.f	M.S	F
Between groups	5.48	2	2.74	0.10
Within groups P<.05	2094.22	19	26.51	

After making sure that they are homogeneous and at the same level of proficiency we give the six passages with multiple-choice items at the end of each passage to our subjects in one group (27in number), in another group (25in number) we give the same passages with English definitions provided in front of each new word and in last group (30 in number) we provide these definitions in Persian. We ask all of them to answer the multiple –choice items at the end of each passage.

After an interval of one week we give all these three groups a vocabulary test which contains the same new words as passages. The test is matching-type in format. We give directions in Persian to make sure all the subjects know what to do and also we elaborate them orally (in Persian) in the class. Then we compared the performance of these three groups in next steps.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

After administering the tests, the data were in and they were ready to be analyzed through the statistical procedures.First, the homogeneity of the three groups was asserted through an ANOVA (one- way).Then, the passages (with the alternations mentioned in the previous sections) were given to the three groups. The subjects were asked to answer the comprehension questions following the passages (30 questions).The means for those who received only the passages, those who received the English meanings and those who received the Persian definition were respectively as follows: 17.32, 16.82 and 17.82.

Then, a (one-way) ANOVA was performed to see whether the difference between the means was significant or not?

TABLE 2.
ANOVA FOR COMPREHENSION TESTS OF THE GROUPS
(3 SUBJECTS WERE ABSENT)

Source of variance	s.s	d.f	M.S	F
Between groups	12.35	2	6.17	0.30
Within groups P<.05	1476.85	76	20.23	

The result of this analysis indicated that the differences among the means of the three groups were not significant.

The next step was to give the subjects a vocabulary test containing the same new words appearing in each of the six passages .One again the means for each group was calculated as follows:

The mean for these who received no definitions was 10.22, these who had the English definitions following each new word had a mean of 11.48 and those who had the Persian meanings obtained a mean score of 13.04.Once again a (one-way) ANOVA was performed. The findings of which are shown in the following table.

TABLE 3.
ANOVA FOR VOCABULARY TEST
(5 SUBJECTS WERE ABSENT)

Source of variance	s.s	d.f	M.S	F
Between groups	6127.01	2	3063.50	*46.07
Within groups P<.05*	4322.24	74	66.50	

The F-distribution for the families of 2 d.f and 74 d.f is 2.48; therefore, the result shows the difference is significant.

This means that those who received the mother tongue definitions in front of each new word in the passage did perform significantly better on the vocabulary test than the other two groups.

V. DISCUSSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

It is a popular belief that second language acquisition (SLA) is influenced by the learners first language. The clearest support for this belief comes from 'foreign' accents in the second language speech of learners. When a Frenchman speaks English, his English sounds French .The learners L1 also affects the other language levels, namely, vocabulary and grammar. This is perhaps less immediately evident, but most language learners and teachers would testify to it .It is also a popular belief that the role of the L1 in SLA is a negative one. That is, the L1 gets in the way or interferes with learning of L2 (Ellis 1986).

This view come from a learning theory called behaviorism. According to behaviorist learning theory, learning is achieved through habit formation and old habits get in the way of learning new habits. Bright and McGregor (1970)

mention "the grammatical apparatus programmed into the mind as the first language interferes with the smooth acquisition of the second."

The behaviorist view of learning was held until 1910s and the strong version of contrastive analysis which was in fashion believed that all the errors made by L2 learners were to be traced in their mother tongues.

Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974a) set out to examine this issue. In their studies, they found out that only 3 percent of all the learners' errors were result of interference.

Dulay and Burt found that, in addition to interference errors, there are first language developmental errors, those that do not reflect native language structure but are found in first language acquisition data. There are also ambiguous errors, those that cannot be categorized as either interference like or developmental and unique errors, those that do not reflect first language structure and also are not found in first language acquisition data.

Corder (1992) changes the concept 'interference' to 'intercession'. While interference is a feature of learning, intercession is considered to be as a strategy to communicate .The role of mother tongue here changes from that of 'inhibition' to that of 'facilitation'.

Krashen (1981a), also reports this. He suggests that learners can use their L1 to initiate utterances when they do not have sufficient acquired knowledge of the target language. Both Coder and Krashen believe that learners overcome their limitations in L2 by using their L1.

Perhaps a more realistic view of the role of L1 is cited by Ellis (1986). He suggests that the learners' L1 is an important determinant of SLA. It is not the only determinant, however and may not be the most important .But it is theoretically unsound to attempt a precise specification of its contribution or even to try to compare its contribution with that of other factors. The L1 is a resource of knowledge which learners will use both consciously and subconsciously to help them shift the L2 data in the input and to perform as best as they can in the L2.

The present study shows that providing learners with their mother tongue definitions, when learning English helps them a great deal in their vocabulary. The results of this study show that the mother tongue has a facilitative role. The mother tongue is likely to help students to have a clearer picture of the new words and as a result may raise their relation. Although the result of this research showed that mother tongue played an important role in acquiring new words, we should not jump right up to a certain conclusion.First, all the subjects in this research were from the same cultural and educational background and they were all Persian speakers. It is interesting to find out whether the same results would be obtained if there were subjects from different nationalities and with different mother tongues.

Second, would the same results would be obtained when students with different proficiency levels take part in the experiment? In other words, is there any difference between beginners, intermidiate and advanced subjects? Third, what is the role of sex? Do female students perform better than the male subjects? Forth, what is the role of test format? The items in the research were multiple choices and matching type would the same results be achieved if we changed the test formats? Fifth, does the kind of text involved (e.g, narrative, descriptive, procedural, etc) play a role? Sixth, does the kind of vocabulary involved (e.g, concrete and abstract) play a role?

Obviously, it is definitely not possible to arrive at a finalized conclusion unless all these and perhaps other questions (for example, the Density ,the ratio of unknown words to known words) are answered .this ,of course ,calls for more studies and research to be carried on in the future.

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A Comparison of Productive Vocabulary in Chinese and American Advanced English Learners' Academic Writings[*]

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Abstract—**A comparison has been made of productive vocabulary in some normal university English majors' theses in China and American final-year undergraduates' papers. The research demonstrates that with family as the measurement unit, Chinese students proportionally use fewer words of the 1st, 8th to 10th 1000 frequency level words than American students, while in terms of the 2nd to 4th 1000 frequency band words, Chinese students use more than American students and there is no difference in the usage of the words of the rest word lists. In terms of lexical words complexity: American students repeatedly use the 1st 1000 high-frequency words in a higher proportion, use more inflectional forms than Chinese students but use fewer derivational forms than Chinese students. Chinese students use the 2nd 1000 frequency band words repeatedly in a greater proportion than American students; use more inflectional and derivational forms than American students. Chinese students use low-frequency words repeatedly in a greater proportion, more inflectional forms, but use the derivational forms in the same proportion as American students.**

Index Terms—**productive vocabulary, richness, lexical word complexity**

I. Introduction

Second or Foreign Language learning process is often described as a developmental continuum of interlanguage from the state of being utterly ignorant to that of complication without necessity of arriving at the perfect stage. Such a incremental development trend should also be embodied in vocabulary research, because target language native speakers are most obviously different from foreign language learners in their use of greater number of vocabulary, especially in free speech or writing. (Laufer, 1994)

The distinguishment between Productive Vocabulary and Receptive Vocabulary was made only by intuition, but now has been widely accepted and attempted to be explained theoretically (e.g. Henrisen. 1999; Waring 2002). Comapred with Receptive (Passive) vocabulary research, Productive (Active) Vocabulary research came up later. Some research has been made on SL learners' Productive Vocabulary at home and abroad (Laufer, 1994 1995, 1998; Laufer & Nation, 1995, 1999; Leń ko-Szymań ska, 2009; Webb, 2008, 2009; Bao Gui , 2008; Li Yao & Shen Jinhua, 2009; Li ZhiXue & Li Jingquan, 2005; Lu Min, 2008; Tan Xiaochen, 2006, 2007; Wan Lifang, 2010), and great achievements have been made, which has deepened people's understanding of Production Vocabulary. However, rarely any consensus has been reached in such an aspect and there are still some gaps in such a field, for the variability of productive vocabulary ability and the influence of various factors in research.

On the one hand, few studies have been made on normal university English majors, one of the most important FLA groups, still less any attention has been paid to the productive vocabulary usage in English major thesis, as their virgin academic writing. Normal university English undergraduates are to set foot on teaching, and in the future process of teaching, they will have to be engaged both in teaching and scientific research. In the process of teaching, they will make use of their own English knowledge and skills to cultivate and improve their students' English ability. Accordingly, these future teachers' highest English level will affect that of the students they teach. This consists in the significance of the teachers' English level. As preparation for the future scientific research, the normal university English majors' thesis writing is one of the most important indicators of their ultimate and highest writing ability, the research on which will no doubt contribute to the evaluation of their level of language usage and academy and will suppy FL teaching with powerful benchmarks. On the other hand, there are some inconsistent conclusions about the

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differences between Chinese EFL learners and English native speakers in terms of Productive Vocabulary development research among domestic research.(e.g. Gui Lin, 2010; Li Zhixue & Li Jingquan, 2005; Wen Qiufang, Ding Yanren & WangWenYu, 2003).

In this paper, a comparison will be made betwee English major graduates of a Chinese normal university and American college students in their vocabulary quality of productive academic writing texts.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

A word is the minimal unit which can be used independently to form sentences or discourses. In the counting of words, different units can be adopted to different requirement. A token refers to the running word or occurrence of words. The number of tokens refers to the total number of word forms, which means that each occurrence of the same word is counted as one individual word. A type refers to different word forms in a text, and the number of types is the total number of the different word forms, sot a word which is repeated many times is counted only once (Read 2000 Assessing Vocabulary p. 18). In vocabulary studies, the base and inflected forms of a word are collectively known as a lemma (Read 2000 p. 18). So a collection of words such as *work*, *works*, *working*, *worked*, comprising a root form and the most frequent regular inflections, is known as a lemma (Daller et al 2007 p. 3). A lemma consists of a headword and some of its inflected and reduced (n't) format. Usually, all the items included under a lemma are of the same part of speech. The English inflections consist of plural, third person singular, present tense, past tense, past participle, -ing, comparative, superlative and possessive (Francis and Kucera, 1982: 461 cited from Nation 2001 P. 7) A word family consists of a headword, its inflected forms, and its closely related derived forms (Nation 2001 P. 9). A word family comprises the base word plus its inflections and its most common derivatives (c.f. Thornbury 2002 p.3). So a word family headed by *employ* includes *employ、employs、employed、employing、employee、employees、employer、employers、employment、employments、employable、unemployment、unemployed*.

Lexical richness is defined as the quality of vocabulary usage of a text and will vary with the depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge (Nation and Webb, 2010). The measurement of lexical richness is to quantify the degree of the variety and amount of words of writers(Laufer & Nation, 1995). Nation and Webb(2010) think that the comprehensive measurement of vocabulary richness should supply some or all of the following contents:

1. provide the number of different tokens, types, lemmas, and families in a text
2. show the word frequency of all items in the text
3. list the number of encounters with each type, lemma, and family in the text
4. display the mean number of words per sentence, paragraph, and text
5. show the number of errors and categorize the errors accordingly(in other words, incorrect spelling, derivation, meaning, use)
6. show the extent to which different affixes are used
7. indicate the extent to which semantically-related words are used together
8. provide the proportion of the major parts of speech (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs)
9. indicate how well words are used together (to what extent do words appear in frequent collocations or formulaic sequences?)
10. display the time it takes to use a word, phrase, or sentence in speech or writing
11. display the mean number of words read per minute (p: 248-249)

Token-Type Ratio（TTR）refers to the total number of tokens of words in a text divided by that of types used here as the indicator of the average of repetition of words in a text. It is the reciprocal of Type-token ratio, a much used measure of lexical diversity that is the number of different words in a sample of speech or writing divided by the total number of words (David et al., 2004 p. 192).

Type-Lemma Ratio (TLR) refers to the total number of types of words in a text divided by that of lemmas, used here as the indicator of the average number of inflected word in a text.

Lemma-Family Ratio (LFR) refers to the total number of lemmas of words in a text divided by that of families, used here as the indicator of the average number of derivative word in a text.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Subjects and Materials

107 subjects involved in this research are the final-year English majors from a provincial normal university. Materials for research are their theses written about linguistics and language teaching, with the cover, the contents part, acknowledgement, references part and appendix part, Chinese annotation and some long direct citations cut off. After purification, the size of the corpus is 501,055 tokens, with an average of 4,440.86 tokens, the shortest 3,148 and the longest 6,961.

The materials for comparison are 93 essays from the Michigan Corpus of Upper-level Student Papers (MICUSP), written about English language or Linguistics (19 linguistics and 74 English language). The writers of these articles are all final-year college students (Final Year Undergraduate). The size of the corpua is 196,816 tokens.

B. Instrument

The software *Range BNC* (Heatley, Nation, & Coxhead, 2002.) has been used in the study to compare a text against 14 vocabulary lists to see what words in the text are and are not in the lists, and to see what percentage of the items in the text are covered by the lists. These 14 wordlists have been made by Paul Nation from the British National Corpus (BNC) based on the breadth, frequency and dispersion of its words. Each of the 14 wordlists contains about 1000 words (lemma) in BNC, and words from the first list to the 14th list occur less and less frequent in BNC.

RANGE BNC provides a table as follows which shows how much coverage of a text each of the base lists provides.

WORD LIST	TOKENS/%	TYPES/%	FAMILIES
One	3544/81.36	616/61.72	428
two	412/ 9.46	180/18.04	133
three	82/ 1.88	55/ 5.51	52
four	58/ 1.33	39/ 3.91	34
five	24/ 0.55	18/ 1.80	17
six	129/ 2.96	10/ 1.00	10
seven	11/ 0.25	6/ 0.60	6
eight	16/ 0.37	8/ 0.80	7
nine	8/ 0.18	8/ 0.80	7
ten	5/ 0.11	5/ 0.50	5
11	3/ 0.07	3/ 0.30	3
12	4/ 0.09	4/ 0.40	3
13	4/ 0.09	3/ 0.30	3
14	4/ 0.09	3/ 0.30	3
not in the lists	52/ 1.19	40/ 4.01	?????
Total	4356	998	711

It is shown in the above table result that 3,544 of the running words in the text are of base list one and they make up 81.36% of the total running words in the text. Moreover, these 3,544 running forms are of 616 types accounting for 61.72 of the total number of word types in the text and are of 428 families. In the word list column, *one, two, three,* etc. refer to each of the base lists and a statistics list of word not in all those base lists-----*not in the lists.* With the support of such software, the statistics of words in each text can be gained, and the average of the statistics for words of each base list for Chinese and American students' texts can also be computed. Then a comparison of word usage (indicating productive vocabulary) of Chinese and American students can be made.

C. Treatment of Materials

In the study, *Range BNC* is used to analyse the texts to show the average proportion of different frequency level words used in the texts to the total number of words of the texts with *family* as the measurement unit to compare the differences in the proportion of the corresponding level words between Chinese and American students' written materials. In general, the greater is the writers' vocabulary, the more he tends to use low frequency words.

Additionally, diversity of words of different frequency level words has been compared between Chinese and American students with the following indicators: a) token-type ration (TTR); b) type-lemma ratio(TLR); c) lemma-family ratio (FLR).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. The Word Proportion Comparison between Chinese and American Students' Writing

For a comparison of proportion of words used in writings from the 14 base lists by Chinese and American students, the averages of proportion of words from the 14 base lists used in Chinese and American students' writings are listed in table 1:

TABLE 1
THE PROPORTION OF WORD FAMILIES FROM THE 14 BASE LISTS USED IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN THESES (NCHINESE=107, NAMERICAN=93)

BL	Chinese		American		BL	Chinese		American	
	per	s.d.	per	s.d.		per	s.d.	per	s.d.
1	54.06	4.40	58.31	6.23	8	1.27	.41	1.47	.63
2	19.67	1.41	16.39	1.96	9	.79	.32	1.05	.45
3	7.68	1.19	6.46	1.46	10	.57	.33	.70	.54
4	5.71	1.03	5.10	1.07	11	.61	.28	.70	.52
5	3.04	.81	2.97	.99	12	.41	.25	.47	.39
6	1.98	.62	2.18	.89	13	.34	.21	.42	.41
7	1.56	.54	1.52	.73	14	.25	.19	.25	.26

Notes: BL=base list; per=percentage

It is shown in table 1 that Chinese students use fewer word families from base list 1, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 & 13 in proportion, use more from base list 2, 3, 4, 5, & 7 and use the same proportion of word families from base list 14. Such

a tendency can also be seen in the following bar chart.

Figure 1 Bar Chart for Chinese and
American Students' word family proportion
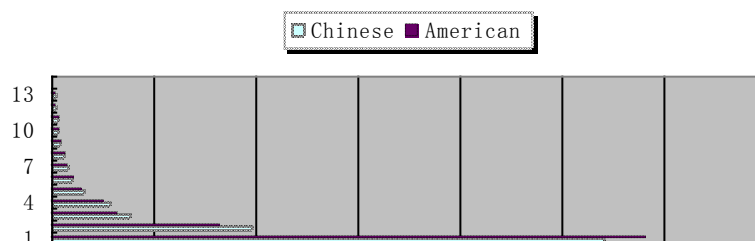
The independent t-test results show that it is only on base list 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 9 and 10 that the word family percentage in the theses of Chinese and American students differs from each other significantly, i.e. Chinese students use more word families on base list 2,3 and 4 than American students (t=-13.432, -6.514, -4.077; p=.000, .000, .000; df=164.72, 198, 198), while on base list 1, 8, 9 and 10, Chinese students use fewer word families than American students (t=5.497, 2.620, 4.536, 1.981; p=.000, .010, .000, .049; df=162.515, 155.323, 162.763, 149.593). Such a result is different from that of Li Zhixue and Li Jingquan (2005) which shows that Chinese students use less words proportionally from the first base list than American Students (the same as this research), while on the rest base lists, Chinese students are not different from American ones significantly.

In order to compare with the result of Li Zhixue and Li Jingquan (2005), the results of the base list 5 to 14 have been blended into a low frequency word list. The independent t-test result shows that American students have used a greater proportion of low frequency words than Chinese students (t=1.99, p=.049, df=153.62). Such a result is quite different from that of Wen Qiufang (2003), i.e. Chinese students use a 14% greater proportion of the first base list words than Native students, a 4% greater proportion of the second base list words and a less than 5% greater proportion of the rest two base list words.

The difference maybe results from four aspects:

First, foreign language learners are inherently different from native speakers, because they are mainly depending on the classroom teaching materials for language input. The frequency of word occurrence in their textbooks can hardly be the reflection of the natural language context of native speakers (Daller, Milton, & Treffers-Daller, 2007). Usually, the frequency of foreign language learners' encountering new words is far lower than native speakers. It is no doubt that foreign language learners are usually different from native speakers in word usage.

Secondly, there is a greater demand on college or university students' theses writing in Chinese teaching syllabus. Usually a thesis writing course has been set as a selective or compulsory one, and most of times, some teachers will be assigned to instruct some specific students' thesis writing. They will keep on coaching, supervising and urging their students' thesis writing and revising all the way. Naturally, the theses will have higher qualities than expected, word usage included.

Thirdly, the theses used in this research were written in the semester when the university was accepting the educational assessment from the Ministry of Education. Therefore, teachers had a far stricter demand on students' thesis writing. Most of the theses have been read through by teachers and revised by students for many times. At the same time, students have tried to cite directly or indirectly from many sources. Naturally, students' thesis writing will seem to have a higher quality. Such an idea is supported by Li Zhixue and Li Jingquan's research (2005).

Fourthly, there are some differences in corpus data used in these researches. Li Zhixue and Li Jingquan's research (2005) used daily free writings, which are quite different from those used for this research in academy. It is natural for students to use a greater proportion of high-frequency words similar to American students do in their writings. Wen Qiufang (2003) has used timed writings in exams as data for analysis. For a high mark in an exam, usually, students will try to avoid the usage of difficult words---usually low-frequency words---to avoid making mistakes. So it is no wonder that the students have overused high-frequency words in her research. So using timed writings to assess students' vocabulary may underestimate their ability and proficiency. In this research, the open, untimed, freely-written theses have been used for analysis for they are more academic and suitable for formal words. Therefore, they have a greater proportion of relatively low-frequency words.

B.   The Comparison between Chinese and American Students in Word Variation

In the research, a frequency-decreasing wordlist of Chinese and American students' corpora has been respectively made. From the top 200 words of these two wordlists and based on frequency order, 70 shared words have chosen, and these words which have not or are not inflected or derived forms are mainly function words (articles, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns) and very few content word (numbers). In the process of corpora neating, these 70 shared words have been eliminated from two corpora to gain a more accurate statistical result.

It takes two steps to get the number of lemma or lexeme: First of all, lemmatize the language materials of texts in corpora, i.e. replace inflected words with their base form. Then, analyze the corpora with Range BNC for the second time, and the number of word types gained is the number of lemma. In the study, the data for the base list from 3 to 14 have been blended into one low-frequency base list data. The statistics of the comparison are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2
STATISTICS OF TTR, TLR AND LFR FOR CHINESE AND AMERICAN STUDENTS' WRITINGS

Statistics / Indicators	Chinese(N=107)				American(N=93)			
	Min.	Max.	M	s.d.	Min.	Max.	M	s.d.
TTR for base list 1	2.35	4.63	3.10	.46	3.13	74.30	14.61	12.00
TTR for base list 2	1.48	3.81	2.47	.48	1.20	9.00	1.76	.86
TTR for low frequency base list	1.32	4.39	2.12	.59	1.12	9.00	1.77	.93
TLR for base list 1	1.16	1.33	1.25	.03	.09	4.00	.32	.54
TLR for base list 2	1.04	1.30	1.14	.04	1.00	1.27	1.11	.05
TLR for low frequency base list	1.01	1.16	1.07	.03	.97	1.12	1.05	.03
LFR for base list 1	1.11	1.25	1.18	.03	1.00	1.30	1.12	.04
LFR for base lis2	1.02	1.23	1.11	.04	.97	1.25	1.08	.05
LFR for low frequency base list	1.02	1.15	1.08	.02	1.00	1.15	1.07	.03

It is indicated in table 2 that on average the TTR on the base list 1 of American students (14.61) is far greater than Chinese students (3.10), i.e. American students repeatedly use each of the first base list words 14.61 times, while Chinese students use 3.10 times. The independent sample t-text indicates that such a difference is statistically significant (t=-.9243, p=.000, df=92.24). The standard deviation (s.d.) of Chinese students' result (.46) is far smaller than that of American students' (12.00) and this indicates that there is a greater difference among individual American students than Chinese students. This can also be seen in the statistics of maximum and minimum. For American students, the minimum is 3.13 and the maximum is 74.30. There is a great difference in-between. For Chinese students, the minimum is 2.35, the maximum is 4.63, and the difference is not so great. On the second base list and the low frequency base list, Chinese students' TTR's (2.47 and 2.12) are greater than that of American students' (1.76 and 1.77). The independent sample t-test indicates that such differences are statistically significant (for the base list 2: t=7.04, p=.000, df= 138.81; for low frequency base list: t=3.11, p=.002, df= 151.70), which suggests that Chinese students repeatedly and significantly use more words on base list 2 and low frequency base list than American students.

It is also shown in table 2 that on average the TLR on the base list 1 of American students (4.00) is far greater than Chinese students (1.18), i.e. American students use 4 inflected forms for each of the first base list words on average, while Chinese students use 3.10. Such a difference has been proved to be statistically significant by the independent sample t-test (t=-16.35, p=.000, df=92.61). The standard deviation (s.d.) of Chinese students' result is (.03) is similar to that of American students (.04), which indicates that there is no great difference among both American and Chinese individual students. On the base list 2 and low frequency base list, Chinese students' TLR's (1.14 and 1.07) are greater than that of American students' (1.11 and 1.05). The independent sample t-test indicates that such differences are statistically significant (for the base list 2: t=5.04, p=.000, df= 198; for low frequency base list: t=6.01, p=.000, df= 198), which suggests that Chinese students use significantly more inflected words on base list 2 and low frequency base list than American students.

It is also demonstrated in table 2 that on average the LFR on the base list 1 of Chinese students (1.18) is far greater than American students (1.12), i.e. Chinese students use 1.18 derived forms for each of the first base list words, while American students use 1.12. Such a difference has been proved to be statistically significant by the independent sample t-test (t=-10.97, p=.000, df=151.82). The standard deviation (s.d.) of Chinese students' result (.46) is far smaller than that of American students (12.00) which indicates that there is a greater difference among American individual students than among Chinese individual students. This can be seen in their minimums and maximums. For American students, the minimum is 2.35, and maximum is 4.63. The difference is not so great. On the base list 2 and low frequency base list, Chinese students' LFR's (1.11 and 1.08) are greater than that of American students' (1.08 and 1.07). The independent sample t-test indicates that difference on the base list 2 is statistically significant, while on the low frequency base list, the difference is not statistically significant (for the base list 2: t=4.54, p=.000, df=153.98; for low frequency base list: t=.92, p=.361, df=162.75), which suggests that Chinese students use significantly more derived words on base list 2 than American student and on the low frequency base list, they are similar.

V. CONCLUSION

A research has been made on the proportion and diversity of different base list words used in American and Chinese Academic writings. It is found that as far as the breadth of word usage is concerned, there are statistically significant differences between Chinese students and American students in the percentage of words on base lists 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 9 and 10. That is to say, Chinese students use more word families on base list 2, 3 and 4than American students, while use fewer than American students on base list 1, 8, 9 and 10.

On the whole, Chinese students use fewer words on both high-frequency words and low-frequency words than American students. As for word diversity, American students more repeatedly use words on base list 1 than Chinese students, and use more inflected forms, but Chinese students use more derived forms. Chinese students more repeatedly use words on base list 2 than American students and use more inflected forms and derived forms. Chinese students more repeatedly use words on low frequency base list than American students and use more inflected forms and the usage of derived forms is similar to American students.

There are some shortcomings in the controlling of the consististency of topics of theses and the length of texts, so the conclusion drawn in this research should be to further test.

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A Closer Look at Different Aspects of Language Teaching/Learning and Learner Identity

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Abstract—Along with the changes in the realm of language teaching and learning in 1960s from the previous structuralist teacher-centered methodologies and the subsequent emergence of social-constructivist approaches, learners came to be considered as the key in the field. As a result, learner-centered approaches were developed and special attention was given to sociological and anthropological dimensions of second language learning. Due to these shifts of focus, such concepts as learner identity came to attract the attention of language teachers and scholars. Gee (2001) defines identity as "a certain 'kind of person' or even as several different 'kinds' at once ... at a given time and place" (p. 99). Thus, second language scholars tried to investigate the possible relationship between the language learner and the larger social world. In the same line, the present article attempts to represent a description of the main variables in relation to learner identity aimed at shedding light on comprehending the theoretical points significant in the field. Then, the article goes on to discuss the role of identity and its possible influences in the field of second language teaching and learning. Finally, the implications and applications in the field are discussed.

Index Terms—language teaching/learning, identity types, learner identity, community of practice

I. INTRODUCTION

Due to a shift of focus from the predominantly psycholinguistic approaches to SLA to include a greater focus on sociological and anthropological dimensions of second language learning, particularly with reference to sociocultural, poststructural, and critical theory, such concepts as learner identity came to attract the attention of language scholars (Norton, 2006). Norton (1997) uses the term identity to refer to "how people understand their relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how people understand their possibilities for the future". The relationship between language learning and identity is of great interest to scholars in the fields of second language acquisition (SLA), language education, applied linguistics and sociolinguistics. According to Norton and Toohey (2001) the concept of identity concentrates on sociological and cultural dimensions of language learning which has often been called the "social turn" in second language acquisition. Norton (2006) adds that researchers of second language identity have been interested not only in linguistic input and output in SLA, but in the relationship between the language learner and the larger social world. In particular, these researchers have examined the diverse social, historical, and cultural contexts in which language learning takes place and how learners negotiate and sometimes resist the diverse positions those contexts offer them.

As Norton (2006) states one of the important issues which has fascinated many researchers in second language identity is the extent to which relations of power within classrooms and communities promote or constrain the process of language learning. It is argued that the extent to which a learner speaks or is silent or writes, reads, or resists has much to do with the extent to which the learner is valued in any given institution or community. In this regard, such factors as gender, race, class, ethnicity, and sexual orientation may pose inequities in the social practices and thus affect learners to behave in particular ways. As such, learners don't like to be marginalized and try to avoid it through covert and overt acts of resistance. What is of central interest to researchers of second language identity is that the very articulation of power, identity, and resistance is expressed in and through language. Language is thus more than a system of signs; it is a social practice in which experiences are organized and identities negotiated (Norton, 2006). Taking these points into account, the present article is of twofold. First, elaborating on the main points related to the learner identity, it is going to take a critical look at this phenomenon. Second, it attempts to shed light on understanding

the relationship between the learner identity and different aspects language teaching and to discuss the implications it bears to the process of language learning and teaching.

II. THEORETICAL INFLUENCES

Second language research in the area of identity is indebted to and affected by the works of scholars like Bakhtin, Bourdieu, Weedon, as well as Lave and Wenger. Bakhtin (1981) takes the position that language needs to be investigated not as a set of idealized forms independent of their speakers or their speaking, but rather as situated utterances in which speakers, in dialogue with others, struggle to create meanings. For Bakhtin, the notion of the individual speaker is a fiction, as he sees all speakers constructing their utterances jointly on the basis of their interaction with listeners in both historical and contemporary, and both actual and assumed, communities. In this view, the allocation of the words of others is a complex process in which words are not neutral but express particular predispositions and value systems.

The second scholar who has influenced research concerning identity is Pierre Bourdieu, a contemporary French sociologist. Bourdieu (1984) focuses on the often unequal relationships between interlocutors and the importance of power in structuring speech. He suggests that the value ascribed to speech cannot be understood apart from the person who speaks and that the person who speaks cannot be understood apart from larger networks of social relationships. In this view, when a person speaks, the speaker wishes not only to be understood, but to be believed, obeyed, and respected. However, the speaker's ability to command the attention of the listener is unequally distributed because of the symbolic power relations between them.

Research in the field of identity has been also impacted by the scholar, Christine Weedon. The work of Weedon (1987), like that of Bakhtin and Bourdieu, is centrally concerned with the conditions under which people speak, within both institutional and community contexts. Like other poststructuralist theorists, Weedon emphasizes the central role of language in her analysis of the relationship between the individual and the social, arguing that language not only defines institutional practices, but also serves to construct our sense of ourselves and our ''subjectivity'' (Weedon, 1987, p. 21). Weedon notes that the terms subject and subjectivity signify a different conception of the individual than that associated with humanist conceptions of the individual dominant in Western philosophy. While humanist conceptions of the individual presuppose that every person has an essential, unique, fixed, and coherent 'core,' poststructuralism depicts the individual (i.e., the subject) as diverse, contradictory, dynamic, and changing over historical time and social space.

Finally, Lave and Wenger were two other anthropologists who shifted the view of learners as individuals to seeing them as members of social and historically constituted communities. Lave and Wenger (1991) argue that what they call ''situated learning'' is an integral and inseparable part of social practice, as newcomers are mentored (helped and advised) into the performance of community practices. They introduced the notion of "legitimate peripheral participation" by which they meant that communities are composed of participants who differentially engage with the practices of their community and that conditions vary with regard to many factors as ease of access to expertise, to opportunities for practice, to consequences for error in practice, and so on.

Norton and Toohey (2001) have referred to these theories saying that from this perspective, then, educational research might focus not so much on assessing individual 'uptake' of particular knowledge or skills, but on the social structures in particular communities and on the variety of positionings available for learners to occupy in those communities. Rather than seeing language learning as a gradual individual process of internalizing a neutral set of rules, structures, and vocabulary of a standard language, the work of Bakhtin, Bourdieu, Weedon, and Lave and Wenger offers applied linguists ways to think differently about language learning. Such theory suggests that second language learners need to struggle to appropriate the voices of others; they need to learn to command the attention of their listeners; they need to negotiate language as a system and as a social practice; and they need to understand the practices of the communities with which they interact. Drawing on such theory, becoming a 'good' language learner is seen to be a much more complicated process than earlier research had suggested (Norton & Toohey, 2001).

III. IDENTITY AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

In modern sociological and anthropological theories of language learning and teaching, learners' identity has been considered as a crucial factor which can pose significant effects on both teaching practices as well as learning outcomes. Norton (1995) defines identity as the ongoing sense the self has of who it is, as conditioned through its ongoing interactions with others. It is how the self conceives of itself, and labels itself. Chen and Ferdonia (2010) point out that identity constructs and is constructed by language. According to Morgan (1996) in contemporary theory on language learning and teaching, the identity of the language learner addresses the ways in which language learners understand their relationship to the social world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the learner understands possibilities for the future.

Norton and Toohey (2001) believe that the identity of the language learner is theorized as multiple, a site of struggle, and subject to change. The diverse conditions under which language learners speak, read, or write the second language are influenced by relations of power in different sites; learners who may be marginalized in one site may be highly valued in another. For this reason, as Norton and Toohey (2001) mention, every time language learners interact in the

second language, whether in the oral or written mode, they are engaged in identity construction and negotiation. However, structural conditions and social contexts are not entirely determined. Through human agency, language learners who struggle to speak from one identity position may be able to reframe their relationship with their interlocutors and claim alternative, more powerful identities from which to speak, thereby enhancing language learning.

IV. PERSPECTIVES ON IDENTITY: COMMUNITY OF PRACTICE

One of the scholars who is interested in the concept of *identity* is Gee. He focuses his work on *situated identity*. Gee (2001) defines identity as "a certain 'kind of person' or even as several different 'kinds' at once . . . at a given time and place" (p. 99). This definition indicates that identity is a state of being; thus, it is situated in disclosing social contexts. As Norton (2000) states identity bears the characteristics of being dynamic and multiple, as it shifts from one context to the next, and various identities may coexist. In order to understand what situated identity accurately means, we have to know the concept of *community of practice*.

Wenger (1998) defines a *community of practice* through the dimensions of (a) mutual engagement, (b) joint enterprise, and (c) shared repertoire (a list of works that a person or group is ready to perform). The boundaries and the development of a community of practice are continuously negotiated by members bound together in its joint construction (Wenger, 1998). Lave and Wenger (1991) discuss how the dynamic membership adopted by and interactions among learners contribute to learning. They argue that the familiarity with certain beliefs and behaviors particular to a community of practice defines the role taken by a learner (e.g., a central or peripheral participant). Moreover, the idea of community of practice implies that "learning involves the construction of identities"; that is to say, learners need to construct "not only a relation to specific activities, but also a relation to social communities" (Lave &Wenger, 1991, p. 53). Such relation, as a result, leads to different learning experiences and outcomes. Thus, community of practice provides the context to understand the situated identities each member takes and his∕her engagement in learning.

V. POWER RELATION AND IDENTITY NEGOTIATION

The identity of the language learner is supposed as multiple, a site of struggle, and subject to change. According to Norton (2000), the various conditions under which language learners speak, read, or write the second language are partly shaped by relations of power in different sites; learners who may be marginalized in one site may be extremely appreciated in another site. For such reason, as Norton emphasizes, every time language learners interact in the second language, whether in the oral or written mode, they are involved in identity construction and negotiation. Nevertheless, structural conditions and social contexts are not entirely ascertained. Through human agency, language learners who struggle to speak from one identity position may be able to reshape their relationship with their interlocutors and claim alternative, more powerful identities from which to speak, and as a result improving language learning.

Norton (2000) defines power as "the socially constructed relations among individuals, institutions and communities through which symbolic and material resources in a society are produced, distributed and validated" (p. 7). In Norton's (2000) view symbolic resources refer to nonphysical resources such as language proficiency. Material resources refer to tangible resources such as books, tools, and computers. *Power relations* between a teacher and student or among peers, may be of various nature. According to Blackledge and Pavlenko (2001) identity is the product of the negotiation between an individual's identity claims and the availability of identity choices determined by the power relations in various social contexts. Hawkins (2004) states that on the one hand, individuals claim desirable and appropriate identities based primarily on "the subjects' understandings of the social world within which they are positioned" (p. 18). On the other hand, based on Mitchell and Myles (2004), "the social structure of communities and the power relations obtaining within them define the learning possibilities available to members" (p. 241). Such negotiation is referred to as the continuous struggles between positioning and repositioning. According to Toohey, Day and Manyak (2007) the notion of positioning issues form the recognition that people always communicate more than semantic content through their speech and non-verbal behavior. Through our choices of languages, dialects, genres, styles, modes, intonations, and timing, we create certain social positions for ourselves and simultaneously position others in particular ways. These acts of positioning occur in and contribute to a dynamic and often inequitable social terrain. The concept of identity position refers to this ongoing process of positioning: Through what we say and do, we place ourselves and are placed by others in positions that influence our identities (the ways we view ourselves and our relationship to the world).

Hawkins (2004) mentions that power relations embedded in different social contexts are the driving forces that shape the individuals' awareness of how they are positioned, what identity roles are accessible, what opportunities are available for negotiation, and what kind of learning takes place. While it is essential to understand situated identities in light of power relations, Blackledge and Pavlenko (2001) point out the limitations of the notion of identity negotiation, as there are cases in which identities may not be negotiable or relevant in the historical or social contexts. They assert that it is important to differentiate the following three types of power relations: (a) "the power differential is such that resistances of negotiation [are] impossible," (b) the power relations "which evoke resistance," and (c) the power relations "where the interlocutors or the negotiating parties may enjoy a relatively equal power balance" (p. 250). Given

the intricate relation between power relations and identity negotiation, it is critical to identify the nature of power relations in order to understand the possibility for and effectiveness of identity negotiation.

As it is clear based on the above points, power relations and power negotiation within a group, which in this context is called community of practice, affect learners' identity towards either positive learning outcomes or negative ones. As was mentioned, if the interlocutors or the negotiating parties possess a relatively equal power relationship, it makes them feel at ease and negotiate their identities freely which, in turn, leads to efficient language learning. However, if the power relation in the group is in favor of one party, the other participant may not express his/her identity openly. In this case, identity negotiation fails and this influences language learning negatively.

VI. IDENTITY INVESTMENT

Learning about power relations, it is found that individual desires have also a significant role in the process of identity negotiation. Research findings confirm this position. Based on the findings obtained through a study on immigrant women in Canada, Norton (2000) proposed that instead of the discussion of motivation in the process of SLA, it is better to propose the concept of identity investment as a way to recognize the complex relationship between power, identity, and language learning. Most theories at the time assumed that motivation was a character trait of the individual language learner and that learners who failed to learn the target language were not sufficiently committed to the learning process. Norton (2000) states that such theories did not do justice to the identities and experiences of the language learners. Therefore the notion of motivation was replaced by the more fruitful concept of investment. The notion of investment, inspired by the work of Bourdieu, signals the socially and historically constructed relationship of learners to the target language and their often uncertain (having both positive and negative feelings towards a subject) desire to learn and practice it. If learners 'invest' in the target language, they do so with the understanding that they will acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital. Unlike notions of instrumental motivation, which conceive of the language learner as having a unitary, fixed, and ahistorical 'personality,' the notion of investment conceives of the language learner as having a complex identity, changing across time and space, and reproduced in social interaction. An investment in the target language is best understood as an investment in the learner's own identity (Norton, 2000). Accordingly, as Norton (2000) states it is assumed that "a learner has multiple desires mediated by his/her perception of the power relations in context, and his/her investment in learning should be viewed as "an investment in a learner's own identity" (p. 11).

VII. SOCIOCULTURAL APPROACH TO LEARNER IDENTITY

Sociocultural perspectives on learning devote particular attention to the concept of learner identity. Hegel is identified as the originator of many socioculturally-oriented approaches to identity, including his identification of relationships, interaction, activity, discourse and recognition as essential constituents of an identity (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006, cited in Falsafi & Coll, 2010). According to Falsafi and Coll (2010) the theories applied in the conceptualization of learner identity mainly use three recurring aspects of the sociocultural approach to identity. These are the theories that identify the discursive or rhetorical nature of identity those which view identity construction as deeply embedded in activity and as part of social practice and finally approaches that emphasize recognition as essential to identity construction. The activity is defined by its object, which in turn defines the nature or the type of identity. In other words, the activity defines the content of the identity or the meanings that are being constructed about oneself. When playing football the meanings that the individual constructs about himself concern his recognition as a team player, a skilled ballplayer, an individualist goal hunter, etc., whereas the activity of coaching the football team drives the construction of meanings about himself as an instructor, motivator, game strategist, etc. While the activity provides the identity with meaning material, the discursive or rhetorical features of identity is in our view a reference to the mode in which the identity is being constructed. Falsafi and Coll (2010) suggest that discourse is the primary mode of identity construction, but not the only, since non-discursive actions, e.g. gestures, physical positioning, level of exposure to the surrounding etc., also are used. The mode of construction is related to the sight of identity construction, that is to say, whether it is taking place within the activity (participation in the classroom) or outside of the activity (talking about the participation in the classroom). Finally, they identify the notion of recognition as essential to any conceptualization of identity construction. In order to be, the individual requires the co-recognition of himself and others of this being. Hence, having an identity is to have a sense of recognition as someone. The meanings that are being constructed about oneself need to be recognized or else they cannot endure throughout and beyond the activity. Yet another shared feature of most of the socioculturally-oriented approaches is the emphasis on the two-dimensional nature of an identity as part individual and part social. The extent to which the individual and social are emphasized differs between the perspectives, and the operationalization of the distinction between the two dimensions and their point of overlap seems to be an ongoing theoretical and empirical challenge. However, regardless of other differences, this two dimensional conceptualization of identity seems to be a common denominator of most socio-culturally oriented approaches to identity construction. In Vygotskian terms, this specific feature could be expressed as the connection between the interpsychological and intrapsychological processes of identity construction. This implies that though an identity most certainly is experienced as a personal resource, the origin of its constituents, its value and its mediating function are socioculturally defined and

constructed through relations. It takes at least two to construct an identity, but no matter how social and relational its construction and use always requires the subjective experience of an individual (Falsafi & Coll, 2010).

VIII. TYPES OF IDENTITY

Joseph (2004) mentions three types of identity namely ethnic, national, and racial identity. *Ethnic* identity is focused more on common descent and on a cultural heritage shared because of common descent, than on political aspirations for autonomy. *National* identity is focused on political borders and autonomy, often justified by arguments centered on shared cultural heritage, but where the ethnic element is inevitably multiple. Finally, the *racial* identity – now a concept virtually taboo in American discourse (and this taboo itself represents an identity phenomenon in need of interrogation and discussion) – focused, like ethnic identity, on common descent (origin and nationality) and cultural heritage, but conceived on a large scale, for example 'black' identity as opposed to Indian identity.

Different authors have proposed different categorizations for learners' identity; however, all of them agree on the existence of multiple identities all at once at one space and time. According to Osguthorpe (2006) there are at least five different kinds of identity that are influenced by learning, namely professional, personal, talent, character and learner identity. From another perspective, identity can be categorized into social, cultural as well as ethnic or racial identity all affecting the process of learning in certain ways. However, learner identity is considered as the key in the learning process and is affected by all other types or can be regarded as an umbrella term which covers all the other categories. According to Osguthorpe (2006) the learner identity is affected by every new learning experience and he claims that all the other identities revolve around this one. A change and development in any of the other identities depends on the condition of the learner identity. Osguthorpe's definition of the learner identity focuses on the general long-term perception that one has of oneself as someone who easily can learn whatever necessary or as someone who has to overcome problems in order to learn.

According to Gumperz (1982) besides our uniquely personal sense of self, we also have social identities based upon the various groups to which we belong. Thus, we can maintain and enhance self-esteem through valued social affiliations, as well as by purely personal activities and achievements. According to the theory, it follows that within-group favoritism is predictable since it reflects and supports the particular 'us and them' boundaries that can heighten feelings of individual worth. Gumperz (1982) believes that in-group solidarity should be expected to strengthen at times when one's sense of worth is threatened or tenuous. Based on Benwell and Stokoe (2006) social identity theory explores the phenomenon of the 'ingroup' and 'outgroup', and is based on the view that identities are constituted through a process of *difference* defined in a relative or flexible way dependent upon the activities in which one is engaged. Put simply, the ingroup is the one to which an individual 'belongs' and the 'outgroup' is seen as 'outside' and different from this group. Pierce (1995) defines social identity as "the relationship between the individual and the larger social world, as mediated through institutions such as families, school, workplaces, social services, and law courts" (p. 23). Three defining characteristics of social identity according to Pierce (1995) include: the multiple nature of identity, identity as a site of struggle, and identity as changing over time. Peirce separates "social identity" from "cultural identity," which she defines as "the relationship between individuals and members of a particular ethnic group who share a common history, a common language, and similar ways of understanding the world" (p. 23).

As Atkinson (1999) has noted, past theories of cultural identity tended to essentialize and regard identities in problematic ways. In more recent years, however, the difference between social and cultural identity is seen to be theoretically more fluid, and the intersections between social and cultural identities are considered more significant than their differences. In recent second language research, as was mentioned previously, identity is seen as socioculturally constructed, and scholars draw on both institutional and community practices to understand the conditions under which language learners speak, read, and write the target language. Duff and Uchida (1997), indeed, collapsed the distinctions between the social and the cultural by arguing for a sociocultural theory of identity in which identities and beliefs are co-constructed, negotiated, and transformed on a regular basis through language.

As Cummins (2000) states current research on second language identity conceives of identity as dynamic, contradictory, and constantly changing across time and place. Indeed, a recurring theme throughout much of the research is that of 'transition.' Many of the participants in research projects on second language identity are undergoing significant changes in their lives, whether moving from one country to another or from one institution to the next. Such transitions can be productive for language learning, providing learners with enhanced skills at negotiating bilingual identities; other transitions can be more problematic, as learners struggle to accommodate changing expectations in different institutional contexts. In such changing sets of circumstances, identities that might be seen as contradictory may, in point of fact, be constructed within contexts that are themselves sites of struggle (Cummins, 2000).

IX. RESEARCH ON IDENTITY

Researchers of second language identity have become interested not only in the conditions under which language learners speak, but in the extent to which identities and investments structure their engagement with texts. According to Norton (2006) there is growing recognition that when a second language learner reads or writes a text, both the comprehension and construction of the text is mediated by the learner's investment in the activity and the learner's

sociocultural identity. A lot of research has been done in this area of which two are mentioned here. For example, Norton Peirce and Stein (1995) demonstrate how the meaning of a South African reading comprehension text shifted when the social conditions under which it was read changed. They argue that the changing social occasions created different kinds of investments on the part of the students, and as the students' identities shifted from compliance to resistance, so did their interpretation of the text. Lam (2000) studied the Internet correspondence of a Chinese immigrant teenager in the United States who entered into transnational communication with a group of peers. She demonstrates how this experience of what she calls textual identity related to the student's developing identity in the use of English.

According to Toohey (2001, cited in Chen, 2010) in general, three bodies of research have been conducted in order to investigate identity. The first body of research examines the impact of school practices on identity construction. These studies suggest that classroom practices along with many other school practices, as well as with larger, societal ones should not lead to the supposition that identities are natural or inevitable. The second body of research focuses on the social relations among learners or between a teacher and student. Implications of this work indicate that different types of social relations impose different identities on learners, which leads to different learning outcomes. A third perspective examines social and school discourses to which learners are subjected and the agency they exercise to negotiate their identities. It implies that discourse and power are often interrelated in shaping learners' senses of selves. These studies with linguistically diverse students at different ages suggest that school practices, social relations among members, and social and school discourses are crucial factors in understanding learners' identity construction and their investment in new language and literacy (Toohey, 2000, cited in Chen, 2010).

X. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Through the above literature, we took a critical detailed look at the role of identity in relation to second language learning and teaching. Learner identity, as an important characteristic, has a crucial effect on the teaching practices as well learning outcomes. According to Chavous (2006) academic engagement requires linking one's personal identity to the roles of student and learner, showing sustained curiosity and interest in class, and displaying intense efforts in learning tasks. Based on Norton (1997) a language learner's identity may help him/her become less/more motivated in language learning. According to Osguthorpe (2006) the learner identity is affected by every new learning experience. He defines learner identity as the general long term perception that one has of oneself as someone who easily can learn whatever necessary or as someone who has to overcome problems in order to learn. Getting familiar with the concept of identity as both an individual and a social variable, certain implications deserve mentioning in relation to educational and teaching practices which bear significant outcomes both for language teachers and educational authorities.

- One important thing teachers should notice is that every learner comes to class with a different linguistic background as well as a specific identity which is culturally bound. Even, identity conflict exists not only between home and school communities but also among various school/university communities. Therefore, teachers should try to construct a collaborative environment in which all learners with different identities feel comfortable to freely participate in classroom activities.

- Considering the nature of power relations, students decide to conform or to contest their positioning by the teacher in the classroom. Teachers should not give priority to certain identities due to different orientations including cultural, social, gender, racial, class and so on; instead they should provide an equitable situation in which identity negotiation is fostered and as a result this enhances learning outcomes in students and leads to their success in classroom community.

- Teachers should not divide students into lower-status and higher-status individuals; rather students have to be provided with opportunities to demonstrate their talents and obtain a sense of accomplishment through doing academic challenging tasks. This makes learners build a positive identity in the classroom and increases their self-confidence and skills such as problem-solving and risk-taking.

- Teachers should also notice and be sensitive to institutional practices that may impose undesirable identities on students and support making necessary institutional changes which may lead to constructing a positive identity in learners. For instance, teachers can consult to school authorities for providing appropriate environment, programs and facilities.

- According to Cummins (1996) when students feel supported in their self-worth, they have a much stronger sense of belonging in the community. Teachers need to recognize how powerful their discursive practices can be in helping students negotiate undesirable identities and leading to positive learning experiences. Teachers have to participate students in decision-making processes and by empowering them try to provide a learner-centered environment moving away from teacher-centeredness.

Finally, as it was said earlier, learner identity has opened up an extensive area of research both for language teachers and scholars to work on its various aspects trying to measure its impact on the teaching practices as well as learning outcomes. According to Norton (2006) if we take seriously the argument that the identity of the second language learner is not a personality variable but a socially and historically constructed relationship to both institutional and community practices, then it follows that teachers, researchers, administrators, testers, and policy makers are all implicated in the range of identities available to the second language learner. There is every indication that based on Norton (2006), the

interest in second language identity will grow in momentum, enriching existing course of research and shaping new, exciting directions.

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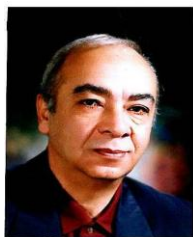
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Habitus of Translators as Socialized Individuals: Bourdieu's Account[*]

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Abstract—**This paper is to investigate the *habitus* of translators, one of core notions of Pierre Bourdieu's sociological theory. It starts with the conceptulization of "habitus" under the umbrella of sociology of translation, then analyses the differential and interwoven relationship between "*habitus*" and "field", the *habitus* of translation agents (here exclusively referring to translators) who have taken a position in a given target field in a given epoch, and the determinant factors of the target field as the site of reception of the translation. A case of translator's *habitus* is taken as an illustration, with reference to the renowned Chinese translator Yan Fu. The interrelaiton of his *habitus* and the field, the social milieu in 1900s in China, is examined with respect to translation. Additionally, criticism is also discussed from researchers arguing Bourdieusian theoretical abstraction and methodological imprecision.**

Index Terms—***habitus*, translator, field, sociology of translation, Yan Fu**

I. INTRODUCTION

The recent emergence of a sociological outlook in translation studies seems to have been the result of a convergence of factors. It developed both in translation studies proper, in the wake of the TDS model of inquiry and also, in sociological circles, on account of a new interest for the space occupied by translations in the literary field. At the same time, this configuration of interests has taken place without much attention being paid to the uneasy relationships between sociologists and historians since the end of the nineteenth century. The different sociological perspectives emerging within the field have introduced a number of methodological approaches for investigating translation and interpreting activity as a social phenomenon, the social framework within which translators act was partially defined to change the discrepancy between the marginal status of translators and their central role in the construction of "meaning" in transcultural exchanges. With that perspective, this paper investigates notions in sociology of translation, a new but robust area, which has highlighted the central position of translators themselves in the translation process, and has identified translators' professional trajectories and social positioning as crucial to both the process and products of translation activity. The first part of this paper is an attempt to locate the interdisciplinary space where a socio-translation studies could establish itself. It focuses on the two interrelated areas: (1) how the notion of *habitus* is conceptualized from the perspective of Pierre Bourdieu's ideas; that is, how the translator encompasses the concept of *habitus* and exhibits his or her *habitus*; (2) how *habitus* is interwoven with field; that is, how the practice of translation, in Bourdieu's terms, is based upon a coincidence of two instances: the internal instance (textual productions and products, the producing agents and their "*habitus*") and the external instance of literary texts (what we have customarily called the literary institution and what Bourdieu calls the "field"). The second section outlines a historical case study in which sociological concepts contribute a particular interpretation of a typically major figure in the history of translation in China. To illustrate, a study of Yan Fu himself and his translations is examined to show a translator who, embodied in his "*habitus*" a -- social and biological trajectories, imports the foreign text into the target culture, thus orienting this culture toward a new social future.

II. SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACH TO TRANSLATION STUDIES

During the past few years, the study of translation from a sociological point of view has come more and more to the fore within the descriptive translation studies (DTS) paradigm. Gouvanvic (1997, p.126) suggests that what is missing from polysystem theory and descriptive translation studies is "a social explanation of the role of institutions and practices in the emergence and reproduction of symbolic goods. Bourdieu's model seems to be the one best suited to account for the complexities of cultural products". In other words, polysystem theory and DTS describe the workings of the system in broad-brush, abstract terms, but do not explain, for instance, how a work comes to be canonized or how norms come to be

elaborated and propagated. Gouanvic, among others, therefore criticizes "the remarkable absence of the social in Toury's work" (ibid.).

The emergent sociological perspectives provide new sets of analytical concepts and explanatory procedures to theorize the social nature of translation practices across a diverse range of contexts. The French social theorist Pierre Bourdieu, together with Bruno Latour and Niklas Luhmann from Germany, have so far been the most influential in approaches that originate in the social sciences. Their respective understandings of what constitutes the social are varied, separately or in combination to explore fundamental questions shared by translation scholars interested in the social nature of acts of translation. Bourdieu has began to attract the attention of translation scholars, for example, Daniel Simeoni (1998) examines the issue of the specialized *habitus* of the translator and primary role it might play in translation studies and Hermans (1999). Sociological approaches have highlighted the central position of translators themselves in the translation process, and have identified trasnlator's professional trajectories and social positioning as crucial to both the process and products of translation activity.

A.   The Conceptulization of Habitus in Sociology of Translation

"Habitus" is an old philosophical notion, originating in the thought of Aristotle, whose notion of *hexis* ("state") was translated into *habitus*. The term in contemporary usage was used in sociology by Marcel Mauss's and later re-elaborated by Pierre Bourdieu. *Habitus* is a complex concept, but in its simplest usage could be understood as a structure of the mind characterized by a set of acquired schemata, sensibilities, dispositions and taste.(Scott & Marshall, 1998) The particular contents of the *habitus* are the result of the objectification of social structure at the level of individual subjectivity. Hence, the *habitus* is, by definition, same with the structural conditions in which it emerged. Bourdieu elaborates on the notion of *habitus* by explaining its dependency on history and human memory. For instance, a certain behaviour or belief becomes part of a society's structure when the original purpose of that behaviour or belief can no longer be recalled and becomes socialized into individuals of that culture.

There are some attempts to integrate the notion of *habitus,* one of core notions of formulating Bourdieu's theoretical approaches to the relationship between agency and structure, into a descriptive approach to translation. (Simeoin 1998, Inghilleri 2003) According to Bourdieu (1992, p.97), *habitus* refers to the subjects' internalized system of social structures in the form of dispositions. The inculcation of social structure is a lifelong process of interactions between structure and agency. Through various and variable individual and collective past, every cultural actor thus develops a social identity: certain representation of the world and his position. For Bourdieu, individuals act in habitual, conventionalized ways that are to a large extent the product of the incorporation of social structures, structures that are themselves the product of historical struggles and which are therefore subject to change.(Baker, 2009, p.282)

The *habitus* (Bourdieu, 1991, p.53) of a translator as a producer may be defined as a durable, transposable disposition acquired by the socialized body, which invests in practice the organizing principles that are socially constructed in the course of a suited and dated experience. That is to say, the *habitus* of a translator is "the elaborate result of a personalized social and cultural history"(Simeoni, 1998, p.32). And a review of the history of translation from a sociological perspective shows the *habitus* of translators involves the internalisation of subalternity and marginality (ibid.) Translator see themselves as the guardians of the word and as the gate keepers and constructors of culture. They know they have the power to select, to transform and to define, which also provides them with the key to socially accepted values and truths.

In today's world it would appear as natural. The language skills needed for the exercise translation will typically have acquired in a translator training institution. These acquired dispositions however do not turn him or her into a translator. To become a translator, he or she will have to implement his or her activities with respect to a given field. The relationship between the actualized dispositions of the translator's *habitus* and the translator's position vis-a-vis a text to be translated, that is vis-a-vis a text belonging to a given field, this relationship takes shapes as the activity of translating becomes a matter of routine, when the *habitus* has been internalized as an integrated part of the operation of translation in the field. Nevertheless, the concept suffers from attack on its abstraction of definition. Analyses of notion of *habitus* is lack for a lot of field logics, and especially for intercultural contacts, *habitus* seems put too much emphasis on structure over agency. (Sheffy, 1997)

Observing a sociology at the individual level, analysing social reality in its individualized way, we can draw a conclusion that translators, though, are always more than mere translators. A socialized individual cannot be reduced to a profession. Furthermore, in situations where the professional field is not (or is only weakly) differentiated, this individualized history is likely to make up most of a translator's *habitus*, say, in the period around early 1900s in China. Many social domains (political, religion, arts, economics) have been evolving into relatively autonomous fields over the past two centuries , and the translation is no exception.

B.   Interwoven Relationship between Habitus and Field

"Field" is another core concept used by Pierre Bourdieu. A field is a setting in which agents and their social positions are located. The position of each particular agent in the field is a result of interaction between the specific rules of the field, agent's *habitus* and agent's capital (social, economic and cultural) (Bourdieu, 1984). Fields interact with each other, and are hierarchical (most are subordinate of the larger field of power and class relations).

Further, "field" is "a structured space with its own laws of functioning, its structure being determined by the relations

between the positions which agents occupy in the field" (Hermans, 1999, p.132). It means also that it is a space where a range of assumptions, discursive elaborations, certain types of behaviour are perceived as legitimate and others are not. Fields are sites of tension, competition, confrontation, struggle of various forces individual and institutional – struggle over the definition of the field itself and what constitutes legitimate or valued behaviour within it; it is through this struggle or tension that fields evolve over time. As Bourdieu put it (1983, p. 312), "The literary or artistic field is a *field of forces*, but it is also a *field of struggles* tending to transform or conserve this field of forces". Among all cultural producers, translators have a special role to play owing to the fact that the work which is to emerge in the field already exists as a foreign text in the source field. The struggles of translators to impose themselves in the target field are not entirely of the same sort as those engaged in by a writer in the literary field.

Translation, like other forms of written production, is open to a scholarly analysis. But it is unlike other written works in that at least four elements intervene in its operation. These are the source text (and its determinants), the target text (and its determinants), the translator as a subjectivity, and the translator as a subjectivity, and the translator as historicity. These elements entertain relations which tie them together, and which can be described in Bourdieu's terms through the notion of *habitus* and field.

With key notions of *habitus* and field, Bourdieu develops a philosophy of action by constructing a fundamental relationship between the social trajectory of the agent (based on his or her incorporated dispositions, or *habitus*) and the objective structures (specified under fields). This is a "two-way" relationship (Gouvanic, 2005, p.148) the social trajectory that constitutes the *habitus* contributes to the structuring of fields, which in turn structure the *habitus*. It is within the context of particular fields and through the habitus-embodied dispositions acquired through individuals' social and biological trajectories and continually shaped and negotiated vis-a-vis fields- that social agents establish and consolidate their positions in social space. Field and *habitus* are intrinsically interrelated together, none can be defined without referring to the others. *Habitus* is a deeply embodied phenomenon that structures a field and at the same time is structured by the field. Bourdieu's theory of cultural action is thus not only a sociology of the institution but also of its agents. It is a sociology of the text as a production in the process of being carried out, of the product itself and of its consumption in the social fields, the whole seen in a relational manner. For Bourdieu, practical instances cannot be adequately described if we neglect one of the elements nor if we make distinctions between things which should not be thought of separately. (ibid.)

On a global level, the object of research in translation studies ultimately becomes the analysis of the differential relationship between the *habitus* of translation agents (including publishers, critics, etc.) who have taken a position in a given target field in a given epoch, and the determinant factors of the target field as the site of reception of the translation. Additionally, the object of translation research is a differential analysis of source and target texts as exhibitors of pertinent traits studied in the *habitus* of agents and in the fields in question. In this sense, for Bourdieu there exists neither internal nor external dimensions but a concurrence of both. It is upon this foundation that I present a sociology of translation below, considering a case of a patriotic Chinese translator during the first decades of the twentieth century.

III.   YAN FU AS A SOCIALIZED IDENTITY

Individual figures of translators have been investigated in historically oriented works. Research in this area has focused on a diverse array of actual sites and activities. These include topics on the analysis of translation strategies and skills of a specific product modelled on a systemic linguistics in the history, the transfer knowledge and dissemination of religion (Ma Zuyi, 1998), role of translators in the formation of national literatures (Wang Hongzhi, 1999), construction of meaning in intercultural exchanges, giving detailed information on their social and cultural contexts (Delisle & Woodsworth 1995, Wang Kefei, 1997), subjectivity and intersubjectivity of translators in the translating process (Chen Fukang, 2000), and critical post-modernist approach to open up translators in culture-studies-based research (Tymoczko & Gentzler, 2002).

We share the view that the inescapable role of translators playing in the construction of cultures in the history has been and is being recognized. Originating as a sub-discipline of linguistics, however, translation "theory" for many years chose to ignore the cognitive, social and cultural constraints under which translators operate historically, and force the translators into invisibility, reducing them to the status of transcoders and translation machines (Venuti, 1995). The functional, text - and discourse - oriented approach DTS has been heavily criticized for "gloriously overlook[ing] the human agent, the translator" (Hermans, 1999, p.222). In particular, by focusing on the study of various and variable norms of a target-oriented approach, Toury's model for DTS has privileged collective schemes and structures instead of individual actors. The reference values employed by DTS were the literary systems (Even-Zohar, 1990) and not the agents and agencies that generate conventions and norms as a product of social negotiation (Hermans, 1999, p.117) It was not until the 1990s and the cultural turn in translation studies (Bassnett & Lefevere, 1990) that translation studies finally also included the translators in its purview, as well as the translators' research for a way to cut through the labyrinth of socio-cultural constraints and their active role in the construction of cultures. Anthony Pym (1998), in his innovative work *Method in Translation History,* calls for an emphasis from texts and contexts to the individual translators as central objects of research with an aim to reconstruct the domain of socially conditioned subjectivity as a basis for understanding the translators' history.

For an analysis which expects to draw the notions of *habitus* and field from Bourdieu's model, it is imperative that it places the activities it investigate in a social milieu. In other words, this type of analysis will focus, on one hand, on interventions by agents who are the producers of the texts under discussion, and on the other hand, on the structural and institutional conditions which are at the origin of the production in question. The social milieu is here anything but a mere framework in which to lodge a text that would somehow exist independently of it. And, any text, translated or not, results from a social production process. It is impossible to consider it divorced from the social, for that would take away what makes it into a text, with all it contains, from the creativity of its producer to the dissemination of the translator. In fact, both translation and translator cannot be thought out of the social space in which it emerges. Whether in scientific or technical texts, administrative, judicial, philosophical or literary texts, the act of translation always and simultaneously intervenes, on the other hand, in a product which is the result of thematics of languages for special purposes immersed in society and, on the other hand, in the state of society at a given historical period.

Let us take the example of the literary field and one of the renowned translators in China during 1900s to see how the translator acquires his bi-cultural 'habitus' and imports the foreign text into the target culture as a symbolic material, thus orienting this culture toward a new social future.

A.   Social Milieu in 1900s in China

After the First Sino-Japanese War, when the last of the Chinese Dynasties - the Qing - followed its downward trend toward disintegration by the end of the nineteen century, the eagerness to absorb things Western as a way of "saving" the country, an incentive to rapidly import ideas from the West, led to a flurry of translation activity unmatched by any since the great epoch of medieval Buddhist translations. A large number of social groups and private publishing companies flourished. The number of translated literature on social sciences was in increase. Since the language competence of the returned students, who finished their study abroad and came back to China, was higher than before, the traditional translation mode, under which missionaries and the Chinese cooperated to do the translation, was turning to be the independent translation of the Chinese students. (Ma Zuyi, 1998, p.366) However, as described by Liang Qichao, "People just wanted to translate more books, no matter whether it was significant or not, what school it belongs to, so the translation practice at that time actually lacked organization and standard, but the society just didn't care" (Wang Kefei, 1997, p.233, my translation). This indeed met the needs of the society, because the society only needed the ideas, thoughts, and life styles of the Western countries. This plays an important role in the process of Westernization and modernization of the society.(Wang Kefei, 1997)

B.   Yan Fu's Habitus and Positioning

Given the prevailing social and language hierarchies and barriers, the Western ideas had a hard time in this positional setting. How do individual translators find their way through the intricate web? How should we understand changes in their profiles and in their choices in relation to the overall dominate structural and normative model in China at that period? Yan Fu, as the most prominent translator, under the influence of social position, developed himself as a social identity: a certain representation of the world (agent between China and the West) and of the person's position (a translator).

Yan Fu, living in the Modern China, witnessed the deterioration of China from an independent feudal society to a semi-feudal and semi-colonial society. His political views were complex. As a patriotic scholar,Yan Fu was much concerned about the fate of Chinese nation. Facing the pressing national crisis and the ignorance of the Qing government and the majority of Chinese people, he knew if China wanted to become independent and revive her old glory, the most effective way was to scale up the quality of its people and improved the Chinese government immediately. Therefore, Yan Fu advocated curing people's ignorance by learning from the West. In order to enlighten the Chinese people, Yan Fu wrote a large number of articles and editorials for some influential newspapers, comparing the different cultures and educational systems, political institutions,and customs between China and the West and he also embarked on his translation career in order to analyse the urgency and the necessity to reform and to modernize the feudal constitutions.

Translating is not a mechanical process, and translators are not servants of the original. Translation activities are done under the influence of target social-cultural contexts and are manipulated by the translator's own purposes of translation. Yan Fu turned to translation with the purpose of enlightening the Chinese people and saving the country, which was the same as the dominant ideology then: to wake up the Chinese people and to make China independent and prosperous. As Yan knew clearly that the social sciences and liberal thinking were the root of the prosperity of the Western countries. Thus he chose the source texts seriously, and made plans about when and how to translate according to the times. Yan Fu foremost introduced the Western world in the fields of social science, economy, innovative thinking, liberal concept, political institutions, legal systems, social arrangements and the evolutionary outlook all contributed to the formation of a wealthy and powerful West. Powerful translations include *Evolution and Ethics and Other Essays*, *Study of sociology*, *An Inquiry into Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, *A System of Logic and Primer of Logic*, *History of Politics*

Moreover, in his translations, he conveyed such doctrines as "struggle for existence" and "survival of the fittest" to wake up the Chinese people (He Lin, 1982, p.29-30). Therefore, Yan Fu's insight into the critical moment of China was a shift in the importation into China of the Western learning from the material culture of apparatus and technology to the spiritual culture of thought and academics. However, on the other hand, Yan Fu believed in the ruling of the superior

men of virtue--Wang Dao. He cherished a complex and subtle sentiment to the Qing Dynasty. He expected China to reform, but he could not accept a sudden change. And he hoped that China would adopt the political and social system of the constitutional monarchy.

C.   Interaction of the Translator's Habitus and the Field

The central notions of field and *habitus* are intrinsically woven together, such that none can be defined without recourse to the others. *Habitus* is a deeply embodied phenomenon that structures a field and at the same time is structured by the field. In that case, translation as a practice has little to do with conforming to norms through the deliberate use of specific strategies. Norms failed to explain the more or less subjective and random choices made by Yan Fu, the translator who is free to translate or not to translate, to follow or not to follow the original closely. As what he did in the translation, the choice of source text, the classical Chinese used in the target structure, like any other translator, who might impose a rhythm upon the text, a lexicon or a syntax that does not originate from the source text and thus substitutes his or her voice for that of the author, this is essentially not a conscious strategic choice but an effect of his or her specific *habitus,* as acquired in the target literary field.

Translations, or cultural productions are in our societies organizes and regulated according to principles stemming from "fields" and agents who act in fields and mobilized by interests which proceed from their habitus whatever may be the society in which their action is exerted. It should be noticed that Yan Fu's achievements in translations and his contributions to Modern China are significant to that particular time and his translation activity is an unusual phenomenon in China's, or even the world's history of translation. There exists an interaction between Yan Fu's translation activities and that current structures in the field. On the one hand, the social, political and cultural milieus of Modern China determine Yan Fu's translation activities, developing his *habitus* as a translator, including his aim of translation, his selection of translation materials and his translation techniques. Conversely, Yan Fu's *habitus*, a translator as a social identity, through the field, enlightened Chinese people and saved China from extinction by translating Western works. Translations influence the target socio-culture society, the field, is partly decided by the constraint and acceptance of the target culture to the translated texts.

IV.   Conclusion

This article investigates one of central concepts of Bourdieu's sociology theory. We have discussed that *habitus* is closely linked to the dynamics of a field, existing only in the action of agents equipped with the *habitus*. It is always the *habitus* of a translator that influences the way translation is practised, and this *habitus* cannot be interpreted separately from its rapport with the foreign culture. Translation as production therefore rests on the mode of socialization embodied in the *habitus* that supposes the social practice of translation, and on the other hand, the historicized subjectivity resulting from the translated text's belonging to a given field. The translator places him - or herself at the service of the writer to make this capacity manifest in the target language and culture. In so doing, the translator becomes the agent of the writer, transferring the writer's discourse into the target culture. This discourse proceeds from the actualization of the writer's *habitus* in the literary field. The evolution of the source society expresses a universal image of the human being seen through the prism of the specifics of a history, and this small history produces an image of the greater History. It is true to Yan Fu.

There are some criticisms from researchers arguing that Bourdieu's theory is theoretical abstraction and methodological imprecision, and the analysis of translator's role is discontinued. *Habitus* is a plural and dynamics concept. We have to confess that translation scholars have explored the relevance of these theories to the field of translation in a number of ways. The work of these theorists has contributed to the endeavour to make translators more invisible, or in the case of Luhmann, invisible as social actor. Translation studies will not reach maternity until translators too have acquired their rightful place in the field of cultural production and feel free to give voice to their particular experience of translation, and are more "visible" than Venuti (1995) terms.

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On the Feasible Linkages between Iranian Academic EFL Learners' Emotional Intelligence Level and Their Lexico-semantic Errors in Writing

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Abstract—**Successive to more than two decades of stringent probes into various aspects of EQ gains, now the field of emotional intelligence enjoys an unparalleled status. In an attempt to address one of the untouched realms relevant to EQ, 100 Iranian academic EFL students were randomly chosen form PNU (Payam-e-Noor University) and Islamic Azad University of Mahabad and Boukan. The purpose of the current study was to find whether the learners' emotional intelligence level significantly correlated with their performance in terms of lexico-semantic errors. The main instrument utilized for data collection was Bar-on's Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i, Bar-on, 1997). For being able to tap the learners' lexico-semantic errors, they were asked to write two short paragraphs. Texts were, then, read through with the aim of identifying the lexico-semantic deviants. In order to cater for reliability concerns, three raters corrected the participants' papers. As the findings of the study helped reveal, the learners' EI level was found to have a significant amount of correlation with lexico-semantic errors of female and male academic EFL students. Nevertheless, gender didn't act as an important determiner of learners' EQ and their lexico-semantic errors. It is also worth noting that all fifteen EQ subscales were found to have sufficient predictive value as to the learners' lexico-semantic errors. It was also fascinating to find that out of the fifteen subscales of EI questionnaire, happiness had the highest predictive value with respect to the learners' lexico-semantic errors.**

Index Terms—**Bar-On's EQ-i, EI, emotional intelligence, EQ, lexico-semantic errors**

I. INTRODUCTION

The early scholars who contemplated over the notion of intelligence were not psychologists and even educators, but philosophers. The concept of intelligence has witnessed a variety of orientations and reorientations throughout history, from earlier views like Plato's who likened it to "blocks of wax differing in size, hardness, moistness, and purity" (cited in Cianciolo & Strenberg, 2004, p.1), to more recent ones like Gardner who regarded it as an assortment of intelligences, quite independent of each other, with each intelligence having its own strengths and constraints. Twentieth century was enriched with a number of developments in the field of intelligence. Binet and Simon, for instance, regarded intelligence as "a well-developed judgment skill that children apply to benefit from education" (cited in Cianciolo & Sternberg, 2004, p. 58).

It was toward the end of the twentieth century that scholars came to pinpoint that it is not only IQ, regarded as a fixed notion, that brings about an individual's achievement, and it was just at this point that Gardner's (1983) revolutionary theory of multiple intelligences and Goleman's (1995) groundbreaking theory of emotional intelligence came to be widely endorsed. Defining emotional intelligence as including "abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustration, to control impulses and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swapping the ability to think; to emphasize and to hope" Daniel Goleman (1995,p.34), the prominent spokesperson for emotional intelligence, held that roughly 80 percent of the variance among people in various forms of success that is unaccounted for by IQ test and similar tests can be explained by other characteristics that constitute emotional intelligence.

Now after more than two decades since its early inception, the concept of emotional intelligence has turned to a commonplace terminology within the modern research community, toward which a plethora of varied (interdisciplinary) investigations have been targeted. In Iran like many other countries, the campaign for scrutinizing the diverse gains resulting from EQ has long been established. Yet, only in the recent years has emotional intelligence been probed so widely, particularly on the part of educational practitioners (e.g. Rouhani, 2007, 2008; Pishghadam, 2007, 2009; and Alavinia, 2010, 2011a/b).

A. Statement of the Problem and Research Questions

A fleeting glimpse through the literature on EQ reveals the fact that an exhaustive amount of work has, particularly recently, been appropriated to gauging myriad potential gains germane to possessing high levels of emotional intelligence. Yet, one of the domains toward which scant attention seems to have been paid is the viable influence of EI on learners' efficiency and proficiency to write. It is supposed that the multiplicity of skills involved in writing might be the principal factor that contributes to its overall difficulty. Thus, faced with the alleged paucity of research in this rather intact area, it seems plausible to go about a through-going scrutiny through the feasible go-togetherness between EI, on the one hand and learners' success in writing, on the other. Put more clearly, the chief purpose of the current study is finding out whether EI can act as a predictor of learners' writing proficiency, particularly in terms of lexico-semantic errors. Provided that the results of this study confirm the strong relationship between lexico-semantic errors and the learner's EI, attempts should be made to put an ever-increasing emphasis on the individuals' emotional terrains in educational arena.

To be able to investigate the postulations set forth in the current study, the following research questions were formulated:

1. Is there a significant relationship between the academic Iranian EFL learners' EQ level and the amount of lexico-semantic errors committed by them?

2. Is there any significant relationship between gender of the academic Iranian EFL learners and their level of Emotional Intelligence?

3. Is there any relationship between gender of the academic Iranian EFL learners and their performance in terms of lexico-semantic errors?

B. Significance of the Study

Although some scholars still believe that IQ plays a domineering role in learners' success, others believe in EI and its superseding influence on learners' achievement. Mayor and Salovy among others suggest that learners with high EI can be considered as those with high success in their courses (cited in Nazem, 2008). Though a multitude of investigations, thus far, have grappled with diverse facets of EQ and its disparate implications and repercussions in an individual's academic/social life, there are still some perspectives which have either gone unnoticed or been paid meager heed. One such partially intact area of research might be the viable effect of possessing a high level of EQ on learners' writing proficiency, in general and their committing lexico-semantic errors, in particular. Thus, the current probe might be said to be significant in that it is mainly driven by unique causes, which, to the researchers' best knowledge, haven't received due heed in the existing literature on emotional intelligence and its myriad utilities.

Accordingly, the result of the current are thought to prove beneficial for all the stakeholders of (higher) education system. Curriculum developers and syllabus designers can also take certain measures on the basis of the gained results, particularly in terms of the implementation of fruitful pedagogic tasks to account for learners' emotional side. It is also hoped that the current study might help the instructors include the appropriate strategies relevant to the principles of EI in their minute-by-minute activities in the classroom. If the results of the present study assert that EI is liable to act as a predictor of learners' lexico-semantic errors, it can aid the learners reduce their errors of writings. English language learners can also be aware of the forgotten power of their emotional side and try to adapt it in their way to success in all university courses.

C. Background on the Concept of Intelligence

In line with Spearman's view put forth in 1920s, intelligence was a "combination of a general factor (g), which is available to an individual to the same degree for all intellectual acts, as well as several specific factors which vary in strength from one act to another" (p.32). From the time scholars have tried to write and think about intelligence, they have substantially concentrated on the cognitive aspects. However, according to Cherniss (2000), there are some who bring non-cognitive aspects into focus. Wechsler (1958) defines intelligence as "the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment" (Cherniss, 2000, p.2). Nonetheless, in an attempt to stand opposed to the traditional pillars of the concept of intelligence, Gardner (1983) asserts that instead of considering it as a unitary concept, it should be seen as a multiplex of mental capabilities.

Moreover, Sternberg proposes the triarchic theory of intelligence, which consists of three main elements: metacomponents, performance components, and knowledge acquisition. Metacomponents are the cognitive skills used in decision making. Performance components deal with actual operation. Knowledge acquisitions are the processes used in acquisition knowledge (cited in Williams & Burden, 1997).

Among other researchers concerned with the development of the notion of intelligence, Salovey and Mayer are the ones who play the major role in the development of a more personal-affective type of intelligence. It was in 1990 when the term EI was first coined by these scholars. Having been aware of the research conducted by Salovey and Mayer, Goleman, then a science writer in TIME magazine, authored his first book 'Emotional Intelligence' in 1995, in which he offered the proof that besides cognitive factors of intelligence, emotional and social factors are also of great significance. Mayer and Salovey suggest that EI consists of the ability to receive correctly and express emotions; the ability to reach and produce emotions; the ability to understand emotion; and the ability to organize emotions to foster both emotion and intelligence (cited in Mortiboys, 2005).

Finally, Sparrow and Knight (2006, p.28) present the ABC triangle for EI which is very effective as follows: The 'ABC' triangle is comprised of affects (a pretentious medical name for feeling for emotion), behavior (a grander word for doing) and cognition (a pretentious psychological name for thinking). According to Sparrow and Knight (2006) "thinking and feeling are broadly inputs and doing generally an output. So to emphasize that doing is the result of feeling and/or thinking, we put feeling and thinking together on a level, with a similar relation to doing" (p.29).
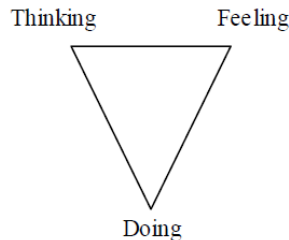

Figure 2.2 ABC Triangle (Adopted from Sparrow and Knight 2006, p.28)

Measures of Emotional Intelligence

The history of theorizing on what the construct of emotional intelligence would look like has always proceeded hand in hand with another line of endeavor aiming at the provision of several operationalized measurement scales approaching the concept of emotional intelligence from a number of different angles. Though literature is replete with several attempts aimed at scrutinizing the construct of emotional intelligence, not all such rough and ready enterprises are worth giving in-depth deliberation in the current study.

Overall, in line with Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000), three branches of emotional intelligence tests exist alternatively being referred to as ability, self-report, and observer or informant rating scales. The sample measures they then put forth as the major archetypes of each scale are: 1) their own renowned test (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 1997/1999) widely known as MEIS (Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale) which is ubiquitously cited as the paramount epitome of ability scales, 2) Bar-On's (1997) EQ-i and Cooper's (1996/1997) EQ-Map which are stated as the principal types of self-report measures, and 3) Boyatzis, Goleman, and Hay/McBer's (1999) Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) that is known as the best example of third group of scales drawing mainly on observer (informant) responses. As the main EQ scale used in the present study is Bar-On's Emotional Quotient Inventory (widely known as EQ-i), in the ensuing section a laconic account will be provided of a number of elemental features of this typical self-report measure of emotional intelligence, and each of its components will be briefly defined and elucidated.

Bar-On's EQ-i

First designed as an experimental scale for measuring the so-called emotional and social competence in the early 1980s (Bar-On, 1985, 1988), Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) was ultimately disseminated as an invaluable and highly pervasive measure of emotional intelligence in 1997. Though a plethora of EI scales had been publicized and promulgated prior to the appearance of Bar-On's (1997a) seminal work, EQ-i can be considered sui generis in that it is referred to as the primary EI test which is published by a psychological center. Furthermore, the additional factor that differentiates between Bar-On's scale and its other counterparts is the distinct nature of EQ-i which is widely known as a self report measure (Bar-On, 2000).

The self-report test of emotional intelligence designed by Bar-On (1997b), is after submitting a firm measurement of "an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (p.14). Its unabridged version is composed of 133 items normally being allotted something around forty minutes to fulfill and is said to be apposite to the age of seventeen and above. This scale is composed of five sections and fifteen separate subsections as follows:

1. Intrapersonal, consisting of five subcategories of emotional self awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualization, and independence

2. Interpersonal, encompassing the three sub-skills of empathy, interpersonal relationship, and social responsibility

3. Stress management, having as its subparts the two so-called categories of stress tolerance and impulse control

4. Adaptability, comprising the three divisions of problem solving, reality testing, and flexibility

5. General mood, entailing the two subscales of happiness and optimism.

Below are succinct delineations for each of the 15 subscales of EQ-i (based on Bar-On, 2000, pp.365-366):

Emotional Self-Awareness (ES) is the ability to recognize and understand one's emotions; *Assertiveness (AS)* is the ability to express feelings, beliefs, and thoughts, and to defend one's rights in a nondestructive manner; *Self-Regard (SR)* is the ability to be aware of, understand, accept, and respect oneself; *Self-Actualization (SA)* is the ability to realize one's potential and to do what one wants to do, enjoy doing, and can do; *Independence (IN)* is the ability to be self-directed and self-controlled in one's thinking and actions and to be free of emotional dependency; *Empathy (EM)* is the ability to be aware of, understand, and appreciate the feelings of others; *Social Responsibility (RE)* is the ability to demonstrate oneself as a cooperative, contributing, and constructive member of one's social group; *Interpersonal Relationship (IR)* is the ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships that are characterized by emotional closeness, intimacy, and by giving and receiving affection; *Reality Testing (RT)* is the ability to access the correspondence

between what is internally and subjectively experienced and what externally and objectively exists; *Flexibility (FL)* is the ability to adjust one's feelings, thoughts, and behavior to changing situations and conditions; *Problem Solving (PS)* is the ability to identify and define personal and social problems as well as to generate and implement potentially effective solutions; *Stress Tolerance (ST)* is the ability to withstand adverse events, stressful situations, and strong emotions without "falling apart" by actively and positively coping with stress; *Impulse Control (IC)* is the ability to resist or delay an impulse, drive, or temptation to act, and to control one's emotions; *Optimism (OP)* is the ability "to look at the brighter side of life" and to maintain a positive attitude, even in the face of adversity; *Happiness (HA)* is the ability to feel satisfied with one's life, to enjoy oneself and others, and to have fun and express positive emotions.

Empirical Studies on EQ

As the studies on various aspects of EI are quite varied and extensive, a brief mention is made here of some of the most eye-catching ones. In so doing, the researchers will refer to the previous body of research under two separate headings of EQ and learning, and EQ and teaching.

EQ and Learning

To mention just a few studies on the implications of EQ for learning, Naglieri and Bornstein (2003) probed the would-be correlation between administration of tests related to intelligence and learners' achievement, Rouhani (2007) investigated how a cognitive/affective-based reading course which focuses on literature affects the construct of EI, Pishghadam (2009) worked toward a quantitative analysis of the relationship between EI and foreign language learning, and Alavinia (2010) scrutinized the viability of enhancing EFL learners' emotional intelligence through the implementation of fuzzy thinking and emotional engineering.

Furthermore, some other researchers working in the realm of performance-relevant aspects of EI are Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) who examine the relationship between EI and performance outcomes, Stubbs (2005) who searches the linkages between EI and group performance, Hader (2006) who reports significant correlation between emotional intelligence and both cognitive and social task performance, and Seal (2006) who investigates the association between emotional competency and performance outcomes.

EQ and Teaching

Gains in teaching due to emotional intelligence is the next intriguing perspective which is addressed in Haskett's (2002) study of the relationship between emotional intelligence and teaching success in higher education, Phillips' (2005) investigation of the bonds between emotional intelligence and effective teaching, Drew's (2006) scrutiny of the liaisons between emotional intelligence and student teacher performance, as well as in Justice and Espinoza's (2007) probe into the linkages between emotional intelligence and beginning teacher candidates. In view of the fact that successful marriage is among the major indicators of life success/satisfaction, research on this alternative area is to be discussed in the ensuing segment.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A total of 100 Iranian EFL students (both male and female) studying at PNU and Islamic Azad Universities of Mohabad and Boukan participated in the present study. The partakers were junior and senior undergraduate students majoring in TEFL and English Language Translation. Table 1 and 2 illustrate the specifications of the study participants in terms of both field of study and gender, and Figure 1 illustrates the gender distribution of partakers in a more cogent manner. As can be seen, 60 percent of respondents were female and 40 percent were male.

TABLE 1
FREQUENCY OF PARTICIPANTS BASED ON FIELD OF STUDY AND GENDER

Field of study	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
TEFL	30	40	70
Translation	10	20	30
Total	40	60	100

TABLE 2
GENDER DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS

Gender	Frequency	Frequency percent
Male	40	%40
Female	60	%60
Total	100	%100
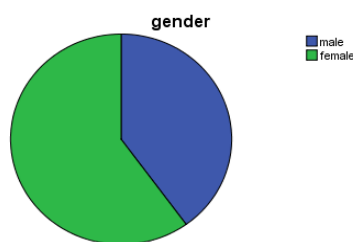
Figure 1 Gender Distribution Chart

B. Instrumentation

The main instrument used in this study was Bar-on's Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i, Bar-on, 1997). Though the original version of the test included 133 questions, later revisions applied to the test by Bar-On himself (1997a, 1997b) reduced its size to a considerable degree, so that the modified version of the test comprised only 117 questions. Furthermore, through later amendments, the size of the domestically standardized instrument was reduced through eradicating the questions which had been rendered either irrelevant or inappropriate to Iranian context by Samouei (2003), who first introduced the test for domestic implementation. Thus, what was utilized as the main source of data collection for the current research was this very reduced form which encompassed 90 questions arranged in 15 separate sections, i.e. the so called subscales of Emotional Self-Awareness, Assertiveness, Self-Regard, Self-Actualization, Independence, Empathy, Social Responsibility, Interpersonal Relationship, Reality Testing, Flexibility, Problem Solving, Stress Tolerance, Impulse Control, Optimism, and Happiness.

The result of the endeavors aimed at domestic standardization of the test, handed satisfactory validity and reliability indices (As Samouei (2003) reported the calculated Cronbach's alpha equaled 0.93, and the reliability index gained through odd-even, split-half method was 0.88). This latter test was conducted on some 500 students (aging 18 to 40) from a number of different majors studying at several domestic universities including Isfahan and Khorasegan Universities. To carry out the experiment, Samouei (2003) had employed the 117-item version of the test which through later analysis was adjusted to include only 90 questions. In an alternative attempt, Karami (2005) reports of a similar study with a group of participants studying at Tehran University, at the end of which the researcher came up with the identical figure of 0.73 for both methods of test-retest and Cronbach's alpha, and hence a satisfactory level of reliability. Yet, opposed to Samouei's experiment, this alternative study had employed the very original version of the test including 133 questions.

C. Design and Procedure

The current study was ex-post facto in nature and mainly followed a correlational design. Successive to the administration of Bar-On's EQ-i, some guidelines and tips were provided for the learners on how to fill the questionnaire. Later on, the learners were asked to write two paragraphs regarding their courses and the university in which they were studying. The paragraphs were written by the subjects in their classrooms under the supervision of one of the researchers. Next, the paragraphs were read through with the aim of identifying the lexico-semantic deviants in them. The basis for establishing the deviants was the contrast made with the Standard English of educated speakers. All the deviations were traced to four linguistic sources: collocation, generalization, similarity, and duplication, which are further subdivided into seven lexico-semantic relation deviants (see Table 3 for a more lucid grasp of the lexico-semantic categories applied in the current study). Furthermore, to come up with more objective and reliable results the learners' written texts were corrected by three scorers, and all the lexico-semantic errors were identified for each and every individual learner. The total scale for the given scores was set at 20. A total of 85 lexico-semantic errors were identified in the data. The tabulations below highlight the number of occurrences of each of the error categories and their overall percentages. Subsequent to data collection, Spearman's correlation and Pearson product moment correlation were estimated to gauge the viable effect of learners' EQ level on their committing lexico-semantic errors.

1. Collocation Errors

ERROR TYPE	OCCURRENCE	PERCENTAGE
ECP	30	35.3
EPC	18	21.2
TOTAL	48	56.6

2. Generalization Errors

ERROR TYPE	OCCURRENCE	PERCENTAGE
EOG	3	3.5
TOTAL	3	3.5

3. Similarity Errors

ERROR TYPE	OCCURRENCE	PERCENTAGE
MSE	16	18.8
SSE	7	8.2
TOTAL	23	27.0

4. Duplication Errors

ERROR TYPE	OCCURRENCE	PERCENTAGE
MDE	6	7.0
WDE	5	5.9
TOTAL	11	12.9

As the figures presented above reveal *Collocation Errors* are predominant in the data (they account for 56.6% of the total Lexico-Semantic Relation Errors). Next to Collocation Errors are *Similarity Errors* that account for 27.0% of the entire errors. The other categories of errors, i.e. *Duplication* and *Generalization Errors* account for 12.9% and 3.5% of the total deviations, respectively.

TABLE 3
LEXICO-SEMANTIC RELATION PROBLEMS

COLLOCATION		GENERALISATION	SIMILARITY		DUPLICATION	
Error of Collocation of Prepositions	Error of Probable Collocations	Error of Generalization	Meaning Similarity Error	Sound Similarity Error	Meaning Duplication Error	Word Duplication Error
ECP	EPC	EOG	MSE	SSE	MDE	WDE

III. RESULTS

A. Analysis of Research Question One

1. Is there a significant relationship between the Academic Iranian EFL learners' EQ level and the amount of lexico-semantic errors committed by them?

TABLE 4
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.911	Emotional Intelligence	Lexico-Semantic errors

As seen in the above table there is a significant Correlation between emotional intelligence and lexico-semantic errors ($r = 0.911$ & $p = 0.000$). Thus, the null hypothesis relevant to the first research question is rejected and evidence is found in favor of the go-togetherness between learners' EQ and the degree of lexico-semantic errors committed by them. Yet, to come up with more cogent upshots, further analysis was done to find the would-be bonds between each single subscale of EQ and the learners' lexico-semantic errors. Thus, in the following fifteen tables the statistical data relevant to the correlation between EQ subscales and learners' lexico-semantic errors have been illustrated.

1). Emotional Self-Awareness

TABLE 5
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN SELF-AWARENESS AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.809	Self-Awareness	Lexico-Semantic Errors

As seen in the above table, level of significance is less than 0.05. Therefore, it can be contended that a significant relationship holds between students' lexico-semantic errors and their *Emorional Self-Awareness* ($p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.809$).

2). Assertiveness

TABLE 6
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN ASSERTIVENESS AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.708	Assertiveness	Lexico-Semantic Errors

As can be seen in Table 6, the level of significance is less than 0.05. Thus, there is a significant relationship between students' lexico-semantic errors and their *Assertiveness* ($p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.708$).

3). Empathy

TABLE 7
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN EMPATHY AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.710	Empathy	Lexico-Semantic Errors

In line with the information presented in Table 7, a significant correlation exists between students' lexico-semantic errors and their *Empathy* ($p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.710$).

4). Social Responsibility

TABLE 8
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.691	Social Responsibility	Lexico-Semantic Errors

The findings reported in Table 8 point to another instance of significant correlation between the learners' lexico-semantic errors and their *Social Responsibility* ($p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.691$).

5). Flexibility

TABLE 9
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN FLEXIBILITY AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.677	Flexibility	Lexico-Semantic Errors

On account of the data depicted in Table 9, a significant correlation can be said to be at work between students' lexico-semantic errors and their *Flexibility* ($p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.677$).

6). Impulse Control

TABLE 10
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN IMPULSE CONTROL AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.608	Impulse Control	Lexico-Semantic Errors

As is seen in the above table, a significant relationship holds between students' lexico-semantic errors and their *Impulse Control* ($p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.608$).

7). Self-Regard

TABLE 11
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN SELF-REGARD AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.816	Self-Regard	Lexico-Semantic Errors

Drawing on the data illustrated in Table 11, it can be claimed that there is a significant relationship between students' lexico-semantic errors and their *Self-Regard* ($p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.816$).

8). Optimism

TABLE 12
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN OPTIMISM AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.792	Optimism	Lexico-Semantic Errors

As Table 12 shows, *optimism*, the other subscale of Bar-On's EQ-i, significantly correlates with the learners' lexico-semantic errors ($p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.792$).

9). Interpersonal Relationship

TABLE 13
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.707	Interpersonal Relationship	Lexico-Semantic Errors

Based on what is presented in Table 13, the relationship between students' lexico-semantic errors and their *Interpersonal Relationship* is again significant ($p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.707$).

10). Reality Testing

TABLE 14
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN REALITY TESTING AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.758	Reality Testing	Lexico-Semantic Errors

As Table 14 reveals, another significant correlation holds between students' lexico-semantic errors and their *Reality Testing.* ($p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.758$).

11). Self-Actualization

TABLE 15
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN SELF-ACTUALIZATION AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.826	Self-Actualization	Lexico-Semantic Errors

Self-Actualization also correlates significantly with the learners' lexico-semantic errors (based on the data illustrated in Table 15, $p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.826$).

12). Stress Tolerance

TABLE 16
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN STRESS TOLERANCE AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.769	Stress Tolerance	Lexico-Semantic Errors

On the basis of the findings presented in Table 12, once again a significant correlation is encountered between students' lexico-semantic errors and their *Stress Tolerance* ($p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.769$).

13). Happiness

TABLE 17
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN HAPPINESS AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.836	Happiness	Lexico-Semantic Errors

As Table 17 depicts, the subscale of *Happiness*, too, correlates significantly with the learners' lexico-semantic errors ($p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.836$).

14). Problem Solving

TABLE 18
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN PROBLEM SOLVING AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.716	Problem Solving	Lexico-Semantic Errors

According to Table 18, another instance of significant correlation is witnessed with regard to the relationship between students' lexico-semantic errors and their *Problem Solving* ability ($p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.716$).

15). Independence

TABLE 19
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN INDEPENDENCE AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.000	0.636	Independence	Lexico-Semantic Errors

Faced with the significant correlation ($p = 0.000$ & $r = 0.636$) holding between the learners' *Independence* and lexico-semantic errors (see Table 19), the researchers come to the conclusion that all subscales of Bar-On's EQ-i correlate significantly with the learners' lexico-semantic errors, that is to say individuals who possess higher levels of emotional intelligence are found to commit fewer errors of lexico-semantic type.

B. Analysis of Research Question Two

2. Is there any significant relationship between gender of the academic Iranian EFL learners and their level of Emotional Intelligence?

TABLE 20
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN GENDER AND LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.378	- 0.038	Gender	Lexico-Semantic errors

As seen in Table 20, there is no significant correlation between the participants' gender and their performance in terms of lexico- semantic errors (r = -0.038 & p = 0.378).

C. Analysis of Research Question Three

3. Is there any relationship between gender of the academic Iranian EFL learners and their performance in terms of lexico-semantic errors?

TABLE 21
SIMPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN GENDER AND LEARNERS' DEGREE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Total Sample (n)	Level of Significance (p)	The Correlation Coefficient (r)	Statistical Indicators Predictive Variable	Criterion Variable
100	0.207	- 0.083	Gender	Emotional Intelligence

Finally, drawing on the information presented in Table 21, it can be concluded that no significant correlation holds between the participants gender and the degree of their Emotional Intelligence (r = -0.083 & p = 0.207).

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of the current study was to find whether EI correlates significantly with the learners' lexico-semantic errors. The statistical analysis of the data led the researchers to conclude that EI could have predictive value to predict the lexico-semantic errors among academic Iranian EFL learners. Nonetheless, as the findings of the study revealed, gender didn't act as an important determiner of learners' EQ and their lexico-semantic errors. Another noticeable piece of finding in the present study was that all fifteen subscales of Bar-On's EQ-i significantly correlated with lexico-semantic errors. It was also interesting to find that out of the fifteen subscales of EI questionnaire, *happiness* had higher predictive value to apropos learners' lexico-semantic errors. The findings of the current study might be said to be in line with Barchard (2003), who maintained that EI predicts the academic success, and Zahrakar (2007) who found that there is a positive relationship between components of EI and academic achievement.

Further, the findings of the current research reveal that collocation errors are predominant (accounting for 56.5% of the total lexico-semantic errors). The reason for this might be traced to improper mastery of lexical sense relations. This aspect of lexical studies is often neglected in ESL/EFL classroom. As a result, the writers cannot define boundaries that separate lexical items. Thus, it can be concluded that teachers should teach lexical sense relations and should emphasize collocations, especially the types that learners have difficulties with (for instance, the flawed categories with the highest occurrence in the present study). Pupils might also be encouraged to read a lot of literature written in English, since collocations are better acquired through reading.

Finally, as emotional intelligence was found to be of significance with respect to the individuals' lexico-semantic errors, the implication might be that teachers' endeavors aimed at enhancing learners' emotional intelligence level (as is discussed in Alavinia, 2011, a/b), is likely to lead to the individuals' improved performance in terms of lexico-semantic errors.

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An Analysis of Humor in *The Big Bang Theory* from Pragmatic Perspectives

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Abstract—The cooperative principle proposes four maxims in communication. When any of the four maxims is violated or flouted, misunderstanding or implicature, and thus humor might be generated. Humor can also be studied pragmatically within the framework of the relevance theory, which proposes that communication is a process of ostension and inference and differentiates the maximal relevance and optimal relevance. According to RT, humor comes from the contrast between ostension and inference, maximal relevance and optimal relevance. This study attempts to employ theories in these two frameworks to analyze the verbal humor in the Big Bang Theory, so that Chinese audience can have a better understanding of this sitcom.

Index Terms—the cooperative principle, the relevance theory, sitcom, the Big Bang Theory, humor

I. INTRODUCTION

With the progress of globalization, we have easier access to American culture in many aspects, especially from American movies and TV programs of various kinds. Among them, American situation comedy (sitcom) is gaining on popularity.

Situation comedy is a form of TV series, with each episode having fixed actors (actresses) and similar daily scenes. It's mainly shot in studios with the audience in present. In some way, it is similar with drama in that the cast can get feedback in real time through the laughter or other reaction of the audience. Program creator and director will reset the characters, locations, and time of every new episode of each week. From 1940s till now, sitcoms have been popular all over the world. The dialogue of sitcom often shows contradiction with the environment, action and common sense and hence generates humor. Humor, especially verbal humor is the most important feature of sitcoms and also the main mechanism to proceed. As time goes by, this characteristic of sitcoms has not changed.

A. Research on Humor

As Mark Twin said, humor is mankind's greatest blessing. It can add interesting elements to the topic of communication, bring happiness and pleasant feeling to people, change a person's mood, sooth a sad heart and even construct a way to a happy life. Also humor is specifically divided into visual humor and verbal humor, represented by pictures and actions, funny utterances respectively.

Since humor is playing an important role in human life, a great many scholars have been attracted to explore the mystery of it throughout the history. The field of research range from philosophy, psychology, literature to linguistics.

Among the traditional researches on humor, the Superiority Theory, the Release Theory and the Incongruity Theory are among the most influential ones.

The Superiority Theory can be tracked as far as Thomas Hobbes. He defines humor as "the sudden glory arising from the sudden conception of some eminency in ourselves, by comparison with the infirmity of others." According to Hobbe's view, humor is considered to be an expression of superiority. We laugh at other's misfortune or shortcoming, which reflect our sense of superiority.

The release theory is conducted from the angle of psychology. It points out that laughter is a kind of release from social sanction physically and psychologically. Freud is the main spokesman for the release theory. He held that for some time people long for getting rid of the restraint set by morality, law and some other aspects of human life, back to a stage of being relaxed, free and pleased, not to worry about anything (Freud, 1976). Humor is just right to provide human with such possibility. By enjoying humor, people may release their burden and gain pleasant mood.

Being frequently used, the incongruity theory is one of the most influential approaches in the researches of humor and laughter. The main point in this theory is that "laughter arises from the view of two or more inconsistent, unsuitable or incongruous parts or circumstances, considered as united in one complex object or assemblage."(Attardo, 1997, P.396).

As the linguistic research on humor in modern times develops, both the semantic research and the pragmatic research gain achievements. In the field of semantic study, the Semantic Script Theory of Humor (SSTH), an important theory claimed by Raskin, and the General Theory of Verbal Humor (GTVH), developed by Attardo (1994) gained wide recognition.

"SSHT explains the meaning of every sentence in every context it occurs. The theory recognizes the existence of the

boundary between the knowledge of language and knowledge of the world. As a linguistic theory, SSTH does not account for what's on the other sides of the boundary. However, it pushes the boundary much further out than any other available formal semantic theory."(Raskin, 1985, P.67)

GTVH is developed from SSTH. It includes more linguistic field than SSTH, such as the theory of narrativity and the textual linguistics, by broadening the scope with the logical mechanism, the target, the narrative, the language and the situation.

Besides these three traditional theories and two modern semantic theories, pragmatic approaches are also used to study humor. This paper will conduct humor study within the frameworks two important pragmatic theories, using the dialogue in the Big Bang Theory as a case study.

B.   A Short Introduction of the Big Bang Theory

The Big Bang Theory, one of the most popular sitcoms, has been recently broadcast, and at the same time been introduced into China, which immediately causes a stir especially among young people. Besides enriching our life, the introduction of American sitcoms will also promote our understanding of American culture and help cultivate our interest in English. This paper will try to analyze the verbal humor of the Big Bang Theory from pragmatic perspectives so as to appreciate the language style of this sitcom better.

Set in Pasadena, California, the show is centered on five characters: two roommate geniuses who work at the California Institute of Technology, experimental physicist Leonard Hofstadter and theoretical physicist Sheldon Cooper; their neighbor across the hall Penny, an attractive blonde waitress and aspiring actress; and Leonard and Sheldon's equally geeky and socially awkward co-workers and friends Howard Wolowitz, an aerospace engineer and a non-PhD from JPL, and Rajesh Koothrappali, a particle astrophysicist postdoc also working at Caltech. Leonard and Sheldon are brilliant physicists, the kind of "beautiful minds" that understand how the universe works. But none of that genius helps them interact with people, especially women. All this begins to change when a free-spirited beauty named Penny moves in next door. The geekiness and intellect of the four guys is contrasted for comic effect with Penny's social skills and common sense.

II.   THE COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLE AND THE CREATION OF HUMOR

The Cooperative Principle and its related conversational maxims proposed by H.P. Grice have proved to be one of the most influential theories in the development of pragmatics. Grice's theory is an attempt at explaining how a hearer gets from what is said to what is meant, from the level of expressed meaning to the level of implied meaning. In order to explain the mechanism by which people interpret conversational implicature, in *logic and conversation* Grice(Grice, 1975) introduced four conversational maxims and the Cooperative Principle (CP). The CP runs as follows:

Make your contribution such as required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged.

The fact that Grice expressed the CP in the imperative mood has led some casual reader of his work to believe that Grice was telling speakers how they ought to behave. What he was actually doing was suggesting that in conversational interaction people work on the assumption that a certain set of rules is in operation, unless they receive indications to the contrary. In *Logic and Conversation*, Grice proposed four maxims, the maxims of Quantity, Quality, Relation and Manner, which were formulated as follows:

Quantity: make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purpose of the exchange).

Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

Quality: Do not say what you believe to be false.

Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

Relation: Be relevant.

Manner: Avoid obscurity of expression

Avoid ambiguity

Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).

Be orderly.

The least interesting case is when a speaker observes all the maxims as in the following example:

Example 1

Husband: Where are the car keys?

Wife: They are on the table in the hall.

The wife has answered clearly (Manner), truthfully (Quality), has given just the right amount of information (Quantity) and has directly addressed her husband's goal in asking the question (Relation). She has said precisely what she meant, no more and no less, and has generated no implicature (i.e. there is no distinction to be made here between what she says and what she means, there is no additional level of meaning).

However, there are far more occasions when people fail to observe the maxims, whether by choice or not. Grice classified these non-observances into five groups: flouting a maxim, violating a maxim, infringing a maxim , opting out a maxim, suspending a maxim, based on whether the non-observance is intended to create an implicature or to mislead or not intentional at all. In *the Big Bang Theory* these maxims are either flouted, violated, infringed, opted out or

suspended, so that one remark of humor after another is created. This paper will not differentiate them and use non-observance as the generalized term. Detailed analysis will be made in the following.

A.   Non-observances of Maxims of Quality

Non-observances of maxims of quality occur when the speaker says something which is blankly untrue or for which he or she lacks adequate evidence.

Example 2

Sheldon: his name isn't Toby. Toby is an absurd name for a cricket.

Raj: what would you name him?

Sheldon: an appropriate cricket name. For example, Jimmy.

Sheldon and Raj caught a cricket after hard attempts. Raj wanted to name it Toby, but Sheldon did not agree, claiming that "Toby is an absurd name for a cricket." Instead, he proposed Jimmy, obviously without adequate justification. Here, Sheldon generated the conversational implicature that "I am smarter and better informed than you. I should be the person who names the cricket." The audience can feel Sheldon's strong desire to excel others in a humorous way.

Example 3

Sheldon: I've never slept on an air mattress before. No lumber support whatsoever.

Howard: Maybe you'd be happier on a park bench.

Sheldon: I don't see any way to get a park bench in here.

Sheldon asked for lodging in Howard's home, but complained there was no lumber support in the air mattress. Of cause Howard knew that a park bench is less comfortable and Sheldon would by no means be happier on it. By saying what he believed to be false, Howard implied that Sheldon should stop complaining and be grateful. Unfortunately, the implicature failed to be caught by Sheldon, the nerd who was very poor in personal interaction. Sheldon's awkwardness made a deep impression on the audience and caused a lot of laugh.

Example 4

Howard: Look at these women.

Leonard: They are gorgeous.

Sheldon: Oh, worf, nice! Too bad that's a proper noun.

Howard: Oh, look! There's the future Mrs. Wolowitz. No, wait, that's the future Mrs. Wolowitz, with her head in the lap of …… Oh, what a coincidence! It's the future Mrs. Wolowitz.

Penny couldn't use her own TV for failing to pay her cable bill, so she came to Leonard's home to watch America's Top Model. The four nerds watched this program for the first time and were deeply attracted by all the beauties, especially Howard, who said something obviously untrue. His unusual reaction showed his thirst for beautiful women. What's more, he always thought his words to be humorous and smart, which sounds obscene to a person with common sense.

In the above three examples, non-observance of maxims of quality is employed by the speakers for different reasons. Humorous effects are also naturally achieved.

B.   Non-observance of Maxims of Quantity

The maxims of quantity states that one's contribution should provide sufficient, but not too much information. In the Big Bang theory, the geeky people often provide much more information than enough to be socially appropriate. Their social incapacity often creates surprise for the hearer as well as the audience, and hence, comic effect is produced.

Example 5

Penny: you want to know the most pathetic part? Even though I hate his lying, cheating guts…I still love him, is that crazy?

Sheldon: yes.

Leonard: no, it's not crazy. It's uh…uh…it's a paradox. The paradoxes are part of nature…think about light. If you look at Huygens, light is a wave, as confirmed by the double-slit experiment, but then along comes Albert Einstein and discovers that light behave like particles, too.

When Leonard and Sheldon met their new neighbor Penny for the first time, they invited her to dinner. Penny talked about her ex-boyfriend, and could not help crying. Leonard tried to comfort her by talking a lot about abstract science. He provided superfluous information beyond Penny' expectation and puzzled her. The audience laugh at Leonard's nervousness in Penny's presence. The following is one more example with similar comic effects.

Example 6

Leonard: So you see, what you are eating is not technically yogurt, because it doesn't have enough live acidophilus cultures.

It's really just ice milk with carrageenan added for thickness.

Penny: Oh, that's very interesting.

Leonard: It's also not pink and has no berries.

Penny: Yeah, but it doesn't really answer my question.

Leonard: What was your question again?

Penny: Do you want some?

Leonard: Oh... Right. No. I'm lactose intolerant. Right. So, gas.

Penny: Yeah, got it.

Besides providing superfluous information, another kind of non-observance occurs when a speaker provides less than enough information.

Example 6

Leonard: I should probably give you a heads up about his mother.

Penny: what about her?

Leonard: she's a delightful woman. You'll love her.

Howard was hurt by Penny's remarks, and refused to show up. However, the other three couldn't take part in the killer-robot competition without him. After much persuasion and pleas from Sheldon, Penny decided to go to Howard's home to apologize. Before Penny's visit, Leonard mentioned Howard's mother without giving adequate information. So when Penny met the old lady in person, the contrast between reality and her imagination shocked her, which in turn created humor.

C.   Non-observances of Maxims of Relation

The maxim of relation is exploited by making a response or observation which is very irrelevant to the topic in hand.

Example 7

Penny: So, hey. How are things with you and Leslie?

Leonard: Oh. To be honest, I don't think it's going to work out.

Penny: Oh, that's too bad. Well, hey, don't worry. I'm sure there's someone out there who's just right for you.

Leonard: well, what did she mean by that? Was that just a generic platitude or was that a subtle bid for attention?

Sheldon: you know why this hamburger surpasses the Big Boy? This is a single-decker, whereas the Big Boy is a double-decker. This has a much more satisfying meat-to-bun-to-condiment ratio.

Leonard was not sure whether Penny wanted to attract his attention or simply give a word of comfort and asked for Sheldon's idea. Sheldon gave irrelevant response by explaining why this hamburger surpassed the Big Boy in great length. Here, by flouting the maxim of relation, Sheldon tried to generate the implicature that he had no interest in the question.

D.   Non-observance of Maxims of Manner

People may use obscure or disorderly language, whether by choice or not. On such occasions non-observances of maxims of manner may occur.

Example 8

Sheldon: so, Leonard, how goes the mimesis?

Leonard: mimesis?

Sheldon: you know, mimesis, an action in which the mimic takes on the properties of a specific object or organism.

In order to blend into Penny's social circle, Sheldon decided to watch football game with them, which he had no interest and was by no means good at. In order not to embarrass Leonard, Sheldon asked him about the situation in a very indirect way.   However, the language was too obscure to be understood and had to be further explained. Here, the humor comes from the even greater embarrassment. Sheldon often made such funny mistakes for he was eager to show off his profound knowledge.

Example 9

Penny: So I've known for a while now that Leonard has had a little crush on me…

Sheldon: A little crush? Well, I suppose so, in the same way Menelaus had a little crush on Helen of Troy.

Sheldon thought Penny had understated Leonard's infatuation with her. Instead of pointing it out directly, he compared Leonard's infatuation with Penny to that of Menelaus with Helen, attempting to be humorous and learned. And once again, he failed to get his idea across.

Inevitably, there are a number of problems and limitations associated with Grice's theory. For example, Different maxims seem to be different in nature, and they may overlap and difficult to distinguish from each other.

III.   RELEVANCE THEORY AND THE CREATION OF HUMOR

A.   Ostensive-inferential Communication

According to the view of Sperber and Wilson (1995), communication is an ostensive-inferential process. From the perspective of a speaker, communication is ostensive and ostension involves two layers of information. "First, there is the information which has been, so to speak, pointed out; second, there is the information that the first layer of information has been intentionally pointed out". To be more specific, among the first layer, the speaker provides his informative intention by making manifest to the listener what the speaker has said, while among the second layer, the speaker states his communicative intension by making the listener understand what the speaker really wants to do.

From the perspective of a listener, communication is inferential. In order to make the communication successful, the listener is supposed to select the right contextual assumptions, which is intended by the speaker. If the listener can't

draw inference from the speaker, he or she may not fully understand the utterance or cause conflict during the communication.

Example 10

Sheldon: So if a photon is directed through a plane with two slits in it and either slit is observed, it will not go through both slits. If it's unobserved, it will. However, if it's observed after it left the plane but before it hits its target, it won't have gone through both slits.

Leonard: Agreed. What's your point?

Sheldon: there's no point, I just think it's a good idea for a T-shirt.

In the conversation, Sheldon took three different conditions into account and accordingly made three statements on the relation between a photon and a plane. The language was detailed and professional and the thinking process was logical and comprehensive so that Leonard would naturally infer that Sheldon must have had something relevant to academy to deduce. However it turned out his point was just about such a trivial thing as a T-shirt. The conflict between Sheldon's ostension and the inference by Leonard as well as the audience gives rise to the humorous effect.

B.   Maximal Relevance and Optimal Relevance

According to Sperber and Wilson (1995), every aspect of communication and cognition is governed by the search for relevance. Since the relevance requirement applies to cognition and communication differently, there are two general principles of relevance. First, the cognitive principle: human cognition tends to be geared to the maximization of relevance. Second, the Communicative Principle: every act of ostensive communication communicates a presumption of its own optimal relevance. It is a tendency during the conversation for the hearer to compare the new information with the knowledge he already has, then focus on the information which is most related to his knowledge, and lastly make an assumption about the speaker's intention by processing the information with the least effort to reach the goal of cognition. While at the same time, human communication creates an expectation of optimal relevance in the hearer, that is, adequate information is supposed to be provided for the hearer to understand the speaker's intention with minimal processing effort. However, due to differences in personal experiences, cognitive background and communicative abilities between the speaker and the hearer, optimal relevance may not be achieved, and thus create misunderstandings and humorous effects on different scenes. Humor comes from the contrast between maximal relevance and optimal relevance.

Example 11

Sheldon: I need access to the Cheesecake Factory's walk-in freezer.

Penny: Now, honey, I already told you, the hamburger meat is fresh and stored at a safe temperature.

Sheldon: No. This is to train for a three-month expedition to the magnetic North Pole.

Penny: What?

Sheldon: I don't know how that sentence could possibly confuse you…but to elaborate…

Sheldon asked Penny for a walk-in freezer to get training under very low temperature before departing for the North Pole. When Penny realized his intention, she got surprised and uttered a word "what" which is misunderstood by Sheldon. In daily life, the word "what" are often used to mean "what is it" or "I am surprised". With his poor communicating skill, Sheldon naturally considers "what is it" to be the meaning of "what" by paying the least effort. The contrast between maximal relevance and optimal relevance brings about the humorous effect.

Example 12

Penny: Yes. I can't get my stupid door open.

Sheldon: You appear to have put your car key in the door lock-- are you aware of that?

Penny: Yeah.

Sheldon: All right, then.

Penny: Damn it, damn it, damn it, damn it, damn it!

Sheldon: Would it be possible for you to do this a little more quietly?

Penny: I can't get the damn key out.

Sheldon: Well, it's not surprising-- that Baldwin lock on your door uses traditional edge-mounted cylinders, whereas the key for your Volkswagen uses a center cylinder system.

Penny: Thank you, Sheldon.

Sheldon: You're welcome. Why did you put your car key in the door lock?

Penny: Why? I'll tell you why-- because today I had an audition. It took me two hours to get there, I waited an hour for my turn, and before I could even start they told me I looked too Midwest for the part. Too Midwest—what the hell does that even mean?

Sheldon: Well, the American Midwest was mostly settled by Scandinavian and Germanic people. They have a characteristic facial bone structure...

Penny: I know what it means, Sheldon! God! You know, I have been in L.A. for almost two years now, and I haven't gotten a single acting job. I've accomplished nothing, haven't gotten a raise at work, haven't even had sex in six months, And just now, when I was walking up those stairs, a fly flew in my mouth and I ate it!

Sheldon: Well, actually, insects are a dietary staple in many cultures. They're almost pure protein.

Penny: Oh, son of a bitch!

Sheldon: I believe the condensation on your frozen foods weakened the structural integrity of the bag. But returning to your key conundrum, perhaps you should call a locksmith and have him open the door for you.

Penny: I did. He said he'll get here when he gets here.

Sheldon: And you're frustrated because he phrased his reply in the form of a meaningless tautology?

Penny: No! I am frustrated because I am a failure at everything and my breath smells like fly.

Penny was frustrated for her failure in the audition. When she complained to Sheldon, she didn't expect literal explanation for all the confusion. Sheldon knew little of human emotion, and he took every word literally. The contradiction between the maximal relevance related to Sheldon and the optimal relevance related to Penny make the audience laugh and Penny even more frustrated. This dialogue can also be interpreted from the perspective of the cooperative principle. For example, by unnecessarily explaining the meaning of Midwest in too much detail, Sheldon violated the principle of quantity. While in response to Sheldon's question why she put her car key in the door lock, Penny flouted the principle of relevance.

IV. ENDING

In this paper, the verbal humor in *the Big Bang Theory* is analyzed within the framework of the cooperative principle and the relevance theory, which prove to be very efficient in explaining the creation of comic effects. This analysis is hoped to help with people's appreciation as well as creation of humor.

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Context and Humor in Teaching Language Functions

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Abstract—This study aims at investigating the effects of context and humor on learning language functions for male and female students of first grade of high school. The sample of the study consisted of 89 male and 90 female students who were randomly assigned to four experimental groups and two control groups. The control group followed their schoolbook; however, the experimental groups received additional reading texts through which language functions were taught. The experimental groups' materials were of two kinds: context with humor (in which language functions were contextualized having traces of humor) and context without humor (in which language functions were just contextualized but without any humorous points). A pretest posttest control group design was chosen for this study. The data of the study were analyzed via a two-way ANOVA. The results showed that the experimental groups (male and female) for whom the language functions were taught in the form of context with humor outperformed the other groups. In addition, the results showed no difference between male and female participants' performance.

Index Terms—language functions, indirect speech acts, context, humor, gender

I. INTRODUCTION

For a long time, teaching and learning language forms were a prominent trend in English learning. However, this has not continued forever. The communicative tendency has prevailed the preceding system. The concept of communicative language teaching has grown out of the notion that solely teaching grammar is not enough to prepare students for using the language independently. The theoretical and empirical study of interlanguage and intercultural pragmatics has grown significantly over the last two decades (Ellis, 1994). In the last past two decades, a substantial body of empirical research in interlanguage pragmatics has tried to describe how speech acts performed by non-native speakers of various linguistic and cultural backgrounds differ from the target language norms (Kasper, 1997; Rose & Kasper, 2001; Kondo, 2004).

Pragmatics is regarded as one of the most challenging aspects for language learners to grasp, and can only truly be learned with experience. This method of teaching proposes that students need to understand the meaning and the communicative function of a language in order to learn the language. Austin (1962) claimed that communication is a series of communicative acts that are used systematically to accomplish particular purposes, and that all utterances perform specific actions by having a specific meaning assigned to them. Those utterances and communicative acts are called speech acts.

Speech acts theory was originally put in the ground of pragmatics by Austin. Then, it was blossomed by Searl's work in that field. Austin (1962) classified speech acts into 3 types: the locutionary act, which is the literal meaning of an utterance; the illocutionary act, which is the intended meaning and the perlocutionary act/effect which is the effect of utterance on the hearer (Yule, 1996, p. 48). For example, somebody might say: I'm thirsty! (locution), meaning I want to drink something! (illocution) and the perlocutionary effect might be that someone gives you a drink.

Different types of speech acts can also be distinguished based on the structure. (Yule, 1996) stated that when an interrogative form is used to ask a question, it is described as a direct speech act. However, when an interrogative or a declarative form is treated as a request but not as a question or a statement, it is described as an indirect speech act. Halliday (1973) stated that a single sentence might embody many different functions simultaneously. Therefore, every speech act may contain more than one meaning.

The most important clue to the meaning of a word or sentence is context (Chastain, 1976). Verschueren (1999) identified four factors as ingredients of the communicative context: 1) Language users: utterer and interpreter; presented as focal points in context. 2) The mental world, 3) The social world, and 4) The physical world. Therefore, these four factors help in constructing meaning. This introduces the importance of providing sufficient input, especially for EFL learners, to have a chance to get familiar with different meanings of sentences. Before students can produce language,

they must have a language data base from which to generate the particular language needed to express what they want to say (Chastain, 1976; Krashen, 1998; Lao and Krashen, 2000).

Living abroad is not possible for all individuals to learn pragmatics knowledge and to develop their communicative competence, so those who live in an EFL context need sufficient pragmatics input. Material developers could do with considering the needs of Iranian EFL learners to learn various meanings of indirect speech acts. They can accommodate EFL learners with essential input in reading texts. Reading as a convenient way of conveying language knowledge can be employed to transfer information about principles of conversation.

The researchers believe that reading and reciting dialogs would not turn EFL students into English speakers. They suggest a new technique to develop EFL students' ability to learn language functions. The researchers pointed out the existence of contextualized language functions and the existence of sense of humor in reading texts. In addition, the effect of gender on learning language functions was investigated.

The following research questions guided the present study:

Q_1: Do humarized and contextualized language functions have any effects on learning language functions?

Q_2: Does gender affect learning humarized and contextualized language functions?

To the best knowledge of the researchers, this is the first attempt in Iran to determine whether or not incorporate language functions in humorous context improves students' language functions knowledge.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Pragmatics and Speech Acts

Pragmatics is the study of the ability of natural language speakers to communicate more than that which is explicitly stated. One of the most comprehensive definitions of pragmatics is presented by Crystal (1985): "pragmatics is the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constrains they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication."(p. 240). Paradis (1998) that language is not just the language system, but linguistic competence plus pragmatic competence. The ability to understand another speaker's intended meaning is called pragmatic competence. Indeed, pragmatics basically concerns appropriateness of forms of language and, in a more elaborate definition, appropriateness of meaning in social contexts.

Kasper (1997) stated that communicative action includes not only speech acts but also participation in conversation, engaging in different types of discourse and sustaining interaction in complex speech events. Speech act is "the action or intent that a speaker accomplishes when using language in context, the meaning of which is inferred by hearers" (Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams, 2003, p. 595). We use the term speech act to describe actions such as 'requesting,' 'commanding,' 'questioning,' or 'informing.' Leech (1983) divided pragmatics research into two sub-branches: pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. To have a successful communication, he claimed that the speaker needs to make informed decisions on both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects.

B. Pragmatics and Humor

The success of a conversation depends upon the various speakers' approach to the interaction. The way in which people try to make conversations work is sometimes called the cooperative principle. Verschueren (1999) stated that successful communication, or the successful transfer of meaning, is thus seen as a process by which a state of mutual knowledge of a communicative intention is attained, with the help of principles of co-operation. Grice (1975) proposed that in ordinary conversation, speakers and hearers share a cooperative principle. Speakers shape their utterances to be understood by hearers. The principle can be implemented by four underlying rules or maxims. These conversational maxims are also sometimes named Grice's or Gricean maxims. They are the maxims of *quality, quantity, relevance* and *manner*.

- Quality: speakers should be truthful.
- Quantity: a contribution should be as informative as is required
- Relevance: speakers' contributions should relate clearly to the purpose of the exchange.
- Manner: speakers' contributions should be perspicuous: clear, orderly and brief,

According to Lin-qiong (2007), violating Grecian maxims may produce humorous utterances, when speakers offer false information (violating maxims of quality), when they offer more or less information than is required (violating maxims of quantity), when they offer irrelevant information (violating maxims of relation), and when they may not consider the basic maxim of perspicuous (violating maxims of manner). These violations create humorous effects in their conversations.

Dynel (2008) supported the premise that humor does not conform to the cooperative principle (CP) and its maxims. The interdependence of humor and CP inspired many researchers to carry out studies in this field (Raskin, 1985; Attardo, 1994; Verschueren, 1999; Lin-qiong, 2007; Dynel, 2008).

Falk (1973) declared that "since pragmatics involves human beings, as well as the utterances that they produce, so conversational principles can be violated under certain circumstances, e. g.: in a commercial program" (p. 266). Lin-qiong (2007) believes that a lesser degree of relevance between these utterances shows the unexpectedness of the response utterance, which is exactly how the humorous effect is created. Humor is socially permitted violations of

cultural norms. In violating the cultural and conversational norms, therefore, one becomes familiar with the norms themselves. Thus, it can be used to teach pragmatics norms of language and culture through examples of such violations.

Ziv (1988) confirmed the significant role of humor in teaching. Humor has been proved to serve to illustrate, reinforce and make more comprehensible the material being taught (Powell and Anderson, 1985). Some other advantages of humor in the classroom are mentioned as motivating students and increasing their interest, reducing anxiety, capturing their attention, and in general facilitating learning (Powell and Anderson, 1985; Askilson, 2005).

C. Pragmatics and Gender

The speakers often prefer indirect speech acts so that they do not infringe the hearer's face. 'Will you open the window, please?' and 'Open the window!' The latter statement would be absolutely unacceptable in some contexts. Leech (1983) considered politeness as an acceptable explanation why people use indirect speech in conveying what they mean.

Spolsky (1998) believed that "when offered an equal educational opportunity, there seems to be a tendency for women to be more sensitive than men to the status norms of language" (p. 38). Lakoff (1975) identified some features of women's language: polite forms e.g. would you please...I'd really appreciate it if:..; hypercorrect grammar and pronunciation; and lack of a sense of humor e.g. poor at telling jokes. Therefore, females tend to use indirect utterances and more standard forms of English (Brown, 2000).

D. Pragmatics and Input

Pragmatics includes the study of power, gender, race, identity, and their interactions with individual speech acts. This shows the importance of providing considerable input for EFL learners. Uso-Juan (2007) stated that "in a FL setting learners' opportunities to be in contact with authentic situations in the target language are limited or absent and, therefore, the chance to develop their pragmatic competence depends on the quantity and quality of the pragmatic input presented to them in the classroom" (p. 224). Linguists investigated various modes of input based strategy to teach pragmatics in the classroom, such as presenting materials through written discourse (Salazar, 2007; Uso-Juan, 2007), teacher's description and explanation (Kasper, 1997; Glasgow, 2008) and audiovisual materials (Alcon, 2005; Fernandez and Fontecha, 2008; Fernandez-Guerra, 2008).

Uso-Juan (2007) believed that presenting materials in a simplistic way without including contextually rich information does not provide learners with enough appropriate input to promote learners' communication. Similarly, Riley (1981) noticed that isolated de-contextualized objects or concepts are unsuitable tools for the description of the dynamics of communication. Kumaravadivelu (2003) pointed out that "linguistic input to learners should be presented in units of text, or what we now call discourse, so that learners can benefit from the interactive effect of various components and contexts" (p. 214). Humorous material, as input in the classroom through oral and written form, can be used to promote linguistic competence of learners (Schmitz, 2002).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the study consisted of Iranian EFL students who study in the first grade of senior high school in Mahabad, West Azerbaijan. They all have learnt English in an EFL context and English was considered as their third language. In this study, independent variables were contextualization and gender. The independent variable of contextualization was discussed through three levels: context with humor, context without humor, and traditional texts; dependent variable was learning language functions. By considering the gender variable, the researcher did the study in two different schools. There were three male groups and three female groups. Therefore six groups of students were organized to conduct this study; four experimental groups (two male and two female groups) and two control groups (one male and one female group).

B. Instrument

Presumably, reading non-contextualized and prefabricated dialogs does not make the same communicative demands on the learner as engaging in conversation. In order to answer the question of the story, the researchers wrote written texts based on the content and order of language functions presented in English Book 1 (Birjandi, Soheili, Nowroozi, and Mahmoodi, 2008). Acknowledging that simplified input and context can play a role in making input comprehensible (Ellis, 1994), the researcher proposed using an interesting story through which language functions could be introduced. The story of an Iranian schoolboy who tried to learn English in an English speaking country was the main core subject of the reading texts. Through that English learning journey, that boy, being unaware of metapragmatic and sociopragmatic knowledge of English, violated the maxims of conversation which in turn caused the production of humor.

The researcher used a multiple-choice test to identify the extent of English-language pragmatics knowledge of participants. This information was later used in analyzing the data. The multiple-choice test contained a total of 17 items.

C. Procedure

The purpose of the experiment was to investigate whether embedding language functions in context and humor help students learn them better. Language functions are provided in high school textbooks in non-contextualized conditions. The researcher suggested presenting and teaching the language functions in a different way; using context and humor. Context may provide more information about the time and place of using language functions. Context helps students visualize the story which in turn improves comprehension. In addition, humor can be employed in the context to make it more interesting and unusual from the available non-contextualized dialogs. In this study, humor was employed as a tool to stimulate learners' interest and to raise their attention on application of language functions.

The design proposed for this study was pretest posttest control group design. In the first session of the class, all participants of six classes took a pretest before they have received any instruction. The materials of the study were taught through six weeks.

1. Experimental Group 1

Male and female students in this group, henceforth EG1, received reading texts (Appendix I) in which these language functions introduced in English book 1 were used in conversations by different characters of the story. The teachers first read the text. By reading the text, learners learned when to use what language functions to whom and where to employ it. Then the teachers wrote intended language functions (those language functions introduced in English book 1) on the board without any explicit instruction on the time and place of using language functions and they put them into practice. Then, the teachers asked two volunteers to practice the language functions in front of the class. Afterwards, it was other students' turns to practice the language functions two by two all at the same time. To end up practicing each lesson, the teacher practiced the language functions with the whole class (all students as one interlocutor and the teacher as another one).

2. Experimental Group 2

This group, henceforth EG2, experienced reading the same story which was handed over to EG1, but with some additional statements and explanations. Context with humor reading texts were submitted to this group(Appendix II). Humor, as a result of violating conversational maxims operated as a tool to instruct pragmatic rules. In other words, it was employed to sensitize students to appropriate language forms and functions. In this study, humor was used as a new form of input enhancement instead of using underlined or bold sentences to catch students' attention on the intended materials. Like EG1, this group carried out the conversation practice process. However, the teachers equipped students of this group with explicit instruction on the grammatical accuracy and appropriateness of language functions. To summarize the procedure, it can be said that the teachers presented the input, raised students' attention on humorous sentences, explained the formula, and then engaged students in practicing.

3. Control Group

Participants of this study, CG, followed their school book. They did not receive any extra reading texts. Practicing the restricted dialogs of their textbook (Appendix III) is the only similar point between this group and EG1 and EG2. They were not equipped with any kind of instruction.

Before reading each passage, all participants of the experimental groups were instructed to read for the purpose of acting out the conversation which was followed by the reading text. After six sessions, the same pre-test was given to the same participants. The time interval between the administrations of these two tests – pre and posttest – was long enough for assessing six passages. It was assumed that the participants would not remember the content of the pretest. After the required data were collected, they were analyzed using the version 18.0 of SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) software. Then a two-way ANOVA was calculated to assess which of the three levels of independent variable is the better predictor of both male and female Iranian EFL learners' achievement of pragmatic knowledge. Analysis of the data falls into two categories:

1. The effect of context and humor on learning language functions of Iranian EFL learners.
2. The effect of gender on learning language functions.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results

In order to test both research questions, a two-way ANOVA for between subjects was used, and the effects of the group factor (i.e. traditional, context without humor and context with humor) and gender (i.e. male and female), and their interaction were tested.

The results of Table 4.1 show that there were neither significant main effects for both the gender and group factors nor significant interaction effect between the gender and group in the pretest. In other words, p-values were more than 0.05 for these relationships (0.92, 0.64 and 0.99 respectively). It is acceptable that before the treatment all groups were similar to each other with no difference.

TABLE 4.1
ANOVA FOR THE PRETEST

Dependent Variable: pretest total scores

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	2.684[a]	5	.537	.185	.968
Intercept	13127.855	1	13127.855	4530.209	.000
GENDER	.031	1	.031	.011	.917
GROUP	2.595	2	1.297	.448	.640
GENDER * GROUP	.058	2	.029	.010	.990
Error	501.328	173	2.898		
Total	13633.000	179			
Corrected Total	504.011	178			

a. R Squared = .005 (Adjusted R Squared = -.023)

The results can be summarized this way:
1. There was not any significant main effect of the gender factor: $F_{(1, 173)} = 0.01$; NS.
2. There was not any significant main effect of the group factor: $F_{(2, 173)} = 0.45$; NS.
3. There was not any significant interaction between the gender and group factors: $F_{(1, 173)} = 0.01$; NS.

The next table (Table 4.2) shows that there was a significant main effect for group in the posttest. In other words, the group main effect was significant beyond the 0.05 level. Therefore, the performances of the three groups were different from each other. Despite the main effect for this factor, there was neither any significant main effect for gender nor any significant interaction between the gender and group factors. The p-values were 0.36 and 0.97 respectively.

TABLE 4.2
ANOVA FOR THE POSTTEST

Dependent Variable: posttest total scores

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	163.462[a]	5	32.692	6.008	.000
Intercept	20510.988	1	20510.988	3769.152	.000
GENDER	4.634	1	4.634	.852	.357
GROUP	158.109	2	79.055	14.527	.000
GENDER * GROUP	.304	2	.152	.028	.972
Error	941.432	173	5.442		
Total	21635.000	179			
Corrected Total	1104.894	178			

a. R Squared = .148 (Adjusted R Squared = .123)

The results can be summarized this way:
1. There was not any significant main effect of the gender factor: $F_{(1, 173)} = 0.85$; NS.
2. There was a significant main effect of the group factor: $F_{(2, 173)} = 14.53$; $p < 0.05$.
3. There was not any significant interaction between the gender and group factors: $F_{(1, 173)} = 0.03$; NS.

When there is a significant difference among the means and it is needed to identify precisely where that difference lies, a post-hoc comparison is possible. Post-hoc test was done for the group factor because this factor had three levels and there was a significant effect for this factor. The Tukey test was utilized for the post-hoc analysis which is shown in Table 4.3

TABLE 4.3
RESULTS OF THE TUKEY TEST FOR POST-HOC ANALYSIS AMONG THE SIX GROUPS

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) students groups	(J) students groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
pretest total scores	traditional	context without humor	.21	.309	.776	-.52	.94
		context with humor	-.07	.309	.970	-.80	.66
	context without humor	traditional	-.21	.309	.776	-.94	.52
		context with humor	-.28	.308	.629	-1.01	.45
	context with humor	traditional	.07	.309	.970	-.66	.80
		context without humor	.28	.308	.629	-.45	1.01
posttest total scores	traditional	context without humor	-.64	.425	.294	-1.64	.37
		context with humor	-2.24*	.425	.000	-3.24	-1.23
	context without humor	traditional	.64	.425	.294	-.37	1.64
		context with humor	-1.60*	.423	.001	-2.60	-.60
	context with humor	traditional	2.24*	.425	.000	1.23	3.24
		context without humor	1.60*	.423	.001	.60	2.60

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

Table 4.3 shows that there was not a significant difference between the traditional and context without humor groups, but the context with humor group was significantly different from both the traditional and context without humor groups. Therefore, the performance of the students in the group, which was provided with humorous text, was significantly different from the other two groups. The results are also shown through the following profile plots. Figures 4.1 and 4.2 show the profile of the gender and group for both pretest and posttest. It can be observed that there was no interaction between the two factors.
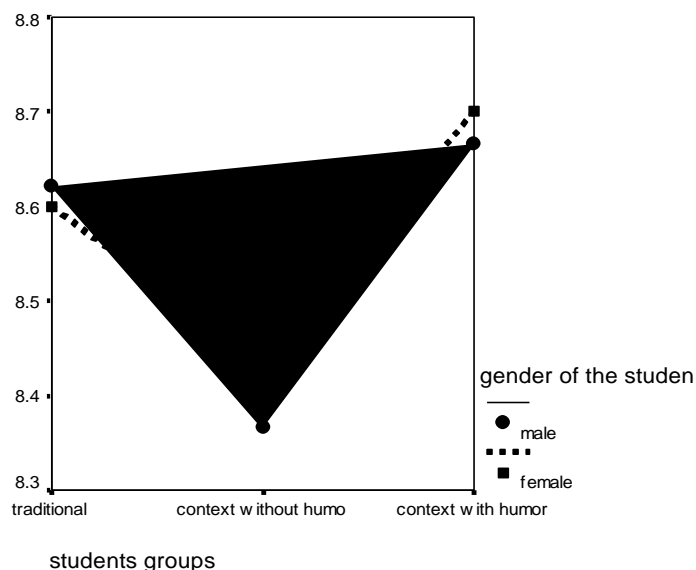
Figure 4.1   Estimated Marginal Means of pretest total scores
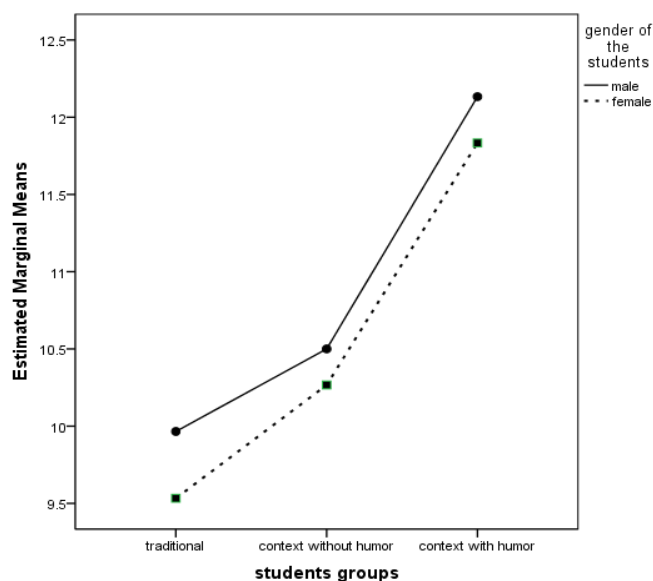
Figure 4.2   Estimated Marginal Means of posttest total scores

B. Discussion

This study tried to investigate whether context and humor had any effect on learning language functions. Moreover, it strived to explore whether learning language functions through context and humor differed between males and females.

According to Richards and Schmidts (1985), "communication occurs in a context that offers help to comprehension through such things as the situation and setting, visual clue, gestures and actions" (p. 117). Spencer-Oatey (2005) stated that doing pragmatics crucially requires context. Nunan (1999) also noted that texts can provide clues in constructing the original meanings of speakers or writers. Embedding a conversation exchange in an appropriate situational context can make it communicatively coherent even it lacks linguistic cohesion (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

Humor can enhance learning and creativity. It can be employed to capture students' attention, to feed up their attention, and to hold their attention (Goodman, 1983, p.4). Language of humor is accepted as a rich source for

improving educational purposes (Powell and Anderson, 1985; Deneire, 1995; Skinner, 2001; Schmitz, 2002; Askilson, 2005). Skinner (2001) emphasized the importance of having pedagogical purpose in employing humor. In other words, that kind of humor that is reasonable and informed.

Learning language functions through context (with or without humor) helped learners of this study to have a schema about the story. The independent variable of contextualization had three levels; contextualized language functions, contextualized language functions with humor, and non-contextualized language functions. The results showed that context with humor had a significant effect on learning language functions. However, the effect of context without humor on learning language functions was relatively low. In addition, the effect of non-contextualized language functions was not meaningful.

Females pay more attention to the norms of language (Lakoff, 1975; Spolsky, 1998; Brown, 2000). Therefore, the researchers presumed that they learn language functions much better than males. Contrary to what was expected, no statistically effect of gender was found on the results. So it is concluded that language functions embedded in humorous contexts improved male and female's pragmatic knowledge to the same degree. The findings also showed that there was not a significant interaction between contextualization and gender.

V. Conclusion

In instructional settings, opportunities for learner exposure to sociopragmatic information are scant, since usually non-contextualized examples of particular speech act dominate the school curriculum. The present study supports the claim that learners' exposure to rich and contextually appropriate input is a prerequisite for the development of their pragmatic competence in the target language (Kasper, 2001). This study may be helpful for material developers to consider EFL learners' needs and to present materials in a way to help learners enjoy learning.

The scope of the current research was to investigate the effect of context and humor on learning language functions. Given that the research scope is rather limited and is defined to address the research questions under investigation, this study may point to a number of possible directions for future research.

First, to remedy the methodological limitations in the current study, data elicited in a controlled setting via a multiple-choice test, further research should aim at collecting data of communicative speech acts via other methods such as Discourse Completion Task (DCT), role plays, interviews, etc. Second, more researches need to be conducted to investigate the effects of authentic materials, such as film and real-life documents on learning language functions. Third, this study can be replicated to examine whether the same findings can be found with students in different contexts or in different learning stages. Finally, participant' ideas can be taken into consideration, too. The researchers can ask for the opinions of participants in order to see which method they find useful.

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Vocabulary Proficiency Instruction for Chinese EFL Learners*

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Abstract—**Vocabulary learning is a headache for many Chinese EFL learners and vocabulary teaching remains a challenge for Chinese EFL teachers. The paper lists the problems involved in the traditional vocabulary teaching and learning mode. Traditional teaching mode put more emphasis on mechanical memorization to enlarge students' vocabulary instead of developing their lexical competence. Students have inadequate vocabulary learning strategies, low motivation, no collaborative learning environment to practice their lexical competence, insufficient exposure to authentic language input, inadequate teachers' instruction on social strategies. This paper analyzes the reasons that lead to the current problems. Aiming at solving the above-mentioned problems with traditional instruction mode, the research proposes a multi-dimensional instruction mode with lexical competence development as its goal, digital technology as its media, task-based learning and collaborative learning as its form, campus English native speakers as its resources, textbooks as its content. An empirical study was made to test the effectiveness of the proposed mode, results of which prove mode to be effective in increasing the students' receptive vocabulary size, productive vocabulary richness and awareness of using strategy learning strategies and motivation.**

Index Terms—**lexical proficiency instruction, vocabulary learning strategy, Chinese EFL learners, data-driven learning, task-based teaching, an empirical study**

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary is not only an obstacle but also a challenge to English teaching and learning. The lexical significance in second language learning and teaching has been repeatedly acknowledged in theoretical and empirical second language acquisition (SLA) vocabulary research. Researchers have described the powerful, positive relationship between vocabulary and comprehension (Anderson & Freebody, 1981; Davis, 1944). No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way (McCarthy, 1990). Meara (1996) argues that learners with big vocabularies are more proficient in a wide range of language skills than learners with smaller vocabularies, and there is some evidence to support the view that vocabulary skills make a significant contribution to almost all aspects of L2 proficiency. Sufficient vocabulary size is a prerequisite for becoming competent language learners.

There is a great necessity to analyze the problems involved in traditional Chinese lexical proficiency instruction and propose constructive solutions to the problems.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEMS

Firstly, many Chinese EFL learners often feel frustrated with remembering English words, and they have inadequate vocabulary learning strategies. Their vocabulary breadth knowledge or vocabulary size and vocabulary depth knowledge are extremely small. Under traditional teaching mode teachers put more emphasis on mechanical memorization without realizing the importance and necessity of equipping students with vocabulary learning strategies.

Moreover, even though they are able to remember some words, they cannot use them in authentic language context correctly and appropriately. The learners' receptive and productive vocabulary sizes are severely out of balance. The inadequate ability of using the language in authentic world is due to the problems of traditional EFL teaching system. Students have been facing pressure of English written exams ever since they started learning English. They are facing entrance exams for junior high schools, senior high schools, universities, graduate admission exams, PhD entrance exams. Even after graduation there are English exams for a promotion. Almost none of these important English exams include productive lexical competence evaluation. Consequently English teachers adopt teaching approaches no more than grammar translation and audio-lingual methods with emphasis on accuracy of grammar, neglecting the communicative goal of vocabulary learning.

III. METHOD

A. Objective of the Research

The purpose of the present study is twofold. On the one hand, based on the theory framework the research proposes a multi-dimensional lexical proficiency instruction mode with digital video as its media and task-based collaborative learning as its form, campus English native speakers as its resources, textbooks as its content. On the other hand, an empirical study is designed to prove the effectiveness of the proposed mode. The present study seeks to find appropriate answers to the following research questions:

1) Are there any differences in the lexical proficiency competences between the experimental group under the instruction mode proposed in this study and control groups under traditional instruction mode?

2) Are there any differences in vocabulary learning strategies levels between the experimental group under the instruction mode proposed in this study and control groups under traditional instruction mode?

The above questions led the researchers of the present study to propose the following hypotheses:

H1. The lexical proficiency competences of the experimental group under the instruction mode proposed in this study is higher than that of the control group under traditional instruction mode.

H2. The vocabulary learning strategies levels of the experimental group under the instruction mode proposed in this study is higher than that of the control group under traditional instruction mode.

B. Multi-dimensional Lexical Proficiency Instruction Mode Proposed in this Research

Any single lexical pedagogy cannot effectively enhance the vocabulary instruction efficiency. Effective instruction mode should resort to a combination of various approaches. Based on the theory framework the research proposes a multi-dimensional lexical proficiency instruction mode with digital technology as its media, task-based learning and cooperative learning as its form, campus English native speakers as its resources, and textbooks as its content.

1. Resort to captioned video to enrich the channels of language input

Current form of language input is dull and monotonous. To solve this problem, captioned movie is applied in the instruction mode proposed in this research. Several studies indicate the effectiveness of captioned videos in improving students' vocabulary learning aptitude.

Several principles should be followed while choosing the captioned movies. Firstly the selected movie should suit the level and interests of the students so that the students can be highly motivated in their vocabulary learning. Secondly the video should be previewed so that the right segment most closely related to themes and vocabularies of the textbook can be located. Thirdly, the clip should be kept within 5 minutes without occupying much of the normal instruction period.

Here is a real case from the none-English majors' English course. The story in the textbook is A Test of True Love, the main plot of which is as follows:

John Blandford volunteered for military service 13 months ago. Soon he received a book from Hillis Meynell, a woman who sent everyone in the military service a book, strength and her support for their cause. He wrote back, and thus went into connection with her. For thirteen months, she wrote and gave him courage to survive. After a short time, he believed that they loved each other and that fate had brought them together. But, she declined his request of her photo. Now the soldier was back in New York, waiting to meet her in person at the information desk in Grand Central Station, and a young girl in good figure was coming in his direction, but without a red rose as they planned. When he invited the fat woman with the rose to dinner, it turned out to be a test of Hollis Meynell, and he passed it.

The captioned movie Beauty and Beast was chosen as the warming up lead-in activity in the teaching process. The prologue at the very beginning of the movie was selected:

"Once upon a time, in a faraway land, a young Prince lived in a shining castle. Although he had everything his heart desired, the Prince was <u>spoiled</u>, selfish, and unkind. But then, one winter's night, an old beggar woman came to the castle and offered him a single rose In return for shelter from the bitter cold. <u>Repulsed</u> by her haggard appearance, the Prince <u>sneered</u> at the gift, and turned the old woman away. But she warned him not to be <u>deceived</u> by appearances, for Beauty is found within. And when he <u>dismissed</u> her again, the old woman's ugliness melted away to reveal a beautiful Enchantress. The Prince tried to apologize, but it was too late, for she had seen that there was no love in his heart. And as punishment, she <u>transformed</u> him into a hideous beast, and placed a powerful <u>spell</u> on the castle, and all who lived there. Ashamed of his monstrous form, the Beast <u>concealed</u> himself inside his castle, with a magic mirror as his only window to the outside world. The Rose she had offered was truly an <u>enchanted</u> rose, which would bloom for many years. If he could learn to love another, and earn her love in return by the time the last <u>petal</u> fell, then the spell would be broken. If not, he would be doomed to remain a beast for all time. As the years passed, he fell into <u>despair</u>, and lost all hope, for who could ever learn to love a Beast?"

The 2-minute prologue was used as a lead-in of the lesson, in which the students were asked to watch the movie and then guess out the meaning of the underlined words with the help of the context. This multimedia-based input provided the students with multisensory presentation of information, which captured the students' attention and stimulated students' motivation to learn. And with the semantically rich context, the acquisition of lexical skills naturally happens.

2. Resort to SBI to develop students' vocabulary learning strategies

In his SBI theory Cohen (2000) proposed that strategy training should be integrated into the classroom language teaching. With limited classroom time, college English teachers find it really challenging to insert training vocabulary

learning strategies into language teaching process. However if teachers could make a perfect combination of explicit and implicit instruction, the SBI mode can greatly enhance the classroom teaching efficiency. For example, the strategy of "Use the newly-learnt English words I know in different ways." is frequently introduced to the students in a way of explicit explanation. But that's far from enough. In order to strengthen the students' impression of this strategy and to stimulate their motivation to apply it, teachers should set models by personally practicing it. In the following statement the teacher used the underlined newly-learnt vocabularies from the textbook to make comments on the students' classroom presentation and encourage them to make further efforts and progress.

Dear Students:

More and more students had experienced how it feels to stand on the stage as a teacher. Despite the challenges, worries and distress, the chance really brought you a lot more than language improvement, which can by no means be acquired from conventional teaching.

I can not help saying that "How marvelous you are". Given that you've never made public speech in the presence of large audience, I should assert that you've really done a superb job. I can perceive that most of the "amateur teachers" had racked up the brain to devise amusing, efficient and creative classroom activities, which result in lots of interaction between students and teachers.

Reflecting on how everything is going in the previous month, we can not deny that there is more to be poured into our teaching than merely temporary passion to guarantee a promising future.

For example, the assessment system needs to be scientifically and designed and strictly carried out to ensure the students' good preparation of each lesson in advance and active participation inside class.

My dear student, college life is when we should have the courage, heart, and discipline to persist, even if it takes a billion tries. Let's enjoy our college life by overcoming the obstacles one after another.

In the above example the teacher achieved the integration of vocabulary learning strategies into classroom teaching implicitly, which overcome the obstacle of inadequate classroom time for strategy instruction.

3. Motive the students to develop their productive vocabulary competence in authentic context.

Adequate production of high quality language is a precondition for EFL learners to become competent lexical learners. However, with the exam-oriented teaching system and Chinese cultural concepts of "saving face" and "avoiding showing off" students seldom practice English in public. Learners lack target language environment. Students are learning in a foreign language context where the target language is not the language of communication in the society.

In the proposed mode in this research the students are required to make friends with English native speakers on campus and invite their foreign friends to complete the assignments like interviewing foreign teachers or helping overseas students go shopping. The students are required to use digital video camera to record their process doing their extracurricular homework and bring the clip into classroom for comments of the teacher and classmates on their vocabulary competence and application of vocabulary learning strategies in the real situation.

4. Resort to the form of task-based learning (TBL) and collaborative learning (CL).

In the proposed mode of the research, the students are required to form a team of 3-4 members and work collaboratively to complete the extracurricular tasks. The tasks can be a drama play in which the students work together to find an appropriate script and rehearse the roles hoping to be greatly acknowledged by their classmates. Task can also appear in the form of contact assignment like interview of foreigners. Kathleen M. Bailey (2004) refers such tasks as contact assignment.

5. Resort to DDL or CALL to enhance the teaching efficiency

5.1 The application of DDL to present authentic context of the words

Wang Y&Yang J. (2008) said that DDL (Data-driven Learning) is a teaching paradigm based on the application of the corpus and the researches in language acquisition and cognitive science, whereas lexical approach stresses the necessity of using corpora in pedagogical materials and the importance of regularly recycling and reviewing the language taught. Data-driven Learning can be combined with lexical approach to improve the lexis instruction in the second language. Teubert (2005) pointed out that corpus is considered the default resource for almost anyone working in linguistics. No introspection can claim evidence without verification through real language data. Corpus research has become a key element of almost all language study.

The following example is the KWIC list of the word "deny" provided by Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) that is created by Prof.Mark Davies. This corpus contains 420 million words of the materials published in America from 1990 to 2011, and it is the largest balanced English corpus. The Corpus of Contemporary American English is free for researchers and English learners to use online.

Graph 1: KWIC List of the Word "Deny"

The KWIC (key word in context) list in Graph 1 reveals the collocations (words that co-occur regularly), colligations (grammatical patterns that co-occur regularly) of the lexical item of "deny". Meanwhile it also reveals the target word of "deny" in authentic context. DDL equips EFL teachers an efficient tool to help students to discover lexical meaning, understand the use of the word and notice the patterns that surround it.

5.2 The application of CALL to diversify the forms of exercises

Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL) is succinctly defined in a seminal work by Levy (1997) as "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning"(p.1).

Teachers should learn to make full use of information technology to enhance the teaching efficiency. For example, free online software can help us design crossword puzzle game to test the students' memorization of new vocabularies. All you need to do is to give the words and their clues, and the online software will give you the puzzle automatically. Graph 2 is an example made by the free online puzzle maker (http://www.armoredpenguin.com/crossword/).

Across

2. quick to notice sth.
4. relating to feeling of love or loving relationship
5. a light wind
6. try to find out the truth about sth.
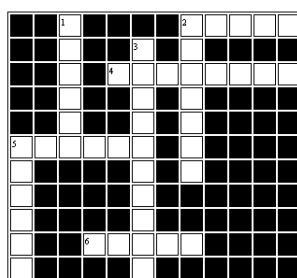
Down

1. a machine or tool for a special purpose
2. not professional
3. a meeting of members of profession, political party
5. plan the spending of money carefully

Graph 2: A Crossword Puzzle Designed by Online Crossword Online Maker

(1). Participants

The present study focuses on the effectiveness of the vocabulary instruction mode proposed by this research and was conducted at Dalian University of Technology, Peoples' Republic of China. The subjects are 70 EFL learners who are all none English majors undergraduates, with 35 in the experimental group, while 35 in the control group.

(2). Instruments

(2.1) Tests assessing receptive vocabulary size

Multiple choice tests are designed to assess the students' vocabulary size to before and after the research.

(2.2) Tests assessing productive vocabulary richness

The students are required to deliver a speech about 500 words on similar topics before and after the research. The speeches are recorded and transcribed into text for Standardized TTR analysis.

TTR is number of different words in a text divided by the number of running words. The type-token ratio (TTR) is a measure of vocabulary variation within a written text or a person's speech. The type-token ratio is shown to be a helpful measure of lexical variety within a text (Williamson, G., 2009). But TTR may vary a lot according to the different lengths of a text, so it is not meaningful to compare TTRs for texts of different lengths. Therefore Standardized TTR is used in this research. Standardized TTR is the average of the TTR for each sequence of n words (typical default n=1000) in a text or corpus.

(2.3) A questionnaire for surveying students' use of vocabulary learning strategies

It is hypothesized that learning problems may mainly result from learners' use of learning strategies. The questionnaire used for the survey of students' vocabulary learning strategies is revised from the SILL questionnaire (Strategies Inventory of Language Learning) by Rebecca Oxford (1990). There are altogether 18 vocabulary learning strategies classified into 3 categories, namely memory strategy, cognitive strategy and compensation strategy.

The questionnaire is based on a five-point Likert scale from 1 to 5, in which 1 represents "totally or almost totally

unsuitable for me"; 2 represents "suitable for me less than half of the time"; 3 represents "suitable for me about half of the time"; 4 represents "suitable for me more than half of the time"; 5 represents "totally or almost totally suitable for me". For example:

1= totally or almost totally unsuitable for me
2= suitable for me less than half of the time
3= suitable for me about half of the time
4= suitable for me more than half of the time
5= totally or almost totally suitable for me

TABLE 1:
THE SAMPLE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE:

	Vocabulary Strategies	1	2	3	4	5
MEMORY STRATEGY	1. I think of relationships between the words I already know and new words I learn in English.					
	2. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.					
	3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.					
	4. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.					
	5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.					
	6. I physically act out new English words.					
COGNITIVE STRATEGIES	1. I first skim an English passage then go back and read carefully.					
	2. I try not to translate word-for word.					
	3. I try to talk like native English speakers.					
	4. I use the English words I know in different ways.					
	5. I read for pleasure in English.					
	6. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.					
COMPENSATION TRATEGIES	1. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.					
	2. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.					
	3. I read English without looking up every new word.					
	4. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.					
	5. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.					
	6. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.					

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The experiment lasted for one semester. The experimental group and control group were given instruction respectively under the multi-dimensional mode proposed in this research and traditional mode. Tests and survey were given before and after the research as quantitative measure and interview were given to them as qualitative measure to improve the reliability and validity of the study. SPSS 17.0 was used for statistical analysis.

1. Receptive vocabulary size tests result analysis

Firstly, paired-samples t-test was used to examine the vocabulary size tests results of the experimental group and control group before and after the experiment. The results in Table 2 show that the experimental group made significant progress in the speaking ability (sig=.000), while the control group didn't make any significant progress (sig=.101).

TABLE 2:
PAIRED SAMPLES T TEST OF PRETEST AND POST-TEST VOCABULARY TEST OF THE CONTROL GROUP AND EXPERIMENT GROUP

	Mean(Pre-Post)	N	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
Experimental Group	72.5429-80.6571	35	-14.119	34	.000**
Control Group	72.0857-74.9143	35	-1.688	34	.101

** significance level: 0.01

2. Productive vocabulary richness tests result analysis

Secondly, paired-samples t-test was used to examine the vocabulary richness tests results of the experimental group and control group before and after the experiment. The results in Table 3 show that the experimental group made significant progress in the vocabulary richness (sig=.015), while that of the control group was not significant progress (sig=.086).

TABLE 3:
PAIRED SAMPLES T TEST OF PRETEST AND POST-TEST TTR OF THE CONTROL GROUP AND EXPERIMENT GROUP

	Mean(Pre-Post)	N	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
Experimental Group	0.6874-0.7229	35	-2.572	34	.015*
Control Group	0.6897-0.6963	35	-1.771	34	.086

* significance level: 0.05

3. Vocabulary learning strategy application survey result analysis

70 valid questionnaires for a survey of the vocabulary learning strategy application before and after the research were collected after the class visit. Paired samples t-test was used to analyze the results. Statistics in Table 4 show that students in the experimental group make significant improvement in their application of all of the three categories of

vocabulary learning strategies: memory strategy (sig=.000); cognitive strategy (sig=.000) and compensation strategy (sig=.001). While Table 5 shows that the progress of the control group is not significant: memory strategy (sig=.945); cognitive strategy (sig=.558) and compensation strategy (sig=.115).

TABLE 4:
PAIRED SAMPLES T TEST OF PRETEST AND POST-TEST VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGY LEVEL OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Strategies	N	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
Memory strategy(Pre-Post)	35	-4.084	34	.000
Cognitive Strategy(Pre-Post)	35	-4.183	34	.000
Compensation Strategy(Pre-Post)	35	-2.713	34	.010

** significance level: 0.01

TABLE 5:
PAIRED SAMPLES T TEST OF PRETEST AND POST-TEST VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGY LEVEL OF THE CONTROL GROUP

Strategies	N	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
Memory strategy(Pre-Post)	35	.070	34	.945
Cognitive Strategy(Pre-Post)	35	-.591	34	.558
Compensation Strategy(Pre-Post)	35	-1.616	34	.115

V. DISCUSSION

Information and digital technologies were used in the instruction mode proposed in this research. Firstly, captioned video was introduced into the research and proved to be effective. In his multimedia learning theory Mayer (2001) claims that learning is likely to become more meaningful in multimedia learning environments. The theory also assumes human process information through two channels: one is channel for visual/pictorial/textual/auditory processing; the other is channel for auditory/textual processing. Since each of these two channels has its limited capacity, active learning is based on a collaboration of these channels. (Adler, 1985; Koskinen, Wilson, Bambrell&Jensema, 1987; Neuman&Koskinen, 1992). Neuman&Koskinen (1992) pointed out that captioned video provides a semantically enriched context where the visual and the audio lend meaning to the printed words on the screen. Moreover, according to Krashen's input hypothesis, acquisition takes place when language learners are exposed to adequate comprehensible input (Krashen,1982). Captioned video is a good form of comprehensible input. Secondly digital video camera was used in the research, which not only highly motivated the students but also overcame the barriers of time and space by bringing the students' extracurricular language practice into classroom for teacher's more pertinent comments. This is a creative application of Cohen's SBI theory, which broadens the spatial and time dimension. Thirdly, the proposed instruction mode made good use of corpus and internet to enhance teaching efficiency. For example, vocabularies should be taught with both their grammatical context but also their authentic environment in which a word appears. KWIC function of corpus allows us to meet both of these requirements.

The instruction mode proposed in the research takes the form of task-based collaborative learning. Nunan (1989) pointed out that real life tasks should be assigned to learners in language learning process to develop their real life language competence. Slavin (1996) defines cooperative learning as instructional programs in which students work in small groups to help one another master academic content. Burns and Joyce (1997) said that speakers must manage discrete elements such as turn-taking, rephrasing, providing feedbacks or redirecting. CL is an ideal situation for the students to practice these skills. Frequent use of the language is realized with CL. CL is the opposite of competitive learning, and competitive learning is a typical feature under the traditional exam-centered teaching system. Chinese EFL learners are unwilling to practice English through cooperative learning as a result of long-lasting academic competitive pressures, students. Task-based collaborative learning in this research created necessary circumstances for learners to practice English. One student said in the interview, "In the process of completing the teamwork, we were brainstorming, negotiating in English, which greatly enhanced our collaboration and communication skills."

Students in the research were encouraged to communicate with native English speakers on campus. The students' curiosity, creativity and desire are greatly stimulated. They pour a great amount of time and energy to prepare their topic and rehearse their program in order to "save face" and avoid embarrassment in front of foreigners. This approach not only solved the problem of the students' insufficient language input under the traditional teaching system but also stimulated the students' motivation to practice their productive vocabulary competence. One student described her experience of struggling to start conversations with a foreign teacher in the English corner this way: "At the very beginning, I felt embarrassed when I spoke to the foreigner, my tongue failed me, and I didn't know how to initiate the chatting. I was so nervous that I was fidgeting." After several times of accomplishing such tasks, she described her progress as follows: "Little by little I find that communicating with a foreigner is not as difficult as I imagined and how cool it is to discuss news and cultural differences with a foreigner in English. I made friends with them so that I could have more opportunities to practice my oral English."

VI. CONCLUSION

Vocabulary is basic building materials of a language. For Chinese EFL Learners the biggest difficulty one first meet

is how to remember the words efficiently and use them appropriately and correctly in the authentic situation. As an English Teacher, one should research the particular features and cultural background of EFL learners and make full use of the state-of-art information technology to develop the learners' ability to enlarge their vocabulary size, and more importantly to use them in the real communicative world.

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Abstract—**Writing up their theses, postgraduate/MA students investigate patterns that can guide them in efficiently preparing their theses. Analyzing theme/rheme patterning, proven as a signaler of coherence and cohesion in written discourse, may provide the patterns postgraduate students search for. There is, therefore, an urgent necessity to scrutinize the issue from different perspectives, and propose recommendations to improve the written discourse quality especially among non-native writers. Accordingly, this study addressed thematicity in two rhetorical sections, that is, method and results sections of three categories of MA students' theses: (1) those with theses-driven articles published in scholarly journals, (2) those with theses-driven articles presented in conferences, and (3) those with no such presentations in any academic fields. Following Halliday's (1994) and McCabe's (1999) models of thematic organization and progression, 45 theses, 15 from each category, were compared in terms of thematicity. Although frequency data indicated that the tendency in using different thematic patterns was higher in published theses, but Chi-square test did not reveal any significant differences among the three categories in terms of theme selection and progression. These similarities in terms of thematicity can be attributed to the same genre to which different theses belonged. The results of the study are discussed to provide fruitful insights about thematic conventions applied in written discourse.**

Index Terms—**MA theses, theme progression, theme selection, T-unit**

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the concerns of writers is to organize information in a way that it transfers their intended feeling or meaning to the readers. In the realm of foreign language (FL) learning and teaching, writing takes the greatest attention, but we encounter a good number of authors who fail to organize their ideas efficiently in the writing. So, these writers are marginalized from academic fields in spite of the merit of their ideas. Several reasons may account for such failure. It is now generally accepted that lack of coherence is one of the major problems in students' writing (Guo & Wang, 2005; Mao, 2002; Wang & Sui, 2006). Lack of cohesion has also been recognized as one of the main difficulties in second language (L2) learners' writings (Bamberg, 1983). It is, therefore, urgent to scrutinize the problem from different perspectives, and propose recommendations to improve the written discourse quality especially among non-native writers. One such consideration is to probe thematicity that has been proved to be a very important framework for analyzing and teaching coherence and cohesion at discourse level (Belmonte & McCabe, 1997; Fries, 1994, 1995; Martin, 1995; Mellos, 2011; Wang, 2007). Theme and rheme can be a useful tool for writers to sort and develop their ideas more consistently and coherently in their essays. As Wang (2007) states, theme of a clause guides reader to the clause's message.

Writers must pay attention to what they write and how they develop their information in the clauses and in the texts as well. It is, thus, necessary to analyze different thematic options used by writers who have succeeded in presenting their theses in academic fields. Doing so would allow the students to enhance their writing awareness and produce semantic coherence in their writing and accordingly in their theses.

Despite the fact that the role of theme patterns in making cohesion and coherence in writing has been proved by different studies, a limited number of research has been dedicated to examine thematicity in the highly valuable writing pieces (e.g., theses) which are aimed to be kept as academically referred records in the libraries. Accordingly, the aim of this study was to examine theme selection and progression among three categories of Iranian MA students' theses, that is, those that articles based on them have been presented in academic fields like scholarly journals and conferences and those that have not had appearance of their articles in such fields.

This study was hoped to act as a block for building the body of research which apparently has not been much wide in this area. For the researchers in the field of applied linguistics, the results of this study will cater for several overarching incentives as regards the types of thematicity applied by Iranian MA TEFL students in writing their theses which, in

turn, shed light on the extent to which TEFL students are and should be aware about the conventions of thematic patterns in writing.

II. Literature Review

In what follows, a snapshot of studies in relation to the scope of the present study is dealt with.

Over the last few years, theme and rheme have been studied and proved to be highly useful in the comprehension and production of texts because, as already mentioned, they are important elements for producing cohesion and coherence in the discourse. Great deals of effort have been made to investigate theme patterning in academic texts from different perspectives.

Some research has focused on the theme pattern and organization in different rhetorical sections of academic articles. In one of his research, Ghadessy (1999), for example, studied thematic organization of 150 academic article abstracts coming from 30 different academic disciplines. Research showed that although there were grammatical and lexico-semantic differences in the themes of the clauses of the abstracts, a common method of development or point of departure could be developed by theme selections. Ghadessy concluded that thematic framework was a powerful method of text analysis to build a more complete profile of the academic article abstracts and other registers.

In the same vein, Lores (2004) analyzed research article (RA) abstracts from linguistics journal in terms of rhetorical organization and thematic structure. Two types of rhetorical organization were recognized in the abstracts, IMRD (introduction-methods-results-discussion) and CARS (Create a Research Space). Thematic distribution and choice were investigated in these two types of structures and the result was different thematizations in IMRD and CARS abstracts. The research showed the contribution of thematization studies towards the understanding and explicit description of RA abstracts.

In a more recent study, Jalilifar (2010a) explored thematic types and progression in different rhetorical sections of articles published in international journal of ELT and those that had been published in a local journal, that is, Roshd. Roshd authors were all Persian non-native writers of English while ELT represented authors with different linguistic backgrounds. The results showed significant differences in the context of the usage of different patterns of thematic progression (TP) in the introduction and results and discussion sections of international compared with local journals. Similar theme types and progression were the results of examining both journals without discriminating their rhetorical sections.

Some of the studies have dedicated the scope of their research on thematicity to contribute to genre analysis. One such investigation is McCabe's (1999) study of theme/rheme analysis of English and Spanish history textbooks. She reported overall similarities in the theme types and patterns of TP that attested to the theory of similar genres resulting in similar linguistic choices related to textual, interpersonal, and ideational themes. At the same time, a slight difference was found in participants involved in material processes in both groups of texts. The other case of difference in her study was related to differences in results amongst texts within each of the corpora that were attributed to possible effects of subject matter and individual author style.

All studies reviewed in this section are valuable and have shed light on thematicity from different perspectives, however, an in-depth consideration of such studies reveals that investigation on theme patterning has been limited in some ways. One such limitation, for example, relates to the choice of the type of rhetorical section(s) to analyze thematicity. Considering abstracts, for instance, written with a word restriction in mind, cannot be matched with McCabe's (1999) characterization of theme as the representative of authors thoughts. As Ghadessy (1999, p. 143) posits, in academic article abstracts, "Information is packed especially in the nominal group of clauses" and this may result in occupying abstracts with special kinds of themes that may not be the evidence of the writers' choice for delivering their thoughts. Another concern rising about previous research is related to the authors of the academic pieces selected for scrutiny. Some researchers have considered native vs. non-native writers in the same line of language proficiency, whereas, as Mauranen (1996) stresses, published or edited texts with native writers are used as a criterion for evaluating other written pieces in terms of thematic selection and progression. A similar limitation emerges when theme pattering is probed through comparing local and international journals where two different articles are published in journals of absolutely different academic status. It also seems that the majority of research focusing on thematicity in discourse has selected a limited number of genres for analysis such as research papers. Drawing upon the drawbacks of the previously addressed studies, it is felt essential to expand the horizons of the previous studies by carrying investigations such as the present one that focused on written pieces of a different genre; because not enough is yet known about the organization of the thematic patterns across theses.

In support of paving the way towards such existing drawbacks, the current study aimed to scratch upon analyzing theme patterns in MA TEFL theses to reveal the general pattern of thematicity and probable similarities or differences in terms of thematicity. Thus, a major aspect of the current research involved informing non-native writers of the crucial effect of theme/rheme on textual organization and will contribute to the growing body of research in the field.

III. Method

A. Corpus

The corpus was selected from three universities offering TEFL courses in Iran. It consisted of 45 theses with semi-experimental designs defended between the years 2009 and 2011. The theses were divided into three categories: 15 of them belonged to (TPAJ) with theses-driven articles published in academic journals, the second category (*N*=15) represented theses with articles presented in conferences (TPC), and the remaining 15 (i.e., TNP) had appeared in none of the academic fields mentioned above. As regards the specific sections of the whole theses, the frequencies of theme types and progression patterns were counted and calculated in two rhetorical sections, namely, method and results sections.

B. Instruments/ Models of Analysis

To practically set the ground for the sake of putting into practice the already mentioned theoretical aspects of the current study, Halliday's (1994) categorization of theme and the revised model of Daneš's (1974) thematic progression (TP) patterns proposed by McCabe (1999) were used for comparing and analyzing the dataset. Halliday (1994) classifies themes into textual, interpersonal, marked, unmarked, simple, and multiple themes. McCabe's (1999) proposed TP patterns include two groups of theme progression and rheme progression. Theme progression consists of constant theme and split theme; and rheme progression includes simple linear and split rheme.

McCabe (1999) also identified a large number of themes termed peripheral themes. These include: thematic equatives, *Wh* element in interrogative clauses, the pronoun *we*, the imperative word *imagine*, circumstances of manner, attributive apposition, time and place adverbials, back, related, new, key, sum, previous clause, inversion, extraposed, existential, and metatextual theme. McCabe posits that these themes cannot be analyzed in terms of TP patterns; in other words, they do not fit into any of the above configurations of TP patterns proposed by McCabe. Following Jalilifar (2010a) in this study, only frequencies of peripheral themes were tabulated without being submitted to statistical tests and their results are reported merely by their frequencies (For more information regarding the models applied in this paper see Rafiei, 2012). The unit or segment of text based on which themes were specified in this research was T-unit, which in McCabe's (1999) terms refers to an independent clause plus all of the clauses that are hypotactically related to it.

To minimize the danger of unreliability in the texts interpretation, two copies were prepared from 6 out of 45 total number of the theses. The selected 6 texts included 2 theses from each category of TPAJ, TNP, and TPC. One of the above-mentioned copies was analyzed by the researcher and the second copy was analyzed by a TEFL practitioner well aware about thematicity. Examining the two analyzed copies, there appeared just one case of disagreement between the researcher's and the second coder's analysis, however a final agreement was reached at on the categories of analysis.

IV. RESULTS

A. Analysis of Quantitative Data

The corpus was analyzed in terms of the frequency of different types of themes. Before reporting the findings, the number of words, T-units, and the average number of words per clause were calculated for each thesis group. The number of words was 60731, 60485, and 60621 and the number of T-units was 3349, 3285, and 3296 in TPAJ, TNP, and TPC, respectively. In the three categories, the results section contained more T-units that present the greater length of this section in the theses. TPAJ compared to the other two categories owned the highest frequency of T-units (i.e., 2022) in the results section. The average number of words per T-units in TPAJ, TNP, and TPC was 18.1%, 18.4%, and 18.3%, respectively. Table 4.1 that will be used for further reference is indicative of the distribution of T-units in the rhetorical sections of the theses.

N.B. In all the tables, M and R represent the method and results sections, respectively.

TABLE 1
FREQUENCY OF T-UNITS IN THE RHETORICAL SECTIONS OF TPAJ, TNP, AND TPC

Theses	M	R	Total
TPAJ	1327	2022	**3349**
TNP	1581	1704	**3285**
TPC	1565	1731	**3296**

In the following section, the findings related to each type of theme are explained.

1. Textual themes

Frequency of textual themes is elaborately presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY OF TEXTUAL THEMES IN THE RHETORICAL SECTIONS OF TPAJ, TNP, AND TPC

Theses	M	R	Total
TPAJ	308	611	**919**
TNP	359	463	**822**
TPC	321	500	**821**

As Table 2 shows, the highest proportion of textual themes belonged to TPAJ (919 cases). Further analysis of the data revealed that the total number of textual themes was higher in the results section compared to method section in the

three corpora. Furthermore, the total frequency of textual themes in the results section of TPAJ was greater than TNP and TPC.

Looking at the frequencies, however, did not give us a comprehensive picture of the significant differences among three categories in terms of using textual themes. So, a Chi-square test was run to take the clear picture. Results of Chi-square test ($X2= 4.170$, 1 df, P>.05) indicated that there was not a significant difference among the three groups of TPAJ, TNP, and TPC in terms of applying textual themes. Otherwise stated, textual themes slecetoin apperaed to be of the same status among the corpora.

2. Interpersonal themes

Interpersonal themes were investigated through the T-units of TPAJ, TNC, and TPC. The data presented in Table 3 shows frequency of interpersonal themes in the three categories.

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY OF INTERPERSONAL THEMES IN THE RHETORICAL SECTIONS OF TPAJ, TNP, AND TP

Theses	M	R	Total
TPAJ	15	32	**47**
TNP	5	28	**33**
TPC	5	36	**41**

The results of analysis (Table 3) revealed that the tendency of students in TPAJ was higher (47 cases), compared to those in the other two categories in terms of using interpersonal themes. Investigating the rhetorical sections of the theses revealed that while the method section of TPAJ was dedicated to the greatest number of interpersonal themes (15), it was the results section of TPC that used the highest frequency of interpersonal themes (36).

The total number of interpersonal themes in each category of thesis was analyzed by Chi-square test to establish significant results. With a similar pattern to the previous results, findings of Chi-square test ($X2= 2.166$, 1 df, p> .05) revealed no significant differences among corpora regarding selection of interpersonal themes.

3. Marked themes

The results related to the third type of theme, that is, marked themes are depicted in Table 4.

TABLE 4
MARKED THEMES IN THE RHETORICAL SECTIONS OF TPAJ, TNP, AND TPC

Theses	M	R	Total
TPAJ	335	695	**1030**
TNP	401	580	**981**
TPC	391	607	**998**

As Table 4 shows, marked themes were more frequent in TPAJ compared to TNP and TPC. Though more frequent in TPAJ, the high profile of marked themes appeared in the results section.

One marked difference appeared in considering the distribution of marked themes between method and results chapters. While the relationship between the two rhetorical sections was diverse in TPAJ, the difference was very small in TNP and TPC. To gain a statistical evidence for the pattern of distribution of marked themes, overall frequencies of marked themes were further explored by the Chi-square test and the results ($X2 = .335$, 1 df, p>.05) indicated no significant difference among the three categories in terms of selecting marked themes.

4. Unmarked themes

Summary statistics related to the proportion of marked themes is presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5
FREQUENCY OF UNMARKED THEMES IN THE RHETORICAL SECTIONS OF TPAJ, TNP, AND TPC

Theses	M	R	Total
TPAJ	992	1327	**2319**
TNP	1180	1124	**2304**
TPC	1174	1124	**2298**

As Table 5 indicates, the total frequency of unmarked themes was somewhat greater in TPAJ. One outstanding difference was the way in which unmarked themes were distributed in the introduction and results sections. In TPAJ, the difference between the method and results section was very noteworthy. That is, while 992 cases of unmarked themes were employed in the method section, the number of unmarked themes in the results section was 1327. In TNP and TPC, on the other hand, the difference was very minimal. Results established through the Chi-square test ($X2 = .112$, 1 df, p> .05) indicated that the three categories of theses did not reveal any significant differences in terms of selecting unmarked themes.

5. Simple themes

Table 6 illustrates the use of simple themes across the three categories of corpora.

TABLE 6
FREQUENCY OF SIMPLE THEMES IN THE RHETORICAL SECTIONS OF TPAJ, TNP, AND TP

Theses	M	R	Total
TPAJ	1012	1396	**2408**
TNP	1219	1221	**2440**
TPC	1240	1203	**2443**

Unlike the other types of themes in which TPAJ had the greatest frequency, TPC and TNP used simple themes with the highest proportion, 2443 and 2440 cases, respectively. Distribution of simple themes across the rhetorical sections of the theses also revealed some areas of variations. TPAJ used 1396 cases of its simple themes in the results section while TNP and TPC applied 1221 and 1203 cases of their total simple themes in this section, respectively. This means that in the case of TPAJ, similar to the other types of themes, results section was more elaborate in terms of using simple themes. A similar pattern of results were observed among the three categories as far as simple themes selection was concerned, Otherwise stated, the result of Chi-square test ($X2 = .926$, 1 df, p>.05) expressed the existence of no significant difference among TPAJ, TNP, and TPC in terms of applying simple themes.

6. Multiple themes

The last category of theme types belongs to multiple themes that were investigated across the corpus. Total distributions of multiple themes as well as their concentrations in the rhetorical sections of the theses appear in Table 7.

TABLE 7
FREQUENCY OF MULTIPLE THEMES IN THE RHETORICAL SECTIONS OF TPAJ, TNP, AND TPC

Theses	M	R	Total
TPAJ	315	626	**941**
TNP	362	483	**845**
TPC	325	528	**853**

Like other types of themes, TPAJ showed the highest tendency in using multiple themes. Reviewing multiple themes across the rhetorical sections of the theses revealed higher concentration of multiple themes in the results section of TPAJ compared to TNP, and TPC. Chi-square test was run on the last type of theme, accordingly, no significant difference ($X2 = 3.472$, 1 df, p> .05) were observed among the three categories.

In the next section, the results of anlysis realted to TP patterns in the three categories of corpora is covered.

Before moving on to the next section, it seems necessary to note that, in this study, each of the six types of theme was analyzed separately by the Chi-square test, but in the case of TP patterns, it was the total number of TP patterns that was submitted to the Chi-square test to investigate the presence of probable significant differences among the three categories of theses. The reason for this method of analysis roots back to some statistical issues. As it was mentioned previously, T-unit acts as a basis on which themes are analyzed. Therefore, the total number of T-units as well as the total number of themes forms the data for the Chi-square test to analyze the thematic differences among or between groups under study. As regards TP, the total number of TP patterns, due to the presence of peripheral themes, is normally less than the total number of T-units. So, the results of analysis gained by the Chi-square test applied to the findings related to the whole would give a comprehensive picture of any significant differences among the categories under investigation. However, this is not the case about theme types in which a single element can have the characteristics of four theme sorts at the same time. For example, a single element can appear in the category of multiple, marked, textual, and interpersonal themes at the same time. This nature of theme types leads to the total theme types to outnumber the total T-units. Thus, the statistical analysis in which the total number of themes outnumbers or equals the total number of T-units would seem not to completely portray the existence of significant differences in the groups under study. To avoid this problem, following Jalilifar (2009, 2010a), each theme type in terms of selection was analyzed separately, whereas the results showing TP patterns were treated in total with no specific attention to the elements.

B. TP Pattern in TPAJ, TNP, and TPC

This study also attempted to investigate the presence of any significant differences among the three categories in terms of TP pattern. Tables 8 and 9 indicate the different patterns of TP across the two rhetorical sections of theses.

N.B. In the tables related to TP patterns, Lin= Simple linear, Con= Constant theme, Sp rh= Split rheme, Sp th= Split theme, and Per= Peripheral themes.

TABLE 8
FREQUENCY OF TP PATTERNS IN THE M SECTION OF TPAJ, TNP, AND TPC

Theses	Lin	Con	Sp rh	Sp th	Total	Per
TPAJ	506	449	14	0	**969**	358
TNP	531	517	9	1	**1058**	523
TPC	534	517	13	1	**1065**	500

TABLE 9
FREQUENCY OF TP PATTERNS IN THE R SECTION OF TPAJ, TNP, AND TPC

Theses	Lin	Con	Sp rh	Sp th	**Total**	Per
TPAJ	656	613	16	4	**1289**	733
TNP	581	576	18	2	**1177**	527
TPC	604	601	15	2	**1222**	509

Reviewing the data provided by Tables 8 and 9 indicates the highest tendency in TPC in terms of applying the total number of TP patterns. Regarding the rhetorical sections, the total number of TP in the results section compared to the method section was greater across all dataset. However, total frequencies of TP in the results section were somehow greater in the case of TPAJ.

In the method section, the most frequent simple linear chains belonged to TPC and TNP (i.e., 534 and 531 cases), respectively. Constant and peripheral themes also appeared more frequently in the method section of TNP and TPC.

In the results section, the frequency of constant themes and simple linear TP in TPAJ was greater than TNP and TPC that may indicate that this section was more elaborate than the method section in TPAJ category. In TPAJ, there was a remarkable difference between results and method sections in terms of using peripheral themes. The frequency of these themes was greater in the results section of TPAJ. As regards applying peripheral themes, the difference between results and method sections in TNP and TPC was small.

The total number of TP patterns was further investigated through the Chi-square test to examine the existence of significant differences among three categories of corpora. Chi-square test output ($X2 = .581$, 1 df, $p > .05$) did not reveal any significant differences among the three categories in terms of total pattern of TP.

C. Qualitative Findings

The researcher was also interested in qualitatively finding out the tendency among MA students towards using thematic subcategories in their written discourse. The content of both sections of the theses was analyzed qualitatively. Although this involved a quantitative process of tabulating, coding, and categorizing the data, content analysis that dealt with the most outstanding patterns appearing in the TEFL theses was preferably applied for further clarify.

Regarding the three main subcategories of textual themes, namely structural, conjunctive adjunct, and continuative, results of content analysis revealed that conjunctive adjunct had the highest frequency across the three categories. Moreover, continuative as the other subcategory of textual themes was not utilized by any of the categories of corpora. This may be due to the fact that, as McCabe (1999) surmises, continuatives are generally tokens of spoken discourse rather than written discourse.

Different sorts of interpersonal themes were also explored in the corpus under study. The most frequent type of interpersonal themes was finite operators in TPAJ and modal adjuncts in TNP and TPC. Finite operators and modal adjuncts were mainly nested in the results section of three corpora. *Let's* the other type of interpersonal themes, not surprisingly, was not observed in any of the corpora. This lack can be attributed to the academic nature of the written pieces examined in this investigation.

In terms of unmarked themes, it was *participant* that gained the greatest profile in three categories especially in TPAJ and it was mainly concentrated in the results section in TPAJ, but in the case of TNP and TPC, it mostly occupied the method section. Other types of unmarked themes were used with a low frequency in the three corpora.

Concerning three subcategories of multiple themes, textual+ topical themes appeared with the most proportion in the three categories, though more frequent in TPAJ, and it was mostly concentrated in the results section. Again, TPAJ showed the greatest tendency in using this type of multiple themes in the results section. The frequency of interpersonal+topical and textual+interpersonal+topical themes was low among the three corpora.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Statistical analysis of six types of themes, namely, textual, interpersonal, marked, unmarked, simple, and multiple themes, and TP pattern explored in the three categories of theses indicated that there was not any significant differences among the corpora in terms of selection of different types of themes and pattern of TP. These similarities can be attributed to the same genre to which different theses belonged.

The overall results of this study add another block to the building made by previous researchers such as Jalilifar (2010a) and McCabe (1999) in which they present evidence confirming the fact that texts of the same genre have similar contextual configurations. This means that texts belonging to the same genre appear with similar linguistic choices related to the field, mode, and tenor of the text (Halliday, 1985, 1994; McCabe, 1999). The findings may be an indication of Jalilifar's (2010a) view that "similarities in the discourse characteristics engender similarities in textual choices, which are reflected in the thematic choices preferred, since the field, tenor, and mode can be realized in topical, interpersonal, and textual themes respectively" (p. 32). Concerning the generic nature of MA theses, it is suggested that TPAJ, TNP, and TPC share some common features that as Swales (cited in Jalilifar, 2010a) purports include common goals, mechanisms of interaction, specific vocabulary, and community members. In addition to the same form and rhetorical sections, they also share similarities in terms of their audience, content, and purpose which lead to similar frequencies of theme types and patterns of TP.

Another possible justification for the findings may be rooted back to the level of proficiency writers possess while writing academic pieces. Theme/rheme as the significant signaler of coherence and cohesion is considered as one of the elements of language proficiency in discourse. In a fairly obvious sense, Jalilifar (2010b) makes it evident that "the greater the language proficiency, the more thematically organized the text, and the closer to native speaker texting" (p. 44). Some of the studies focusing on thematicity in discourse and reaching to a significant difference among thematic patterns of the participants were usually of the kind in that there were marked differences between language proficiency of the participants. For example, some of these studies made their comparison between native and nonnative made discourses (Jalilifar, 2010b; Montemayor-Borsinger, 2003) or discourses chosen for the investigations were made by students from different levels of university studies, being sophomore, junior, and senior (Jalilifar, 2010b).

In its pursuit of investigating thematic patterning, this study is thought to function as a significant contributor of new insights and implications especially with regard to thematic organization in written discourse. However, one should bear in mind that these implications are hypothetical and need to be examined in real situations carefully before they are implemented.

Lores (2004) brings about justification in claiming that thematic analysis is a useful tool for investigating genres and stresses its significance as part of a writer's available linguistic resources that can contribute to the writers' production of effective local and global discourse. One of the important implications of the findings may, thus, relate to the insights they can provide the students regarding the most common thematic conventions applied in academic written discourse. Otherwise stated, this research served to add to the literature on genre analysis especially to the literature regarding the most common thematic choices in MA TEFL theses to which little attention has been paid so far.

Findings of this research, based on the definition of Harmer (2007) of successful writing, may be helpful in the process of writing practices. As Harmer states, students should receive instruction on genre and they need to be exposed to examples of texts within a genre so that they develop a feel for the conventions of that genre. Another implication of the present study, consequently, may be directed towards material designers, in general, and EFL practitioners, in specific, who are recommended to utilize the results of this research and similar investigations as a criterion of advanced students writing conventions, in part of thematicity, in their writing programs. Focusing on theme/rheme structure of a clause, as Wang (2007) recommends, can lead to immediate and startling results in writing instruction. So, it seems essential to devote part of the EFL curriculum to writing practices with reference to thematic frameworks. This can include some advanced writing courses orienting on thematic patterning specifically developed for postgraduate candidates.

Though this study has temporarily come to an end, the work is not finished. The researcher strongly suggests other interested researchers to approach thematicity from a variety of qualitative and quantitative angles through which they can discover EFL writers' thematic tendency in written production with emphasis on all rhetorical sections. A profitable next step in this line of research will be, therefore, to examine all chapters of theses comprehensively.

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Analysis on the English-translation Errors of Public Signs*

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Abstract—**With the rapid progress of economy, the intensification of China's reform and opening-up policy, as well as the successful celebration of a number of great global events, China is attracting more attention worldwide and myriad foreign visitors stream into China. An increasing number of public signs are presented in both Chinese and English which are regarded as a symbol of a city's internationalization degree. However, the frequent problems in the translation of public signs degrade China's international status as a major role on the global platform. Mistranslation of public signs is an emergent issue that needs immediate attention.**

Index Terms—**public signs, English translation, functions, mistranslation**

I. INTRODUCTION

In the past 30 years of the implementation of opening and reform policy, the outside world has witnessed China's great progress in the economic, scientific, technological and cultural fields. The rapid elevation in the economic and international status of china results in a steady influx of foreigners to take participate in various activities in China, such as the 6th Asian Winter Games in our city Changchun, 29th Olympic Games held in Beijing, the World Exposition in Shanghai, etc. With more people from overseas travelling, working or studying in China, the significance of providing English public signs in big cities of China has become increasingly prominent. Bilingual public signs are not uncommon in the public places like streets, stations, parks and tourist attractions. Public signs are mainly words with or without pictures which are used in public places to provide necessary information and convenience. The basic functions of them are directing, prompting, restricting and compelling. These signs are a great help for the foreigners who cannot understand Chinese to get the information they need. However, the existing English translations of public signs in China are far from perfect. Numerous non-standard translations or errors in translation had been noticed and they will inevitably cause the great inconvenience and trouble for foreigners visiting China and most seriously make an awful impression on them. The translation of public signs from Chinese to English, as a special translation mode, has drawn increasing attention in translation field in recent years. It is quite necessary to make a probe into the existing problems and find errors before we can find effective solutions.

II. FUNCTIONS OF PUBLIC SIGNS

Public signs are functional, functioning differently due to different occasions and situations. Classifications of them can help us find out the common features they have. Prof. Lv Hefa proposed the four major functions of public signs in China: directing, prompting, restricting and compelling. (Lv Hefa, 2004) Later, together with Dai zongxian, Lv Hefa provided the classification of public signs of 2 kinds: static and dynamic indication. They pointed out that the static indication performs the directing function while the prompting, restricting or compelling function is shown by the dynamic indication. (Dai Zongxian, Lv Hefa, 2005)

A. Directing

Public signs bear the function of directing. Directing is to provide detailed information or certain service for people which has no restrictive or compulsory meanings. Directing aims at indicating the content of the service rather than forbidding or requiring people to perform any action. In many situations，it simply denotes what kind of service is being offered, what or where it is. Examples are as follows:

ENTRANCE　（入口）

Business Hours: 9:00-16:00　（营业时间: 9:00-16:00）

Ticket Office　（售票处）

Fitting Room　（试衣间）

These public signs provide relative information and show what the service or information is, reflecting no attitude towards receptors.

B. Prompting

Prompting public signs remind people to pay considerable attention to a certain fact before they take any action. They mainly aim at mobilizing people to move and act, serving as a reminder in a warning tone in most situations. For instance:

Caution: Wet Floor   (小心地滑)

EXIT Changchun 2 KM   (前方出口长春 2 公里)

Occupied   (厕所有人)

Road under Repair   (前方道路维修)

Reserved   (预留座位)

C. Restricting

Restricting public signs constrain the behaviors or actions of people concerned. These words are mostly simple and direct or even comparatively harsh but they would not make people feel rude or impolite with proper language. Take the following signs for example:

Stand in Line   (自觉排队)

Keep Right   (靠右驾驶)

Staff Only   (员工通道)

Admission by Ticket Only   (凭票入场)

Usually these signs that bear this function put demands and restrictions on the relevant addressees who are expected to obey public rules.

D. Compelling

Compelling public signs demand the public to do something or forbid them to do something. The choice of words is usually brief and compelling without any possibility for consultation and compromise. The sentences are often imperative with negative words like "No", "Do not", "Forbidden", etc. For example:

No photographing.   (禁止拍照)

No Littering.   (请勿乱扔杂物)

Do not touch.   (请勿触摸)

Object from the observation deck is strictly prohibited.   (严禁从看台投掷物品)

Construction Site Keep Out   (施工现场禁止入内)

Typically these signs use warnings or showing forces to make sure that the information can be accepted and the rules can be obeyed.

III. ANALYSIS ON ERRORS IN THE TRANSLATION OF PUBLIC SIGNS

Nord Christiane, a very famous German theorist and a representative of the German functional approach of translation, defines translation errors in this way: If the purpose of a translation is to achieve a particular function for the target addressee, anything that obstructs the achievement of this purpose is a translation error. (Nord.2001:74)

Standard English version of public signs that may perform intended functions should at least meet the following basic specifications: correct spelling, brief and concise language style, choice of appropriate words, use of frequent words and the consideration of cultural differences.

Yet, if we look carefully when walking along the streets in the city we live, when we are in stores, parks, hotels etc., it's not difficult to find many problematic translations of public signs in many public places. These mistranslated public signs are just extremely embarrassing when a foreigner encounters them. An overseas student in my university once said that when he was preparing for his journey to China, he was advised on one of the major pitfalls of traveling and living in China: The bungled English signs that will confuse, mislead, and frustrate you. These improper English versions of public signs which seem insignificant and neglectable exert great negative impact on the realization of their intended function. "As China opens up to tourism, more and more signs have to be translated into English. But as these hilarious examples prove, something is usually lost in the translation." (Daily Mail (London)) The following part dwells on the leading kinds of translation errors that are most frequently seen.

A. Incomprehensible Chinese PINYIN

At first glance, some public signs are presented in both Chinese and English, but these "English" signs are meaningless and empty to the foreigners because they are actually Chinese PINYIN. These PINYIN public signs can be seen in many public places, for example:

Ouya Chaoshi Liansuo Jishun Dian   (欧亚超市连锁吉顺店)

Changchun Qing Gong Jian Zhu   (长春轻工建筑公司)

Bu Xu Xuan Hua   (不许喧哗)

QU YAO KOU   (取药口)

PINYIN translation of public sign in question is the most common and most easily overlooked error in China. This is an extremely lazy and irresponsible translation behavior. Foreigners cannot read Chinese PINYIN, so these public signs are actually not translated for them and of no help to them at all.

B.   The Inconsistency in the Translation of Naming

Sometimes, the translation of some road signs combines Chinese PINYIN translation and English translation together, which makes it more inconvenient and confusing to the foreign visitors. For example, one who walks along the streets in Changchun may find the sign of "西康胡同"on a building is translated as "Xi Kang Hu Tong". But on the road sign board, it is translated as "Xikang Alley". It would be easy to imagine that foreign visitors may easily get lost because they may consider "Xi Kang Hu Tong" and "Xikang Alley" to be probably two different places. Other examples like "Chong Qing Lu" and "Chongqing Road", "Jian She Jie" and "Jianshe Street" can be seen everywhere.

C.   Embarrassing Spelling Mistakes

When you walk in the public places, spelling mistakes of public signs, which involve wrong spelling of a word or missing of one or more letters in a word, can be easily found. Most of the mistakes are due to carelessness and irresponsibility of the translators or the printers. These spelling mistakes will make the original public signs difficulty to understand and leave a negative impression on readers. Following are the examples and explanation:

On the information indicator board in the International Shopping Mall of Changchun, "珠宝" is translated as "Gewelry", which should be "Jewelry" practically. The shopping mall is a five-storey building and there is a information indicator board on each floor of the building, so your guess is right that the spelling mistake is repeated five times.

In another shopping center, the situation is even worse for spelling mistakes can be easily found everywhere. "KTV/网吧" is put as "KTV/Internet ban". This mistake may cause serious misunderstanding to the foreign readers. Originally, this directing public sign is meant to provide information of internet service for people that they can surf Internet if they need. But the translated information indicates the opposite meaning that Internet surfing is not permitted because "ban" means "prohibit" or "forbid". In Chinese, it means"禁止,禁令". So the English translation of the sign totally failed to perform its function of directing.

When you see these misspelling public signs, you may be very shocked and even puzzled by the existence of these schoolboy mistakes. But they truthfully exist in the city we live. And probably everyday these wrong spelling signs are spotted by more and more foreigners and at the same time these signs leave a poor impression to foreign visitors on the English proficiency of Chinese people. These low-level errors really do great harm to our city's international image.

D.   Redundancy

As we have discussed some basic specifications that standardized English version of public signs that may perform intended functions should at least meet, a good public sign should be clear and concise in its form and expression so as to achieve the most effective feedback at the shortest notice. The rule is applicable to both the creation and translation of public signs. English translations of public signs are also public signs in the target language. Any unnecessary and surplus words or expressions may cause deviations in meaning and difficulties in understanding. For example:

Ji Lin Grand Drugstore   (吉林大药房)

In the translation of the signboard of the drugstore, the translator, in order to be faithful to the source information, translated "大药房" literally and rigidly as "Grand Drugstore". In Chinese, there are some customary expressions like "大饭店", "大酒楼", "大药房, etc., however, in the English translation of these signboards, the words like "big", "grand" are actually unnecessary and redundant.

Public Toilet   (公厕)

This is the most typical and commonly seen case of redundancy in the translation of public signs. The proper and different improper way of translating"男/女厕所"has been discussed in plenty of articles on translation, but various errors are still visible in many public Places. In this case of mistranslation, the modifier "public" is superfluous.

E.   Change or Loss of Information

The basic purpose of translation lies in the actual realization of the effective communicative value of the source language as well as the successful conveyance of utterance information. In terms of the functions of public signs, directing public signs may depend more on the correction and completion of information to fulfill the goals. However, in the real translation process, the translator may omit certain information of the source language. The reasons vary: some cases of information loss are caused by the translators' carelessness, some others cases may caused by the translator purposely in order to be short and brief in the translation of public signs.

Sometimes, this sort of errors can totally change the message and a distorted intention will emerge. For example:

South Ticket (南售票厅)

North Ticket (北售票厅)

The two signs were found in Changchun Railway Station. According to their Chinese meanings, we can see that the two signs intend to inform people that they can buy tickets in both the two places. Obviously, the translator intends to

use the word"Ticket" as a noun to express the meaning of a place for passengers to buy "tickets". However, the foreign readers may misunderstand the intended meaning of the translations of the public signs. They may think that they can only buy tickets of trains heading for south or north in the two different ticket halls respectively. The correct translation of "售票厅" should be " ticket-hall" or "booking hall".

The following is another example for change or loss of information in translation:

1F   cosmetics/clocks & watches   (一楼　化妆品/钟表/鞋帽)

2F   children's products   (二楼　儿童用品)

3F   women   (三楼　女装)

This directing board locates in the New World Shopping Mall in Changchun. As you can easily find out that the commodities sold on the first floor also include shoes and hats, but in the English version of the sign, the information is missing. The consequence of the information loss in the translation of the directing public sign is that the foreign readers don't know where they can find the shoes or hats they want to buy. Therefore, the translation of the sign fails to function.

If the loss of information caused by carelessness fails to provide complete information to the foreign readers, the loss of information caused by improper omission may confuse them. In the above-mentioned example, the commodities displayed on the 3rd floor should be "women's wear", but in the English translation, "女装" is briefly translated as "women". The literalized information that "women" are displayed and sold in the shopping mall may amaze the foreign visitors. The inappropriate omission of important information in the translation of public signs leads to the vagueness of interpretations and leaves the readers in the maze.

F. Chinglish

Chinglish, or "Chinese English", refers to spoken or written English language that is influenced by the Chinese language. The term "Chinglish" is commonly applied to ungrammatical or nonsensical English in Chinese contexts, and may have pejorative or deprecating connotations, reflecting the attitudes of those who apply the term. Chinglish offers a humorous and insightful look at the misuses of the English language in Chinese public signs, instruction of products, and advertising. The phenomenon exists commonly in every city in China. That is why there was a big campaign to sort it out in Beijing, just prior to the Olympics Games in 2008.

In order to come up with the idiomatic translation of a public sign, not only does the translator need to think about its form and meaning, but also they should pay attention to the acceptability of the translation. They cannot put them into the way we want and at the same time, they have to avoid word-by-word translation which makes the translation obscure and inconsistent with English linguistic rules or idiomatic expression, which cannot be accepted by English native speakers.

As terrible as this Chinese-English translation is, it is relatively easy to identify most of the translation errors. Take for instance the trouble of translating the direction sign in a hospital:

Among disinfection (消毒间)

"……间" is used liberally in Chinese to indicate a certain room or place for special purpose, which is usually considered synonymous with "room, place or area" in English. In the translation of the sign, it appears that the translator opted to use a word-for-word translation and put it into two separate words "消毒" (disinfection) and "…… 间"(among) instead of taking into consideration the similar English usage of the words, phrases or idiomatic expressions. In English, there is an idiomatic way to indicate a place or a room for certain movement, like "reading room", "waiting room" and "dining room" etc. So according to idiomatic usage, the acceptable translation should be "sterilizing room".

Therefore, in the translation of signs, we have to learn to think in English instead of Chinese. Even if we may find some similar expressions in Chinese, we should not use them rashly since there is a commonly accepted way to express in English. Now, many local governments in many cities in China are trying diversified measures to reduce or evade Chinglish in the Chinese-English translation of public signs. It really is a good piece of news for the sake of readability of bilingual public signs in China.

G. Grammatical Mistakes

Whether a translation obeys grammatical rule or not is always the fundamental standard of judging a good one. Therefore, a proper translation should, at least, accord with the grammatical rules or linguistic conventions of the target language. And it is particularly the case in the translation of public signs. Unfortunately, the real situation in our city is that numerous grammatical mistakes in the translation of public signs can be easily found everywhere around us. Most of these grammatical errors are not as noticeable as spelling errors or Chinglish, but they are still disturbing and annoying since they not only show the irresponsible attitude of the translator but also expose the poor proficiency and grasp in the English language of the translator. For example:

Borned outstanding permeated with wise and elegant. (原生非凡，睿雅魅动。)

This advertising public sign was found in a big shopping mall, and it means to advertise a brand of cosmetics. There are glaring grammatical mistakes in the translation of the advertising sign: Firstly, there is no such word as "borned" but "born". "Born" is the past participle of "bear", so the correct usage of the passive voice of "bear" should be "is born",

"was born" or "were born". For instance, "He was born in South California." Secondly, "with" is a preposition, so it should be followed by nouns or noun phrases, but the translator of the sign obviously neglected the grammatical rule and translated the two words "睿"and "雅" directly into their adjective form "wise" and "elegant". Actually, they should be put into their noun form "wisdom" and "elegance". The correct translation of the advertising sign which accords with the grammatical rules in English should be "Born outstanding permeated with wisdom and elegance."

H. Inappropriate Choice of Word

In some cases, a Chinese word may have several counterparts with quite similar meanings in English. Then it is up to the translators to decide on the wording and make their considered choices in the process of translation. The word that is improperly chosen usually causes confusion, ambiguity or misunderstanding.

Sightseeing Ladder (观光梯)

This is a bilingual public sign found in a megastore in Changchun, which attracts many foreign customers every day. The Chinese meaning "梯" has several interpretations in English like "ladder", "elevator", "lift" or "escalator". So in the translation of "观光梯", what is the key point for the translator is to decide which word to choose to indicate the real object. Then the translator needs to know the specific indication and the fundamental difference between these words. From Wikipedia, a "ladder" is a vertical or inclined set of rungs or steps. There are two types: rigid ladders that can be leaned against a vertical surface such as a wall, and rope ladders that are hung from the top. The vertical members of a rigid ladder are called stringers (US) or stiles (UK). An "elevator" (US) or "lift" (UK) is a type of vertical transport equipment that efficiently moves people or goods between floors (levels, decks) of a building, vessel or other structures. Elevators are generally powered by electric motors that either drive traction cables or counterweight systems like a hoist, or pump hydraulic fluid to raise a cylindrical piston like a jack. An "escalator" is a moving staircase – a conveyor transport device for carrying people between floors of a building. The device consists of a motor-driven chain of individual, linked steps that move up or down on tracks, allowing the step treads to remain horizontal. As we can contrast the real object with these meanings, "ladder" is the wrong translation of "梯" in the sign and the proper choice of the word should be "elevator" or "lift".

I. Mistranslation on the Cultural Level

Apart from mistranslations on the linguistic level, translating problems from the cultural perspective also needs attentive study.

Language is universally regarded as a reflection and carrier of culture, varies greatly from nation to nation. Hence, as totally two different languages, English and Chinese present themselves with distinctive cultural features as well as corresponding language styles due to the striking differences of the east and the west. Public signs cannot be denied as one of the main carriers of ethnological culture, and the meaning of the signs should not only implicate the entity but also connote the notion of the culture. Therefore, public sign translation from Chinese to English is not only a bilingual activity, but also a bicultural activity. It is closely related and even confined to the range of culture.

For translators, translation is a complicated and painstaking activity which involves the comparison of the two languages and two cultures, and they sometimes may encounter great cultural barriers and difficulties. Likewise, without intensive understanding of the cultural information connoted in words or concepts, the translator would find it tough or even impossible to accomplish the translation task. Consequently, the mistranslations concerning culture emerge.

Customers are God. (顾客是上帝)

This sign in a small supermarket is a case in point to show the translator's ignorance of western culture. "God" occupies the sacred position in the westerners' mind. So in the eyes of westerners, customers can never be compared to God even though they should be specially respected. "Customers First" can commendably indicate the intended meaning and avoid offending the target readers.

Compared with linguistic mistranslation, mistranslation on the cultural level, to some extent, is more intolerable to target readers. Linguistic mistranslation is usually the consequence of translators' linguistic incompetence. However, translation mistakes on the cultural level may on the one hand make foreigners feel they are offended in terms of their customs, beliefs and faith; on the other hand, some other signs baring characteristics of Chinese culture are translated literally without taking account of the cultural differences, which may cause misunderstanding and barricade the foreigners from understanding Chinese culture.

Spring Transportation arrange extra trains　(春运加开列车)

This public sign was found in the railway station in Changchun before the Spring Festival. The word "春运" can never be simply translated as "Spring Transportation" because it is related to a traditional festival in China－the Spring Festival. So "春运" actually means the peak season when travel is most active during the Spring Festival in China annually. The translation "Spring Transportation" fails to manifest the connotation of the source word in Chinese cultural and may not be truly understood by the foreigners.

Therefore, mistranslation resulting from cultural ignorance is a problem that needs urgent attention and solution, or China will be regarded as a nation which is in the lack of cultural respect to other nations and at the same time these mistranslations may form a big impediment for other nations in the world to know Chinese culture better.

Studies on translation from the cultural perspective break away from the traditional linguistically aimed and literarily oriented schools, and switch to a cultural orientation, which discovers a new way for translation studies and helps to build translation studies as an independent discipline.

IV. SUMMARY

After a brief introduction of the functions and some common and frequent errors of the bilingual public signs in the city the author lives, the current situation of the translation of publicity in big cities in China shows up its deficiency. There is no denying that public signs play an important role in daily life, and their English versions contribute great help and convenience to the foreigners in China. Additionally, they also have become an effective way to set up China's international image. The current situation of English translation of these signs is not satisfactory, and various cases of poorly translated English signs present foreign readers with a jumbled meaning. Perhaps the greater problem is the abundance of Chinese-English signs used for directing foreign tourists to and from places. Although there are problems existing in the translation of bilingual public signs, it is still delightful to see that the issue has been bought to spotlight by the academic scene, government and even the general public, and it has already become a public concern which arouses a flaming public interest that it should have deserved for long·

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Translation of Idioms and Fixed Expressions: Strategies and Difficulties

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Abstract—This research tries to investigate and identify firstly some existing obstacles in the process of translating inter-lingual idiomatic pairs, and then to suggest some weighty theoretical strategies to overcome such difficulties. Following Mona Baker's (1992) classification of difficulties and strategies and the related sub-categories mentioned, the present study makes an effort to analyze such classifications and practically apply them largely for some English and the equivalent Turkish (Azeri) as well as Persian pairs. Findings show that there are a number of factors which should be considered in order to translate idiomatic expressions correctly. The most important of such factors include *socio-linguistic elements, cultural aspects, linguistic and stylistic considerations* as well as some specific *meta-lingual factors*.

Index Terms—idioms, fixed expressions, idiomatic translation, Baker, difficulties, strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Idioms and fixed expressions are an inalienable part of each language found in large numbers in most of the languages. Since the meaning of these collocations can not be understood from the superficial meanings of the single words constituting them, so there are some problems in both processes of understanding and translating them.

The process of translating idioms and fixed expressions from one language into another is a fine work which obliges a translator to have a good knowledge of both languages and cultures being shared or transferred as well as being able to identify and cope with the contingent problems in the process of finding an efficient equivalent for the inter-lingual idiomatic pairs. People of different languages use completely different expressions to convey a similar meaning, in a way that while an expression might be completely tangible and easy-to-understand for the interlocutors of a specific language, the same set of words and expressions may seem fully vague and dim and even in some cases nonsense to the speakers of the other. This originates in the fact that each language has got some culture-specific items that are completely different from the corresponding items in another language. Besides, there are some differences in such factors as religion, geographical locations, different ideologies, and social classes of languages and societies that harden the process of understanding and translating idiomatic pairs from one language into another. Hence, there are two main problems in this case: 1) How to understand the meaning of idioms and fixed expressions of a specific language; and 2) How to recreate the same sets of idioms and fixed expressions of one language in another language in a way that they might convey exactly the same ideas of the original language.

This research aims to investigate what difficulties arise in the two processes of interpreting and translating idioms and fixed expressions from one language into another. An attempt has been made to exemplify the difficulties and strategies regarding this phenomenon so that a pseudo-descriptive list of existing difficulties might be declared for the readers and translators of such expressions. At the same time some quasi-prescriptive categories of strategies and solutions to cope with those problems have been mentioned largely based on Mona Baker's *'equivalence above word level'* (1992, pp. 68-71) classification of difficulties and strategies for translating idiomatic expressions. Considering these two classifications and the sub-categories of each group this study tries to show some guidelines for both the readers and translators of idiomatic expressions in the process of translating such concepts. Some practical examples of English and Turkish (Azeri) as well as some Persian collocations will be declared throughout the body of the paper. Firstly, the difficulties in the processes of understanding the meanings of idioms will be analyzed, then the possible ways of solving those difficulties will be mentioned mainly through applying those strategies proposed by Baker (1992) in her book, *In other Words,* alongside some other experimental findings mentioned by a number of experienced translators and scholars. Besides, a number of suggestions, regarding idiomatic translation, made by such scholars as Newmark (1988), Fernando (1996) and Gottlieb (1997) will be taken into consideration.

II. IDIOMS AND FIXED EXPRESSIONS

As a matter of fact there are so many languages all around the world each of which differs from the others in some aspects. Also it is obvious that the people of different countries have got diverse ideologies and every society perceives the world in a different way from the other one and consequently the ideologies influence the languages and the ways of

expressing meanings. Finally, as the result, the collocations and idiomatic expressions of the languages diverge from each other in most cases.

The previous works done by some other researchers include Noor Balfaqeeh's (2009) and Margarita Strakšiene's (2009) papers on the issue. Balfaqeeh uses a number of theories regarding this issue beside mentioning some Arabic examples by making a questionnaire and providing some quantitave and qualitative data. On the other hand Strakšiene analyzes idiomatic expressions through giving some Lithuanian examples and concludes that the translation of idioms involves *four basic translation strategies*:

"paraphrasing, which involves explanatory and stylistic paraphrase; idiom to idiom translation, which involves using idiom of similar meaning and form, and using idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form; literal translation; and finally omission" (Strakšiene, 2009, p. 18).

To illuminate the issue we need to explain some types of meaning at first.

A. Definition of Idioms & Fixed Expressions

Idioms and fixed expressions have got a vast territory in a way that they can include many cultural aspects such as religious beliefs, culture-specific items, superstitions, and different ideologies of the people from diverse societies and nations.

Idioms are treated as figures of speech, which are defined in the Collins English Dictionary (2006) as "an expression such as a simile, in which words do not have their literal meaning, but are categorized as multi-word expressions that act in the text as units". Longman Idioms Dictionary (1998) defines them as "a sequence of words which has a different meaning as a group from the meaning it would have if you understand each word separately". Accordingly, idioms should not be broken up into their elements because they are sometimes referred to as a fixed expression (Cowie and Mackin, 1975, viii cited in Balfaqeeh, 2009).

Newmark (1988, p. 104) who considers idiom as an 'extended' metaphor claims that an idiom has two main functions: *pragmatic and referential*. The pragmatic function is to appeal to the senses, to interest, to surprise, to delight. He mentions that the first function is called cognitive, while the other is aesthetic. The referential function is "to describe a mental process or state, a concept, a person, an object, a quality or an action more comprehensively and concisely than is possible in literal or physical language" (Cited in Strakšiene, 2009, p. 14).

According to McMordiew "we can say that an idiom is a number of words which [when they are] taken together, mean something different from the individual words of the idiom when they stand alone". (McMordiew, 1983, p. 4)

On the other hand Moon (1998) in her book, *A Corpus-Based Approach,* defines idiom as "an ambiguous term, used in conflicting ways''. In lay or general use, idiom has two main meanings. First, idiom is a particular means of expressing something in language, music, art, and so on, which characterizes a person or group; secondly, an idiom is a particular lexical collocation or phrasal lexeme, peculiar to a language" (Moon, 1998, p. 3).

Most of the scholars quote that both idioms and fixed expressions and specially the former one in most of the cases show no flexibility to change in form and grammar. In this case Baker (1992) states that:

…idioms and fixed expressions are at the extreme end of the scale from collocations in one or both of these areas: flexibility of patterning and transparency of meaning. They are frozen patterns of languages which allow little or no variation in form and, in the case of idioms, often carry meanings which can not be deduced from their individual components (p. 63).

She also mentions that some idioms even allow "no variation in form under normal circumstances" and that a translator can not do any of the following with an idiom: a) Change the *order* of the words in it; b) *Delete* a word from it; c) *Add* a word to it; d) *Replace* a word with another; and finally e) *Change* its grammatical structure (idem).

Moreover, Carter (1998, p. 66) classifies idioms as a type of fixed expression that include proverbs, stock phrases, catchphrases, allusions, idiomatic similes and discoursal expressions. But Balfaqeeh (2009) criticizes that "this classification does not have defined boundaries and a structural overlap is very much expected" (pp. 5-6).

B. Types of Meaning

Different scholars of linguistics have categorized types of meaning in their own ways. Some of them have spoken in general terms while some others have used more specific classifications. For example, Larson (1984) believes that there are two primary kinds of meaning, namely, *'Explicit'* and *'Implicit'* meanings (p. 41). He states that there are also three sub-categories for these two primary kinds of meaning:

1) *'Referential meaning'* in which a specific word "refers to a certain thing, event, attribution or relation which a person can perceive or imagine" (idem);

2) *'Organizational meaning'* that deals some aspects with surface structure and grammatical points of the sentence in a way that "referential meanings are put together and expressed by a variety of combinations (idem);

3) *'Situational meaning'* that is the meaning of an utterance in a given communication (ibid: 41-42).

On the other hand Nida (1964) categorizes three sub-branches for the kinds of meaning:

1) *'Linguistic meaning'* that borrows some elements of Chomsky's (1957) model and the fact that meanings are arbitrary;

2) *'Referential meaning'* that is called denotative meaning. This category contains the words that can be found as an entry of a dictionary; and finally;

3) *'Emotive meaning'* that is called connotative meaning and deals with extra-linguistic factors and the figurative meanings that a word may convey (cited in Munday, 2001, pp. 38-39).

The last classification of meaning types in this paper deals with Koller's (1979) equivalence or *'Korrespondenz and aquivalenz'* (ibid: 46) in which he proposes five types of meanings for the corresponding equivalents:

1) *'Denotative equivalence'* deals with non-linguistic content of a text and Koller names it as content invariance;

2) *'Connotative equivalence'* deals with a feeling or idea that is suggested by a particular word although it is not necessarily a part of that word's meaning. Koller calls this type of meaning as stylistic equivalence;

3) *'Text-normative equivalence'* is related to different text types in which different types of texts behave in different ways;

4) *'Pragmatic equivalence'* which deals with the influence of the text on the target language audience. It can be said that this type of meaning is the same as Nida's (1964) 'dynamic equivalence';

5) *'Formal equivalence'* that concentrates on "the form and aesthetics of the text and meaning" (idem). This kind of 'Formal equivalence' mustn't be considered as the same 'Formal equivalence' of Nida (1964) which refers to the literal meaning of a word.

As it can be seen every scholar has got his/her own way of categorizing meaning types that is based on his/her personal taste, but there is one thing in common and it is nearly all the scholars have determined a kind of meaning that deals with a meaning type related to *'non-linguistic'* or *'extra-linguistic'* aspects of words, i.e., all scholars have got a categorization which refers to idiomatic expressions of languages. For example in the meaning types stated above, Larson's (1984) *'situational meaning'*, Nida's (1964) *'emotive meaning'* and Koller's (1979) *'connotative meaning'* are related to the domain of idioms and fixed expressions.

C. Baker's (1992) Contribution to Idioms and Fixed Expressions

Baker (1992) looks at equivalence at a series of levels: at *word, above-word, grammar, thematic structure, cohesion and pragmatic levels* (Cited in Munday, 2001, p. 95). In this paper we are dealing with her *'Above-word'* and *'Pragmatic'* levels of equivalence because the realm of idioms and fixed expressions falls mainly into these two ones. In the case of first level Baker (1992) mentions that:

…words rarely occur on their own; they almost always occur in the company of other words. But words are not strung together at random in any language; there are always restrictions [difficulties] on the way they can be combined to convey meaning…It would seem, then, that the patterns of collocations are largely arbitrary and independent of meaning. This is so both within and across languages. The same degree of mismatch that can be observed when observing collocational patterns of synonyms and near-synonyms within the same language is evident in the collocational patterning of 'dictionary equivalents/near-equivalents' in two languages (pp. 47-8).

Moreover, she also discusses three pragmatic concepts where pragmatics is "the way utterances are used in communicative situation":

1. *Coherence* relates to the audience's understanding of the world, which may be different for ST (Source Text) and TT (Target Text) readers.

2. *Presupposition* is where the receiver of the message is assumed to have some prior knowledge…. This case arises problems in translation because TT readers may not have the same knowledge as ST readers. Possible solutions are rewording or footnotes.

3. *Implicature* is where the meaning is implied rather than stated…..this can lead to a mistranslation of the intention of the message (cited in Munday, 2009, pp. 97-98).

D. Introducing Baker's Difficulties for the Translation of Idiomatic Expressions

Baker (1992, p. 65) claims that "the first difficulty that a translator comes across is being able to recognize that s/he is dealing with an idiomatic expression".

She believes that some of the idiomatic expressions are recognized more easily than some other ones mentioning two situations in which an expression can be recognized easily:

1) When the idioms 'violate truth conditions', and

2) When the idioms include expressions which seem grammatically 'ill-formed'. And finally concludes that "the more difficult an expression is to understand and the less sense it makes in a given context, the more likely a translator will recognize it as an idiom" (idem).

Afterwards, Baker (ibid: 66) classifies two hard-to-be-recognized cases in which an idiom might be misinterpreted:

1) Some idioms are misleading, and

2) An SL (Source Language) idiom may have a very close counterpart in the TL (Target Language) which seems similar on the surface but has a totally or partially different meaning.

The difficulties mentioned in the last part were merely related to the problems in the process of interpreting idioms and fixed expressions and not the process of translating them. On her third chapter of her book Baker (1992) throughout the part and pages regarding difficulties of translating idiomatic expressions classifies these problems into four sub-categories:

1) An idiom or fixed expression may have *no equivalent* in the target language.

2) An idiom or fixed expression may have a *similar counterpart* in the target language, but its context of use may be different.

3) An idiom may be used in the source text in both its *literal and idiomatic senses* at the same time.

4) The very convention of using idioms in *written discourse*, the *contexts* in which they can be used, and their *frequency of use* may be different in the source and target languages (pp. 65-71).

Through the body of work an attempt will be made to explain these difficulties and problems in detail.

E. Introducing Baker's Strategies to Overcome the Difficulties of Idiomatic Translation

Although there are some difficulties in the process of translating idioms and fixed expressions, on the other hand there are some strategies to overcome such probable difficulties. Baker (1992) declares four problem-solving strategies on the third chapter of her book in numerous pages considering this issue as follows:

1) Using an idiom of *similar meaning and form*

2) Using an idiom of *similar meaning but dissimilar form*

3) Translation by *paraphrase*

4) Translation by *omission* (pp. 71-78).

Moreover, she states that:

"The way in which an idiom or a fixed expression can be translated into another language depends on many factors….Questions of style, register, and rhetorical effect must also be taken into consideration" (ibid: 71-72).

In addition, Fernando and Flavell (1981, p. 82) warn translators against "the strong unconscious urge in most translators to search hard for an idiom in the receptor language, however inappropriate it may be" (Cited in Baker, 1992, p. 72).

Finally, there is the *typology of idioms* proposed by Fernando (1996, p. 35) in which he distinguishes three sub-classes of idioms:

1) *Pure Idioms*: 'a type of conventionalized, non literal multiword expression' (ibid: 36). Pure idioms are always non literal, however they may be either invariable or may have little variation. In addition, idioms are said to be opaque (ibid: 32),

2) *Semi-idioms*: 'semi-idioms are said to have one or more literal constituents and one with non literal sub sense'. Therefore, this type of idioms is considered partially opaque (ibid: 60), and

3) *Literal idioms*: 'this sub-class of idioms are either invariable or allow little variation'. In addition, literal idioms are considered to be transparent as they can be interpreted on the basis of their parts (Cited in Strakšiene, 2009, p. 14).

III. METHODOLOGY

The main source that has been the theoretical framework of the paper is Mona Baker's (1992) *In Other Words* and specifically the third chapter, *Equivalence Above Word Level*, which deals with idioms & fixed expressions and some other ultra-word level textures such as proverbs and collocations. Therefore, most of the topics and headings of the data have been chosen based on the mentioned book. Besides, some pamphlets of translation studies for M.A. students were used to have some general knowledge on different theories as a whole. Wherever needed, some related articles have been extracted from the internet for further study so as to prevent any possible mistake in the materials being presented or claimed.

Throughout the paper it has been tried to mention the difficulties faced in the translation of idioms & fixed expressions as well as providing some strategies and loopholes to overcome those obstacles in a descriptive-qualitative way. Another point to be mentioned is that some relevant Turkish (Azeri) and Persian exemplifications have been made in most of the cases for the materials presented in order that the ideas might be as transpicuous and tangible as possible.

The first step taken in the process of writing this paper included gathering some authentic data regarding the subject of the work. To gain information, firstly Mona Baker's (1992) *In Other Words* was studied in detail, and the parts of the book containing any relevant data in this issue were highlighted mainly focusing on the quotations or categorizations for idioms and fixed expressions. A large number of pamphlets and articles on this subject were collected for further reading and analysis too.

The next step was to find some works of previous researchers and scholars on the issue. Analyzing and exploring the found sources, some helpful theories and ideas were added to the paper so as to cover a comprehensive body of knowledge and data. Since this paper uses a descriptive method of writing and it is a library research, lots of examples and descriptions were extracted from a corpus of books and pamphlets to be worked on. In this way Baker's (1992) classification of difficulties and strategies to deal with idioms and fixed expressions was illustrated by supplementary examples of Turkish (Azeri) and Persian- and even in some cases other languages- so that there might be a body of reliable and safe strategies for the translators of idiomatic expressions to take in the process of 'decoding' an 'encoded' SL idiom in TL.

Finally, the last step was to collect the findings and mention the strategies that are adequate and efficient for the translation of idioms and fixed expressions from one language into another.

IV. PROCEDURE

Although most idioms resist variation in form, some are more flexible than others. For example a BBC radio reporter once quoted a conference speaker as saying 'there was too much *buck passing*'. The common form of the idiom is '*pass the bucket*' (refuse to accept responsibility for something). And yet, we would not expect to hear *'there was too much way giving'* for '*give way*' (allow someone to do something you disapprove of) (Baker and McCarthy cited in Baker, 1992, p. 64).

The mentioned example shows that we are not dealing with an extremist discussion of 100 percent acceptance or rejection and that there are some cases of exception as well.

Furthermore, regarding the direction of translation, *The Code of Professional Ethics of the Translators' Guild of Great Britain* states that:

A translator shall work only *into* the language (in exceptional cases this may include a second language) of which he has native knowledge. *'Native knowledge'* is defined as the ability to speak and write a language so fluently that the expression of thought is *structurally*, *grammatically* and *idiomatically* correct (ibid: 65).

Throughout the next pages of the study the difficulties beside the strategies to gain such *structurally*, *grammatically* and *idiomatically* correctness will be analyzed.

A. *Translation of Idiomatic Expressions: Applying Difficulties*

Many scholars believe that the difficulties regarding idioms and fixed expressions are twofold:

1) How to know that we are dealing with an idiom in a given sentence; and

2) What are the obstacles to translate such items?

Considering this issue Baker (1992) puts:

The main problems that idiomatic and fixed expressions pose in translation relate to two main areas: the ability to recognize and interpret an idiom correctly; and the difficulties involved in rendering the various aspects of meaning that an idiom or a fixed expression conveys into the target language (p. 65).

She also believes that such difficulties are encountered largely in the case of idioms and NOT fixed expressions.

To clarify the point let's have an example. Suppose that a non-Persian translator is going to translate the following text from Persian into English:

Source Text ➔ *Persian*

"نگار حرفی نزد. حتی سرش را هم بلند نکرد که به صورت کوراوغلو نگاه کند. کوراوغلو چنان شد که کم مانده بود گریه کند. دوباره سازش را بر سینه فشرد و شروع کرد به گلایه و تمنا و خواهش که:

آخر چرا *روی از من بر می گردانی*، نگار؟ *دو کلمه بگو من بفهمم که* گنا هم چیست " (بهر نگی، 1382، ص. 122).

Target Text ➔ *English (Literal Translation)*

Negar didn't utter any word. She even didn't raise her head to look at Koroĝli. Koroĝli was so sad as if he was going to cry. He held his Saz (musical instrument) closely to his chest uttering such words of complaining and supplication as:

Why do you *return your face from me,* Negar? *Say two words to me* until I know what my sin is (Translation by the researcher).

As it can be seen when a non-native speaker of Persian is reading the *underlined* parts of the ST s/he might have some difficulties in the process of understanding and consequently translating such expressions. Firstly s/he must recognize that s/he is dealing with some idiomatic expressions that have got a figurative meaning, i.e., s/he must know that "دو کلمه بگو" and "روی از من بر می گردانی" are two well-known fixed expressions in Persian. Then it is the time to interpret them correctly so as to prevent such nonsense and opaque translations as what were mentioned in this case. If the translator knew that s/he is dealing with some idiomatic expressions, and then if s/he interpreted them correctly, then the resulting correct translations would be:

Why do you disgrace me? And *please speak to me*.

Thus, based on Baker (1992) and as this example shows there are two kinds of difficulties regarding the translation of idiomatic expressions:

1) Difficulties in the process of *interpreting* idioms; and

2) Difficulties in the process of *translating* idioms.

a. Difficulties in the Process of Interpreting Idioms

The first difficulty that a translator comes across is that s/he must know whether s/he is dealing with an idiomatic expression in a given context or not. Sometimes recognizing an idiom is not an easy task. There are some socio-linguistic and semantic reasons beside some cultural ones for this claim.

Baker (1992, p. 65) considering this issue identifies different types of idioms and believes that some of these idioms are 'more easily recognizable than others' and cites three groups of such idioms:

1) Expressions which *violate truth conditions*; for instance, "آب که سر بالا بره قورباغه ابوالعطا میخونه" (Literally: *when water goes up, the frog sings a song*) or "آسمان ریسمون بافتن " (Literally: to weave sky and rope!) in Persian;

2) Expressions which *seem ill-formed* because they do not follow the grammatical rules of the language; for instance, "ته و توه قضیه رو درآوردن" (Literally: *to extract the butt and bit of the story*!) in Persian;

3) Expressions which start with *like* (simile-like structures) also tend to suggest that they should not be interpreted literally; for instance, "مثل گرگ بارون دیده است" (Literally: *like a rain-seen wolf*!) in Persian.

She (1992) also argues that, the very fact that s/he [the reader or translator] cannot make sense of an expression in a particular context will alert the translator [or reader] to the presence of an idiom of some sort, citing two situations in which an idiom can be easily *'misinterpreted'* if the translator is not familiar with it:

1) Some idioms are *'misleading'*; they seem transparent because they offer a reasonable literal interpretation and their idiomatic meanings are not necessarily signaled in the surrounding text.

2) An idiom in the source language may have a very close counterpart in the target language which looks *'similar on the surface'* but has a totally or partially *'different meaning'* (p. 66).

To clarify the point let's have some examples for each of these two cases:

"سر کسی شیره مالیدن" is an idiom in Persian which literally means *'to curry syrup to someone's head'*. This is a misleading idiom for a non-Persian interlocutor who doesn't have any background knowledge on the origin of this idiom as well as not being familiar with the connotative meaning it implies. Since literally it seems correct in Persian, the translator might be mislead and take merely the surface meaning of it ignoring the *'pragmatic function'* (Newark, 1988) or *'sociolinguistic factors'* (Ian Mason, 1990). On the other hand if s/he firstly had recognized the idiom and then interpreted it correctly, the resulting translation might have been: *'take someone for a ride'*.

Considering the second case we can provide another example. Take the English fixed expression *'to give an exam'* for instance. Literal translation of this expression into Persian is: "امتحان دادن" (Literally: to *give* an exam) which has got a completely different meaning from the English one; for the meaning of this expression in English is: "an agent such as *a teacher* gives a paper to the students to hold an exam" but the Persian counterpart implies exactly the opposite, i.e., "the agent like *a student* gets the paper to answer". This is also correct in the case of English and Turkish (Azeri) counterparts where the Turkish *'imtəhăn vermax'* one (Literally: to *give* an exam) means the opposite (to *take* an exam) and *'imtəhăn almax'* (Literally: to *take* an exam) implies the contrary (to *give* an exam). Baker (1992, p. 67) supplies another good example in this case where *'has the cat got your tongue'* in English means *'to urge someone to answer a question or contribute to a conversation'* but the French counterpart *'donner sa langue au chat'* (to give one's tongue to cat) means *'to give up, for example when asked a riddle'*. She also continues that:

"Idiomatic and fixed expressions have individual collocational patterns. They form collocations with other items in the text as single units and enter into lexical sets which are different from those of their individual words" (idem).

Here is another example from Persian where "مته به خشخاش گذاشتن" (Literally: *to drill a poppy*) means *'to be over nice; split hairs'* while neither "مته" (*drill*) nor "خشخاش" (*poppy*) has got any thing to do with the general idiomatic meaning of the whole collocational pattern.

After interpreting an idiomatic expression in a correct manner it is the time to translate it and find an efficient equivalent in the TL.

b. Difficulties in the Process of Translating Idioms

As a matter of fact the process of translating an idiomatic expression is more difficult than the process of interpreting it and every translator, even a tyro, verifies this claim. Furthermore, since the meaning of an idiom can not be deduced from the separate words that it consists of, then exactly for the same reason we can not recreate the same meaning merely by substituting a literal TL item for the SL one.

There are some primary problems the most prominent of which are related to the discussion of *'Equivalence'*. In this regard Balfaqeeh (2009) mentions that:

"Idioms are difficult to translate. It is sometimes hard to find the right equivalent for a single word without finding equivalence for a sequence of words that convey one specific meaning" (p. 6).

It appears that there are some socio-linguistic factors for this claim. For example, idioms may have some culture-specific or culturally-bound items which cause some difficulties in the process of translating. In the case of culturally-bound items Teilanyo (2007) stresses that:

"The difficulty arises from the problem of finding adequate target language equivalents for terms conveying culture-sensitive notions in the source language as a result of the fact that the two languages have different meaning subsystems and cultures" (p. 16).

Now let's turn to the classification of difficulties expressed by Mona Baker (1992) through which she categorizes the main problems involved in translating idioms and fixed expressions into *four sub-categories*:

1. "An idiom or fixed expression may have *no equivalent in the target language*" (p. 68).

She also expresses that different languages view the world differently. This means that while a language might express a specific meaning using a single word, another language may express it by the use of a different linguistic means such as an idiom, a fixed expression or an explanatory sentence and vice versa. This occurs largely in the case of culture-specific items, whether they are single words with defined attributive meaning, or idioms and fixed expressions with opaque and dim meanings. For example, while the single word *'Baptize'* is completely tangible for a Christian English audience, it a fully unknown and vague concept for a Turk or Persian Muslim requiring the translator to give such explanatory information as: *"birini din yolŭnda yŭndurmağinan məsihiyət dininə gatirmax"* (*making a person Christian through a ritual bath*) for an Azeri Turk, or "کسی را با غسل تعمید به دین مسیح وارد کردن" (*making a person Christian through a ritual bath*) for the Persian one. In other words, the translator should convey this meaning: "a Christian ceremony in which a person has water poured on their head, or is covered briefly in water, in order to show that they have become a member of the Christian Church".

In this regard Baker (1992, p. 68) cites some other categories like 'fixed expressions with fixed formulae' including such examples as '*Merry Christmas*' and '*Say when*' or 'idioms with fixed formulae' such as '*Yours sincerely*' and '*Yours faithfully*'.

She finally concludes that we mustn't always expect to find 'equivalent idioms and fixed expressions' between languages. She mentions that: "Idioms and fixed expressions which contain culture-specific items are not necessarily untranslatable" (idem). As an example take the idiom '*to carry coals to Newcastle*' and its Persian equivalent "زیره به کرمان بردن" (To carry *caraway* to *Kerman*) in which the English idiom uses the city *Newcastle* as the reference or measure of abundance while the Persian one applies the city *Kerman* for this aim. Besides, the English idiom uses the material *coal* for which the Persian one applies "زیره" (*Caraway*). Furthermore Grauberg (1989) declares the German equivalent '*Eulen nach Athen tragen*' (to carry *owls* to *Athens*) and the French one '*porter de l'eau a la riviere*' (to carry *water* to the *river*) which approve the mentioned idea (cited in Baker, 1992, p. 69). There is also another example considering the idiom '*I'll say*' where the Turkish equivalent uses '*ağziva qürban olum!*' (thanks for your mouth!) and the Persian one applies "آی گفتی!" (you just told it!).

2. "An idiom or fixed expression may have a similar counterpart in the target language, but its *context of use may be different*" (idem); i.e., an SL item has got an exact TL counterpart but the usage or pragmatic functions of the two differ from each other.

Baker puts the English idiom '*to sing a different tune*' that means "to say or do something that signals a change in opinion because it contradicts what one has said or done before" and compares it with the Chinese equivalent '*chang-dui-tai-xi*' (to sing different tunes/to sing a duet) mentioning that the Chinese one has 'strong political connotations' as well as expressing 'complementary rather than contradictory' points of view which results in a 'quite different usage' (idem). This is correct in the case of Turkish '*günda bir taŗ čalmax*' (to sing a different tune everyday) and Persian "هر روز به سازی زدن" (to sing a different tune everyday) equivalents as well.

3. "An idiom may be used in the source text in *both its literal and idiomatic senses at the same time*" (idem). The focus of attention is both on the form and meaning of an idiomatic expression since "Unless the target-language idiom corresponds to the source-language idiom both in form and in meaning, the play on idiom can't be successfully reproduced in the target text" (idem).

To illuminate the case an Azeri example is released. There is the idiom '*yorqâniva gôra qičivi ŭzat*' (Literally: crane your *leg* as long as your blanket) which is the same as '*don't bite off more that you can chew*' in English. Also the Persian equivalent for this idiom is "پاتو از گلیم خودت درازتر نکن" (Literally: don't crane your *leg* more than your rug). Now if the Azeri one changes the form of its idiom for some textual reasons into '*yorqâniva gôra qičivi ŭzat yoxsa viralar qičin sinar*' (crane your *leg* as long as your blanket or else *people will break your leg*), then there will be some problems for recreating the same form and meaning in the TL specially in the case of the English one which doesn't have even a word in common with both the Azeri and Persian ones. As a result the translator will be forced to give some explanatory information to '*compensate*' this '*loss*'. Although imperfect, but the Persian one can reproduce a near-equivalent for the mentioned Azeri form by "پاتو از گلیمت بیشتر دراز نکن وگرنه پاتو قلم میکنن" (don't crane your *leg* more than your rug or else *people will bruise your leg*). The reason for this phenomenon is that in this case both Azeri and Persian have got a similar '*ideology*' or '*way of thinking*' that includes '*leg* and *blanket* or *rug*' as well as the concept '*injury*' in their worldview which permits them such plays with the roles of words and meanings. On the other hand the English idiom can not accept such role plays and modulations for its '*ideology*' and '*socio-linguistic*' aspects are different from the Turkish and Persian ones in this typical example.

4. "The very convention of using idioms in *written discourse*, the contexts in which they can be used, and their *frequency of use* may be different in the source and target languages" (Baker, 1992, p. 70).

All languages have got some '*rhetorical*' formulae which belong merely to their own language. These rhetorical aspects of languages differ from each other. For instance while a language may use a high number of honorifics in its pronominal system as a rhetorical means, another language may make a vivid distinction between the written and spoken discourse where the written form is regarded as more formal than the spoken mode. A good example for this case includes such languages as Turkish and Persian in which the written mode is considered with a high level of formality ignoring some informal and spoken idioms as a rule. To shed light on this issue an example is given: "مثل آب خوردن" and '*sŭ ičim*' (Literally: *like drinking water*; Implied meaning: *very easily*) are two highly informal idioms respectively in Turkish and Persian and both languages use these idioms in informal contexts and especially in the spoken form but they ignore using such cases in the formal written mode. Instead they may use "خیلی ساده" or '*čox rahat*' (very easy) in such formal and written modes.

In this regard Fernando and Flavell (1981, p. 85) mention that:

"Translation is an exacting art. Idiom more than any other feature of language demands that the translator be not only accurate but highly sensitive to the rhetorical nuances of the language" (cited in Baker, 1992, pp. 71).

To sum up, it can be said that some languages use a great number of idioms in both formal and informal contexts but as it was shown for the cases of Turkish and Persian ones, some other languages neglect using them in some formal contexts.

B. Translation of Idiomatic Expressions: Strategies

There exists a number of scholars suggesting some quasi-prescriptive strategies to cope with idiomatic expressions. We will take a brief glance at Gottlieb's (1997) suggestions and then elaborate on Baker's (1992) four strategies as well.

Gottlieb (1997, p. 317) states that if the translator considers the original structure and element of the source text relevant for the wording of the translation, then "he must bring the reader to the text…he [the translator] brings the text to the reader" (cited in Strakšien, 2009, p. 15). This means that we mustn't always expect an idiom to be translated exactly as an idiom; there will be some modulations in some cases. The origin of such *'shifts'* (Catford, 2000, pp. 143-7 cited in Munday, 2001, pp. 61-62) is embedded on some socio-linguistic, stylistic, grammatical and finally semantic factors which sometimes cause an 'idiom' not to be rendered as an equivalent 'idiom' at all.

Gottlieb suggests two possible strategies for the cases in which the translator isn't able to keep as close to the original text:

First, focus on the meaning of the original text… [in a way that] the translator opts for stylistic loyalty, recreating the verbal atmosphere of the original. Second, focus on the intended effect on the reader…. [through which] the translator opts for conceptual loyalty, aiming at adapting the original text to a new communicative situation (cited in Strakšien, 2009, p. 15)

On the other hand Baker (1992) suggests four more detailed strategies as follows:

1. 'Using an idiom of *similar meaning and form*' in a way that the TL idiom conveys exactly the *'same meaning'* by the use of the *'same equivalent lexical items'* to the SL ones. She also expresses that this kind of match can only be achieved occasionally (p. 72).

The point to be mentioned here is that the more two cultures are identical to each other the more cases of such equivalents are possible. Contrarily, if the two cultures are not similar and the cultural differences are clearly remarkable between them, then the possibility of making such equivalents for the idiomatic expressions is decreased to its lowest degree. So it can be said that when the SL and TL cultures are identical in some cases there is an *'Automatic'* process of *'domestication'* proposed by Venuti (1995), i.e., in some cases the idioms in the SL are domesticated in the TL without any considerable difficulty or idiosyncrasy for both of the languages have got exactly the same idioms and ideologies resulting in an automatic domestication.

The Azeri idiom *'g ôzüm sŭ iĉmir'* and its Persian equivalent "چشم آب نمی خوره" (Literally: my eye doesn't drink water!; Free→ I don't think something to happen) verify the mentioned claim. Since both Azeri and Persian are spoken in Iran with a large amount of interaction between their interlocutors, so maybe it can be deduced that one of these languages has influenced the *ideology* of the other one in some manners resulting in an *identical idiom.*

Of course this doesn't mean that it is just the culture which makes such idioms. For example there are some cases where the languages have got entirely different cultures but some idioms of them are in complete concordance to each other. Take the Turkish idiom *'ăğzima sŏz qoyma'* (Literally: don't put word into my mouth) and the English equivalent "don't put words into my mouth" alongside the Persian counterpart "حرف تو دهنم نگذار" (Literally: don't put word into my mouth) as an example. As it is seen in this case both Turkish and Persian which have got the same cultural background use the same idiom that the English non-identical culture applies.

2. 'Using an idiom of *similar meaning but dissimilar form*' in a way that an idiom or fixed expression in the target language has a meaning similar to that of the source idiom or expression, but consists of different lexical items (Baker, 1992, p. 74).

This means that the lexical items of the SL idioms are not kept in the TL; instead a semantic equivalent is given in the TL. For example, the Azeri expression *'qizim sənə deyirəm, gəlinim sən eşit!'* (Literally: my daughter, I am speaking to you; my bride, you hear!) and the Persian counterpart "به درمیگم تا دیوار بشنوه!" (Literally: I'm speaking to the door so that the wall hears!) use different lexical items to express more or less the same idea. Both expressions convey exactly the same meaning of the English idiom *'I beat him to frighten you'.*

Another example exists where the English idiom *'When you are in Rome, do as the Romans do'* corresponds in meaning to the Persian "خواهی نشوی رسوا، هم رنگ جماعت شو!" (Literally: if you don't want to become ignominious, change your color to the color of the rest of people!). Repeatedly in this case, both expressions convey exactly the same meaning but the constituent parts of each idiom is different from those of the other one. For this sub-category Baker (1992) compares the English *'very much at home'* and the back-translated Chinese equivalent *'totally at ease'* knowing them as *'parallel in meaning'* (p. 74).

3. 'Translation by *paraphrase*'. Baker continues that:

…this is by far the most common way of translating idioms when a match cannot be found in the target language or when it seems inappropriate to use idiomatic language in the target text because of differences in stylistic preferences of the source and target languages (idem).

The first proof for this category is seen in the case of a Persian idiom "خر بالای بام بردن!" (Literally: to take a donkey over the roof!) for which there is no equivalent in English. Since there is not such an idiom in English and it is also inappropriate to use idiomatic language for such a case, so the translator is obliged to paraphrase the overall meaning of the ST idiom and mention it in the TL in such a non-idiomatic form as: *'To put something in its wrong place'.*

There is another case as well where the Persian highly informal idiom "یه تختش کمه" (Literally: one of his/her sheets is few!) is paraphrased as: *'S/he is out of his/her mind'.* Furthermore, Baker provides some relevant examples mentioning that "one may or may not find the paraphrases accurate" (ibid: 75). It means that some of the idioms may bear a *'loss'* in

some specific characteristics of their connotative meanings while being paraphrased. For instance, if we are to translate the Persian idiom "خرس در کوه، بوعلی سیناست!" (Literally: a bear in the mountain is Avicenna!) into English, the possible paraphrase of such a culturally-bound expression would be *'the fool is wise, where there is scarcity of wisdom'*. As it can be seen the humorous aspect of the SL idiom is *'lost'* in the paraphrased form. Note that there might also be another equivalent with the same meaning but dissimilar form such as *'he is a trout among minnows'*, but repeatedly this form won't convey the same humorous aspect that the SL idiom does.

   4. 'Translation by *omission*' (Baker, 1992, p. 77). This means that an idiom is entirely deleted in the TL because "it has no close match in the target language, its meaning cannot be easily paraphrased, or for stylistic reasons" (idem).

   This strategy is done mostly in the sentence or paragraph level. The reason for this phenomenon is that when an idiomatic expression is omitted, nearly always there is a *'loss'* in the meaning. To *'compensate'* the resulting loss, one is obliged to mention some supplementary words in some parts of the sentence or paragraph where an omission has been done.

   In order to illuminate the point let's take a glance at the following Persian sentence and its non-literal or free translation:

   "دیروز تو بازار یک دعوایی شده بود که بیا و ببین" → **a Persian Fixed Expression**
   Back-translation → *"Yesterday there was a <u>severe</u> quarrel in bazaar".*

   As it can be seen the Persian expression "بیا و ببین" (Literally: come and see) has been omitted in the TL under the strategy of omission. The reason for such an affair deals largely with the stylistic possessions of both Persian and English. Instead, there is an additional word *'severe'* in the translation which *'compensates'* the possible *'loss'* that deletion may cause to the meaning. In this regard and considering the discussion of *'compensation'* Baker (1992) expresses that:

   One may either omit or play down a feature such as idiomaticity at the point where it occurs in the source text and introduce it elsewhere in the target text. This strategy is not restricted to idiomaticity or fixed expressions and may be used to make up for any loss or meaning, emotional force, or stylistic effect which may not be possible to reproduce directly at a given point in the target text….Getting this level right means that your target text will feel less 'foreign' and, other factors being equal, may even pass for an original (p. 78).

V. CONCLUSION

   Throughout different parts of the paper it was shown that there are some difficulties regarding the translation of idioms and fixed expressions. Four of such problems were mentioned as: 1) an idiom may have *no equivalent* in the TL; 2) an idiom may have *a similar counterpart but with different meaning*; 3) an idiom may be used in *both its literal and idiomatic senses* at the same time; and 4) the *contexts in which idioms can be used are different*. Analyses showed that these difficulties are encountered in different situations. Then four strategies were mentioned to solve the problems that idiomatic expressions may cause: 1) using an idiom of *similar meaning and form*; 2) Using an idiom of s*imilar meaning but dissimilar form*; 3) Translation by *paraphrase*; and 4) Translation by *omission*. It was shown that there is no clear-cut and predefined way to cope with idiomatic expressions, but it is the situation which decides which strategy to be taken. The important roles of socio-linguistic and cultural aspects were illustrated by a number of examples proving the fact that the more two cultures and languages are *identical* to each other, the more easily the process of translating idiomatic expressions becomes. Another key concept to be considered is that translator must have a deep knowledge on both SL and TL so as to understand the connotative meanings of idioms and fixed expressions of the SL and then to recreate their exact counterparts in the TL.

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Enquiry into Cultivating Intercultural Nonverbal Communicative Competence in College English Teaching

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Abstract—As a college English teacher, the author has witnessed many teachers who focus on linguistic competence of students or high marks in academic examinations. It is one of the main reasons for low efficiency in college English teaching that nonverbal communication is neglected in daily classroom teaching. This paper deals with the necessity and importance of using nonverbal communication in college English teaching and examines the four categories of nonverbal communication which consist of body language, paralanguage, object language and environmental language. Furthermore, the author aims to figure out several tentative suggestions on how to cultivate students' intercultural nonverbal communication competence in college English teaching.

Index Terms—nonverbal communication, competence, college English teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

In the past two decades, college English teaching has made great achievement in China. According to College English teaching curriculum requirements published in the year 1985, 1999, 2004 and 2007, the objective of college English teaching is shifting from language competence to the application of language competence, and finally to communication competence. Communication competence consists of two types—verbal communicative competence and nonverbal communicative competence. Nonverbal communication is of great importance with its six functions: accenting, complementing, repeating, substituting, contradicting and regulating. And it usually occurs at the same time as the verbal discourse and creates different effects in different situations. Much attention should be attached to its functions in college English teaching for its high efficiency. This paper deals with the necessity and importance of using nonverbal communication in college English teaching, the categories of nonverbal communication as well as several tentative suggestions on how to cultivate students' intercultural nonverbal communication competence in college English teaching.

II. NECESSITY AND IMPORTANCE OF USING NVC IN COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING

Samovar, L., et al (1981) positively express their view that most authorities believe that in a normal two-person conversion, the verbal rents carry less than 35% of the total social meaning of the situation and that more than 65% is carried on the nonverbal band. That is to say, nonverbal communication plays a vital role as well as the oral counterparts.

Many researchers show that the relationship between teachers and students can be improved if teachers make effective use of nonverbal communication. Besides, students' cognitive ability and efficiency in learning will be promoted (Cooper, 1988).

Thus, in school education, nonverbal communication plays a positive role in cultivating the students' characters. Teachers are usually respected, and factually, what or how the teachers say and do will be possibly imitated by the students (sometimes in a subconscious way). In a word, teachers' graceful nonverbal communication can help to improve the students' artistic-appreciation and moral character.

The affection of it on the students is reflected not only by establishing a good example, but also shortening the teacher-student estrangement, by which a more harmonious studying atmosphere is created. Furthermore, the characteristics of theoretic and abstraction of knowledge also requires the vivid, dramatic and accessible gestures to make it specific and figurative. As a result, the students' interest is motivated and the effect of teaching is greatly improved. In the process of analyzing the performance of the students in the classroom, we find that nonverbal communication (such as the smile or the facial expression, etc.) of the teachers can arouse more reactions and draw more attentions from the students. If they use some appropriate gestures when they deliver the lecture, their class can be more lively and interesting.

About this issue, an interview has been made among 80 non-English major second-year students in Zhejiang Gongshang University. They were asked to think about the importance of nonverbal communication used by English teachers in daily class. Here is the result (see Table 1):

TABLE 1
THE RESULTS OF QUESTIONNAIRE TO SURVEY THE IMPORTANCE OF NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION IN DAILY ENGLISH CLASS

Number of respondents	Percentage (%)	Attitude towards the importance of nonverbal communication in daily English class
58 students	72.5	Of great importance, helpful for students to learn English a lot
17 students	21.25	Of importance, helpful for students to learn English to some extent
3 students	3.75	Of little importance, helpless for students to learn English.
2 students	2.5	I don't know.

This result presents that nonverbal communication plays a significant role in teaching. And in the environment of the class, non-verbal communication can have some special supplementary functions as follows:

(1) Explaining some cultural background information of western countries or about the text, the teacher can use nonverbal communications to present. In this way, he can tell differences between Chinese culture and western culture clearly.

(2) Nonverbal communication can help the teacher to organize the teaching process.

(3) Nonverbal communications can help the teacher control the whole class. Teachers can use them to encourage good performances of the students and also restrain their bad deeds.

(4) Nonverbal communications can benefit the communications between students and teachers

Noticing the importance of using nonverbal communication in college English teaching, college English teachers should improve their own cross-cultural consciousness consistently and attach more attention to develop students' nonverbal communicative competence. What's more, they should introduce nonverbal communication cues into college English teaching with a view to cultivating students' intercultural communicative competence.

III. Four Categories of Nonverbal Communication

BI Ji-wan (1999) believes that nonverbal communication can be divided into four classes: (1) body language, including basic posture, gesture, basic manners and movements of any part of the body; (2) paralanguage, including silence, turn-taking and any nonverbal sounds; (3) object language, including complexion, smell, clothing, cosmetics, furniture; (4) environmental language, including time, space, colors, city planning and any human effect on nature.

A. Body Language

Body language refers to the facial and the movements of the speaker to transmit information. It is the reflective and non-reflective actions of the whole body or part of the body. Its main characteristic is that usually accompanied by oral sounds. The facial expressions, the body pose, the gestures, the movements are in accordance with the oral sounds. They are in harmony and complete the task to express the emotions and ideas of the communicators.

As a communicative form, body language seems to be significant in this research as verbal language. Anyone should use body language while he is speaking so as to have better communicative effects. In English teaching, teachers should use body language well so as to make the class lively and interesting. In the process of teaching, teachers usually use the following body language to show their mood or spirit.

1. Eye contact

As an old saying goes, "Eyes are the window of the soul". We communicate a great deal through our eyes, perhaps more than through any other part of the body. Mencius (1986) claims, "Of all the parts of a man's body, there is none more excellent than the pupil of the eye. The pupil cannot be used to hide a man's 'wickedness'". A study indicates that the time of eye contact between two participants generally adds up to 30%-60% of the time of the whole conversation. If two are on familiar terms, the time can reach 70%.

Eye contact is one of the most important types of nonverbal signals in college English classroom. According to Harrison (1974), besides "looking", eyes can serve (1) to seek feedback or to monitor fellow interact ants; (2) to exercise control over communication channels; and (3) to convey specific relationships—particularly dominance or submission, liking or disliking.

Eye contact is the key point of reflecting the emotional communication between students and teachers. It is the most preferable nonverbal behavior in the classroom. The teachers "take care" of every student via eye contact. In a large classroom, this will shorten the physical distance between the teacher and students. A teacher usually confirms, assures, or encourages the students with eye contact. If the teacher can look at the students and cast his sight to every student equally and appropriately, it implies the concern of the teachers for all the students. And it also indicates that the teacher treats every student equally. The students can see the expectation and encouragement as well as the teacher's confidence from the eye contact, which can arouse the students' enthusiasm in learning and create great motivation and inspiration in them. Harrison (1974) once reported that, "In response to a questionnaire, university students said they thought they would be more comfortable with others who, when speaking, listening and sharing mutual silence, looked at them 50 percent of the time as opposes to 100 percent of the time or not at all."

The teachers can also get some information from their students' eye contact. If the students are confident enough in the learning process, they maintain eye contact with the teachers, otherwise, they avoid; extrovert students keep more eye contact with teachers than introvert students.

In a word, eye contact makes teaching efficient and pleasant. Teachers' eye contact makes students feel important and keep them involved in the learning process. Eye contact is also the most efficient way for students to tell teachers about their puzzled feelings, willingness, and confidence.

2. Facial expression

Face is the most noted part of our body. Facial expression is a look on a person's face, and facial cues are the first information that we give to or receive from others.

An effective college English teacher usually uses facial expressions to signal to his students how they should react to the material the teacher is discussing: when it is interesting the teacher raises his brows, when it is difficult to concentrate, and at exceptionally difficult points he looks puzzled to signal that he has just asked a difficult question which the students need to think about.

A smiling teacher is thought to convey warmth. Smith (1984) thinks that such a teacher promotes a supportive and non-threatening classroom atmosphere, which aids students' positive attitudes and corresponding achievement. If a teacher smiles frequently, she will be perceived as more likable, friendly, warm and approachable. Smiling is often contagious and students will react favorably and learn more. In fact, most university students expect their teachers to have rich facial expressions and to smile from the beginning to the end in college English class.

There is no doubt that the facial expression of the teachers should be kind and amiable. From their facial expression, we can find out that the good and responsible teachers are full of enthusiasm. They deliver the lectures with full emotions, which can arouse the emotional resonance in the students.

3. Posture

Posture refers to the general way we carry our body, especially the back, shoulders and head while standing, lying, etc. Posture, as the term suggests, can be in static state. The position of the entire body plays an important role in interpreting nonverbal communication.

For a college English teacher, his/her posture can show his state of mind and his teaching enthusiasm. Standing or sitting in a relaxing professional manner is a positive posture, which can arouse students' positive attitude. This kind of posture can show that the teacher is approachable, receptive and friendly. Being comfortably upright, squarely facing the students, and evenly distributing the weight are to move to change students' mood, draw students' attention, or reinforce some ideas.

4. Gesture

Gesture is the nucleus of the body language. In a broad sense, it refers to specific body movements that carry meanings; in a narrow sense, gestures are hand movements that are closely related to speech, illustrating or supplementing it.

The gestures of the teachers have three functions: clarify and describe the facts; emphasize the fact; draw the students' attention. So teachers should combine their oral sound and gestures to make the class lively and dynamic. However, whatever gestures the college English teachers use, they should be sure to have them come naturally from the material they are presenting. If the Chinese teacher imitates foreign gestures in an awkward way, the students will feel disgusted. Most students can not accept the fact that their English teachers who are native Chinese behave exaggeratingly as foreign teachers. In general, they appreciate natural gestures.

Teachers should also observe their students' gestures carefully and then decide what to do next in an English class. If a student frequently scratches his ear, or rubs his eye, or cups his head in his hands, it shows that the student is not interested in the lecture. Conversely, if a student presses his clenched hand close to his cheek, it is a sign of great interest in the lecture.

5. Movement

The psychological research suggests that compared to the static or motionless objects, the moving objects are more observable and can attract more attention from the people. The movement of the teachers should aim at concentrating the students in listening to the lecture, so the movement should be limited to a certain degree. Or else, it will result differently.

B. Paralanguage

Teachers also use the paralinguistic features to arouse students' interest, inflame the students with a curiosity to learn, and draw their attention. Talking is dominant in classroom teaching; therefore, the teacher's voice has a powerful impact on students. The voice is characterized by paralanguage, which includes intonation, volume, rate, quality, etc.

1. Intonation

Intonation is referred to the change of the pitch when people talk, which often results in some particular mode of the tune. The most familiar intonation is raising tone, falling tone, first rising and then falling tone, or first falling and then rising tone, etc. The unusual use of the intonation often brings some deep meaning. For example, "who are you?" If people use the normal intonation, that is to say, falling tone, then it results in the literal meaning. It means the determination and the confidence of the speaker. It is a question to ask the identity of the listener. However, if people use the first rising and then falling tone, then it means that the speaker is disgusted with the listener. If the speaker uses

the short falling tone, then it is another way to show looking down upon. If the speaker uses the rising tone, it means to doubt, to surprise, and to ask. Besides, students do not like teachers who speak with a monotonous tone; instead, they like teachers with sonorous voice who talk with emotions and change their voice to cater to the need of the context.

2. Volume

A teacher's voice needs to be loud enough to cover the whole class, such that students can follow teachers' talking. If the teacher raises his voice to some special points, then it means, "Please pay attention. It is very important". Teachers should take control of the volume according to the space of the classroom. If a teacher speaks loudly, both the teacher and the students will feel tired easily. But if his voice is too low or faint, students cannot hear clearly what he is speaking. Consequently, it is very hard to meet the teaching target.

3. Rate

Rate refers to the quantity of the words spoken in every minute. The rate of teachers' voice is not always the same. Generally, a teacher speaks at a normal speed, but sometimes speeds up or slows down for special purposes. In different situations and to different students, teachers should use different rate of talking. Especially in English class, teachers should slower their speed in talking to some elementary or intermediate learners. But to those advanced learners, teachers should speed up and talk in a normal rate.

C.   Object Language

Object language often refers to the artifacts, which include cosmetics, accessories, adornments, clothes and the furniture. It is a routine for all cultures that one's dress must correspond with his or her social status or occupation. English teachers should pay attention to their appearance and looks. Their appearance should be proper, comfortable and confident. Dressing properly and professionally can make teachers feel confident. Women teachers use a little make up and wear their hair neatly. Some of them wear body adornments like earrings and rings. The clothes they wear should be tidy, clean, dignified and suitable, which can bring people some feeling of beauty and grace. Teachers cannot pursue the resplendent fashion too excessively. Their hairstyle can be the new style, but it should not be exaggerated.

In addition, the odor of the body and the environment should be used appropriately. If these odors are too strong, they will affect the communication between teachers and students. The teaching may result in an ineffective one.

D.   Environmental Language

Environmental language is an important form of nonverbal communication, which includes time, space, and color, etc.

1. Time

Different cultures have different attitudes toward time. Chinese people belong to the past-orientation of time concept, for instance, children in China like to pretend SUN Wu-kong in their childhood; while the western children like to be Superman or Spiderman since they prefer future-orientation.

In teaching class, teachers are expected to make a good control of time. They are required to be a little earlier to enter the classroom and they must measure time to end the lesson at appropriate time.

2. Space

Based on teaching content, teaching method, and students' participation, the pattern of seating can fall into three types: the traditional arrangement, the horseshoe arrangement, and the modular arrangement (Cooper, 1988) (see Figure 1):
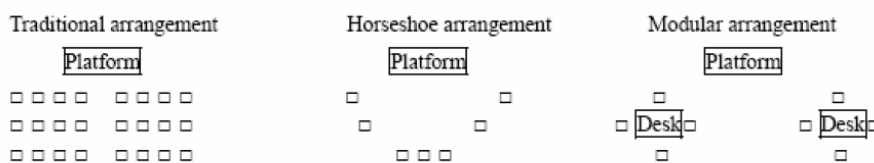
Figure 1   Patterns of seating

To encourage the students to take part in the activities actively, the seats of the students can be changed according to various demands. In the pattern of traditional arrangement, desks are arranged in a series of straight rows. "This pattern is a major factor in which students will be the ones (those in front and middle rows) to interact most with the teacher. It does not matter whether the seats are assigned or self-directed" (Miller, 1981). Apart from the strong point of interaction between students and teachers, this pattern is easy for teachers to control class because of less communication among students. In addition, this pattern gives the birth to showing teachers' status and dominance. Moreover, Jeremy Harmer (2000) expresses other advantages of this pattern: "It means that the teacher has a clear view of all the students and the students can all see the teacher…It makes lecturing easy; enabling the teacher to maintain eye contact with the people he or she is talking to. It also makes discipline easier since it is more difficult to be disruptive when you are sitting in a row". The second pattern of seating is the horseshoe arrangement. Compared with the traditional one, this pattern is not only helpful for communication between students and teachers but also for communication among students themselves. However, the third pattern is most beneficial for the communication among students.

IV. Tentative Suggestions on Cultivating Students' INVC in College English Teaching

In the past, college English teaching is always teacher-centered. There is hardly any communication between teacher and students, let alone nonverbal communication. In order to get an effective teaching result, college English teaching should focus on communicative techniques of the verbal as well as nonverbal processes in target language and culture instead of only focusing on the explanation of English vocabulary and grammar. Here are some suggestions as follows:

(1) To introduce nonverbal behaviors in target language and culture.

Teachers must be culturally flexible and versatile. To do this teachers must take as much effort to become aware of the cultural values in the target language and help the students develop linguistic, nonverbal, and cultural skills. The teacher can make the classroom environment culturally versatile by hanging up pictures, posters, or having a classroom exhibit that reflects cultural backgrounds in the target language. This could be an excellent stimulus for discussing cultural similarities and differences among students.

Foreign language teachers should be aware of and impact the unique cultural characteristics which nonverbal behaviors represent foreign language teachers bear an important responsibility to relay these cultural features to their students. Perhaps more attention should be paid to using foreign languages and their nonverbal accompaniments in actual situations.

(2) To develop the awareness of nonverbal intercultural difference.

To be aware of the existence of discrepancy between cultures is the first step to walk into the door of successful intercultural communication. Since the existence of nonverbal cultural difference forms the barrier to intercultural communication, it is understood that teachers order students to observe and spot the difference so that students can avoid the misunderstanding caused by it. For example, if you are going to interact with an Indian, you should know their own culture-oriented behaviors, their manners of refusal, the taboo of eating beef, and the like.

(3) To encourage students to read extensively.

Extensive reading is a widely used technique to develop students' cultural awareness of nonverbal communication. The teacher should encourage students to read materials on the target culture such as authentic newspapers, advertisements, journals, short stories, novels, plays and other types of literary works. Extensive reading of various styles of articles will help students understand more about people in the target culture, and the increase in cultural knowledge will also help learners improve their understanding of various materials. Materials on the target culture may serve as an introduction to the history, arts, literary works, geographical conditions, economy, society, nationality, science, technology, beliefs, value systems, concepts of the world, using of time and space of the target language.

In the process of reading students will not only have an overall understanding of the target culture, but also have a comparison between the native culture and the target culture. They take the opportunity to compare people's different traditions, different beliefs, different norms and different concepts. Through comparison, students will easily have a clear idea about the differences and similarities between the native culture and the target culture and rapidly develop their intercultural awareness.

(4) To use visual aids.

Apart from extensive reading, visual aids can also be used to develop students' intercultural awareness. Usually, visual aids such as films, slides, video and TV programs can give students very interesting and attractive descriptions about people's actions, reactions, expressions, emotions and many other differences. Seeing films, watching slides, watching TV or video in the target culture are the very direct channels for students to observe cultural differences. Because of its vivid manifestation with pictures, sounds, and music, consciously or unconsciously, students will learn more about different customs, values, religions and beliefs in other cultures. If the teacher can make some appropriate comments on those cultural features that are different from the students', the students will gain great benefits. After the viewing students may compare notes and supplements each other's observations and findings.

(5) To introduce some tips on nonverbal communication

In the teaching process, the teacher may use different methods to cultivate students' nonverbal communicative competence. For example, when presenting a text, the teacher may ask students to find some of the expressions involved in nonverbal behaviors and encourage them to imitate these actions in the target language. While the students are practicing a dialogue, the teacher may ask them to perform with combination of verbal and nonverbal behaviors in the activity.

V. Conclusion

The ignorance of nonverbal communication is one of the main reasons for low efficiency in college English teaching. In modern classrooms where students are learning in teachers' accompaniment, teachers need to understand and apply the approaches and techniques to maintain a good atmosphere in class and enhance teaching with the use of nonverbal communications. As college English teachers, we must make students feel interested in their lessons. The use of nonverbal communication can not only attract the students' attention, but also deepen their impression and imagination.

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The Role of Context in the Performance of Iranian EFL Learners in Vocabulary Tests

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Abstract—This study investigated the role of context in the performance of Iranian EFL learners in vocabulary tests. The study involved both qualitative and quantitative methods of research. Four intact classes at intermediate level were selected. Participants were given the vocabulary section of an institutional TOEFL to make sure they are appropriately placed. Outliers were omitted and 60 students were selected. Four vocabulary tests each providing varying degrees of context were constructed and used to assess the participants' lexical knowledge. These tests included word definition matching test with no context, limited context test with unconnected sentences, reduced context test with cohesive but not coherent sentences and a cloze test providing the whole context. Following the tests, students were given a questionnaire to write their comments on these tests. The application of One-way repeated measures ANOVA to quantitative data suggested that context affected the performance of test-takers in vocabulary tests with various contextual conditions. All the participants performed significantly better in reduced context test (sentential context condition) and had the weakest performance in the matching test (no context condition). Data coming from the questionnaire supported other findings: The majority of the participants agreed that reduced context test was the best for assessing their vocabulary knowledge. Further findings and implications are discussed in the paper.

Index Terms—vocabulary test, test context, Iranian EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

A test measures a person's ability or knowledge. Every test requires a sample of performance. This performance can be used by the tester to gauge behavior and infer general ability (Brown, 2004). Various types of tests (e.g., multiple-choice tests, cloze tests, matching tests, gap-filling tests, etc.) are used to assess learners' vocabulary knowledge in different languages. Each of the above mentioned tests provides various degrees of context for testees. Whether testees attend to contextual clues in taking vocabulary tests has been a matter of interest for many researchers such as Read (2000), Read and Chapelle (2001), Rivers (1981) and Schmitt (2001).

Communicating in natural communication situations, learners are faced with unfamiliar lexical items, for which they must find ways of guessing the meaning in order to comprehend the message adequately. Classroom teachers can solve the problem of unfamiliar lexical items by pre-teaching them, translating, providing synonym, dictionary definition or using peer assistance; however, in natural communication situations the most important strategy according to Read (2000) is inferring the meaning from information available in the text itself. This shows the importance of using context to guess the meanings of unfamiliar words, both in natural communication situations and in language vocabulary tests.

The history of language testing has undergone many changes. Language testing trends have followed the changes in language teaching methodology which have been influenced by theories in linguistics and psychology. Based on different views in language teaching, linguistics and psychology, four major trends are recognized in language testing. During the time when grammar translation method of teaching was fashionable, linguistics followed a traditional approach in which there was no concern for objectivity or reliability. At this time, tests comprised passage translation and essay writing which were scored subjectively. In 1950s, with the genesis of behaviorism in psychology and structuralism in linguistics, there was a major change in language tests. Language teachers adopted the audio-lingual method of teaching which in turn made use of discrete-point tests. In discrete-point tests, every language skill was tested separately in different items (Chun-mei, 2007). When the attention of linguists and psychologists shifted from structuralism and behaviorism to generativism and cognitivism, teachers adopted cognitive-code approach. As a result, there was a shift in language tests from discrete-point tests to integrative tests. Integrative tests concentrated on the communicative use of language and there was an attempt to create tasks similar to real life situation tasks. Unlike discrete-point tests, these tests assessed all sub-skills of language at the same time (Farhady, Ja'farpur & Birjandi, 1994). During the time when the focus of linguistics and psychologists was on psycho-linguistics and pragmatism, functional

approach in language testing emerged. Functional-communicative tests attempt to assess the testees' performance in certain situations. For instance, testees are presented with integrated texts for which they have to interact with and produce integrated written or spoken texts (Birjandi, Bagerdoust and Mossalanejad, 2000).

As far as vocabulary testing is concerned, "whether to adopt context is a heat-debated topic" (Chun-mei, 2007, p. 42). Dixon-Krauss (2001) believes that as trends change in vocabulary teaching, changes in the ways learners are assessed in vocabulary tests appear as well. In the early years of objective testing it was assumed by the scholars that vocabulary tests must always present the target items in isolation. As a result of presenting target words in isolation, some problems occurred. A word can have different meanings in different contexts and can be used as more than one part of speech. When tested in isolation, it was impossible for testees to decide which meaning and which part of speech was intended by the test designer (Read, 2000). Sims (1929) attempted to solve the problem by including the words that only have one meaning in the test; however, this is not a feasible solution in normal situations of vocabulary tests. Miller (1999) asserts that the meanings of words are associated with different contexts. To elaborate the concept, he provides an example. In the sentence, *That was a good shot*, the word *shot* may have different meanings based on various contexts in which it is used. *Shot* can refer to a drink in a bar; it can refer to an image for a photographer and to an athlete; it can also refer to a hit, stroke, or kick of the ball. He reports that it is not possible for learners to gain such knowledge through a decontextualised learning task. "In the field of language teaching, where it has become commonplace to define both goals and methods primarily in communicative terms, it can seem rather suspect to be assessing vocabulary knowledge through decontextualised test items" (Read, 2007, p. 121).

In his experiment, Chun-mei (2007) investigated the relationship between the amount of context and performance in vocabulary tests. He attempted to find out the effect of zero context and sentence context on vocabulary testing. In addition, he investigated how different kinds of context in vocabulary tests affected subjects' performance. Forty students from Zhejiang University participated in the study. The materials included two sets of vocabulary tests. The first test was composed of a 20-item test of 20 isolated single words with no context for which testees had to choose the most similar meaning from among the four alternatives provided. The second test (with 20 multiple-choice items) was in the form of a sentence which included the target word. Testees were required to choose the most similar meaning for the underlined word in the sentences. The order of choices in each item and the order of the twenty items were rearranged in the second test in order to avoid the possibility of students' memorizing answers in the first test and using them in the second test. All the sentences in test 2 were chosen from the examples of *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary, Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary*, and *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*. Data analysis revealed a positive influence of sentence context on testees' performance in vocabulary tests that context played an important role in helping testees to figure out the correct meanings of target words.

One comprehensive study on the role of contextual clues in test-takers' performance in vocabulary testing was conducted by Uckun (2008). The study is perhaps the most widespread study of context contribution to EFL learners' assessment of vocabulary gain. The researcher describes the development and trial of three measurement techniques each providing different degrees of context; word-definition matching test, gap-filling test and cloze test. The first test provides no context; the second one provides a reduced context; and the last one provides the whole context. The aim of the study was to investigate whether increasing the amount of context surrounding the target words from no context to reduced and whole context produced differences in the performance of testees for the same set of vocabulary items in differing contextual conditions. The participants of the study came from Gaziantep University in Turkey. One hundred eighty nine students from three language proficiency levels (elementary, intermediate and advanced levels) were given three types of tests at their own level of language proficiency in order to investigate how much context is needed for testees to be successful in vocabulary tests at different stages of linguistic ability. The researcher concluded that all subjects regardless of their language abilities benefited from the reduced context condition at sentence level. "The expectations of a greater success with the extended discoursal context at higher language ability levels was not supported by this study" (p. 21).

And finally, Webb (2008) investigated the effect of context on inferring the meanings of target words in vocabulary tests. Fifty Japanese university students encountered 10 target words in 3 sets of 10 short contexts that were rated on the amount of information available to infer the meanings of target words. Then another vocabulary test measured recall of form, recognition of form, recall of meaning and recognition of meaning. Based on the results, the group that read the texts containing more contextual clues had significantly higher scores on both tests of meaning which indicated that the quality of context rather than the number of encounters may have greater effect on in inferring the meaning of unknown words and gaining knowledge of meaning.

The importance of contextual clues in vocabulary tests for the prominent researchers mentioned above entails investigating the role of context in the performance of Iranian EFL learners in vocabulary tests. In order to check the efficiency of vocabulary teaching and learning, there is a need for the use of appropriately-constructed vocabulary tests. To serve such a purpose, this study aimed to investigate which type of vocabulary test (with various degrees of contextual clues) would be more appropriate at intermediate level. More specifically the current study sought to find answer to the following question:

1. Is there any relationship between the amount of context and the performance of Iranian EFL learners in vocabulary tests?

The following hypothesis was put forward for the above-mentioned question to be tested at 0.05 level of probability.

2. There is no relationship between the amount of context and the performance of Iranian EFL learners in vocabulary tests.

The current study adds to the previous ones in that apart from those contextual levels studied by Uckun (2008), a fourth contextual condition is added in which a text with superficial cohesive links but with no coherence is used. The present study also adds a new dimension to the study by giving a questionnaire at the end of the test to gather qualitative data on the subjects' ideas about how much context is conducive to success in different tests which provide varying degrees of context.

II. Materials and Methods

This study involved both qualitative and quantitative methods of research. Quantitative phase of research dealt with four measurement techniques or tests: a matching test, a limited context test, a reduced context test and a cloze test. Qualitative phase of research intended to seek attitudes of the test-takers on various types of tests they sat. Thus the study enjoyed a mixed-approach design.

The participants of this study consisted of 60 students within the age range of 15-20. At the time of study, all the participants were studying at an intermediate level in J.D.L.I. (Jahad-e-Daneshghahi Language Institute) in Urmia, Iran. The students are admitted to this institute using an in-house placement test which includes an interview section. They had different levels of general education (including those studying at schools and tertiary education centers) and had different purposes for learning English such as communicating abroad with natives or foreigners, continuing education or for entrance exam. At the time of research, the participants of the study were studying at Level 7 which is considered an intermediate level at this institute. *Top Notch* series (Saslow & Ascher 2006) are used as the main books for teaching English. The medium of instruction is English; however judicious use of Farsi is also allowed whenever needed.

Four vocabulary tests each providing varying degrees of context were constructed and used to assess the participants' lexical knowledge. These tests included word definition matching test with no context, limited context test with unconnected sentences, reduced context test with cohesive but not coherent sentences and a cloze test which provides the whole context. In order to understand participants' reaction to different test types, a questionnaire was also developed and used in this research. Vocabulary section of an institutional Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) was used to make sure that all participants are homogeneous in terms of lexical knowledge. The following gives detailed information on these instruments.

The matching test: The basic task for participants in this test was to match the target words with their dictionary definitions. No synonyms or antonyms were used in order to preserve the homogeneity of materials. Twelve words with approximately the same frequency levels were selected from *Top Notch* book (part 3B). These words were grouped in one column and definitions in another. All the frequencies were checked against *Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English Dictionary*. Some of the definitions were provided within the book; for other definitions, *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (1995) was used. To prevent the predictability of the last item, unequal number of items was used in each column; therefore, two extra definitions were added to the left column. The shorter column was placed to the right and the longer one to the left since "placing the shorter column in the right facilitates the testee's job in that he reads the long column first and moves through the shorter column to find the corresponding items" (Farhady, et al., 1994, p. 92). Testees were expected to match the items in the left column with the definitions in the right column and write the corresponding letter of each definition in front of each word in the right column. In this study, matching test was considered the most context-reduced type of test. The prepared items were piloted in all tests with similar participants before they were given to the real participants. An example of the matching test is provided below.

Honeymoon…**c**...   a. a safe place
                       b. good with hand
                       c. vacation taken by two newly weds

Limited context test: Limited context test is a type of gap-filling test that assesses the testees' knowledge using a number of propositionally unlinked sentences, each with a blank. Testees were expected to choose the most appropriate choice from among the four choices provided, to fill in the blank in each item. All the alternatives and distracters in all tests were selected by the researcher from *Top Notch* book series and were checked against *Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English Dictionary* to make sure that they had approximately the same frequency levels. Testees were expected to mark the correct choice in each item by circling it. An item used in limited context test is provided below as an example.

The government has been ……….. for failing to decrease the crimes.
a. suggested   b. appeared
c. handled   d. criticized

Reduced context test: Unlike the limited context test, this test assesses the testees' lexical knowledge with a number of propositionally connected sentences, each with a blank. Each sentence provides four alternatives for testees from which they are asked to choose the most appropriate one to fill each blank. Two examples of reduced context test are provided below to show how these sentences are propositionally connected with each other.

1. The steam locomotives ……….. transportation of products for long hours.

a. produced   b. permitted

c. announced   d. expected

2. One of the vehicles that was used as a means of transportation in the past was ………. which was drawn by horses.

a. chariot   b. trip

c. argument   d. addict

The cloze test: The passage for the cloze test was also taken from the *Top Notch* books. In choosing the passage, the opinions of teachers at the institute (J.D.L.I.) was also taken into account. Teachers had the choice of 10 reading passages from a *Top Notch* book and were asked to choose the one that could be used as the best achievement test for students at intermediate level. Teachers were also asked to select the words from the passage, which were supposed to be deleted from the passage and to be assessed through cloze procedure in multiple choice formats. After words were selected by the teachers, they were checked against *Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English dictionary* to make sure that they all had approximately the same frequency levels. Teachers selected two passages to be used in the pilot test. After the pilot test, the one which was easier for the participants was selected to be used as the target cloze test passage for real participants of the study. The cloze test was considered the most context-embedded one in this research. Two examples of the cloze test items are provided below.

Every day we see and hear about terrorism and ……1….. acts committed against innocent people for religious or political ……2…..

1. a. corruptible   b. creative   c. innovative   d. violent

2. a. bribes   b. reasons   c. contracts   d. tickets

The questionnaire: A short questionnaire was prepared to elicit data on the testees' opinions about four various types of vocabulary tests. It was aimed to find out which vocabulary test was more appropriate to assess the learners' lexical knowledge at intermediate level and to find out what kind of contextual clues they actually attended to in their lexical decisions. An example of the questionnaire item is provided below.

In your opinion, which test assesses your lexical knowledge better?

a. Matching test   b. Limited context test

c. Reduced context test   d. Cloze test

TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language): The main purpose of this test is to assess whether foreign students planning to study in a tertiary institution where English is the medium of instruction have a sufficient level of language proficiency to study the academic courses without having language-related difficulties. The sole purpose of using this test in this study was to assure that all the participants were approximately at the same level of lexical proficiency; therefore, only vocabulary section of this test was used in this study.

In order to conduct this research, four intact classes, two male and two female classes at intermediate level were selected from Jahad-e-Daneshgahi Language Institute. Although all the participants had already taken a placement test on arrival to the institute and progressed to Level 7 based on final exams, they were further given vocabulary section of an institutional TOEFL to make sure that all participants were homogeneous in terms of lexical knowledge and were appropriately placed at their own proficiency levels. Based on the means of the TOEFL, outliers were omitted and 60 testees (out of a total of 78) were selected to take part in the study. First they were given a cover letter to assure them that the personal information they provide would not be disclosed to anyone else, and all the information either in the questionnaire or the tests would be used for the purpose of this research only. Then each of the participants was given four different vocabulary tests (as described above), each with a different contextual condition. Each test consisted of 12 items, each having one score; thus, the maximum score for each test was 12 and the total score for all the tests was 48. Testees were not panelized for their wrong answers. The allocated time to answer all the questions was one hour. The amount of time was determined based on a pilot test which was carried out with similar participants. After the tests, each participant was given the questionnaire in order for the participants to give their comments on four various kinds of vocabulary tests they had just taken and in order to provide an opportunity for the researchers to find out what kind of contextual clues they actually attended to in their lexical decisions.

For analyzing the data quantitatively, One-way repeated measures ANOVA was used to examine the relationship between the role of context and the performance of all testees in vocabulary tests. Data was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The analysis of the qualitative data was carried out through description and interpretation techniques.

III. RESULTS

The present study investigated the relationship between the amount of context and the performance of Iranian EFL learners in vocabulary tests. It was hypothesized that there is no relationship between the amount of context and the performance of testees in vocabulary tests. Table 1 shows descriptive statistics for all test-takers in four contextual conditions (matching test, limited context test, reduced context test and cloze test).

TABLE 1
MEANS OF TEST TAKERS IN VOCABULARY TESTS WITH VARIOUS CONTEXTUAL CONDITIONS

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Limited context test	7.2759	2.726695	60
Matching test	6.0517	3.199835	60
Cloze test	6.8621	3.116780	60
Reduced context test	8.2759	2.514605	60

In order to find out whether these means are statistically significant or not and to test the hypothesis mentioned above, test-takers' scores in vocabulary tests with various contextual conditions were analyzed through one-way repeated measures ANOVA.

TABLE 2
MULTIVARIATE TEST RESULTS

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
context	Pillai's Trace	.404	12.888[a]	3.000	57.000	.000	.404
	Wilks' Lambda	.596	12.888[a]	3.000	57.000	.000	.404
	Hotelling's Trace	.678	12.888[a]	3.000	57.000	.000	.404
	Roy's Largest Root	.678	12.888[a]	3.000	57.000	.000	.404

a. Exact statistic
b. Design: Intercept
Within Subjects Design: context

According to table 2, the relationship between the test-takers' performance and the amount of context in vocabulary tests was statistically significant. There was a significant effect for context, Wilk's Lambda = 0.596, F (3, 57) = 12.888, p = .000, partial eta squared = .404, which is a very large effect size.

Pairwise comparisons indicated that all test-takers performed significantly better in reduced context test (sentential level condition) and had the weakest performance in the matching test (no context condition). Based on the results of the study, it can be concluded that context affects the performance of all testees in vocabulary tests with various contextual conditions; therefore, the hypothesis that there is no relationship between the amount of context and the performance of testees in vocabulary tests was rejected.

The analysis of qualitative data through description and interpretation techniques revealed that most of the participants of the study preferred reduced context test as the best way of assessing their vocabulary knowledge. When they were asked which of the vocabulary tests (matching test, limited context test, reduced context test and cloze test) assessed their lexical knowledge better, they all believed that multiple-choice gap-filling tests (limited and reduced context tests) were the best way of assessing their knowledge of language since these kinds of tests were similar to the university entrance exam tests, providing a chance for them to practice for university entrance exams. It seems obvious that the washback candidates expected has affected their attitudes toward vocabulary testing.

The findings of qualitative analysis was in line with quantitative findings indicating that lack of context in matching test hindered their chance of inferring unknown words; on the other hand, when the context was too long (i.e., cloze test) they got confused. The findings support those by Read (2000) who believes that the length of context does not necessarily make it easier for the students to understand the meaning of unknown words; it is the level of language proficiency that determines students' ability to use the contextual clues; hence, partial knowledge of learners in developing context will lead to wrong guesses. Therefore, in this research the idea that as the context becomes larger, students can guess the meaning of unknown lexis better was not substantiated.

IV. Discussion

Generally speaking, in recent years more and more tests have begun to test vocabulary in context. For instance, while in the past TOFEL vocabulary tests provided only a word to be tested and four choices of single words, sentential context was later adopted in TOFEL vocabulary tests. Later, from 1995, TOFEL began to test vocabulary in reading materials. Other standard tests, such as Common English Test (CET), Preliminary English test (PET), Graduate Management Admission Test (GMAT) and International English Language Testing System (IELTS) also began adopting context at sentential or paragraph levels (Chun-mei, 2007).

Regarding the research question, whether there is a relationship between the amount of context and the performance of Iranian EFL learners in vocabulary tests, the statistically significant correlation (p=000), indicated that the type of contextual condition in vocabulary tests can affect the performance of test-takers at intermediate level of language proficiency. The findings showed that contextual condition should be considered one of the major variables in designing vocabulary tests since it can affect students' performance; nonetheless, the amount of context must be determined by the test-takers' level of language proficiency since it was concluded in this study that learners at intermediate level can

only make use of context at sentential level which was presented through two types of gap-filling tests (reduced and limited context tests). The results also indicated that when sentences were related to each other cohesively (reduced context test) the possibility of inferring the meaning of unknown words for test-takers increased. The cloze test with the highest amount of context and matching test with no context did not result in higher scores for any of the test-takers.

The findings of the present study are in line with those reported by Chun-mei (2007), and Uckun (2008) in that sentence context leads to better performance among testees in inferring the meaning of unknown words in vocabulary tests. On the other hand, the findings by Webb (2008) appear to contradict those in this study. He concluded the larger the context and the more the contextual clues, the better the performance of test-takers in vocabulary tests. In his study, the group that read the texts containing more contextual clues had significantly higher scores on both tests of meaning.

V. CONCLUSION

Differences in the performance of testees in different vocabulary tests e.g., matching test, limited context test, reduced context test and cloze test could be due to varying amount of contextual conditions provided in these tests. Consequently, in order to help test-takers feel at ease and demonstrate their full lexical knowledge in vocabulary tests, teachers had better try to construct the most suitable vocabulary tests with the right amount of contextual conditions for learners at different proficiency levels. The findings showed that contextual condition should be considered one of the major variables in designing vocabulary tests since it can affect students' performance; nonetheless, the amount of context must be determined by the test-takers' level of language proficiency since it was observed that learners at intermediate level can only make use of context at sentential level which was presented through two types of gap-filling tests (reduced and limited context tests). The results also indicated that when sentences were related to each other cohesively (reduced context test), the possibility of inferring the meaning of unknown words for test-takers increased.

A limitation of the study is that since the participants at intermediate level came from different classes of the same institute and consequently had to take the tests under different conditions, environmental extraneous variables might have affected their performance. Among the environmental variables that could possibly contribute to differential performance of the participants in this study are "noise, temperature, adequacy of light, time of day, and seating arrangements" (Brown, 1995, p. 30). Another limitation of this study is related to the fact that because of limited number of students in higher levels, the study was conducted only with students at intermediate level not advanced ones. Replication of this study with participants at other levels of language proficiency such as elementary and advanced would support or challenge our findings. The study can also be replicated with participants with different age ranges. Measures other than the ones used in this study can be investigated for their contextual contribution. Investigating the role of contextual conditions in different language skills such as grammar will further contribute to the field and improve our understanding of testing issues, making the results generrlizable to more contexts and more skill areas.

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Integrating Virtual Training into ESP Learning: A Hybrid English for Policing Model

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Abstract—To probe into a new foreign language learning model focusing on online interpersonal interaction based on scenarios and facilitating students' proactive participation in the increasingly demanding work force, virtual training is integrated into face-to-face instruction and online English for Policing learning. The paper presents major ingredients of the program, including curricular framework, the development of the textbook, courseware, learning and virtual training network. Implementation example of the model in the classroom, in the sound lab and on the network is also illustrated. Findings show that the hybrid English for policing learning model promoted student learning motivation, interests and comprehensive abilities. Finally, feasibility of integrating virtual training into more disciplines of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) learning is discussed in view of the practice and results of its application in the specific curriculum of English for Policing.

Index Terms—virtual training, English for policing learning, hybrid model, web-mediated, curriculum development, implementation

I. INTRODUCTION

English for Specific Purposes (hereinafter referred to as ESP) consists of English language teaching which is designed to meet specified needs of the learner; related in content (i.e. in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities; centered on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of this discourse; and in contrast with General English (Kristen Gatehouse, 2001). English for Policing is a part of ESP according to these absolute characteristics.

Liaoning Police Academy implemented 3-semester College English (English for General Purposes) learning followed by 2-semester English for Policing (English for Specific Purposes) for undergraduates in 2006. Innovative delivery methods of English for Policing have been designed, applied, tested and changed in the Academy where a hybrid model was adopted based on the research and findings home and abroad. Hybrid courses blend face-to-face interaction with online learning and customarily involve the delivery of curricular materials, access to resources, submission of assignments, project based learning, activities that support higher order thinking, and online discussions that may be asynchronous or synchronous in nature. In order for a class to be considered hybrid some actual student learning and learning assessment must occur online and a percentage of in-class time is forfeited to make up for the weight put on the online learning activities (Nicole & Retta, 2006). A study found that students who took all or part of their instruction online performed better, on average, than did those taking the same course through face-to-face instruction. Further, those who took "blended" courses—those that combine elements of online learning and face-to-face instruction—appeared to do best of all (Laura, 2010).

Students and teachers in the academy benefit from the vast amount of textual, audio or visual knowledge presented in online learning but problems of which also compelled us to probe into a new web-mediated virtual training. First, the common deficiency of most classroom computer assisted learning is the decrease of amount of interpersonal interaction, for one thing, dynamic content video, graphics, flash, and text will inevitably draw students' attention especially when teachers and students have to concentrate on the screen from time to time, for another, larger desks, computer screens in a enlarged classroom will lead to a distracted interpersonal communications and interactions. Second, it's hard for the students to sustain learning interests as a large proportion of time spent online for their own especially when they don't see the connection between what they are learning and what they will do in the future. Third, most of the polytechnic or vocational college graduates nowadays are faced with the demanding requirements of high proficiency in English, especially in listening and speaking, and result analysis of College English Test band 4 constantly indicates their most vulnerable competence is listening comprehension. Last, with the development in technology, more and more students are expecting a personalized training to accommodate their career needs and make full use of their internet access account, computers, and even mobile phones. To facilitate students' proactive participation in the increasingly demanding work force and provide them opportunities to serve for English speakers in a global setting, Virtual training was designed and integrated into the hybrid English for policing leaning in 2009.

II. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

A. The Overall Framework

English for Policing Network (hereafter referred to as the Network) is developed for the hybrid model with the objective of making English for police learning instructive, practical and interesting. The classroom instruction is prior and the online training is secondary for the academy students. The leading role of the teacher and the central role of the students are played through the delicate arrangements of delivery method and content arrangement.

The syllabus outline is shown in Table 1, but virtual training, language learning and online consolidation are highly integrated and even in a face-to-face instruction, the computer and multimedia facilities are also utilized to improve interactions and language experiencing.

TABLE 1
SYLLABUS OUTLINE OF ENGLISH FOR POLICING CURRICULUM

Main Method	Ingredients		
	Face-to-face Instruction	Blended Learning	Online Consolidation
Length	2 hours per week	2 hours per week	At least 2 hours per week
Place	Classroom with or without multimedia teaching facilities	LAN multimedia sound lab	Anywhere with the access to the Network
Objectives	Curriculum Learning	Virtual police training	Consolidation of learning and training
Medium	The textbook & the Network	The Network & the textbook	The Network
Contents	Listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating	Discussion, role-playing and virtual training	Any contents at the user's own disposal

This model provides students opportunities to learn collectively and interact directly in their classrooms and interact via virtual training platform or study by themselves at any suitable time and anywhere on the network with the assistance of other participants including their classmates, teachers, police experts, foreigners and visitors worldwide (Zhongwen Liu, 2011).

B. The Textbook for Classroom Instruction

A specific textbook *English for Elite Police* was written to meet the individual needs for the future police work. Most of the materials of the textbook are based on the author's personal field interpreting practice and transcripts of police service and criminal investigation in the English speaking countries. Undergraduates in the academy can find corresponding topics to their majors in the book: Criminal Investigation, Criminal Science and Technology, Criminal Justice, Cyber Crimes Investigation, Traffic Administration, Security Protection, Police Administration and International Liaison.

The contents in every unit are designed in line with Learning-by-doing theory and arranged in a learning-training-learning sequence to provide students opportunities to apply knowledge into specific tasks as shown in Figure 1.
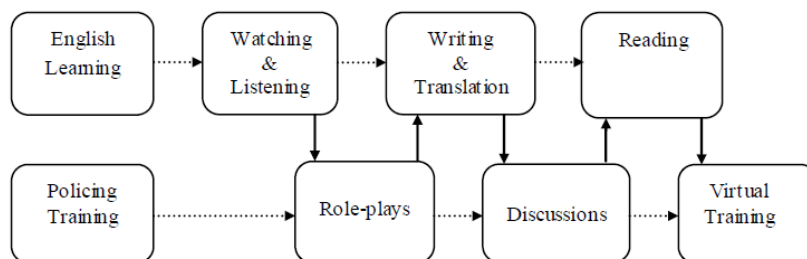

Figure 1. Sequence of segment delivery in a classroom instruction

C. The Programs for Online Virtual Training

Virtual training emphasizes project-based collaborative interactions to enhance the student's vocational skills and career success by experiencing potential working roles with sustained interests. It is a student-centered police service simulation training in English method with which participants conceive, develop and manage virtual police organizations to fulfill their duties and services on a global basis utilizing various web-mediated technologies. As a unique and innovative application of web technologies in real interpersonal interactions, virtual training allows students to act different virtual roles in designed scenarios.

The virtual training is based on scenarios designed normally at the end of each unit to practice all the knowledge learnt. A scenario contains one or more Chinese police officers and witnesses, victims, suspects or service recipients, time, place, plot and goals of a policing service or task. A scenario is retrieved with characters involved or keywords of

a policing service. A Chinese police officer is further classified as110 dispatcher; Community policing officer; Foreign affairs officer; Criminal investigation officer; Patrol officer; Traffic police officer; Criminal technology officer; Security protection officer; Cyber crimes police officer; Criminal justice officer; International liaison officer. Keywords of police service include offering help for tourists, dispatching a 110 call, establishing a criminal case, issuing a passport, investigating a crime, interrogating a suspect, asking a witness, checking a suspicious DUI and meeting a foreign delegation and so on.

A scenario is used for a virtual training like a play, a virtual press conference, a debate in the classroom instruction or an online virtual training.

Two programs are utilized for the online virtual training, one is developed by our research team with Dreamweaver, UltraISO, Visual JW and Visual Studio 2005 to realize the following functions: A student registers or logins with the username, password, creates or selects one scenario, set requirements for other roles, wait for a qualified participant to fulfill the designed service or task. They interact with textual, audio or visual communication in English.

Tencent QQ international 1.2, a popular free instant messaging in English and other foreign languages program, is also employed for the virtual training when there are participants available for a virtual training, partners login their own QQ account, change icons, nicknames or personal information, start training by typing, audio or visual chat till the targeted goals in a scenario are achieved.

D. The Network for the Consolidation

English for Policing Network consists of Login, Forum, Reflections, Assessment, Online Virtual Training and Curricular Learning including the courseware of *English for Elite Police* and the Visual-aural-oral transcripts developed as follows:

First, search with key words on Google or English police department websites to locate the original police transcripts, select those which contain typical, standard and daily policing expressions for each unit, download visual, audio or textual transcripts. Second, edit the visual or audio material with Ulead Video Studio to delete useless parts, add textual or audio explanations where necessary. The textual transcripts are acted or read by native English speakers and recorded with digital cameras or cr-cooledit audio recording software, edited with Ulead Video Studio to add explanations, images or decorations. Third, all the edited materials are linked to background information or discussion topics made with PowerPoint.

The network is utilized in the hybrid model with shifting emphasis on learning or training.

III. Curriculum Implementation Example

There are multiple individuals in the curriculum implementation, each playing a vital role in the learning and training process. The English teachers lead the whole program and combine various delivery mediums to carry out the hybrid learning with the assistance of teachers and experts in police administration, criminology and computer science.

The integrated hybrid English for policing learning model can be illustrated by the learning of Unit 7: TRAFFIC CONTROL AND SAFETY of *English for Elite Police* (Zhongwen Liu, 2009), the goal of which is to learn and apply English on traffic administration, DUI checking, improving road safety, conducting traffic collision investigations, and directing traffic during emergencies.

A. Computer Assisted Instruction in the Classroom

Course sessions make full use of face-to-face and multimedia-aided approaches to deliver different segments. The introductory speakers are from different policing backgrounds, including A Canadian who explains *Citizens are co-producers of justice* and the definition of *Traffic Police* to equip the students with basic beliefs for traffic police missions, a student who makes a presentation on the movie *The Rush Hour* to arouse the interests of the whole class on the subject, the teacher who first checks out the "suspected" students in the previous online study by asking them relevant questions, listens to their feedbacks and suggestions on the program, and then organizes the class to study basic words and expressions for activities in traffic control operations.

The follow-up segments are led by the teacher with the assistance of multimedia facilities like a computer, a projector, a screen and two loud speakers. The teacher reads and explains new words and phrases of the unit first, asks questions about goals, schedule and the outcomes of the training after watching the original traffic police training video. After listening to the conversation *Drunk Driving* and *Traffic Control* which covers checking of drunk driving, illegal parking, speeding and jaywalking, helping drivers to handle an accident and tourists to get to the destination, the students play different roles in the conversation with the computer, classmates or the teacher. Reinforcement tasks include discussion of *DUI checking*, writing practice of *Police Emails* followed by an Email writing task to be done after class and uploaded to the network for assessment, and translation of *What to Do If You Are Involved in a Road Traffic Accident*. Reading tasks include the case study of *Paris Hilton Police Transcripts* containing pattern expressions for dealing with speeding, the background information of *Motor Vehicle* and the time for fun of three traffic police jokes.

The last part is the comprehensive virtual training in the form of a short play acted by two students based on:

The Scenario of Speeding: *You are on traffic patrol on Zhongshan Road where you find a speeding driver. He is from New Zealand. You detain his driving license at last. Try to use the following as much as possible:*

1. Can I see your driver's license and passport?

2. How fast do you think you were going?

3. Do you know what the speed limit is? You were going 15 kilometers over the speed limit.

4. Is this a rental car? You were driving too fast.

5. You broke the speed limit. I'm going to have to give you a ticket for the violation of speed limit.

The teacher normally give partners a few minutes to rehearse before selecting several groups to act in the front of the classroom, and ends the face-to-face virtual training with summary, comments and homework.

B. Virtual Training in the Sound Lab

Activities in the sound labs are student-centered, with the teacher being a supervisor or consultant present. A typical lab is equipped with a system to lecture and to monitor students studying on the LAN computers. Students can review the instruction videos or interact through LAN with other students and the teacher to train police expertise on the Network. They can also login and starts an online virtual training either in *unit 7-scenarios-drunk driving* or *police officer-traffic policeman- drunk driving* sequence to locate:

The Scenario of Drunk Driving: *You are the traffic policeman* *who stops a British driver named Jack*

Smith *for a suspicious drunk driving. Take his license and detain his car after the breath test. Try to use the following as much as possible:*

1. Can I see your license please? Do you know why I pulled you over?

2. Have you been drinking tonight? Blow the tester please.

3. Drunk driving is illegal in China. Can you get out of the car?

4. I'm afraid I'm going to have to take your license and detain your car.

5. I'm going to request some back up and a tow.

The teacher may use the grouping function of the control panel to select randomly two students to fulfill the task on the LAN computers, without knowing who is interacting with one another, students keep changing the virtual roles in the scenario with constantly changing dialogue contents.

The students may also login the online virtual training platform on their own, or login their QQ international accounts, copy the icons and character names to change icons and personal information, complete the designed scenario with typing, audio chat as shown in Figure 2:
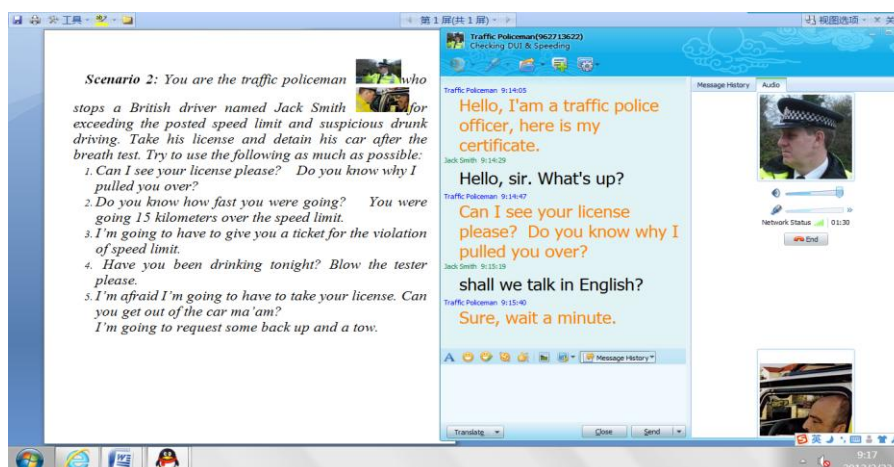

Figure 2. "Jack Smith, the speeding driver" first types, then chats with the "Traffic Policeman" to fulfill the Scenario of Drunk Driving

C. Self-paced Consolidation on the Network

Students may consolidate the learning after class on the Network. They may select the self-paced e-learning to watch videos, listen to records and finish the unread materials left in the classroom instruction. They may also visit relevant websites, download valuable materials, upload their homework, send e-mails to other participants when they are offline, share their reflections and voices on the forum online, reply and comment messages or feedbacks on the bulletin boards, assess themselves on the assessment section.

Students may select a live e-learning as well to take part in an online virtual training with synchronous interactions via the Network to train various police expertise in a changing environment with different people. In addition to policing virtual training, students are encouraged to play some desirable roles in other international law enforcement virtual organizations online. Other synchronous activities include police experts' e-mentoring and English teachers' e-coaching for the students (Zhongwen Liu, 2011).

IV. Findings and Discussions

Findings of the hybrid model are based on the qualitative analysis of student survey, student reflections and feedbacks, interview, observation of classroom activity involvement and supervision of online training participation, and the quantitative analysis of quiz score and online learning assessment score. The outcomes of the two undergraduate classes of Grade 2007 majoring in Criminal Justice participating hybrid English for policing learning show:

A. Increased and Sustained Learning Interests

Most of students were more interested in the hybrid English for Policing learning compared with College English learning because *"it's more relevant to future work, more practical especially in the virtual training."*

The hybrid model is flexible and time effective for the students because they don't have to complete all the learning in the classroom or on campus, more time is spent on listening and speaking practice with further practice done at the students' own time online.

Three police jokes at the end of each unit brings students joys as well as professional knowledge, students often can't wait to translate the jokes, reveal the puns or the metaphors, and most importantly, summarize the policing skills shown in these popular jokes. Links to Virtual Enterprise networks and Negotiation games provide students not only fun of electronic games but also practice of English in business and law enforcement.

B. Active and Relaxed Training Invlovement

Less motivated students traditionally have difficulty keeping up with the whole instruction process, distracted or isolated especially in an enlarged sound lab; the virtual training by two or more specific students allows no student to be idle, everybody has to play a role and get involved, anonymously or not. *"The words and expressions are no longer something we learnt but something we can use." "I feel great to be police officers in different fields; it's also fun to be service recipients of all trades."*

The anonymous online virtual training makes the participant fell "relaxed because the other party doesn't know me, I *concentrate more on my English than on eye contacts and our interactions are based on English proficiency but not prejudice."* Teachers agree that interacting with the same student, his/her English proficiency and communicative skills shown in an online virtual training are better than that in a face-to-face interaction. Experiment of similar scenarios acted by the same student in front of the classmates and a computer shows that the nervousness in front of people leads to more mistakes or incoherent expression which is lessened when the speaker is seated with on one pay attention to him/her.

C. Improved English Proficiency and Overall Skills

Students improve their English proficiency, computer skills, internet literacy as well as team spirit through interacting with English speakers with different accents and from diverse cultural and social backgrounds on the Network. Their confidence grow after a period of communicating with these genuine service recipients whom they wouldn't have met otherwise, which encourages the students to take part in more virtual training with improved English.

D. Administrative and Technical Challenges and Solutions

Challenges we found during years of hybrid curriculum implementation are: first of all, what attitudes of the authorities towards a new pedagogy, technical barriers are to be overcome if the school authorities take a positive attitude to render financial and administrative supports with constancy; furthermore, how to coordination of participant responsibilities, the English teacher should play a leading role in the program to cooperate with police experts, computer teachers, sound lab staffs and administrative tutors to ensure the implementation of the course in and after class; last, how to meet the ever-changing student expectations, on one hand, the interests and enthusiasm for the whole learning process have to be aroused to sustain the students' curiosity, on the other hand, hardworking and self-discipline have to be strengthened so as to achieve the program goals, the key of balancing lies in taking the students' voices into account and assessing each student with quantitative and accepted criteria.

V. Conclusions and Prospects

From the tentative research and practice in integrating virtual training into the hybrid English for Policing learning, we found that virtual training especially online virtual training is feasible and advantageous to web-mediated ESP learning in view of the practical application of English in specific field. This paper suggests that a systematic framework is conceived first to set the principles of a learning model, textbook, courseware and network platform are developed accordingly or free online program is utilized to realize the overall goals. Project-based curriculum design not only includes traditional five elements of foreign language learning: listening, speaking ,reading, writing and translating, but also discussion, interpersonal and human-computer role-plays, case study, background information and jokes to strengthen training.

Online virtual training in a foreign language improves genuine vocational competence as well as foreign language proficiency in light of transferring future work setting via network to the curriculum process. It's based on a

constructivist understanding of learning which sets a focus on the learners and their active role in constructing knowledge. Curriculum knowledge is acquired through active application and interaction within a virtual situation. In fulfilling every specific service or task, students are better motivated to learn knowledge; a motivated learning will inevitably result in work competence. As this beneficial cycle goes, the virtual training turns into real work competence.

We are confident to apply virtual training in more disciplines of ESP learning, currently, Virtual Service Learning pedagogy is practiced in English for International Business, English for Tourism and English for Fashion Design in three universities within the province.

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Do We Care? Investigating How a Caring Relationship Might Influence Comments and Responses in EFL Writing Classes

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Abstract—**These This paper examines the ways a caring relationship between teacher and students might influence teacher's written comments on students' writing and the processes by which students use teachers' comments as they revise their drafts. Attempts were made to figure out the factors which contribute to the establishment of a caring relationship between teacher and students. These factors included the students' perception of the teacher's language ability, teacher's helpfulness, and teacher's dialogue with his students as well as teacher's attention to students' needs and wants. Understanding and responding were the factors which led both the teacher and the students to develop a caring relationship. Moreover, the students' drafts and final written productions were examined by the teacher and an experienced writing teacher and they both agreed that students had improved in terms of macro-level structures in writing.**

Index Terms—**caring, caring relationship, feedback**

I. Introduction

In writing classes, similar to any form of human interaction, written comments on student writing are a form of mutual communication between teacher and students (Ferris, Pezone, Tade, &Tinti, 1997). But how teachers can effectively communicate with their students through written comments?

Taking into consideration the importance of writing in foreign language education, the majority of studies on writing and feedback have demonstrated that teacher written comments play an important role in motivating students to revise and improve their drafts, thereby contributing to the development of their writing abilities (Bitchner, 2008; Ferris, 1997; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Goldstein, 2004; Hyland, 1998; Leki, 1990; Nicol and Macfarlane- Dick, 2006).There are even more researches on teachers' and students' attitudes towards written feedback (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Ferris, 1995; Hedgcock &Lefkowitz, 1994; Leki, 1991; Montgomery & Baker, 2007) which all show that L2 learners expect and want their teachers to give feedback on their writing. As noted by Hyland & Hyland (2005) the feedback is not "simply disembodied reference" of students' writing but "an interactive part of the whole context of learning, helping to create a productive interpersonal relationship between the teacher and individual students". As a result, the interpersonal aspects of feedback could build the kind of relationship between teacher and students that can facilitate the students' writing development. (Hyland & Hyland, 2005)

II. Studies on Feedback

A. Attitudes toward Feedback

In Zamel's pinion (1985), feedback is often "vague, cryptic, and inconsistent". He believes that teachers should avoid emphasizing on form and they have to focus on meaning. Giannakopoulou (2007), on the other hand, states that;

"Responding in the writing process is seen as reacting to the content, quality of ideas, style and language of a paper rather than merely grading, marking, or correcting it. Novice writers need specific feedback from the teacher concerning not only their language but also the reader's perspective in order to produce writing which is coherent and comprehensible…" (p.41)

Montgomery and Baker (2007) also contend that both teachers and students perceive teacher-written feedback as an important part of the writing process. In sum, despite the fact that correction of students' writing errors is still under debate, research in this area argues that teachers should provide comments on students' drafts because these comments are likely to motivate students to revise their texts and improve the quality of writing (Cohen &Cavalcanti, 1990, Ferris, 1997; Leki,1991).

B. Teacher Correction and Student Reaction

Some studies have shown that ESL students want and appreciate error correction and that such correction motivates students to write (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Ferris, 1995; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994, cited in Rahimi, 2010; Leki, 1991; Montgomery & Baker, 2007) and helps students improve the accuracy and quality of their writing (Chandler, 2003; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1995, 1997).

Chandler (2003) and Ferris (1997) examined the samples of various drafts of several different assignments for a full semester and therefore could examine the change which occurred across writing assignments, points of the semester, student ability levels, and the impact of teacher comments on student revision. Along the same line, Lightbown and Spada (1999; cited in Giannakopoulou, 2007) believe, an overemphasis on error and correction hinders the development of fluency in writing.

C. Students' Attitudes toward Feedback

L2 writing teachers are usually aware of students' perception of written comments and they try to do so; however, they might not be fully aware of how much feedback they have to give on local issues such as grammar, spelling, and punctuation as well as global issues such as content and organization (Montgomery & Baker, 2007).

Zacharias (2007) examined students' attitudes toward teacher feedback by using both qualitative and quantitative data. The results demonstrated that generally teachers and students have a" marked preference" for teacher feedback. Moreover, students preferred form-based feedback and they considered it to be more effective; they believed that content-based feedback tended to be general. According to Lee (2007), in ESL studies, the ways students perceive teacher feedback refers to different factors such as student's educational backgrounds, classroom assignments, classroom goals and interpersonal relationships. As a result, students' interpretations of teacher feedback were not always related to their teacher's intentions.

D. Written Feedback in EFL Settings

Robati (2007) examined the effect of teachers' written feedback on Iranian learners' writings with the focus on form versus content. Riazi (1997, cited in Hyland & Hyland, 2006) conducted a similar study on Iranian students and the results suggested that the students consider feedback as an important part of writing classes; though, they believed that the form-based feedback as more effective in improving their English. In a similar study, Rahimi (2010) explored EFL students' beliefs about teacher's feedback and their preferences for receiving feedback on different grammatical units by applying questionnaire, verbal protocol, and students' writing scores. Several other studies in Iran have been conducted in the form of MA or PhD dissertation conducted in Iran (Alfi, 2004; Bakhshi, 2005; BozorgAliabadi, 2005; Edalat, 2005; Kordi, 2007).

Additionally, as in other settings Ellis et al. (2008) conducted a study on corrective feedback and found it to be effective.Another similar study (Binglan & Jia, 2010) showed that explicit corrective feedback is more helpful for students' long-term improvement of writing accuracy, concluding that teachers should use explicit comments on the writings. Schulz (2001) investigated the relationship between the two types of teacher feedback i.e. error correction versus meaning correction and their effects on the level of grammatical accuracy and the level of thinking. He found that feedback on meaning helped the students improve their grammatical accuracy and thinking levels, while feedback on local errors and grammatical rules did not help them grow in their grammatical and cognitive skills levels.

III. Caring Relationship and Its Influence on Teaching Writing

As Yoshida (2010) states, since corrective feedback occurs in classroom context, teachers' and students' perceptions of feedback episodes may be influenced by their perceptions of classroom interactions (emphasis ours)" (p. 297).

A. Noddings' Description of Caring

Noddings (1999) describes caring as a combination of honesty and patience, trust and respect, humility and courage, experience of others, encouragement and devotion. She described her approach to ethics of care as relational ethics since her approach "prioritizes concern for relationships". However, Noddings believes that caring, rooted in receptivity, relatedness, and responsiveness' is a more basic and preferable approach to ethics (1984).

Noddings suggests three requirements for caring. She argues that the career has to exhibit engrossment and motivational displacement, and the person who is cared for must respond in some way to the caring. By engrossment, Noddings means thinking about someone in order to gain a better understanding of him or her. It is possible that someone has a deep understanding of another person but acts against that person's interests. Therefore, there would be a need for motivational displacement. Motivational displacement is defined by Noddings as the willingness to be

concerned about the goals and needs of the cared-for. Finally, as the third requirement of a caring relationship, she argues that caring should be a foundation for ethical decision-making.

B. Tarlow's Concepts of Caring Relationship

Tarlow (1996) conducted a study about caring relationships at schools. She found out that eight basic concepts made up caring relationships: time, 'be there', talking, sensitivity, acting in the best interest of the other, caring as feeling, caring as doing, and reciprocity. Tarlow believes that spending time with students is important in the formation and maintenance of caring relationships.

IV. STUDIES ON CARING

Bosworth (1995, cited in Protheroe, 2005) conducted a study that asked middle-level students how they defined care and described caring teachers. Alder (2002) investigated how caring relationship between middle school students and their teachers was created and maintained. Noblit (1993, cited in Magyar et al., 2007) had an ethnographic research and investigated the teacher's construction of caring through the ethical use of power. McLaughlin (1991) examined teachers who struggled with establishing appropriate control and care in their classrooms. There was only a single study by Lee and Schallert (2008) which examined the role of trust between teacher and students through feedback and revision cycles in writing.

A. Noddings's Concept of Caring

Noddings (1984) used the term caring for describing an interaction between a person giving care ("the one-caring") and a person receiving that care ("the cared-for"). She believes that care is basic in human life and everyone wants to be cared for (Noddings, 2002). For Noddings, caring is not an innate part of people. She believes that caring is not something a person is but it is something that a person engages in. It is "a connection or encounter between two human beings" (Noddings, 2001, p. 15).Without having the cared-for's reciprocal response to the one-caring, "the one who is the object of caretaking feels like an object" (p. 65).She discussed four key components of caring relationship: modeling, dialogue, practice, and confirmation (Noddings, 2002). For Noddings (1992), the concept of dialogue is respecting the students' opinions, rationales, and motives (Alder, 2005).Furthermore, caring teachers need to provide an atmosphere for students "to share efforts at providing care" (Owens & Ennis, 2005). They have to help students practice care so that students learn how to "be supportive and encouraging to one another" (Alder, 2005).For being encouraging, the teachers need to know the students very well to" realize what they are trying to become" (Owens & Ennis, 2005). By confirming students, the teachers provide students with positive direction and help them "incorporate instances of poor judgment into an ethical view of themselves that they can live with honorably" (Alder, 2002, p.5).

B. Tarlow's Concept of Caring

Through eighty-four interviews, Tarlow (1996) identified eight issues which make up caring relationships: time, 'be there', talking, sensitivity, acting in the best interest of the other, caring as feeling, caring as doing, and reciprocity.

The first issue is time which refers to the actual time of the interacting between teachers and students. "be there" is the second issue in caring relationships. It means that the caring teacher should be both physically and emotionally present, available and approachable to help the students in any way they can. The third characteristic of a caring relationship in Tarlow's (1996) research is "talking for building caring relationship between teacher and students. The next important issue is sensitivity, i.e. teachers should be sensitive to their student's moods and needs. The fifth issue, acting in the best interest of other, is described as to ensure that the teachers' assistance help students promote their success. "Caring as feeling" is the next issue which refers to the teachers' feeling and sentiments. According to Tarlow (1996), caring sentiments reflect empathy and hopefulness for the future of their students" (cited in Owens & Ennis, 2005). The seventh one, caring as doing is described as helpful activities of caring for students. The last issue is reciprocity which refers to mutual relationship between teacher and students in giving and taking.

V. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

The class met twice a week for a five-week semester and each session lasted 90 minutes the writing topics were: "In general, it seems that people do not have such a close relationship with their neighbors as they did in the past. Do you agree? If so, why is it like that? And what can be done to improve this kind of contact?", "In your opinion, what's an ideal holiday like? Describe it in terms of time, place, people, activities and whatever else important to you." ,"Write about the best birthday you have ever had", and "How important do you think is it to be honest with one's partner in married life?"

Data	The purpose of data
Field notes and observation	To see what exactly happened in the class
Background interview	To elicit students' background information
Final interview	To perceive the teacher's notions while commenting on the students' writings, students' attitudes towards teacher's comments
Writing samples	To how the caring relationship between the teacher and students affected the teacher's feedback and students' revisions.

Figure1. Data collection and procedures

A. Grounded Theory

The present study followed the stances of grounded theory in the application of its research methods and procedures. According to Liamputtong et al (2005), in grounded theory, concepts, categories, and themes are recognized, then the relationship between categories are identified to develop to what Glaser and Strauss (1968) refer to as formal theory.

According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), open coding refers to the process of identification of the themes emerging from the data. It also aims at looking for relationships between events and develops new ways of describing these relationships (Liamputtong et al, 2005, p.268). Therefore, the first step was to transcribe the interviews to look for possible relationships and patterns. As noted by Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000) the researcher "should painstakingly take apart their field notes, matching, contrasting, aggregating, comparing and ordering notes made". Accordingly, during this phase, the transcriptions of the interviews were compared to find the embedded similarities and the differences and so the themes were inductively generated from the data. Axial coding refers to the process of re-examination of the categories for the purpose of determining possible connections between a category and sub categories (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Consequently this phase required a second close reading of the transcriptions to find the connections between sets of data axially. In this regard, the key concepts were reported first and then the content of the interviews were analyzed by comparing the words and sentences. Those carrying similar themes were placed in the same groups. Finally, the categories and sub-categories were settled. Finally, all categories are to be unified around a 'core' category to uncover the central theme that the whole research is moving around (Corbin and Strauss, 1990). In the last phase, the emerged themes and codes from the transcriptions and written documents were attended and by ordering the data thematically the connections between events showed up.

Coding type	Initial phases of analysis
Open coding	At the time of observation, transcription, and writing samples
Axial coding	While framing the analysis
Selective coding	Emerged in the process of analysis

Figure2. Coding procedure

B. Trustworthiness

It has been widely held that "because of the association with the quantitative conceptualization of the research process, the term validity has generally been replaced by the term trustworthiness within qualitative research" (Onwuegbuzie& Johnson, 2006). Lincoln and Guba (1985) use the notion of "trustworthiness" for that of validity. They have further introduced five key factors that contribute to trustworthiness and have provided techniques for achieving I similar to what Maxwell (2005) presented for validity later.

Criterion Area	Technique	The present study follow-ups
Credibility	Long-term involvement Triangulation	Several in depth interviews Diverse sources and methods of data collection
Transferability	Thick description	Thick description of events in the writing class
Dependability	The dependability audit, including audit trail	Accuracy and authenticity of data
Confirmability	The confirmability audit, including audit trail	Voice records, writing samples, observational notes, condensed notes, categories of themes

Figure3. Techniques for trustworthiness

VI. INTERPRETATION OF THE COLLECTED DATA

A. Initial Interviews

The first interview was conducted with the students to elicit their background information regarding their writing experiences in Persian and English, their attitude toward writing, their goals for the class and finally their definition of a caring teacher. Accordingly several questions were asked and the answers were categorized into two main areas. An overall brief inspection of the interview transcripts revealed that the students attended the course with different objectives in mind, out of which one common theme was the need for getting proficient of English writing for academic purposes. Still other apparent causes for attending a writing course in English were to pass IELTS or TOEFL, to handle potential occupational requirements, to communicate effectively and to surf the Internet as a literate person. Some students showed more ambition; Sara hoped to be a "skilled translator one day" whiles a few others like Mahshid did

not mention any specific goals; she attended the class to learn how to organize a piece of writing. Interview transcripts revealed that students were sharing some fundamental beliefs in their definition of a caring teacher. Their comments were collected and categorized according Figure 4.
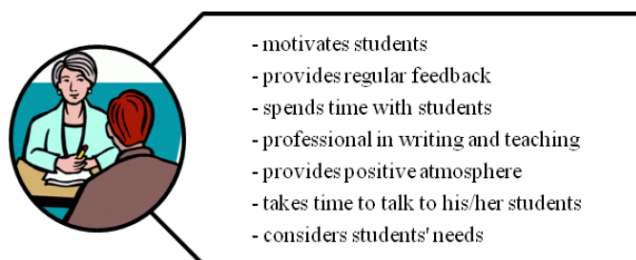

- motivates students
- provides regular feedback
- spends time with students
- professional in writing and teaching
- provides positive atmosphere
- takes time to talk to his/her students
- considers students' needs

Figure4. Students' definition of a caring teacher, July, 2010

- lives with the students
- knows the students
- satisfies students' needs
- spends time with the students
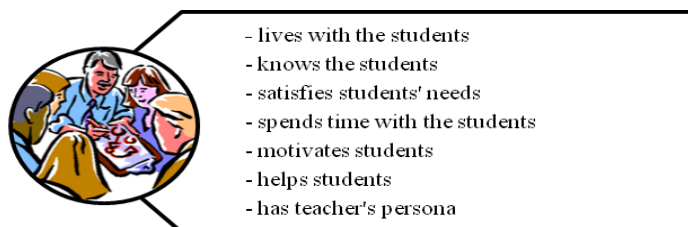- motivates students
- helps students
- has teacher's persona

Figure5. Teacher`s definition of a caring teacher, July8, 2010

B. Final Interviews

Final interviews were conducted once the students received the teacher`s feedback on their writing assignments. The extracted data in this part of the study revealed that all the students appreciated the comments they received from their teacher. Unlike the findings of several studies (e.g. Binglan&Jia, 2010; Cohen, 1987; Rahimi, 2010; Schulz, 2001), the students in this class found the meaning-based comments quite helpful. They believed that the usual comments they had received in other classes were mostly local ones limited to grammatical points; yet, in this class, they had a chance to learn about the style and the organization of a piece of writing and it was considered valuable by them. The teacher taught them how to prepare outlines and how to organize their writings and almost all the students stated that that was the first time that they learned about the very act of writing and not the micro-level points. Consequently, All the participants mentioned that the kind of caring relationship proved helpful in managing their ideas and distributing them text effectively and almost all of them considered their teacher a caring one. They believed that upon the establishment of a caring relationship their attitudes towards writing were reformed and deepened.

Final interviews were conducted once the students received the teacher`s feedback on their writing assignments.
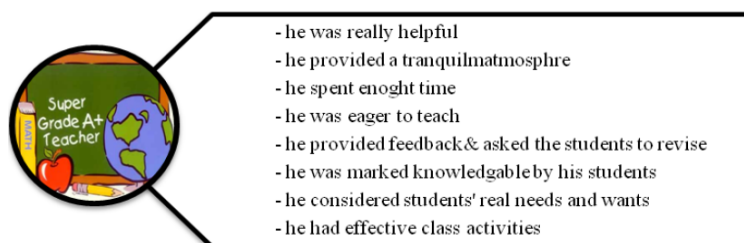

- he was really helpful
- he provided a tranquilmatmosphre
- he spent enoght time
- he was eager to teach
- he provided feedback& asked the students to revise
- he was marked knowledgable by his students
- he considered students' real needs and wants
- he had effective class activities

Figure 6.Characteristics of the caring teacher

C. Teacher`s Strategies for Handling Feedback

The teacher in his final interview highlighted on a number of techniques he implemented as a caring teacher;

a. He considered all the errors; however, he commented selectively, i.e. he commented on some particular ones according to course objectives and students' needs.

b. He took his students' personality into account while commenting on their writings. This aligns with one of the Tarlow's characteristics of a caring teacher. She states that a caring teacher tries to get to know his students by observing and paying attention to them in order to be sensitive to their moods and feelings (Owens & Ennis, 2005).

c. He believed that he should not always give them the answers; rather he preferred to scaffold their learning by making them notice the problems and by motivating them to reflect on the problems.

d. Individual student-teacher talk was a salient feature of the commenting procedure and lasted between 5-10 minutes and was aimed at making the students aware of their writing problems.

e. A combination of written and oral feedback was provided to ensure the responsiveness of students towards feedback.

f. Oral interaction between the teacher and students was regarded as an integral constituent of the revision process and the plenty of oral communication was influential in the establishment of a caring relationship.

D. Grammar-based Feedback or Style-based feedback

While the majority of students seemed to prefer Grammar-based feedback over the style-based one (e.g. BabaeiRobati, 2007; Chandler, 2003; Leki, 1991) the students of the present study warmly embraced style-based comments from their teachers. They believed that the grammar points were helpful for them but the style-based feedback such as organization was more helpful and beneficial. Almost all of the students acknowledged that learning how to organize an outline was quite advantageous. They affirmed that before taking part in the course, organization of a text and generating ideas had been the most demanding sections of the writing process.

VII. THE EFFECTS OF TEACHER'S CARING PRACTICE ON STUDENTS' WRITING QUALITY

Although the aim of the present study was not that of measuring students' improvement in their writings and the teacher had not focused on scores as a lever for spurring students' motivation, an overall betterment was discerned and reported by the teacher and an experienced colleague teacher (Teacher's interview with an experienced writing teacher, August 15, 2010). According to the colleague teacher who had closely reviewed the drafts as well as final written productions, students' writings showed an overall improving trend.

Yet, there was one student whose writings did not show any significant improvement throughout the semester. Sara had studied English at university and the researcher could conclude from her interview excerpts that she believed her English overtopped others and according to the teacher she behaved as if she knew more than the other students (Teacher Interview, August 30, 2010). Although her first drafts were good and actually needed very few comments, she did not get much from the instruction. In spite of the enthusiasm and willingness she showed in her final interview, she was absent for four sessions and as a result she did not hand two of the assignments in. However, she stressed that she had learned a lot about the organization of a piece of writing and not grammar.

The opposite case was Shima who admitted she hated writing at the beginning of the semester and considered her writing awful. Interestingly, the quality of her writing improved through the semester. In the first assignment which was about neighbor, she received a considerable amount of written comments from her teacher while in the final draft which was about honesty she received very few comments and the teacher appreciated her writing.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

The findings of the present study confirmed what Noddings (1984) named motivational displacement, i.e. the teacher's willingness to give primacy to goals and needs of the students and what Tarlow (1996) called sensitivity referring to teachers' attention to students' needs and moods. It also corresponded to the study of Bosworth (1995), as cited in Protheroe (2005) which stated that the students considered their teacher as caring when he/she was attentive to individual students' needs.

Still another factor which seemed to contribute to the development of a caring relationship was the relaxed and supportive atmosphere which was believed to be created by the teacher. The students believed that the teacher's helpfulness was a determining factor in the formation of a tranquil and positive atmosphere which enhanced attention and learning.

Moreover, since the teacher spent plenty of time on planning and implementing the feedback activities, his feedback served as another precursor to the development of caring relationship in class. This was consistent with Tarlow's (1996) finding which put emphasis on "time" as a determining factor in a caring relationship between teacher and students.

The students also found their teacher a caring one because he spoke to them a lot and explained the ambiguous points to them patiently. This was in line with Straub's (2000) study which showed that having dialogue with the students connects the teacher to the students. Furthermore, Nodding' (1984) and Tarlow (1996) both conceptualize dialogue as one of the key elements in creating caring relationship. The teacher's language proficiency was another effective factor in developing a caring relationship. Since all students considered their teacher as a knowledgeable and highly proficient one, they felt responsible towards the teacher and revised their papers with confidence. Moreover, the teacher's use of Persian (students'' first language) in class helped the students figure out the problematic areas better, which in its own turn, led to better revisions and therefore contributed to the growth of a caring relationship. Lee and Schallert (2008) had come to the same conclusion and believed that language ability played an important role in an EFL classroom and could affect the caring relationship between teacher and student.

Furthermore, this study showed the importance and necessity of feedback in writing. This finding was not consistent with those L2 studies which did not regard teacher's feedback as an important factor (e.g. Cohen, 1987; Radecki and Swales, 1988; cited in Montgomery and Baker, 2007; Truscott, 1996; Zamel, 1985). However, it aligned with the findings of studies which put emphasis on the importance of feedback and comment in writing (e.g. Cohen &Cavalcanti, 1990; Ferris, 1995, 1997; Giannakopoulou, 2007; Leki, 1991; Montgomery and Baker, 2007).Unlike many studies (e.g. Cohen, 1987; Ferris, 1995; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Zacharias, 2007), the students of the present study found global writing issues such as organization, style and content more helpful than local issues such as grammar and mechanics of writing. This was consistent with those L2 studies which declared that feedback on form is not helpful (Kepner, 1991;

Truscott, 1996; Zamel, 1985).Furthermore, the students appreciated the encouraging words they received in the comments. This was supported by the findings of studies by Straub (2000) and Ferris (1995) claiming that encouraging words on the students' writing created a motivating atmosphere for the students and connected them to the teacher.

IX. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The present study provided explanations as to how the caring relationship between the teacher and students in EFL settings might influence the ways the students make sense of the comments and revise their drafts. The researcher gained some understanding concerning the effects of caring relationship on the students drafting process based on which following implications could be put forth;

a) Writing teachers based on the findings of the present study can encourage the development of caring relationship. This is what, as to researcher's personal experience, is lacking in most EFL writing classes in Iran. At the first glance the task might seem quite demanding especially for teachers in large classes yet; they will certainly be able to apply at least some of the above mentioned features such as creating relaxed atmosphere, group dialogues…etc.

b) Upon provision of feed forward and feedback, the teachers can facilitate the revision process and make learners go through drafting which is essential to improving the writing quality.

c) Still another way to enhance students' writing, which is less time consuming, is to avoid correcting all errors and to focus on more significant ones i.e. the global ones.

d) Group work is no hindrance to caring relationship and has the potential to save time and energy on the part of teachers. Regarding students however, group work will reduce anxiety and enhance motivation.

e) One of the salient features of caring relationship is attention to individual students this will positively affect students self-confidence and their motivation. This further led them feel responsible for implementing teacher's comments to their writing and served as another factor in development of a caring relationship.

There are certainly other implications for novice as well as experienced teachers which have stayed untouched by the researcher and which show up during actual practice in natural classroom settings and by teachers and students as agents of change.

X. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In this context, because the teacher was expected to respond to students' writing, peer comments were not used as an instructional option in the classroom. Therefore, further research might be conducted to investigate how peer comments can play a role in the development of a caring relationship. The development of caring relationship can certainly be explored in other language skill areas like reading and speaking. Moreover, the effects of caring relationship can be explored in productive skills versus receptive skills to see if such relationship can lead to better production or vice versa. The participants of the present study were all females. A similar study could be conducted on male students to see if gender has got a role in the development of caring relationship. Further research can also be carried out to see if the caring relationship has got similar effects on other levels of proficiency in different skills.

There are numerous other studies which if conducted can introduce new concepts and valuable insight into the literature. It will be the responsibility of teachers and researchers of the field to pave the way for a better understanding of EFL learning and teaching process.

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On the Introduction of Culture into College English Teaching

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Abstract—**This paper discusses the present problem in college English teaching from the constructive perspective. It highlights the necessity to introduce culture into college English teaching and probes further into the problems of college English teaching and approaches of culture introduction. The main purpose is to tackle the practical problem in college English teaching and promote teaching efficiency so as to develop the students' cross-culture communicative ability.**

Index Terms—**constructivism, culture introduction, cross-culture communicative ability**

I. INTRODUCTION

Being a teacher of college English for many years, I am often bewildered by the fact that so many Chinese students can not communicate well in English even if they score high in English and have already passed CET-4 or CET-6. It is out of doubt that these Chinese students have good commands of English vocabulary and grammar. So what is the reason why they succeed in learning English yet fail in communicating in English?

Then a survey of students of Qingdao University of Science and Technology concerning the factors that interfere with their cross-culture communicative ability is made here. The poll shows that among all the factors, culture plays a vital part in their cross-culture communicative abilities. That is to say, besides the traditional teaching of basic skills such as vocabulary and grammar, we should also attach great importance to the introduction of culture.

As the major concern of applied linguistics, language teaching and language learning have been the focuses of linguists as well as language teachers. And an increasing number of language teaching methodologies and theories were introduced and discussed worldwide. Among them, there are prominent ones such as Constructivism, which probe a better way of thinking for us. We can explain the importance of culture introduction from the constructive perspective.

This paper looks back on the theories of constructivism. And then goes on to discuss the introduction of culture into college English, including its contents and approaches. The purpose is to tackle the problems in cross-culture communication so as to facilitate the college English teaching. And our final goal is to help language learner attain high English proficiency.

II. THE THEORY OF CONSTRUCTIVISM

A. An Overview

1. Constructivism

The verb "to construct" comes from the Latin Construere, which means to arrange or give structure. Ongoing structuring (organizing) processes are the conceptual heart of constructivism.

The words "construct" and "construction" have been in use for centuries, of course. But "constructivism" is a relatively new word. Yet it is appearing with an accelerating frequency in the titles of books and articles in psychology.

Constructivism is based on the idea that, unlike a computer disk or an empty container, students do not wait passively to be filled up with knowledge. Rather, students actively build, or construct, their own knowledge. Teachers cannot entirely control their students' learning; expert teachers can do much to facilitate students' own active learning processes. (Cobb, 2000)

Constructivism is a philosophy of learning founded on the premise that, by reflecting on our experiences, we construct our own understanding of the world we live in. Each of us generates our own "rules" and "mental models", which we use to make sense of our experiences. Learning, therefore, is simply the process of adjusting our mental models to accommodate new experiences.

The essence of constructivism is the idea that learners must individually discover and transform complex information if they are to make it their own. Constructivists' theory sees learners as constantly checking new information against old rules and then revising the rules when they on longer work. This view has profound implications for teaching, as it suggests a far more active role for students in their own learning than is typical in the great majority of classrooms.

2. Constructivist Theory

Formalization of the theory of constructivism is generally attributed to Jean Piaget (1950), who articulated mechanisms by which knowledge is internalized by learners. He suggested that through processes of accommodation

and assimilation, individuals construct new knowledge from their experiences. When individuals assimilate, they incorporate the new experience into an already existing framework without changing that framework. This may occur when individuals' experiences are aligned with their internal representations of the world, but may also occur as a failure to change a faulty understanding; for example, they may not notice events, may misunderstand input from others, or may decide that an event is a fluke and is therefore unimportant as information about the world. In contrast, when individuals' experiences contradict their internal representations, they may change their perceptions of the experiences to fit their internal representations. According to the theory, accommodation is the process of reframing one's mental representation of the external world to fit new experiences. Accommodation can be understood as the mechanism by which failure leads to learning: when we act on the expectation that the world operates in one way and it violates our expectations, we often fail, but by accommodating this new experience and reframing our model of the way the world works, we learn from the experience of failure, or others' failure.

It is important to note that constructivism is not a particular pedagogy. In fact, constructivism is a theory describing how learning happens, regardless of whether learners are using their experiences to understand a lecture or following the instructions for building a model airplane. In both cases, the theory of constructivism suggests that learners construct knowledge out of their experiences.

B. Main Ideas about Learning

Constructivist ideas about learning are based on the idea that learners must build their own knowledge—it cannot be given to them—and that new knowledge builds on current knowledge.

Learning is a search for meaning. Therefore, learning must start with the issues around which students are actively trying to construct meaning. Meaning requires understanding wholes as well as parts. And parts must be understood in the context of wholes. Therefore, the learning process focuses on primary concepts, not isolated facts. Learning should be whole, authentic, and real. Meaning is constructed as learners interact in meaningful ways with the world around them. Students are more likely to learn if they are engaged in meaningful activities, such as operating a class "store" or "bank" or writing and editing a class newspaper. Whole activities, as opposed to isolated skill exercises, authentic activities which are inherently interesting and meaningful to students, and real activities that result in something other than a grade on a text or a "Great, you did well" from the computer lesson software, are emphasized in constructivism classroom. The purpose of learning is for an individual to construct his or her own meaning, not just memorize the "right" answers and regurgitate someone else's meaning. Since education is inherently interdisciplinary, the only valuable way to measure learning is to make the assessment part of the learning process, ensuring it provides students with information on the quality of their learning.

To summarize, learning emphasizes the process and not the product. How one arrives at a particular answer, and not the retrieval of an "objectively true solution", is what is important. Learning is a process of constructing meaningful representations, of making sense of one's experiential world. Students' errors are seen in a positive light and as a means of gaining insight into how they are organizing their experiential world.

C. Main Ideas about Teaching

1. Teacher should create real world environments that employ the context in which learning is relevant.
2. We should focus on realistic approaches to solving real-world problems.
3. The instructor is a coach and analyzer or the strategies used to solve these problems.
4. Teacher should stress conceptual interrelatedness, providing multiple representations or perspectives on the content.
5. Instructional goals and objectives should be negotiated and not imposed.
6. Evaluation should serve as self-analysis tool.
7. Provide tools and environments that help learners interpret the multiple perspectives of the world.
8. Learning should be internally controlled and mediated by the learner.

D. The Importance of the Background and Culture of the Learner

Constructivism encourages the learner to arrive at his or her version of the truth, influenced by his or her background, culture or embedded worldview. Historical developments and symbol systems, such as language, logic, and mathematical systems, are inherited by the learner as a member of a particular culture and these are learned throughout the learner's life. This also stresses the importance of the nature of the learner's social interaction with knowledgeable members of the society. Without the social interaction with other more knowledgeable people, it is impossible to acquire social meaning of important symbol systems and learn how to utilize them. Young children develop their thinking abilities by interacting with other children, adults and the physical world. From the social constructivist viewpoint, it is thus important to take into account the background and culture of the learner throughout the learning process, as this background also helps to shape the knowledge and truth that the learner creates, discovers and attains in the learning process. (Wertsch 1997)

III. THE INTRODUCTION OF CULTURE INTO COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING

A.   Culture

The word culture, from the Latin colo, -ere, with its root meaning "to cultivate", generally refers to patterns of human activity and the symbolic structures that give such activity significance. Different definitions of "culture" reflect different theoretical bases for understanding, or criteria for evaluating, human activity. Anthropologists most commonly use the term "culture" to refer to the universal human capacity to classify, codify and communicate their experiences symbolically.

B.   The Necessity of Culture Introduction in College English

First of all, it is necessary that culture is to be introduced in college language teaching. On one hand, the communication of language must be based on the communication of culture. We can learn from the famous American linguist Edward Sapir (1921) that it is believed that language is supposed to be rooted in a certain environment, and it can not exist without culture. Sapir holds that culture can be defined as what the society thought and done, i. e. the collection of what people have thought, have said (verbal and non-verbal), have done and have perceived while language can be defined as the way the thought are expressed. And we also have the sociolinguists Richard Hudson (1980) who also believe that in many aspects language is contained in culture so a language in certain society is a part of its culture and the relation of langue and culture is that of a part and a whole. So we can draw the conclusion that the language and culture are inseparable. Language is an active part of culture and culture is the carrier of language.

On the other had, the ultimate goal of college English teaching is to cultivate the cross-culture communicative ability of the students. Just as the College English Syllable (1999) has stated that besides being a tool of communicating information, English also helps learners broaden new horizon and have insight into other culture so as to improve their cultural attainment. Enlightened by College English Syllable, we are to combine the teaching of college English with the teaching of culture closely in order to make them intermingle and advance with each other. On occasion of cross-culture communication, it is far from enough to just know the pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar of the target language. A good acquaintance of the custom, value, thought of its society, even if the non-verbal language of its people is crucial. Otherwise, there will be barriers in cross-culture communication. All in all, culture introduction is essential to college English teaching.

C.   Some Problems of Cross-culture Communication in QUST

So we college English teachers have the duty to introduce culture into language learning and teaching. The followings are the problems I have found out from the survey carried out in Qingdao University of Science and Technology.

1. Lack of the Background Knowledge of the Words and Phrases

Above all, the cultural implication of words is of vital importance to college English learning and teaching. Since college students have already learnt English for many years, they have mastered a lot of words and phrases, which contribute to their successful communication. And the survey shows that most misusage of words occurs when they lack the background knowledge of the words and phrases. For example (Yanchang Deng & Ruiqing Liu, 1989), Red Bean is a kind of common plant. In Chinese, it is the symbol of keen missing of the lovers. Yet, in English it has something to do with the story of Essau in Bible. So this word has absolutely different implication in different languages. If the students don't have the background knowledge of it, it is inevitable that misunderstanding and failure in cross-culture communication will occur.

And also, we have the phrase Paint the Lily in English. Some Chinese college students will just understand it word by word, that is, to paint the picture of lily. They are not aware of the culture implication of the word Lily, which stands for purity. So it is unnecessary to paint the lily, because it is so perfect that it needs nothing more. The counterpart of this phrase in Chinese is HuaSheTianZu, which comes from a Chinese fable and means make an unnecessary move (Yanchang Deng & Ruiqing Liu, 1989). So we can draw the conclusion that the introduction of culture is essential to the learning and teaching of college English. If the college students do not have insight into the English culture, it is impossible for them to understand the implication of the words and phrases, let alone communicate adequately in English.

2. Inadequate Usage of Daily expressions

A good acquaintance of the expression of daily use will play a better role in cross-culture communication, which mainly including daily greetings and taboos. Though there are some similar daily expressions in both languages, there are still different ones. For example, upon receiving apology from others, it is OK for us to say Meiguanxi in Chinese, which also means it doesn't matter. Yet the proper way to answer the apology it is to say "That's all right." or "No problem." (Yunxin Jia, 1997)

And also, there are taboos in every language. It is quiet common for Chinese to talk about ages while it will cause unpleasant feelings for the foreigners. This mainly originates from the difference of the custom of the target language. Besides ages, the college students should also be fully aware of some taboos such as marriage, income, religion and politics.

3. Ignorance of the Non-verbal Language

Non-verbal language is also called body language, which includes gesture, motion, tone, silence, etc. There are different body languages in different cultures. And it attributes to the deeply-rooted customs and norms of the society.

For example, it is quite acceptable for girl students to walk hand in hand in China, while it will cause some misunderstanding for foreigners. So besides a good command of words and daily expressions, we should also get the college students aquatinted with the non-verbal language of the target language, which also plays a vital role in the cross-culture communication.

4. Neglect of Different Values

Furthermore, there is something invisible yet indispensable in cross-culture communication. It is different values that are underlying the rules of all human activities, including communication. Actually, what we said and what we do depend heavily on the value system we share. So it is easier for us to understand the difficulty college students encountered in cross-culture communication. The differences in value and culture are reflected via language. Take the example of people's attitude toward time in America and China. Americans value time so much that they believe no one stand still and time is precious. Yet we Chinese used to take a leisurely attitude toward time. So when it comes to an appointment, it is the America who tends to be more punctual. And a lot of inconveniences originated from the neglect of different values of different cultures. We can learn that value is the core of the culture. Only when we have a good insight of the value and culture of the target language, can we avoid the failure in cross-culture communication.

D.   *Approaches of Improving Cross-culture Communicative Ability*

1. Specialized Course on Culture Introduction

Nowadays more and more universities in China have been aware of the importance of the culture introduction into college English. And they are gonging out of their way to improve the Cross-culture communicative abilities of their students. Most of them take actions on their teaching curriculum and make an advance reform. Specialized courses on culture introduction are adopted nationwide. So besides the basic knowledge about words and grammar, students also have access to a variety of cultures, which enriches their knowledge and inspires them to communicate more. Thus, their Cross-culture communicative ability will gradually be improved. So this approach is strongly recommended by the author of this paper.

2. Culture Introduction Integrated with College English Teaching

And of course, it is indispensable to integrate college English with culture introduction. A good introduction of culture will help students understand the teaching material better, and motivate them to work harder. For example, when we are working on the text Lessons from Tomas Jefferson, it is necessary for us to know the relevant knowledge about the great man Tomas Jefferson, his age and his great deed. And then we can make a comparison with the Chinese great leaders. It will arouse the interest of the students and inspire them, encouraging them to learn a good lesson from the noble man Tomas Jefferson. Thus, it will be an easier and much more interesting task for the college students to learn English.

3. Create Meaningful Activities

As mentioned above, the background and culture of the target language is essential to English learning and teaching. A learner is a member of a particular culture. So it is important for the learners to interact with knowledgeable in the society or the authentic context. Without the social interaction with other more knowledgeable people, it is impossible to acquire social meaning of important symbol systems and learn how to utilize them. Yet this real world environment that employs the context in which learning is relevant is rare in China. So it is the teacher's duty to create meaningful activities both in class and after class. There will be meaningful activities such as role-play, situation talk and classroom presentation. And the English parties and evenings sound a good idea for the college students too. The more they get involved in the real world environment, the better and faster they will master the cross-culture communicative ability.

E.   *The Role of the Instructor as Facilitators*

According to the constructivist approach, instructors have to adapt to the role of facilitators and not teacher (Bauersfeld, 1995). Whereas a teacher gives a lecture that covers the subject matter, a facilitator helps the learner to get to his or her own understanding of the content. In the former scenario the learner plays a passive role and in the latter scenario the learner plays an active role in the learning process. The emphasis thus turns away from the instructor and the content, and towards the learner (Gamoran, Secada, & Marrett, 1998). This dramatic change of role implies that a facilitator needs to display a totally different set of skills than a teacher (Brownstein 2001). A teacher tells, a facilitator asks; a teacher lectures from the front, a facilitator supports from the back; a teacher gives answers according to a set curriculum, a facilitator provides guidelines and creates the environment for the learner to arrive at his or her own conclusions; a teacher mostly gives a monologue, a facilitator is in continuous dialogue with the learners. A facilitator should also be able to adapt the learning experience 'in mid-air' by taking the initiative to steer the learning experience to where the learners want to create value.

The learning environment should also be designed to support and challenge the learner's thinking (Di Vesta & Thompson, 1970). While it is advocated to give the learner ownership of the problem and solution process, it is not the case that any activity or any solution is adequate. The critical goal is to support the learner in becoming an effective thinker. This can be achieved by assuming multiple roles, such as consultant and coach.

IV.   CONCLUSION

To summarize, this research studies the introduction of culture into college English teaching on the basis of constructivism theory. And the problems and approached were analyzed to promote the learner's cross-culture communicative ability. Due to the limited knowledge of the author and the scale of the subject, there is much more room for improvement. Nevertheless, the study and analysis proved constructivism theory to be of great value to both language learner and teacher, and the approached discussed will have a large impact on both languages learning and teaching. The author of the paper deeply hopes this thesis would be of value for further exploration in the field of language learning and teaching.

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'Fraud in Judicial System' as a Language Crime: Forensic Linguistics Approach

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Abstract—**Forensic linguistics is a discipline coordinated with legal goals in the judicial system, focusing on all branches of linguistics including phonetics, semantics, discourse etc. This science is not so known in Iran; whereas, it can have a lot of applications in judicial system. Fraud is a kind of crime in which language plays a central role in forming. There are three conditions in forming of fraud: first; dishonest tools to cheat others, second; victim's lack of knowledge about dishonest tools, third; the lost possession belonged to the victim. At least, realization of the second condition requires swindler to deceive his victim by language. The author aims at providing a conceptual structure for the crime of fraud with linguistic analysis. Having reviewed different cases in courts and Bureau of Police Investigation, the author offered a conceptual frame with six components including requirement/greed, proposal/advertisement, perlocutionary effect, agreement based on commitment speech act, problem (not realizing of commitment speech act) and completion. This is a field research and applies at analysis-description method.**

Index Terms—**forensic linguistics, language crime, fraud, conceptual frame**

I. INTRODUCTION

In criminology, crime is examined through law and other sciences. Therefore, we face with combination of different sciences. Different experts like psychiatrists, psychologists, sociologists, physicians, lawyers… have been analyzing and solving crimes, so criminology is not a pure science but an applied one.

"criminology is affected by sociology, psychology, biology and statistics. These sciences, especially, sociology and psychology have different definitions; therefore, it is hard to have a specified definition of criminology." (Nurbaha, 1377/2000, pp.51-57).

Generally, criminology is not a closed science, because crimes are committed in different ways and forms. New and up-to-date forms of crimes committed in internet show need of internet experts.

The crimes are formed through language are the crimes which can be studied from a new viewpoint. Insult, foul language, threat, fraud, perjury, forged and fake advertisement, plagiarism are formed with language. Even crimes like theft, kidnapping and murder which require language before realization can be considered as language crimes. It shows linguistic analysis more than before, so forensic linguistics as a new science incorporated linguistics and the law.

II. METHODOLOGY

Having studied different sources, the author gathered data in Iranian courts and Bureau of police investigation. Then, the author identified crime of fraud. She considers two points; first she analyzes the data linguistically, second studies data with consideration of Iran's Codes. In this field research, the author observed and studied more than 100 cases (different crimes) in courts and Bureau of police investigation. The result showed that there is compatibility between linguistic and legal features. Therefore, a conceptual frame about fraud can be effective in explaining of fraud. This research applies at descriptive and analytic method.

III. FORENSIC LINGUISTICS AND ITS HISTORY

Forensic linguistics is a sub-branch of linguistics which mainly deals with linguistic theories, findings and methods to solve language problems.

"Foreign language learning is probably the most important application of applied linguistics. Even at the first look, language learning seems to be the only discipline related to applied linguistics; however, there are also other applications". (Crystal, 2003, p.29). One of the new branches of applied linguistics is forensic linguistics. "Forensic linguistics is an interdisciplinary course originated from linguistics and law which has developed in America and Europe since 1997. Since then, linguists offer their evidences in courts for detection of realities and more careful judgment. This cooperation is developing increasingly." (Tiersma and Soolan, 2003, p.213) Shuy defines forensic linguistics, quoting from Levi (1994), as follows: "Forensic linguists have been developing their works into communication, advertisement and common issues between language and law. Now forensic linguists deal with sound identification, identification of writer of a written text, asymmetry of power in courts, miscommunication between

lawyer and client, perjury, problems related to legal texts, libel, problems about brands, interpretation and translation of communication in courts, recorded interviews as evidences. This field has been called forensic linguistics since1980." (Shuy, 1998)

If we want to find the origin of forensic linguistics, we should go back to 60 years ago. "In 1949, Philbrick published his book under the title of "Language and the Law: the Semantics of Forensic English[1]" and this work paved the way for future researches. Quoting from (Eades, 1994), (Levi, 1993), (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007)..."

Most of the researchers refer to Jan Svartvik's work named 'The Evans' Statements' as the first typical work related to forensic linguistics. "Svartvik could show the linguistic analysis focusing on four statements which had been made to police officers by Timothy Evans about the deaths of his wife and baby daughter. The analysis showed the incriminating parts of four statements had a grammatical style measurably different from that of uncontested parts of the statements and a new forensic area was born." (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007), (Gibons, 2003), (Olsson, 2004) etc.

Initially, the growth of forensic linguistics was slow up to the past 15 years. Since then, there has been a rapid growth in the amount of cooperation between courts and linguists. Linguistic findings in legal process show development of a new and scientific science which joins the relationship between linguistics and law. This new science can be as effective as legal medicine, legal psychology etc. There is a growing need for this new science in courts; however, many countries like Iran have not heard anything about this science. Even the pioneer countries like America and England have enjoyed this new-born science just in the last decade.

IV. CRIMINOLOGY

"Criminology is study of crime. It deals with creation of crime, development of crime and prevention of crime. Criminology is under effect of sociology, psychology, biology and statistics, all of which have different definitions especially sociology and psychology. Therefore, it is hard to have an acceptable and specified definition of criminology. However, we can have limited definitions. Professor Vouin in his work named 'penalty and criminology' says that criminology is scientific study of crime." (Nurbaha, 1377/2000)

In criminology, different sciences integrate with each other ;therefore, linguistics can be added to the law like sociology, psychology, biology and statistics. Since the arrival of linguistic analysis to the law, a new form of linguistics under the title of forensic linguistics was formed; consequently, judicial system achieved a new chance to solve language crimes like foul language, perjury, libel, plagiarism, threatening message and letter, kidnapping letter, suicide letter, bribery etc.

V. CRIME AND LANGUAGE CRIME

Longman (2006) defines crime as "illegal activities in general". Since crime has different forms; that is, an activity might be a crime in one view and not be crime in another view, a comprehensive and acceptable definition has not been offered. In Islamic jurisprudence, crime is defined on the basis of Koran: "to do or to tell something that God has forbidden." An Islamic article in Iranian codes says: "'act' or 'omission' for which there is penalty, is referred to as a crime." For example, 'fraud' is 'act' and 'driver's avoidance to help an injured in an accident' is 'omission'

One of the crimes is language crime and its culprits are punished according to codes. "There are a number of speech acts that may be illegal- in other words there are crimes committed by performing some kind of illocutionary act, such as offering a bribe; accepting a bribe; threats; extortion; perjury; suborning a person to a language crime; soliciting an illegal act (e.g. hiring a hitman); using foul language." (Gibbons, 2003, p.261)

About speech act, we should refer to this point that some part of utterance has social function. To communicate with language is something more than grammatical, semantic and lexical knowledge; therefore, we should know how to ask, how to demand, how to suggest and how to thank. In other words, we have to learn how to use language knowledge. In Austin's terminology (1962) these functions are called speech acts. One of these speech acts is commisive one. This kind of speech act commits the speaker to doing something in the future, such as a promise or threat. In the frame the author wants to offer, the commisive speech act is one of the stages.

These definitions show that identifying language crimes is a sub-part of criminology and linguists can help to solve these kinds of crimes.

VI. FRAUD

Fraud is one of the language crimes in which language has a central part in forming because a swindler uses his deceiving language- regardless of his deceiving tools. "A swindler is a person who attracts others' trust by deceiving actions, then takes the victims possessions away. In other words, three conditions should be met to form fraud first; dishonest tools to cheat others, second; victim's lack of knowledge about dishonest tools, third; the lost possession belonged to victim." (Shambayati, 1375/1998, p.162)

Here, the author presents summary of one of the cases with linguistic and legal analysis. Worth saying, the author avoids using the real name of the persons involved and uses x, y… instead. IR and IE are used for the interrogator and

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[1] However this book is not a precursor to modern forensic linguistics. It analyses the semantics of legal language.

culprit respectively. The sign of ⬆ shows rising intonation,{   } is used for more explanation and ( ) shows violation of linguistic principles.

► **Summary of the case:** One person with forged name 'x' bought some masonry, two laptops and some tar from different ones. He gave the sellers bad post-dated cheques. During some days before the sellers go to bank to cash their cheques, swindler and poor sellers made a call with each other and the swindler answers the phone and still introduced himself with his forged name, x.

Finally, when the sellers went to bank, they understood their cheques were bad. They complained to the court and Mr x was arrested. He denied everything and even claimed his name was y. He said he had never seen the sellers before. The culprit had been condemned to fraud before in another court where he was named z! At last, judge condemned him and fined him 30000$ for fraud. The main point is that the swindler denied everything up to the end of trial. The judge condemned him because of his background and numerous complainants. Here just some parts of interrogation are presented:

IR: Do you know x?

IE: No!

IR: Do you know z?

IE: No!

IR: Did you buy some tar from this man?

IE: No!

IR: Did you buy two sets of laptop from this man?

IE: No Sir! I⬆had not seen these men till 2009/1/8. I had not seen them till 2009/1/8 6 pm. I⬆did not buy even one cigarette, one tea bag from them.

IR: How many kids have you got? Do you have any at all?

IE: Seven. Two of them are dead. My son in law died recently, he has a baby. My daughter has come to my house after her husband fell down from scaffold. (violation of Gricean cooperative principle; relation maxim) { The complainants showed the judge their bad cheques} .

IR: Did you give them these cheques?

IE: Neither cheques I gave them, nor money I own to give them. I do not have any other incriminating case in another court[2]. Before this trial I had dream about all these accidents. Swearing to God, when I was walking in jail I remembered my dream and found I saw all these men in my dream. (violation of Gricean cooperative principle; relation maxim, quantity maxim) {.He denies names of x and z. }

IR: Ok. Now who are you?

IE: I am y, was y and will be y.

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IR: Do you know these men? Are you in debt?

IE: I am not in debt. I don't know these men either. But **if I had some money, I would pay** these two but not that one!{ Two complaints were calm but one of them got into a dispute over his possession before judge again and again.}

IR: If you are not in debt, why do you want to give them money?

IE: incubus money.

IR: If you did not buy anything, why do you want to give money?

IE: **I don't want to give money**. (contradiction with two sentences before)

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{judge orders culprit and others to leave the court room. In the evening, the trial was held again. While the judge was murmuring some parts of case, the culprit prayed in a quiet voice.}

IR: What to do you want to do now? (implicature: what do you want to do as indemnity?; entailment: one crime has been committed and need to be compensated[3])

IE: Silence {He murmurs.}

IR: Reply to me! What are you murmuring?

IE: I am saluting Mohammad-Islamic prophet. Since childhood I am used to it. I strongly believe in this salutation. (topic shift; violation of Gricean cooperative principle: quantity maxim and relation maxim)

A. Linguistic Analysis

In discourse, there is a principle named "cooperative principle" which was developed first by Grice. In Gricean's view, each communication requires interaction and cooperation of the speaker and listener or writer and reader. In other

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[2] The culprit knows if he is condemned, he has to pay money twice the price of taken possessions. He also knows his dark background has effect on final sentence, so he denies his judicial precedent.
[3] To study more, refer to M.A. thesis entitled 'Role of Pragmatical Techniques in Discovery of Crime: A Forensic Linguistics Approach', Sirous Azizi, Islamic Azad University, 2011.

words, the persons involved in communication cooperate with each other continually. If they break this procedure, the communication will expose flaw or interrupt; therefore, the explanation will be needed to comprehend.

"'Cooperative principle' presupposes that the cooperation between the persons involved is what the persons need. In order to have a comprehensive communication, there should be some rules that the persons have to observe. In other words 'cooperative principle' says the persons should participate in any stage of communication to meet their aims." (Grice, 1975, p.45)

Yule (2000) quoted from Grice that a comprehensive communication should be based on:

- **Quantity Maxim**

i. Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange

ii. do not make your contribution more informative than is required

- **Quality Maxim**

i. Do not say what you believe to be false

ii. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence

- **Relation Maxim**

i. Make your contribution relevant

- **Manner Maxim**

i. Avoid obscurity

ii. Avoid ambiguity

iii. Be relief

iv. Be orderly

(Yule, 2000, pp.36-37)

In interrogation, quantity maxim is often violated by the accused one. Interrogation aims to get necessary information from the accused or culprit and if we want to give an example for this maxim, we can refer to a complete interrogation which the accused denies the incrimination first, but at last he accepts the incrimination. Therefore, the author thinks this maxim is not often observed during an interrogation. We can admit quality maxim is also violated in this kind of interrogation.

If one of these maxims is not observed, the communication will expose flaw. This flaw is meaningful and can be considered as one of the forming elements of the crime. Cutting (2002, pp.70-73) refers to four key words. The author interprets meaning of these words as follows:

-flout: to deliberately disobey a law, rule etc, without trying to hide what you are doing. (Longman, 2006, p.615)

(Cutting says: 'two persons are involved in one cooperation and know each other's world and knowledge, one of them does not refer to something intentionally because he knows his audience can infer his unsaid words.' In other words, the message can be conveyed without problem)

-violate: to disobey or do something against an official agreement, law, principle etc. (Longman, 2006, p.1840)

(Cutting says: 'two persons are involved in one cooperation and know each other's world and knowledge, one of them does not refer to something intentionally because he knows his audience cannot infer his unsaid words. He tries to form a distracting implicature.' In other words, the message cannot be conveyed.)

-infringe: to do something that is against a law or someone's legal rights. (Longman, 2006, p. 834)

(Cutting says: 'the message cannot be conveyed because of deficient function of language.)

The author thinks infringe can be a cover term for violate and flout.

- opt out: to avoid doing a duty. (Longman, 2006, p.1157)

(Cutting says: 'two persons involved in one cooperation do not give each other some information because of different reasons like moral problems. For example one of them apologizes and avoids telling something.)

In interrogation, the culprit and accused ones rarely use 'flout principle', he tries to use the other three principles; violate, infringe, opt out.

1. Linguistic Findings

1)-Since we aim to find linguistic features effective in forming the crime, we can say 'topic shift' and 'violation of cooperative principle especially relation maxim' in culprit and accused one's utterances seem to be some linguistic evidences in forming the crime. In this case, judge seems to condemn the swindler because of words of complainants, their testimony and dark background of the swindler.

2)-Worth saying that judge used some linguistic principle to make the swindler confess. These are contradiction, implicature and entailment shown in the text. To study more, refer to M.A. thesis entitled 'Role of Pragmatical Techniques in Discovery of Crime: Forensic Linguistics Approach', Sirous Azizi, Islamic Azad University, 2011.

3)- Having observed many cases in courts and Bureau of Police Investigation, the author can claim swindlers are the most effective and dominant in speech. So they deny their incriminating issues up to the end of trial. Their reply to yes/no questions like "Did you buy some tar from this man?" is negative; however, other culprits like murders, thieves are more honest. Therefore, to deny the incrimination with emphatic and rising intonation ⬆ is one of the linguistic features effective in forming the crime. (shown in text)

4)- Contradiction can be one of the linguistic features effective in forming fraud. To find out this crime, we can use cooperative principle, schema and frame. [contradiction is shown in bold sentences].

'Schema is structures of expectation to interpret new experiences. Schema is background knowledge stored in our memory.' Yule continues and introduces another mental pattern named frame. 'Frame is a shared pattern of a social group. For example one apartment has kitchen, bathroom and bedroom. Frames represent stereotyped situations. When one encounters a new situation, one selects from memory a structure.' (Yule, 2000, pp.85-86) Violation of schema and frame can be used in forming crime[4].

B. Legal Analysis

"A swindler is a person who attracts others' trust by deceiving actions, then takes the victims possessions away. In other words, three conditions should be met to form fraud first; dishonest tools to cheat others, second; victim's lack of knowledge about dishonest tools, third; the lost possession belonged to victim." (Shambayati, 1375/1998, p. 162)

This definition conforms to our example because the swindler could attract three person's attraction and take their possession away.

Mirmohammadsadeqi has the same definition of 'swindler', and says each crime has three elements; **legal element** (specified in law), **physical element** and **mental element**. Legal element is based in two other elements. Mirmohammadsadeqi says the second element, physical element, has three conditions: 1- physical conduct which depends on kind of crime, act or omission. 2-necessary conditions and situations to form crime. 3- result which is casual link of the physical conduct.

About 'fraud', Mirmohammadsadeqi adds that physical conduct should be 'act' not 'omission'. Omission cannot be a physical element of fraud even if the victim loses his possession.

Mirmohammadsadeqi continues to say that there are three conditions to from 'fraud'. These are first; dishonest tools to cheat others, second; victim's lack of knowledge about dishonest tools, third; the lost possession belonged to the victim. He says swindlers' using of dishonest tools does not necessarily mean his audience was deceived. On the other hand, the fact that the audience was deceived does not necessarily mean that the other one used dishonest tools. Therefore, both of these conditions –dishonest tools and victim's lack of knowledge about dishonest tools- should be met to form 'fraud'.

About result, he says 'fraud' is not an absolute crime (like perjury) but a result crime; that is a specific result is necessary to form 'fraud'. The result codified in law is 'the lost possession belonged to the victim'. Finally, he talks about the third element, mental element. Mental element has two construction parts; general part and especial part. General part means bad intention to commit the crime; that is swindler intends to use dishonest tools. In other words, he intentionally chooses to use dishonest tools. Especial part means swindler intends to take the victims' possession away. Worth saying, victim's lost possession is an important part because the swindler might use dishonest tools for other purposes like marriage, fame, etc. To sum up, swindler uses dishonest tools to take his victims' possession away. (Mirmohammadsadeqi, 1376/1998, pp. 47-87)

Result: Fraud has three elements including legal, physical and mental ones. We see there is compatible between our case and constructing elements of the crime:

* legal element: article (1) stated in Islamic Law

* physical element; physical act: taking some masonry, two laptops and some tar away.

* physical element; conditions:1- dishonest tools=bad cheques, 2- victim's deception =victims sold the swindler some masonry, two laptops and some tar, 3- lost possession does not belong to the swindler but belongs to others= the lost possession belonged to the victims.

* physical element; result: victims lost possession.

*mental element, general bad intention: the swindler knows about his dishonest tools, bad cheques. It was not his first fraud.

* mental element, especial bad intention: the swindler takes the victims' possession away.

VII. CONCEPTUAL FRAME OF FRAUD

Fraud is a language crime and swindlers have high ability in language. While committing crime, their words, speech style and even their intonation can be studied. The author offers following conceptual frame after studying different cases and interviewing the swindlers and victims. Observing an interview or interrogation with consideration of methodology is very hard because swindlers are very intelligent. For example, the swindlers did not know the author was doing a university research, they even thought the author was herself a defendant. 'Fraud' occurs during a period of time of weeks, months or years. It is not like crime of 'bad language' which occurs immediately. Swindler keeps his effective speech style with his victims for a long time. The author offers following frame:

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[4] To study more, refer to PhD dissertation under the title of 'linguistic analysis of language crimes: forensic linguistics approach', Negar Momeni, Tarbiat Modares University, 2011.

Conceptual Frame

Fraud		
stages	swindler/defendant	Victim
Need/Greed 1-swindler needs money or has greed for money.	+	+
Proposition/Advertisement (commisive speech act) 2-swindler promises to pay money for some masonry, two laptops and some tar.	+	−
Perlcutionary Act 3- sellers (victims) accepts swindler's word	−	+
Agreement between two parties based on commisive speech act 4-swindler gives the sellers bad cheques	+	+
Problem (commisive speech act are not met) 5- sellers noticed their received cheques are bad. *article	+ / −	− / +
Completion 6-crime of fraud was committed	+	+

√ Having studied different case, the author found fraud begins with 'need or greed'. Need/greed can be seen in two parties, victim and swindler/defendant. Sometimes, it is no need for money. For example, in one of the cases, educational fraud was committed, that is, some workers of an automobile company need diploma and they refer to an office which claimed it could grant diploma if the applicant would pass 96 units. The worker applicants paid a lot of money but at last they found they were deceived. Therefore, sign of '+' in this stage for both parties mean they are both involved.

√ Sign of '+' in stage of proposition/advertisement shows swindler proposes that he can solve his victim's problem, but in fact he is taking dishonest actions. In this stage, the swindler uses commisive speech acts and resorts to deceptive language. Bribery and fraud are different in this stage, that is, in bribery defendant might offer his proposition verbally and non-verbally. However, a swindler definitely uses his language; it means he offers proposition verbally. The author found the victims are influenced by swindlers' speech style and appearance.

√ Sign of '+' in perlcutionary act for victim shows he is deceived. If there is sign of '_', it means he does not accept swindler's commisive speech acts.

√ After victim accepts swindler's words, stage four - agreement- occurs. Agreement is a bilateral relationship, so there is sign of '+' for both of them.

√ Stage five –problem- has two faces. Sign of '+' for swindler means he did not fulfill his speech acts and sign of '_' means he does not have any problem because his need was met. However, sign of '_' for victim means he did not give any promise but now in this stage he has problem. Because he has problem, sign of '+' is inserted.

√ Completion is the last stage, so both are involved in it.

Article:
*Sometimes stage five -problem- does not occur immediately, for example a swindler might give good cheques to make confidence several times. But after confidence was built, he gives the victim bad cheques at high price then disappears forever.

VIII. CONCLUSION

Linguistic findings in judicial system show a new and scientific science named forensic linguistics. Forensic linguistics connect two fields 'linguistics and law'. This science is like legal medicine, legal psychology, etc. Forensic linguistics helps judicial system conduct investigation into language crimes -perjury, bribery, insult, fake advertisement, fraud, etc- better than before.

Since fraud is a crime in which two persons or two parties are involved, communication is an inevitable part. Linguistic interpretation can interpret ambiguities in legal cases and analyze discourses. Violation of linguistic principles like cooperative principle, frame, schema etc is useful in analysis of crime. This research showed there is compatible between linguistic principles and legal codes in Iran; therefore, it is possible to offer a conceptual frame.

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On the Existing Status in Listening Teaching and Some Suggestions for It[*]

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Abstract—The aim of listening class is to train learner's listening skills, listening is fundamental to language skills. Without listenging, speaking, reading, writing and translating could not be improved. Even so, in modern methods of second language teaching, listening skill is ignored by many teachers in one way or another.In this paper, the author is going to talk about the existing status in Englisn listening teaching in China as the second language ,bring about some methods to solve the problems and give a few suggestions in listening teaching.

Index Terms—the existing status, skill training, listening teaching, linguistic units, features of listening, micro skills

I. INTRODUCTION

The aim of the listening class is to train the listener's listening skill. Yang Huiyuan (1996) believes that the nature of listening comprehension is the process of receiving and decoding linguistic signals by using the auditory organ. While this active and dynamic decoding process is very complex, in which our human brain interprets and reacts to the linguistic signals. It is thought that listeners would analyze and recognize the new linguistic information according to their acquired knowledge after the receptions of the linguistic information by the auditory organ. During this process, listeners would transfer this information into the linguistic units with certain meanings, and then contrast these linguistic units by using the information stored in their brains to interpret and respond to the speaker's meaning.

Listening class is for the second language learners, whose aim is to develop the second language learner's listening skill. Before studying English, learners have mastered the knowledge of their native language (NT), including the knowledge of phonetics, vocabulary, grammar and culture and they have formed the fixed thinking mode by using NT. During their study of English in their native language atmosphere, they don't have the habit of thinking in English, which requires the special training for learners to solve the problems. It is obvious that listening teaching is very important because listening is the most common communicative activity in daily life. According to Morley (1991), "we can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write." Therefore, listening, as a skill, is considered to become more and more important in second language or foreign language classroom teaching than ever before. According to some scholars, listening is fundamental in the language teaching and learning, for it offers the learner the input. If the input were not interpreted at the right level, any learning would be impossible. Listening is thus important to speaking. In this paper, the author is going to describe the existing status in listening teaching in China and put forward some training ways to improve listening teaching.

II. RELATIVE THEORIES ABOUT LISTENING TEACHING

A. The Acquisition-learning Hypothesis

Krashen (1980) suggested that the learner's knowledge of the second language is best characterised in terms of two entirely separate and unrelated competences: 'acquired' knowledge and 'learnt' knowledge. Acquisition refers to a nonconscious process of rule internalization resulting from exposure to comprehensible input when learner's attention is on meaning rather than form and is not depending on the teaching of grammar rules, like what Paradowski(2007) put, acquisition occurs as the subconscious, automatic, spontaneous and incidental picking up and internalisation of language, resulting from natural language use in meaning-focused situations, gradually developing linguistic competence via meaningful exposure to comprehensible input. It consists of subconscious second language rules which are available for automatic processing, serving as the primary source for initiating both the comprehension and

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[*] This paper is sponsored by JLPOPSS, with the code of 2010B29

production of utterances; it is also called 'communicative proficiency', which is more common in a second language context. Learning stands for a conscious process involving the study of explicit rules of language and monitoring one's performance and it is the result of conscious study of the formal properties of the language and producing utterances accordingly. It consists of metalinguistic rules which can only be employed sequentially (rather than in parallel) for controlled processing to monitor —or edit—output generated by means of 'acquired' knowledge; it is also called 'academic proficiency'. This process is more typical of classroom learning in a foreign language context.

B. Input Hypothesis

In language learning, input is the language which a learner hears or receives and from which he or she can learn. The input hypothesis is an idea that exposure to comprehensible input which contains structures that are slightly in advance of a learner's current level of competence is the necessary and sufficient cause of second language acquisition. According to Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, if i represents previously acquired linguistic competence and extra-linguistic knowledge, the hypothesis claims that we move from i to $i+1$ by understanding input that contains $i+1$. Extra-linguistic knowledge includes our knowledge of the world and of the situation, that is, the context. The $+1$ represents new knowledge or language structures that we should be ready to acquire.

The comprehensible input hypothesis can be restated in terms of the natural order hypothesis. For example, if we acquire the rules of language in a linear order, then i represents the last rule or language form learned, and $i+1$ is the next structure that should be learned. It must be stressed however, that just any input is not sufficient, the input received must be comprehensible. According to Krashen, there are three corollaries to his theory. The first is that talking (output) is not practicing. Krashen stresses yet again that speaking in the target language does not result in language acquisition. Speaking can indirectly help in language acquisition, but the ability to speak is not the cause of language learning or acquisition. Instead, comprehensible input is the result of language acquisition. The second is that $i + 1$ is present when sufficient comprehensible input is provided. That is to say, that if language models and teachers provide enough comprehensible input, then the structures that acquires and are ready to learn will be present in that input. Krashen thinks this is a better way to develop grammatical accuracy than direct grammar teaching. The last is that the teaching order is not based on the natural order. Instead, learners will acquire the language in natural order by receiving comprehensible input.

C. The Affective Filter Hypothesis

This is advanced by Krashen and associated with his monitor model of second language development. The hypothesis is based on the theory of an affective filter, which states that successful second language acquisition depends on the learner's feelings. Negative attitudes (including a lack of motivation or self-confidence and anxiety) are said to act as a filter, preventing the learner from making use of input, and thus hindering success in language learning.

III. The Features of Listening and Existing Status in Listening Teaching

A. The Features of Listening

Listening is the most difficult for most Chinese learners of English, which is decided by the features of listening class. On the one hand, listening activity is momentary or flashy. This instant activity and instinctive interpretation are the features of oral communication. When we make the oral communication, the information is conveyed at the speed of around 0.2 seconds for one syllable, which requires listeners to catch the speaker's meaning quickly by intuition. But actually learners usually pay their attention to the phonetic forms rather than their meanings. On the other hand, listeners have no way to control the speaker's speed. Listening is an activity of understanding what the listeners hear, which leads to the fact that the listeners have to follow the speaker's speed because they are passive while listening and have no way to control the speakers. If the speed is fast, the phonetic variations would occur. Therefore, listeners can not identify the sound and its variations. However, if the speed is slow, language would not be cohesive. Listeners may not concentrate themselves on what they hear if there is the break. In this way, learners can not think actively, affecting their understanding what they hear. Besides, learners should identify the isolated phonemes and single words, and what's more, they should identify the sentences and utterances in the flow of speech because the pronunciation of the isolated phonemes and words are quite different from their pronunciation in fast flow of speech.

B. The Existing Status of Listening Teaching

Listening class has already been a self-governed course in foreign language teaching in China, while the existing teaching status is not satisfied, which is embodied in the following aspects: Firstly, the air of listening class is not active because the learners usually listen to the teachers or records passively so that they are usually not active and creative in learning. Secondly, the content of the listening text is not reasonable for the learners in the aspect of the difficulty level. In China, many college students never contact listening training before their college study while the content of some textbooks is so professional that learners cannot understand them. In a certain degree, the text beyond learners violates the content of the comprehensible input hypothesis. Thirdly, the teaching mode is so single. In listening class, the teacher often plays the record and the listeners are engaged in listening passively to a monologue or speech or even conversation over the radio, CDs, TV, films, lectures etc. and here listener usually doesn't have the opportunity to ask

for clarification, slower speech or repetition. After listening to the materials, learners usually do some written exercises relating to the record. This mode makes the teachers are tired of teaching and learners are weary of learning. At present, the multimedia equipment has been installed in most universities and colleges in China, but both the teachers and learners never get rid of this playing the record-listening to the record-doing exercise teaching mode. Next, relatively speaking, the time for listening class is not enough. There is only one hour in one week in many universities, leading to the fact that learners have less time to expose to the target language from the angle of hearing. Then, learner's foreign language knowledge, including the knowledge of phonetics, vocabulary, grammar and culture, is not enough, which is the obstacle for listening comprehension. Last but not least, at the moment, the multimedia has been used in most schools, which is advanced and whose purpose is good, but it also results in two negative effects. On the one hand, the students play the computer games and watch movies instead of learning in class. On the other hand, in the multimedia classroom, the teachers usually spend most time controlling the machine so that they have less time and energy to control the class and care for the learner's affection. There is no eye contact and no psychological communication between the learners and teachers, leading to their big psychological distance and making learners' lack of motivation, self-confidence and even anxiety. According to Krashen's affective filter hypothesis, the negative attitudes are said to act as a filter, preventing the learner from making use of input, and thus hindering success in language learning. Ignoring the affective factors of learners by the teachers is the taboo in modern language teaching.

IV.   TRAINING FOR LISTENING SKILLS

According to the analysis of the listening teaching status and its features, it is time for us to attach the importance to it. Lv Bisong(1996) advanced that the task and the function of listening training is to train learner's listening skill, develop their ability to adapt to listening to some information. Zhao Jinming (2007) has the following suggestions about listening teaching: we should start to train the learner's listening skill as early as possible; the listening exercise is the basic way to train the learner's listening skill, which includes phonetic recognition and understanding to the meanings of the utterance; the main ways to improve the skills are the intensive listening, extensive listening and casual listening. The first two ways are often applied in class and the later is used out of class for the learners to study by themselves; we should take some other elements into consideration, that is, the input, storage, retrieval, deduction, transformation and exchange of the information when we talk about the training of listening skill. Nowadays, the listening micro skills have been generally accepted by many scholars. Yang Huiyuan (1996) generalized that the listening micro skills include the ability to identify and analyze the information, the ability to remember and store information, the ability to associate and guess, the ability to respond to the information quickly, the ability to write while listening, the ability to imitate after listening, the ability to retrieve and monitor the information and the ability to generalized and sum up the information. According to Rost (1991), listening comprises some component skills, that is to say, the skills of discriminating between sounds, recognizing words, identifying grammatical groupings of words, identifying expressions and sets of utterances that act to create meaning, connecting linguistic cues to non-linguistic and paralinguistic cues and using background knowledge to predict and later to confirm meaning and recalling important words and ides.

The above is the generalization of listening skills by the scholars, two strategies should be adapted to improving listening skills. In psycholinguistics, cognitive psychology, and information processing, a contrast is made between two different ways in which humans analyze and process language as part of comprehension and learning. One way, known as the bottom-up processing, makes use of the information present in the input to achieve higher level meaning. This means learners or students make use of their linguistic knowledge to identify and analyze the linguistic elements in an order from such smallest linguistic units as phonemes (the bottom) to the largest ones as complete texts (the top). Learners connect the smaller linguistic units to constitute the larger parts and it's a linear process in which they get the meaning automatically in the last stage. This process is text-based where learners depend on the sounds, words and grammar in the message in order to create meaning. The other way, known as the top-down processing, makes use of "high level", nonsensory information to predict or interpret "lower level" information that is present in the data, which requires learners to go to the listening with their prior knowledge of topic, context, and type of text as well as the knowledge of language to reconstruct the meaning by using the sounds as clues. This background knowledge stimulates a series of expectations that aid the listener to understand what is heard and predict what will come next.

The meaning of these two terms varies depending on the unit of analysis. For example, in word recognition, the higher level information is the knowledge of permissible words as well as actual words of a language, while the lower level information is the actual phonetic input (or orthographic input in the case of written word recognition). In sentence comprehension or the interpretation of an utterance, the lower level information is words, while higher level information includes the knowledge of grammar, semantics and pragmatics. As applied to the full understanding of a passage, the lower level information consists of words and sentences, while the higher level information includes the reader's previously existing knowledge of the world, including cultural and moral values, scripts, schemas and literary genres. Generally speaking, the bottom-up process is thought to be used while practicing minimal pairs, taking pronunciation tests, listening for specific details, recognizing cognates and word-order pattern while the top-down interpretation is applied in such activities as listening for the general idea, predicting, drawing inferences, and summarizing what they know and what they hear through listening comprehension.

The bottom-up and top-down process belongs to the macroscopic view in listening teaching. The specific practices are as follow: training for identifying the information. The aim for this is to cultivate learner's attention and the ability to identify and analyze the information by identifying the sameness and difference, the truth and false; training for listening and loud reading. This is to combine listening and loud reading so that the learners can associate the sound, form with the meaning; training for dictation. Dictation is a very useful and effective way to practice the listening skills, which is thought to be a very important way to check the learner's listening comprehension; training for listening and speaking. The function of this training is to develop the ability of learners to combine their listening and speaking by means of listening and stating what the learners hear, listening and answering the questions that the learners need to answer; training for prediction. This may decrease the difficulty and anxiety for the learners in listening study.

V. SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR LISTENING TEACHING

Listening is the most important part in language teaching and learning. Combining the common problems in listening teaching and based on the relative second language learning theory above, the teachers should take the following elements into consideration apart from the skill training:

A. Creating the Ideal Learning Condition for Learners

According to the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the adult doesn't lose the ability to learn a language. Krashen even thought that the adult may have the stronger ability to learn a language than children do if an ideal learning condition is given. Therefore, in listening teaching, the teachers should create an ideal condition for learners so that learners may know and master what they learn. The so-called ideal conditions are a comfortable and harmonious studying environment and atmosphere, a modest teaching method, explanation of linguistic knowledge of the foreign language. Meanwhile, the conscious listening practice and memory activities should not be ignored.

B. Transferring the Single Teaching Mode into the Interactive Listening Teaching Way

This means learners study and communicate in foreign language to reach an effective process to learn a language by means of the interact among the teachers, learners and the listening materials. In interactive or reciprocal listening situations listener is required to take part in the interaction and alternately listens and speaks. Interactive listening situations include face-to-face conversations and telephone calls in which listener has an opportunity to ask for clarification, repetition, or slower speech from conversation partner.

C. Adapting a Learner-centered Approach

In most cases in China, the teachers are the main speakers in class. And now we have to transmit this situation to make the learners to be the center in class. The teachers should design some activities to make learners involved in learning and make them realize how the language is organized, how the native speakers use the language and how the communication happens.

D. Making Use of the Positive Function of the Affective Factors.

This may make learners participate in the activities in class so that the passive listening class may become the active one, which requires that the teachers be good at building up a harmonious relationship between the teacher and learners. Both the teacher and the learners should trust and respect each other. Besides, the teacher should know learner's need and affections to shorten the psychological distance between them. Meanwhile, teachers should behave well to stimulate learner's motivation and develop their good attitude toward learning a foreign language.

E. Improving Listening Teaching by Multichannel Ways.

Listening class is a self-governed course in foreign language teaching, but it is not isolated and it is the combination of listening class teaching and the relative listening activities in other classes. Besides, we may open such classes as the appreciation of foreign music, film to stimulate learners from the angles of sight and hearing in the aspect of phonetics to reach the purpose of improving listening skills.

F. Attaching the Importance to Training Learner's Communicative Competence

Having a large quantity of input of language doesn't mean the learners can study the target language well. The task for the teachers is not only to teach learners linguistic knowledge, also to develop learner's communicative competence in target language in class and out of class. Communicative competence is advanced by Hymes, American linguist. Hymes(1970) thought it as the knowledge of not only if something is possible in a language, but also the knowledge of whether it is feasible, appropriate or, done in a particular Speech Community. It includes, 1) formal competence---knowledge of the grammar, vocabulary, phonology and semantics of a language. 2) sociocultural competence---knowledge of the relationship between language and its nonlinguistic context, knowing how to use and respond appropriately to different types of Speech Acts, such as requests, apologies, thanks and invitations, knowing which Address Forms should be used with different persons one speaks to and in different situations, and so forth. 3) discourse competence---knowing how to begin and how to end the conversations. 4)strategic competence---knowledge of communication strategies that can compensate for weakness in other areas. In fact, Hymes' formal competence amounts

to Chomsky's grammatical competence, the other three are equal to his pragmatic competence. The former refers to linguistic accuracy and the latter the appropriateness when language is used in a certain context. In order to use a foreign language correctly, it is not enough for learners to have some linguistic competence. Generally speaking, learners start to learn a foreign language after they have had the communicative competence in their mother tongue which is certain to affect the foreign language learning. To overcome the interference by MT, the communicative competence in the second language is necessary. In this way, learners may know where to say , what to say and how to say.

G. Attaching the Importance to Improving Learner's Cultural Quality of the Target Language

Language is inseparable from culture. A particular language is associated with a particular culture, the language provides the key to the understanding of the associated culture, and language itself cannot be really learned or fully understood without enough knowledge of the culture in which it is deeply embedded. Without language, culture would not be possible. On the one hand, languages is influenced and shaped by culture; it reflects culture. In the broadest sense, language is the symbolic representation of a people, and it comprises their historical and cultural backgrounds as well as their approach to life and their ways of living and thinking. What needs to be stressed here is that language and culture interact, and that understanding the language requires understanding the culture. Learning a foreign language well means more than merely mastering the pronunciation, grammar, words and idioms. It also means learning to see the world as native speakers of that language see it, learning the ways in which their language reflects the ideas, customs, and behavior of their society, learning to understand their language of the mind. Learning a language, in fact, is inseparable from learning its culture. So language and culture must be studied together, and great efforts must be made in the study of the culture in which the TL operates. Improving our cultural quality may make our language fluent, vivid, and elegant.

VI. Conclusion

Learners can respond to it only if they receive the information, which means that language learning is decided by listening in a certain degree. Without listening, speaking is impossible. When they receive something by auditory organ, listening gives the learners the aural input so that the language acquisition or learning occurs and makes learners interact in oral communication. Therefore, the effective ways for listening teaching is helpful for learners in language learning. In order to improve learner's listening skill, the teachers have to start from the beginning to cultivate learner's ability to predict, to catch the information. Based on this, the teacher has to give the chance to learners to know the culture of the target language. In this way, learners may improve themselves in language learning.

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An Ecological Analysis of the Role of Role-play Games as Affordances in Iranian EFL Pre-university Students' Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract—**The present study was intended to yield an ecological analysis of the role of role-play games on the degree of vocabulary learning and recall of the Iranian EFL pre-university students. To this end, forty students randomly selected from a range of pre-university students took part in an experiment. They were equally divided into the experimental and control groups. The control subjects received no treatment, whereas the experimental participants were assigned the responsibility of engaging in one role-play game after the teaching of the new vocabulary introduced in each lesson. Then, a 40-item vocabulary test was administered as a final teacher-made achievement test. The statistical t test results that were carried out with the SPSS Software indicated that there was a significant difference between the degree of the experimental participants' acquisition and recall of the vocabulary items as compared with the control participants' vocabulary recall performance. This was theoretically justified regarding the debates on the affordance of both activity and agency in the role-play gaming that accordingly augmented the degree of the experimental subjects' further engagement.**

Index Terms—**engagement, affordance, niche, role-play games, and vocabulary recall**

I. INTRODUCTION

As Gallo-Crail and Zerwekh (2002, as cited in, Khuvasanond, Sildus, Hurford, & Lipka, 2010) put it, a hallmark of effective strategies for teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) involves assisting students to comprehend and communicate utilizing the appropriate function of words. According to Huyen and Nga (2003), Asian students may regard the process of learning the second language vocabulary items as a list of new words that they must associate with their native language meaning without any further real practices that engross a real-life context. However, this strategy can inhibit the learning of correct word meanings.

Accordingly, as Redd and Schmidt-Crawford (2011) put it, recent studies call for using games for vocabulary learning since they are said to provide a way for words to be presented in an organized manner that can extend the school day and amount of time spent working in a content area. That is to say, vocabulary-enriched games might provide the extra support for learners to achieve success and build their vocabulary word bank.

A. Statement of the Problem

In view of the foregoing, the present study was intended to analyze the impact of utilizing role-play games on the degree of vocabulary learning and recall performance of Iranian EFL pre-university students. The foremost aspiration was to probe into the affordance features that the role-playing games could offer to EFL students in the classroom environment.

B. Gap of Research in the Domain of the Study

Although the significance of learning vocabulary through the use of communicative activities, particularly games has been acknowledged in the recent agenda of literature on activity-based approaches (e.g., Cornillie, Jacques, De Wannemacker, & Paulussen, 2010; Redd & Schmidt-Crawford, 2011; Huyen & Nga, 2003; Wang, Shang, & Briody, 2011), to name a few among others, it seems that not many research projects can be found on the impact of role-play games on the Iranian EFL pre-university students' vocabulary learning and recall. Accordingly, the present study aspired for filling in the gap in this domain of the study.

C. Research Questions

In the light of the foregoing, the present study was essentially determined to mull over the subsequent research questions:

    1. What is the impact of utilizing role-play games on Iranian EFL pre-university students' vocabulary learning?

    2. Does the use of role-play games enhance the Iranian EFL pre-university students' recall of the vocabulary items?

    3. How do role-play games augment the Iranian EFL pre-university students' learning and recall of vocabulary items?

D. Research Hypotheses

Theoretically, it was hypothesized that the Iranian EFL pre-university students might gain a greater degree of command over the vocabulary items in each lesson through practicing them in role-play games. Therefore, it was conjectured that the exploitation of role-play games would enhance their learning of vocabulary as well as their vocabulary recall performance.

E. The Significance of the Study

Basically, the present study is considered to be significant in the instructional context of teaching English language to Iranian EFL learners in certain respects. In the first place, it strives to draw attention to the imperative impact of the exploitation of fine arts, in general, and role-play games, in particular, in the local, pedagogical context of foreign language learning, which at this juncture refers to the component of vocabulary learning and recall. Second, it has recourse to the ecological perspective towards the process of foreign language learning in that it treats the role-play activities in terms of engagement and affordance rather than triggering bits of input. What is more, the present study strives to redefine games from an ecological point of view that may be somewhat different from the traditional definitions given for the term game in the theoretical pedagogical literature.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Drawing on an ecological perspective towards Second Language Acquisition (SLA), Van Lier (2000) argues that the learner is immersed in an environment resplendent with certain potential meanings. These meanings become available progressively as the learner acts and interacts within and with this environment. Van Lier (2000, pp. 246-247) holds that "learning is not a holus-bolus or piecemeal migration of meanings to the inside of the learner's head, but rather the development of increasingly effective ways of dealing with the world and its meanings." Therefore, to search for learning is to take a look at the active learner in her or his environment, not at the contents of her or his brain.

A. The Concept of Affordance

The word affordance is coined by the psychologist Gibson (1979, as cited in, Van Lier, 2000) to make reference to a reciprocal relationship between an organism and a particular feature of its environment. Drawing on the Chaos and Complexity Theory (C&CT), Van Lier (1996, 2000) investigates the full complexity and interrelatedness of processes that are combined to produce an environment. Van Lier (1996) shifts the focus in language learning from input to engagement debating that there is a problem regarding the input view of language learning since it considers language as a fixed code and learning as a process of reviewing and processing the so-called fixed code.

Van Lier (2000) then explores the notion of affordance as an alternative to input and presents the argument that an affordance is a particular property of the environment that is relevant to an active, perceiving organism in that environment. An affordance affords further action; however, it does not cause or trigger it. What becomes an affordance is dependent upon what the organism performs, what it yearns for, and what is constructive for it. Putting it this way, if the language learner is active and engaged, she or he is likely to perceive linguistic affordances and to bring them into play for the linguistic action. Van Lier (2000, p. 246) defends that "from an ecological perspective, the learner is immersed in an environment full of potential meanings. These meanings are available gradually as the learner acts within and with the environment."

In the light of the foregoing, Van Lier (2000) analogizes Gibson's (1979, as cited in, Van Lier, 2000) ecological psychology with the work of Vygotsky's (1978, 1986) Sociocultural Theory (SCT), Bakhtin's (1981, 1986) dialogic imagination, and their respective followers as the unit of analysis is not the perceived object or the linguistic input; rather, the active learner and the activity in its own right are highlighted. As Van Lier (2004a) puts it, the major characteristics of ecology comprise relationships rather than objects, context, emergent patterns, quality, value, critical perspectives, variability, diversity, and agency. Van Lier (2004, p. 91) highlights the key notions in the definitions given for affordance, namely relations, possibility, opportunity, immediacy, and interaction. For him, action, perception, and interpretation, in a continuous cycle of mutual reinforcement, are the preconditions for the emergence of meaning.

From the perspective of Van Lier (2010), an ecological approach aims to look at the learning process, the actions, and activities of teachers and learners, the multilayered nature of interaction and language use, in all their complexity and as a network of interdependencies among all the elements in the setting, not only at the social level, but also at the physical and symbolic levels. According to Van Lier (2010), multiple relationships are established in and among the physical, social, and symbolic worlds in human ecosystems and language functions to set up, preserve, and enlarge such relationships. The world is replete with opportunities that grant access to plentiful affordances to engage in activities of

various kinds. Affordances are identified in terms of relationships of possibility; that is to say, they make action, interaction, and joint projects possible.

B. Affordance and Scaffolding in ZPD

Vygotsky (1978) explores the child's development, and how it is conducted by the role played by culture and interpersonal communication. The key premise of Vygotskyan psychology is the concept of the cultural mediation. According to Vygotsky (1978, p. 57), "every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and on the individual level; first between people (interpsychological), and then inside the person (intrapsychological)." This process is referred to as internalization.

Among the concepts put forward by Vygotsky (1978), two are conceived to be of fundamental import within the realm of SLA, i.e., ZPD and scaffolding. Vygotsky's (1978, 1986) Sociocultural Theory (SCT) regards interaction as the bedrock of the process of language acquisition. To explain the relationship between the interpersonal plane and the intrapersonal plane, Vygotsky (1978, p. 86) develops the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which he defines as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers."

The second notion regards this provision of help, which should be gradually withdrawn as the learner gets autonomy over the task, and it is what Vygotsky (1978) refers to as scaffolding. The concept of scaffolding, further elaborated on by Bruner (1985, as cited in, Saville-Troike, 2005) refers to the verbal guidance that an expert provides to help a learner perform any specific tasks, or the verbal collaboration of peers to perform a task, which appear to be too difficult for any one of them individually. The metaphor of scaffolding is also extended by Donato (1994, p. 40), who holds that "in social interaction a knowledgeable participant can create, by means of speech, supportive conditions in which the novice can participate in, and extend, current skill and knowledge to higher levels of competence."

As Saville-Troike (2005) puts it, scaffolding is not something that happens to a learner as a passive recipient; rather, it happens with a learner as an active participant. From the perspective of Obukhova and Korepanova (2009), the ZPD concept is seen as the scaffolding, namely the structure of support points for performing an action.

In view of the foregoing, Lantolf and Thorne (2006) debate that the individual development is both afforded and constrained by the ZPD. That is to say, the capacity to profit from different kinds of interaction and scaffolding within the ZPDs leads to accomplish a particular activity, a point also acknowledged by Ziglari (2008).

C. The Concept of Niche

Closely related to the concept of affordance is the concept of the niche. According to Polechová and Storch (2008, p. 1088), "ecological niche characterizes the position of a species within an ecosystem, comprising species habitat requirements as well as its functional role." Ecological niche incorporates each and every one of the interactions between a species and the biotic and abiotic environment, and, therefore, embodies an incredibly essential and basic ecological concept. Polechová and Storch (2008) make a distinction between three approaches to niche, i.e., niche as the description of a species' habitat requirements; niche as the ecological function of the species, and niche as a species position in a community or the formalization of ecological niche concept. In an attempt to understand these approaches in relation to language learning, Paiva (2011) translates these approaches as niche as an environment mediated by language, niche as a place to act in by using the language, and niche as a language user position in a discourse community respectively.

D. Affordance in ESL/ESL Niches

In the light of the foregoing, Paiva (2011) draws on the ecological perspective that in order to gain success, a learner must make a living in her/his niche. The student has to coexist with other learners and occasionally struggle for her/his position in the niche, mainly when one is in a classroom environment. In addition, the resources usually available in a classroom are inadequate for successful language acquisition. Learners must search for affordances beyond the classroom and not all of them will be able to perceive the affordances or make the most of all the ones offered by the environment.

According to Paiva (2011), one makes use of language to think, to perceive, and interpret the linguistic social actions around her or him and to take action in her or his niches. In the case of foreign language learning, a kind of affordance, which has an immense impact on the learners, is how they relate to that language; that is to say, how they perceive the language they learn. A second or other language can be viewed as a dominating instrument, as a tool or artifact for communication, as a cultural production mediator, as an instrument that opens windows for business, as something of high or low prestige, and so on.

To put it simply, Paiva (2011) argues that taking into account the idea of the first type of niche as an environment mediated by language, English language learners must belong to a habitat, wherein they can find language affordances. In EFL niches, language affordances are not the identical for each learner. There are contexts, which offer supplementary opportunities for language learning and fewer constraints than others and vice-versa.

In exploring the second type of niche in ESL/EFL contexts, Paiva (2011) holds that the majority of the students perceive language affordance as they speak it; however, numerous teachers perceive it as describe it or talk about it. The

students' concept of what a language might be is not commensurate with their teachers' own concept. In spite of their niches, which apparently proffer poor English language affordances, many learners bridge the gaps by looking for affordances beyond the classrooms and meet the second concept of niche, niche as a place to act in by using the language.

According to Paiva (2011), the third type of niche is that of niche as a language user's position in a discourse community. A learner who presupposes the position of a language user is expected to be successful in her or his attempt to learn the language. Despite these arguments, Paiva (2011) argues that language affords a variety of uses, singing, chatting, reading, writing, listening, and so forth; however, a number of teachers insist on focusing only on the formal aspects of the language.

E. On Games in SLA

In view of the foregoing lines of argument, Sánchez, Morfín, and Campos (2007) bring to mind the numerous definitions given for game, while arguing that most of these look similar in that not many of them delineate a game as a practical tool or constructive resource for teaching. Looking at the miscellaneous definitions given for the game, Sánchez, Morfín, and Campos (2007) come across common similarities amongst them and debate that they all coincide principally in three aspects, namely competition, rules, and enjoyment.

As said by Sánchez, Morfín, and Campos (2007), the term competition in its own right signifies the foremost component that an interactive activity should encompass so as to be conceived of as a game. Competition interactive games build up the student's motivation, as they are constantly engaged in the daily competition. Nevertheless, teachers need to be careful when making the students competitive for the reason that it may bring about affecting feelings of inadequacy. Consequently, this component should be skillfully managed in the class. One way that teachers can achieve this is by the use of rules.

Based on the argument by Sánchez, Morfín, and Campos (2007), rules set up the patterns and codes wherein the game should be played, teachers may be responsible for making students follow the rules. Thus, the teacher can readily keep control of the class while students get pleasure from and follow the logic of the game and play it suitably, achieving at the same time the goals of the activity effectively.

Sánchez, Morfín, and Campos (2007) muse that though the word enjoyment has been explained in diverse ways, this term is regarded as an imperative component for increasing students' motivation in learning a language. Students may enjoy the class, that way they might become more interested in it and obtain, in a better way, some further permanent knowledge to be used in the real life.

Based on the concepts previously analyzed, Sánchez, Morfín, and Campos (2007) present a fresh and refined definition of game that emerges within the field of pedagogy. A game is considered as a valuable technique, which comprises three chief elements, i.e., competition, rule(s), and enjoyment, which should be well established by a teaching-learning objective. Any teacher is capable of making use of games in order to augment the student's motivation towards the English language, at the same time that students can better develop or improve his/her own abilities of learning. Such is the purpose that the use of dynamic games has in class.

F. General Benefits of Games

In principle, Carrier (1980, as cited in, Sánchez, Morfín, and Campos, 2007) believes that games are incredibly valuable in a class since they provide an opportunity for students to bring into play their language in a less formal context of situation, devoid of the pressure of doing it absolutely correctly or not, but with the enthusiasm for winning the game, as well as practicing the language.

As Carrier (1980, as cited in, Sánchez, Morfín, and Campos, 2007) puts it, there are three appropriate stages in a lesson where games can be used; that it, they can be drawn on as an introduction, after the development of the class, and at the end of the class. When games are utilized as an introduction, they are firstly exploited to open up the class in a stimulating way. At this juncture, the teacher gets students' interest in the language from the very beginning of the class. Besides, they are used to know what point or level students already have. Therefore, the game is taken as a review of a previous activity. In addition, games are exploited after the development of the lesson to reinforce an item that the teacher considers necessary to review and/or to practice. Games brought into play at the end of the class serve to close lessons in a stimulating way. Thus, students can have some practice of the item studied, and the teacher can realize if the item is well achieved by students.

According to Sánchez, Morfín, and Campos (2007), games should be positive at any moment they are incorporated as this makes students take pleasure in the activity while they are having a hidden helpful practice. Furthermore, hidden is mentioned because this kind of activities more often than not make students forget they are learning, and they concentrate more on playing and/or winning.

In taking account of the uses of games in language classrooms, Lengeling and Malarcher (1997) categorize the benefits of games into four domains, i.e., affective filter, cognitive functioning, class dynamics, and adaptability.

As far as the affective filter is concerned, Lengeling and Malarcher (1997) argue that the games lower the affective filter, inspire the creative and spontaneous use of language, endorse communicative competence, motivate the students, and provide the students with the opportunity of learning the language through fun.

With respect to the immense impact of games on the students' higher mental and cognitive development, Lengeling and Malarcher (1997) believe that they reinforce the cognition, review and extend the cognitive ability, and gear the students' attention on grammar communicatively.

From the perspective of Lengeling and Malarcher (1997), the augmentation of the class dynamics through the use of games is realized in terms of certain features; that is to say, they are student centered, and teacher acts only as facilitators. Besides, games are conceived to construct the class cohesion, cultivate the whole class participation, and endorse the healthy competition.

As said by Lengeling and Malarcher (1997), adaptability is made possible by means of games as they are easily adjusted for age, level, and interests. Additionally, they make the most of all four skills and necessitate the minimum preparation after development.

In view of the foregoing, Wang (2010) summarizes the characteristics of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and expects that the use of communicative tasks and activities such as games play a crucial role in Communicative Approach (CA) to language teaching and learning as learners can go beyond the mastery of structures to communicate meanings in real-life contexts of situations. In particular, communicative activities in the form of games create a context where learners are engaged in the use of the target language to negotiate meanings, share information, and interact with others within. For Wang (2010), games possess certain features that may satisfy the requirements of CLT, namely they motivate students' learning with fun, enjoyment, and excitement; supply chances to use language in authentic contexts; provide practice on language use and language usage; create an agreeable and supportive learning environment; and promote interpersonal relations.

G. Classifications of Games

As Tuan and Doan (2010) put it, classifying games into categories can be difficult because categories often overlap. In the first place, Hadfield (1999, as cited in, Tuan & Doan, 2010) gives explanation for two ways of classifying language games. First, language games are divided into two types, i.e., linguistic games and communicative games. Linguistic games focus on accuracy, such as supplying the correct antonym. Communicative games focus on the successful exchange of information and ideas, such as two people identifying the differences between their two pictures, which are similar to one another but not exactly alike. The correct usage of language, though still significant, is secondary to achieving the communicative goal.

Second, Hadfield (1999, as cited in, Tuan & Doan, 2010) classifies language games into many more categories. Together with the classification of games as linguistic games or communicative games, a number of games are observed to contain elements of more than one type, which comprise sorting, ordering, or arranging games; information gap games; guessing games; search games; matching games; labeling games; exchanging games; board games; and role-play games.

H. Role-play Games

As said by Kodotchigova (2002, as cited in, Tuan & Doan, 2010), the terms role play, drama, and simulation are sometimes utilized interchangeably; however, they can be distinguished. According to Tuan and Doan (2010), role-play games can engage students in playing certain roles that they do not play in the real-life situations, such as doctor, whereas in simulations students get involved in performing roles that they already play in real life or might be likely to play, such as a customer at a restaurant. Dramas are by and large scripted performances, while in role plays and simulations, students come up with their own words, although the preparation is often useful.

I. Gaming and Vocabulary Learning: Role-plays

The benefits of vocabulary learning through gaming techniques are indisputable. As Blachowicz and Fisher (2008, p. 50, as cited in, Redd & Schmidt-Crawford, 2011, p. 57) put it, "games and word play can provide a context in which students can enjoy word learning and develop word consciousness." Accordingly, Wang, Shang, and Briody (2011) argue that based on previous studies, utilizing games to teach young learners can augment students' motivation, confidence, and vocabulary acquisition. Due to the advantages of challenging content, it is easier to capture their attention than with traditional teaching. In what follows, the effects of role-play games on the EFL students' vocabulary learning and recall are empirically examined and then theoretically discussed.

III. METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

The present study was intended to look at the impact of using role-play games on the vocabulary learning and vocabulary recall performance of Iranian EFL pre-university students. In so doing, an experiment was carried out. The experimental design of the research project has been explicated below.

A. Participants

A total of forty Iranian EFL pre-university students participated in this experiment. They were indiscriminately selected from a range of female students at Raziyyeh Pre-university School. In order to perform the experimental project, equal numbers of participants were randomly divided into two groups, namely group (EG) known as the Experimental Group and group (CG) that refers to the Control Group. The Experimental subjects were further divided

into five sub-groups called (A), (B), (C), (D), and (E). The students in both groups were asked to conceive of the researcher as the receiver of their performances.

B. Materials

The students in the each of the experimental groups of (A), (B), (C), (D), and (E) were required to work on a role-play on the basis of the new vocabulary items introduced at the end of the lessons one, two, three, four, and five in the English book for Iranian EFL pre-university students. Thus, they were asked to make use of these words in their role-play performances.

C. Instruments

Two kinds of instruments were utilized in the present study. The first instrument applied in this study was a 40-item vocabulary test administered as a final teacher-made achievement test. The test was conducted after the five treatment sessions and lasted for forty minutes to analyze the impact of utilizing role-play games on the degree of the experimental participants' acquisition and recall of the vocabulary items taught in each session as compared with the control participant' vocabulary recall performance. Secondly, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was exploited to fulfill the statistical analyses.

To this end, the mean scores obtained for the performance of each group were compared through the use of the two-tail, independent t test procedure. In order to fulfill the quantitative assessments, the statistical analyses were practically carried out on the basis of the comparison of the calculated t score obtained from the difference between the two mean scores attained from the administered test and the critical t score. It is worth stating that the critical t score and the level of significance (the level of α) were constant across the numerical analyses; that is, the critical t score equaled 3.040 as α was assumed 0.01. Therefore, the p value was assumed ≤ 0.01. Since the independent t test was a two-tail one due to the autonomous participation of forty subjects equally divided into the experimental and control groups, α was divided by two, which equaled 0.005. In addition, the degree of freedom (df) was assumed 19.

D. Procedure

To analyze the impact of role-play games on the vocabulary acquisition and vocabulary recall performance of Iranian EFL pre-university students, the subsequent procedures were followed. The subjects taking part in the control group received no treatment, whereas the experimental participants in each sub-group received role-play games as a treatment. Each sub-group was assigned the responsibility of engaging in one role-play game after the teaching of the new vocabulary introduced in each lesson. Therefore, five role plays were performed during treatment sessions. Each role-play game lasted for ten to fifteen minutes. Mentioned should be of the point that the conditions plus the teaching method as well as the teacher was the same for both groups.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Technically, the statistical results obtained from the final achievement test of vocabulary are observed to reveal remarkable findings that are worth considering. The experimental group is conceived to gain the mean score of 15.1 while the control group is viewed to achieve the mean score of 12.7. The succeeding tables exhibits that the participants have performed differently.

TABLE 1
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Control	12.7000	20	2.65766	.59427
	Experimental	15.1000	20	2.80788	.62786

TABLE 2
PAIRED SAMPLES CORRELATION

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Control and Experimental	20	.166	.483

TABLE 3
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
Pair 1	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	-2.40000	3.53032	.78940	-4.05224	.74776	-3.040	19	.0007

In the light of foregoing results, it is evident that the difference between the mean score obtained for both groups is significant since the p value equals 0.007 < 0.01. As a result, it is generally assumed that there exists a significant discrepancy between the performances of the two groups. Basically, the close examination of the numerical analyses reveals the notorious impacts of the role-play games on the experimental participants' recall of vocabulary items. The subsequent lines of argument are meant to yield further conjectural justifications for the obtained results.

Critically, the statistical results of the present study indicate that the proper utilization of communicative games, in general, and role-plays games in the local contexts of the argument under discussion does have a significant impact on the amount and degree of the vocabulary learning and recall of Iranian EFL pre-university students. The foregoing statistical results can be further theoretically justified with respect to the debates on the affordance of both activity and agency in the instructional context of situation.

A. Role-play Games and the Affordance of Activity

Van Lier (2004b) points out that activity and perception form one whole or a necessary unity. To perceive, one must act; to act, one must perceive. Activity in one's environment brings into being the affordances in those environments that are relevant to the agent. With respect to language learning, this means an activity-based approach, in which what is structured in the curriculum are the activities and not the language. In such an activity-based curriculum language surrounds the learner in all its richness and complexity.

As said by Van Lier (2004b), instead of being presented with input, which is structured in one way or another, learners are recommended pick up the linguistic information they need for their activities, so long as access is provided. The provision of access can be done through scaffolding, i.e., by assisting learners in how and where to look, by providing opportunities for interaction and collaboration with peers, and by structuring tasks so that they have clear procedures and goals, while at the same time allowing for learners to employ creativity in a context of growing autonomy.

In view of the foregoing, the results of the present study pinpoint that the games, in general, and, in the local context of this argument, the role-play games, in particular, may present the EFL learners with affordance through the provision of activity-based practices rather than triggering the input piecemeal. Such games are said to proffer scaffolding to the subject agents through assistance, interaction, and collaboration in their ZPDs.

B. Role-play Games and Affordance of Agency

To put it in plain words, Van Lier (2010) defines agency as the movement of the organism moving in order to live and grow, a change of state or direction, or even a lack of movement where movement is expected. Movement can be cast in literal as well as in figurative ways. Agency is, therefore, an essential concept in learning, at many levels and in many manifestations. It is a further general and more reflective concept than the closely related terms autonomy, motivation, and investment. In other words, autonomy, motivation, and investment are in a sense products or manifestations of a person's agency.

According to Van Lier (2010), a wholly and entirely passive learner will not learn. A compliant, obedient, or dutiful learner is said to learn for the reason that she or he makes use of agency if only at the behest of others. In this way, learners who study a foreign language in schools, as it is required, will be capable of having certain degrees of success to pass tests. However, in order to make significant progress and to make permanent strides in terms of setting objectives, pursuing goals, and moving towards the lifelong learning, learners need to make choices and employ agency in more self-directed ways.

For Van Lier (2010), learning is inseparably tied to agency. The exploitation of agency depends on a learning-conducive environment that allocates and instigates a multiplicity of manifestations of agency at different levels. Not all types of agency are cut of the same cloth. It can be more individual or more social, more creative or more routine, more serious or more playful, and so on and so forth. There must be room in a learning environment for an assortment of expressions of agency to flourish. The creation of such an environment is a major task of pedagogy. Once this task is understood, the agency-rich environment can become the joint project of teachers and learners alike.

Interpreting the results of this study in the light of the preceding lines of debate, it is inferred that games and specifically role-play games may provide the EFL learners with agency-rich environments. This point is elucidated regarding the learners' active movements, motivation, and autonomy through the accomplishment of activity-based games, wherein, to draw on Storch's (2002, as cited in, Clark & Clark, 2008) terminology, the observed pattern of interaction is that of greater degrees of high equality in terms of the division of power, authority, and control over the task plus the further degrees of high mutuality in terms of their engagement between each others' contributions.

C. Redefining Games from an Ecological Perspective

Drawing on the three ecological approaches to the concept of niche as explicated by Polechová and Storch (2008), namely niche as the description of a species' habitat requirements; niche as ecological function of the species, and niche as a species position in a community or the formalization of ecological niche concept along with Paiva's (2011) three-dimensional translation of these approaches in EFL learning environments, the present study strives to proffer a redefinition of the games in the theoretical literature that is, to a greater or lesser degree, different from the traditional

perspectives. From an ecological point of view, games are redefined as niches replete with language affordances that the agent language users occupy to operate on its functions and activities.

D. Pedagogical Implications

Drawing on an ecological approach to language teaching and learning, the present study offers certain pedagogical implications for teaching vocabulary to EFL students. In the first place, it pays much attention to the development of mutual co-operation, fluidity, openness, and the active exchange of information in the in the EFL classrooms. Contrary to the traditional assumptions, the Communicative Approach (CA) to Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is observed to require the subjects to draw on their prior knowledge, reveal background information about the content, and strive to take part in communicative interactions.

Second, considerable emphasis is placed on the point that SLA, in general, and the vocabulary learning, in particular, are essentially communicative processes, which inspire the students' co-operations and dynamic performances and pose somewhat alarming problems for many who still put their entire reliance on the formal teaching of grammatical rules or individual lexical items isolated from the real-life contexts of situations. In addition, it draws attention to the significance of learning English in the EFL context through fun and enjoyment by encouraging the learners to investigate the language through the process of meaningful interaction.

V. CONCLUSION

In due course, the present study has been intended to explore the impact of the exploitation of role-play games on the Iranian EFL pre-university students' vocabulary learning and recall. The quantitative analyses have indicated that the positive effects of role-play games in learning and recalling vocabulary items. Based on the findings of the present study, it appears that games conform to the affordance features advocated in the ecological approach to SLA advocated by Van Lier (1996, 2000, 2004a, 2004b, 2010) in that they are observed to help the students gain agency in accomplishing the gaming activities.

Despite the advantages of games in teaching and learning vocabulary, the teachers are recommended bring to mind Huyen and Nga's (2003) words of caution that although the role of games in teaching and learning vocabulary cannot be denied, in order to attain the most from vocabulary games, it is necessary to select suitable games for the EFL students. Whenever a game is to be conducted, the number of students, their levels of proficiency, cultural background, timing, learning topic, and the classroom environments are essential factors that need to be taken into account.

Suggestions for further research

In view of the significance of the critical scrutiny resting on the role of games in the instructional milieu of teaching EFL, it is recommended perform further investigations in analyzing the impact of role-play games on the teaching and learning of grammar. Besides, the comparative study of the EFL students' degree of the acquisition of both vocabulary and grammar with respect to other communicative games, say, simulations and dramatizations, or other types of games used for learning vocabulary, which enable the results to be triangulated is supposed to be of significance in this domain. What is more, the investigation of the effect of the exploitation of role-play games on the EFL learners' use of the instructed vocabulary in the real-life contexts of situations might be also beneficial.

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Commentary on Nida vs. Chomsky's Translation Theories

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Abstract—The paper intends to extrapolate the new perspective of "science" of translation as well as distinguish the differences and similarities in translation theories between Nida and Chomsky. However, the ultimate initiation zooms in the interpretations and understanding of the translation theories between the two. Both Chomsky and Nida made metaphysical claims about the object of investigation. Nida tends to reveals theoretical priorities, Chomsky's theory is similarly constructed, making the "logic" of the models similar. Nida's and Chomsky's theories are self-reflective, but Chomsky's universal forms exist at a much deeper, abstract level than Nida's kernels.

Index Terms—Nida & Chomsky, translation theory, deep structure, surface structure, kernel structure

I. BACKGROUND

With the new perspective pracitsed in North American translation workshops characterized by a theoretical na'ivete' and subjective methodologies reinforcing whatever theoretical values individual translator hold, the theoretical contributions of the workshop approach summarized by Joseph Graham (1981) much that has been written on the subject of translation yields very little when sifted for theoretical substance because it has always been written as if spoken in the workshop. The personal anecdotes and pieces of advice may well provide some help, but certainly not the coherent and consistent theory required for translation. (p.23)

From the fragment cited above, it elicits the problem that troubled translation theory historically. Therefore, not only was a more systematic approach to translation needed, but the discipline appeared to have the theoretical and linguistic tools addressing it was linguistics.

In the early sixties, linguistics had little theoretical value to translation for translators, on the grounds that, linguistics had been characterized by descriptive research field where individual grammar were detailed but not compared. Meanwhile, the two significant and influential theories of grammar altered the journey of translation theory simultaneously. One by Noam Chomsky's *Syntactic Structure* (1957) and Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (1965), the other one by E.A Nida's *Message and Mission* (1960) as well as *Toward a Science of Translation* (1964). Obviously, Generative Transformational Grammar (GTG) by Noam Chomsky, along with its legitimacy among linguistics, lent credence and influence to Nida's "science "of translation, and further, Nida's theory in translating the Bible was also based on Chomsky's experience in his book *Message and Mission.* (1960)

However, Nida's theory, who claimed that the theory of his translation, was well developed before Chomsky's formulation, specified with the addition of Chomsky's transformational component. With the adoption of Chomsky's theoretical premise, his transformational rules, and his terminology, Nida's theory solidified, and the result of *Toward a Science of Translating* has become the "bible" not just for Bible translation, but for translation theory in general. In addition, Nida's development of a translation science in the Bible was motivated by a personal dislike for what he saw as a classical revival in the 19th century, an emphasis on technical accuracy, an adherence to form, and a literal rendering of meaning, the moment of which was indicated by Mathew Arnold's literalism, which negatively affected Bible translation then.

As for Nida's "practical handbook" status within the branch of the field of theology called "missiology" because of diversified examples, Bible translating has generated more data in more languages than any other translation practice because it enjoys a longer history, has reached more people in more diverse cultures, and has involved more translators from different background than any other translation practice. At the same time, Nida, aware of the unsystematic nature of a practice-oriented approach, attempted to scientifically validate his methodology and apply it to translation as a

whole. Nevertheless, his religious beliefs and missionary goals which attempt to unite people around a common belief in the inviolable word of God, although not explicitly stated, remain embedded within the scientific framework.

Noam Chomsky's theory of syntax and generative grammar was noticeable to be a theory of translation, the Generative-transformational Grammar, which is a theory of grammar by Noam Chomsky, attempted to provide a model for the description of all languages. A transformational- generative grammar tries to show, which a system of rules, the knowledge which a native-speaker of a language uses in forming grammatical sentences. The most of his theory was published in his book *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965), which consists of three levels of conceptualization (1) a base component made up of "phrase structure rules" that generate (2) a deep structure, which in turn is changed, via transformational rules in (3) a surface structure. (p.30, p.117)

Transformational grammarians work in various languages and continually point out structural similarities across languages. Such similarities fascinated Chomsky, too, although again he cautioned against drawing conclusion, knowing that deep structures needn't be like any existing structure. Hence, Transformational-generative Grammar by Noam Chomsky implicated that all grammar rules can be indefinitely generated into another form of rules in translating.

In conclusion, although the two theories evolved for different reason, they both assume that there exists a deep coherent and unified entity behind whatever manifestation language. Both Chomsky and Nida made metaphysical claims about the object of investigation for their respective theories. Chomsky's linguistics probed structures of the mind and changed the focus of linguistics in the modern age; Nida's translation theory probed structures common to all languages and found ways to transform those entities in differing languages.

The two approaches attempt to demonstrate different kinds of objects at the center-one arguing the existence of universal rules of grammar and universal lexical form; the other making metaphysical claims about an original divine message. Both linguistics and translation theory are revitalized by their respective theories. Chomsky's deep-structure vs. surface-structure model, his transformational rules, although monolinguistically derived, lends them to justifying a theory of translation. Whether one accepts Chomsky's beliefs on how human mind is structured or not, his deep structures, postulated to contain all the necessary syntactic as well as semantic information for a correct transformation into surface structure and interpretation, lend themselves well to the translation practitioner trying to represent an "underlying" message in a second language.

II. NOAM CHOMSKY: "UNDERLYING" STRUCTURES

Noam Chomsky's "underlying" structures represent a two level deep-structure and surface-structure, but his grammar complexity is more. According to his two-level structures, its model has several, the bottom of which is "initial element" ambiguously and followed by the "base component", which is consisted of two kinds rewriting rules: "phrase structure rules," which are often to all languages, and "lexical rules," which also derive from universal categories.

Specifically, that means that the phrase structure rules generate the deep structure of a sentence, which contains all the syntactic and semantic information determining its meaning. Finally, transformational rules modify the deep structure, resulting in the surface structures, which explain that all the sentences in a given language causing movement embedded in his theory which stated as the above on which is from the base to the deep structure via phrase structure rules and is from the deep structure to the surface via transformational rules. By the way, as Chomsky mentioned in his essay in 1965, the phrase structure rules portray the internalized an unconscious workings of the human mind with the deep structure determining meaning underlying sentences and sound to the surface structure.

However, the assumption of Chomsky' "underlying" structures raised enormous philosophic objects. Because they didn't find his evidence all that convincing; and because Chomsky's "empirical" evidence of language structure about how humans apply language in a social situation is not based upon living language, but on sentences found in an ideal state which means that linguistic theory is concerned with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech-community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions a memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest ,and errors…. Reading between the lines, loaded with suppositions, which have shown doubt about during the past two decades, one of which is Michel Foucault, that there are two distinctions which refer to philosophical differences regarding assumptions about "human nature" involved and a generation gap regarding how the "creative speaking subject" is perceived. Edwin Gentzler said that Chomsky has only idealized the speaking subject and was awarded it with particular abilities concerning its creative ability to use language. But Chomsky didn't intervere, through process of idealization, certain usages involving "correct" formulations, which is very crucial to Foucault's understanding of the speaking subject and its underlying "nature".

Despite of this, *After Babel* issued by George Steiner (1975) implicated that it was important to deal extensively with Chomsky's theory and its relevance to understanding translation because of Chomsky's humanistic and on account of his deep-structure vs. surface-structure model. Therefore, Eugene Nida and Wolfram Wilss claimed unwillingly that one is just based upon a model similar to Chomsky's deep-structure vs. surface-structure, has perhaps simplified Chomsky's work and misappropriated it for his purposes and the other, the leading German translation scientist, has probably unwillingly adopted more from Chomsky that he is willing to admit, but all of them are absolutely applied a Chomskian model for their theories.

Turning back to the depth of Chomsky's deep-structure, which intends the "depth" of the formal properties, and whether the base structure and phrase structure are common property, which sounds formal universal common to all

languages. Chomsky added that particular deep-structure of a sentence in any given language doesn't go much deeper than these formal properties and which are not specific to any particular language (Chomsky, 1965). And further, the deep-structure, by Chomsky, isn't universal, so the form of a particular language doesn't indispensably equal the form of another. Because the existence of deep-seated formal universals… implies that all languages are cut to the same pattern, but doesn't imply that there is any point by point correspondence between particular languages. It does not, for example, imply that there must be some reasonable procedure for translating between languages. (p.30)

As for generative rules assumed by Chomsky, with a formal device probably existing behind all, lie at the heart of man's language facility. Edwin Gentzler (2004) in his *Contemporary Translation Theories*, argued that Chomsky didn't jump to conclusions, based upon correlations between two languages and not assume that a grammar particular to one language would work systematically for another, which means that surface structures needn't be like their underlying deep structures.

Transferring to the perspective of translation practitioners, the generative transformational mode is not only separated from all the translation problems concerning Neologisms to archaisms, proper nouns to metaphors, high registers to dialects and mistakes, but also both impossible and fascinating complicated and sophisticated problems in translation. Quines pointed out that the very notion of synonyms strikes a resonant chord and is more relevant to practitioners than language theory, positing universal structures. Frankly speaking, a linguistic methodology isolating its model from spoken language is both overly idealistic and too "theoretical" for many a translator's taste. The fact is that spoken language contains "the problems" to tell the readers something about meaning and the structural nature of language. The generative transformational grammar not only to ignore all errors-"the problems" but to term them grammatically irrelevant, will perhaps obscure as much as it reveals about the structure of language.

The contributions to 20th century thought about Chomsky's theory were apparent. Whether his generative transformational mode is of value to the translation of literature or not, Chomsky's arguments haven't persuaded everyone just as Smith doubted in his book about Chomsky's generative transformational grammar that whether linguistics is equivalent to transformational-generative grammar; whether Chomsky's theory is the most suitable model for literature translation and the pursuit of its study; whether linguistics themselves are so well established and free from internal problems or external criticize that the literary theories are well advised to adopt and apply them unreflectingly.

All in all, though enormous reservations from creative writers, Chomsky's generative transformational grammar definitely proceeded to construct science and which turned out to be the most influential approach in the field for subsequent decades.

III. EUGENE NIDA: APPLYING GENERATIVE GRAMMAR TO TRANSLATION

The obvious communication of the Christian faith and the discussion of theological motivations exposed in Nida's (1960) text *Message and Mission*, which means: *"breaking new ground with new tools"* (p.787) and which proved his religious presuppositions. So, Nida's religious beliefs tend to be very instrumental in the formation of his scientific theory of translation. Even he confused the translator's role with that of the missionary. The differences between exegesis and translation are disappearing in Nida's theory because he paid much more attention to the explanation itself than the ways of rendering the message and the things the original formation remaining.

Consequently, Nida claimed for the translators to be familiar to knowledge of source completely, even requires the same "empathetic" spirit. In other words, Nida's "empathetic"spirit approximately approaches total devotion to and dependence upon the original author's intent. But Nida's intentional fallacy was criticized because "what a work says and what the author intended it to say are two different things". Naturally, Nida's theory of translation seems less scientific motivated and more a positive reaffirmation of the work than relevation by the God invisible in original message taking on archetypal status.

As it was said above, Nida never took communication for granted by employing all the resources of linguistics, so he drew conclusion that why the religious message often failed to be communicated is that they ignored the different cultural contexts and world views. Thus, meaning can't be separated from personal experience and the conceptual framework of the person for message-ideas to fit with the conceptual map of experience of the different context. In other words, Nida introduced a culture remote from his own to his practical experience in introducing new ideas. That is the cultural context in which the communication occurs.

Though supportive by referring to communication theory and sybernetics by Nida, it is not only pragmatically motivated, but rooted in Nida's religious presuppositions because, for pragmatic and theological reason, Nida shows a strong interest in the response of the person receiving the communication.

Theoretically, Nida just privileged the sign as a kind of response and it is successful that it can elicit the response God intends. Thus, words and symbols are only labels, which will place the form of the message in the secondary status. As it is known that Nida's primary intended to concern the functions of sign in any given society. In that case, these "functional definition of meaning" marks an advance over traditional mentalistic and imagistic definitions of meaning and his pragmatic interests appear to be at least a deviation from more traditional notions of deep structure.

Concretely, Nida's theory factors more the context of the message. Nida noted that the translated text should release a response in a reader in today's culture, which supposed not to be like the original receptors, making changes in the text to solicit that initial response. But his theory of "dynamic equivalence" is less derived from scientific principles and is

more an outcome of the nature of his religious inclinations. So Nida's translation becomes the rearticulation of the power of the word.

As it was cited above that the functional definition of meaning "an advance and a deviation from traditional notions of deep structure for Nida's pragmatic interests. Nida's pragmatic concept of deep structure, differentiating from Chomsky superficially, because the pragmatic aspect of meaning is factored into the structure, not at the surface level, but at the base, Nida's base naturally has a dual nature one of which is a core of syntactic structures and the other of which is of universal human experience to accomplish this difficult schema structures. Here, expanding the nature of the core of his theory, including a "universal experience of receiving the message, including a reception component in the base component, will be obvious. Furthermore, Nida argued that the deep structure of the language composed of the sign in context, can be deducted study of language and culture and through exegesis of these signs. Only then can the appropriate response to that structure be determined and universalized. In conclusion, Nida concentrates not formal correspondence, but functional equivalence; not literal meaning but dynamic equivalence; not "what "language communicates, but "how" it communicates. It is a kind of progress anyhow.

Thereby, considering that meaning in terms of its functional and abstracted the concept to the point refined by Nida, following the appropriation of chomsky's model with its concept innate structures of the mind, its "generative" rules of transformation as well as its reduction of surface sign to superficial status is quite natural. Then Nida again, summarizes some of the universals by "backing_transforming," such as subject-predicate constructions, formal distinctions between nouns and verbs, and basic object structures expressed by nouns and events by verb. Hence, Nida compares the theoretical possibilities for diversities of language structures which include remarkably similar kernel structure developed by permutations; and which include a high degree of parallelism between formal classes of words on their simplest structural levels. (Nida, 1964). If so, though Nida's different interest and goals widely from Chomsky, the two reach similar conclusion about the nature of language, positing the existence of deep structures underlying all surface structures.

Methodologically, comparing differences between Nida and Chomsky, Nida tends to backwards form the surface to the original text to its deep structure, to transfer that deep structure to the deep structure of new language, and then to generate a surface structure in the second language from a decoding and recoding process where the original message never changes. In summarize, scientifically and practically more effective to reduce the source text to its structurally simplest and most semantically evident kernels; to transfer the meaning from source language to receptor language on a structurally simple level; to generate the stylistically and semantically equivalent express in the receptor language and to test the translated text with persons representing the intended audience (Nida, 1964).

Although working backwards and reducing texts to simple structural sentences and most evident kernels are not Chomskian procedures but a misappropriation. So "back-transferring", revealing universals of syntax and semantics, arouse doubts about Nida's concept of transformational rules in General.

IV. CONCLUSION

Traveling through literature review about E. A. Nida and Noam Chomsky, the differences and similarities between the two are half done according to their theories of translation. If Chomsky's theoretical base is Platonic, Nida-Protestant.

Concerning the depth of common property, Chomsky viewed that formal properties go much deeper than the particular deep structure of a sentence in any given language and he doesn't think deep structures are universal. But Nida's deep structure, underlying a sentence in two particular languages, appears not to be evident.

Before Chomsky's generative rules, at the heart of man's language facility and a formal device behind all languages, especially correlations between just two languages, haven't shaped initially, Nida derives a transformation procedure based on Chomsky's simplized notion. And it was not the deep phrase structure rules considering real structural diversity and surface different that Chomsky focuses. He zooms primarily the deep structure, transformational rules and surface structure similar across language.

Nida's moving in the direction of a scientific analysis "breaking new ground with new tool" (p.44) reveals his communication of the Christian faith, the discussion of theological motivations, comparing with Chomsky are, on the contrary, evident. Nida just privileges the reponse to the sign which intends that words and symbols are only labels. Whereas, Chomsky shows doubt about Sapir-whorf's approach to linguistic because of too specific to investigate the meaning inherent in the sign separated from cultural context. Nida's concerning is how the sign functions in any given society, which he claims that the "functional definition of meaning" marks an advance. But Nida's pragmatic interest appears to be at least a deviation from more traditional notions of deep structure.

Nada's concept of meaning, the base of which is a dual nature-a core syntactic structures and of universal human experience to expand the nature of the core of his theory to include a universal experience, while Chomsky's concept of deep structure is just adding to it.

The similarities in diversity lie of structures of language. Nida thinks that remarkably similar kernel structures from which all the structures are developed by permutations, replacements, additions and deletions and on their simplest structural levels a high degree of parallelism between formal classes of words (Nida, 1964); Chomsky's theory involved three levels of conceptualization which respectively is a base component made up of "phrase structure rules" that

generate a deep structure, which in turn is changed, via transformational rules, into a surface structure.

Both Chomsky and Nida made metaphysical claims about the object of investigation for their respective theories. Chomsky's linguistics probed structures of the mind and changed the focuses of linguistics in the modern age; Nida's translation theory probed deep structures common to all languages and found a way to transform those entities in differing languages. The two approaches attempt to demonstrate different kinds of objects at the center which implies the existence of universal rules of grammar and universal lexical forms; the other making metaphysical claims about an original divine message.

Nida tends to backwards from the surface to the original text to its deep structure, transfer that deep structure to the deep structure of the new language, and then elicit a surface structure in the second by decoding process without changing the original message. However, Chomsky only suggests the non_ linear transformational rules. So that, it's a distortion for Nida to misuse Chomsky's theory of transformational grammar.

Elsewhere, "faithful" and "free", in tradition, respectively, has served for literal translation privileged form and used to designate those translation privileged content. Nida tends to the latter, which reveals, for proper translation, his theoretical priorities; Chomsky's theory is similarly constructed, making the "logic" of the models similar. But both Nida's and Chomsky's theories are self_reflective, the difference is that chomsky's universal forms exist at a much deeper, abstract level than Nida's kernels….

V. LIMITATIONS

This paper focuses on the "The 'Science' of Translation", not on the field: the north American translation theory of Richards' new criticism and translation, Ezra Pound's theory of luminous details, Frederic Will's paradox of translation; polysystem theory of Itamar Even's intersystem literary relations, and Gideon Toury's target-text theory of translation and Gideon Toury's descriptive translation studies and beyond.

In the future studies, only can we round up all the aspects, we can know more about the theory of translation in the circle of translation. Much work has to be done. Although contemporary translation theory has evolved a long way since its beginnings, it now stands on the threshold of a very exciting new phase, one which can begin to unpack the relations in which meaning is constituted, and thus better inform our postmodern conception of language, literary discourse, and identity. Because we are at the verge of an exciting new phase of research for the field, one that id forcing scholars to combine theories and resources from a variety of disciplines and which is leading to multiple new insights.

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On the Correlation between Emotional Intelligence and Learning Styles: The Case of Iranian Academic EFL Learners

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Abstract—Known as the intelligent use of emotions, EQ has long been scrutinized from a multitude of varied perspectives. Likewise, literature on learning styles also enjoys a sufficient amount of depth and breadth. Yet, the ostensible bonds between these two constructs have rarely been addressed by the research community. Hence, the current study seeks to look into the viable relationship between emotional intelligence and learning styles of freshman Iranian EFL learners. To this end, two questionnaires, i.e. Bar-On's EQ-i (1997) as well as a user-friendly version of learning styles questionnaire developed by Chislett and Chapman (2005) were administered to 132 students (42 males and 90 females). The final analysis of data, implemented mainly through the use of Pearson product moment correlation and t-test, pointed to a positive meaningful relationship between emotional intelligence and learning styles (r = 0.66). Furthermore, in line with the findings, a significant difference was found to be at work with regard to the performance of different genders on Bar-On's EQ-i.

Index Terms—Bar-On's EQ-i, emotional intelligence, learning styles

I. Overview

Once viewed as a unidimensional and crystallized concept (Binet, 1905), intelligence is now being regarded as a multifaceted construct which is prone to enhancement. Actually, it was Howard Gardner who first refuted the basic foundations of the antediluvian conception of intelligence held for decades (Gardner, 1983), and hence devised the ostensibly outlandish neologism *intelligences* as an alternative for the single non-divisible conceptualization of intelligence. Consequent attempts on the part of several illustrious figures, mainly Salovey and Mayer (1990), Goleman (1995) and Bar-On (1997 a/b), contributed to a better establishment of the newly-founded notion of non-crystallized intelligence. The main contribution of the latter group of theoreticians has been the instigation and promulgation of a novel approach to intelligence known as emotional intelligence.

Statement of the Problem and Research Questions

Though literature might be said to be replete with manifold probes into diverse aspects of both EQ and learning styles, it still seems that meager heed has been paid to the viable go-togetherness between these two well-established constructs. Therefore, through a partially full-fledged analysis of the potential interrelatedness of emotional intelligence on the one hand and learning styles on the other, the present study strives to bridge the alleged gap in the literature pertaining to this rather neglected domain of investigation, and by way of doing so the researchers in the current study attempt to come up with a more lucid view of the would-be impacts and implications of learning styles and emotional intelligence in EFL settings. To be able to appropriately approach the above-mentioned problem, the following research questions were posed and investigated in this study:

Q1: Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' emotional intelligence and their learning styles?

Q2: Is there any significant difference between males and females in terms of their emotional intelligence?

Toward a Cogent Delineation of EQ

As early as 1920, Thorndike hypothesized that true intelligence was composed of not only academic elements, but involved emotional and social elements. Thorndike (1950) defined social intelligence as the ability to act wisely in human relations. As a multifaceted construct, emotional intelligence has been approached from a variety of diverse perspectives by its illustrious precursors, and hence a number of varied delineations have been put forth by these forerunners of the field of emotional intelligence, in an attempt to further elucidate what features the so-called emotionally intelligent individuals are supposed to possess. The most original definition of emotional intelligence is the one set forth by Salovey and Mayer (1989/1990) who define it as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p.189).

Goleman (1995, p.34), as the other prominent pioneer in the domain of emotional intelligence maintains, EQ encompasses "abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulses and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to emphasize and to hope." Nonetheless, this definition might appear not to be utterly in tandem with Goleman's later reconceptualization of emotional intelligence as "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships" (1998, p.317).

Though a multitude of other definitions have thus far been proposed for the notion of EQ, it would suffice to wrap up this section with Bar-On's (1997b, p.14) frequently cited elucidation of emotional intelligence as "an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures."

Measures of Emotional Intelligence

The history of theorizing on what the construct of emotional intelligence would look like has always proceeded hand in hand with another line of endeavor aiming at the provision of several operationalized measurement scales approaching the concept of emotional intelligence from a number of different angles. Though literature is replete with several attempts aimed at scrutinizing the construct of emotional intelligence, not all such rough and ready enterprises are worth giving in-depth deliberation in the current study.

Overall, in line with Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000), three branches of emotional intelligence tests exist alternatively being referred to as ability, self-report, and observer or informant rating scales. The sample measures they then put forth as the major archetypes of each scale are: 1) their own renowned test (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 1997/1999) widely known as MEIS (Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale) which is ubiquitously cited as the paramount epitome of ability scales, 2) Bar-On's (1997) EQ-i and Cooper's (1996/1997) EQ-Map which are stated as the principal types of self-report measures, and 3) Boyatzis, Goleman, and Hay/McBer's (1999) Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) that is known as the best example of third group of scales drawing mainly on observer (informant) responses.

As the main EQ scale used in the present study is Bar-On's Emotional Quotient Inventory (widely known as EQ-i), in the ensuing section a laconic account will be provided of a number of elemental features of this typical self-report measure of emotional intelligence, and each of its components will be briefly defined and elucidated.

Bar-On's EQ-i

First designed as an experimental scale for measuring the so-called emotional and social competence in the early 1980s (Bar-On, 1985, 1988), Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) was ultimately disseminated as an invaluable and highly pervasive measure of emotional intelligence in 1997. Though a plethora of EI scales had been publicized and promulgated prior to the appearance of Bar-On's (1997a) seminal work, EQ-i can be considered sui generis in that it is referred to as the primary EI test which is published by a psychological center. Furthermore, the additional factor that differentiates between Bar-On's scale and its other counterparts is the distinct nature of EQ-i which is widely known as a self report measure (Bar-On, 2000).

The self-report test of emotional intelligence designed by Bar-On (1997b), is after submitting a firm measurement of "an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (p.14). Its unabridged version is composed of 133 items normally being allotted something around forty minutes to fulfill and is said to be apposite to the age of seventeen and above. This scale is composed of five sections and fifteen separate subsections as follows:

1. Intrapersonal, consisting of five subcategories of emotional self awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualization, and independence
2. Interpersonal, encompassing the three sub-skills of empathy, interpersonal relationship, and social responsibility
3. Stress management, having as its subparts the two so-called categories of stress tolerance and impulse control
4. Adaptability, comprising the three divisions of problem solving, reality testing, and flexibility
5. General mood, entailing the two subscales of happiness and optimism.

Empirical Research on EQ

As literature on EQ abounds with various probes conducted into diverse facets of EQ gains, even a semi-comprehensive coverage of the studies performed in this regard, might appear to be far from possible. Thus, an attempt is going to be made, in this section, to familiarize the readers with only a few instances of empirical work on this multifaceted construct. Research has revealed that EQ more than IQ determine success in life and education (Goleman, 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Emotional intelligence has been reported to count as the overriding factor contributing to success in a number of varied arenas including work settings (Carmeli, 2003), classroom performance (Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004), Cognitive tasks (Shuttes, Schuetplez, & Malouff, 2001), and Contextual performance (Carmeli, 2003). EI is also said to be a crucial factor in organization change (ferres & Gonnell, 2004; Singh, 2003), leadership (Ashkanasy, 2002; Dearborn, 2002; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Weymes, 2002), management performance (Slaski & Gartwright, 2002), teachers' burnout level (Alavinia & Ahmadzadeh, 2012), and University professors' self-efficacy (Alavinia & Kurosh, 2012) and life satisfaction (Palmer, Donaldson & Stough, 2002).

In a hunt for the would-be interplay between gender and emotional intelligence, Kafetsios (2004) found that females' scores were higher than males in terms of receiving emotions. Elsewhere, Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (1999) suggested

that females have a slight advantage with regard to emotional intelligence. Also, in line with a number of other studies (e.g. Brackett, Mayer & Warner, 2004) females are said to be characterized by higher levels of EI compared to males. Additionally, as research indicates, more emotionally intelligent individuals are liable to be more successful at meeting the demands of stressful situations because they are better to perceive, appraise and regulate their emotions (Salovey, Bedell, Detweiller, & Mayer, 2000). Finally, in their probe into the relationship between EQ, IQ, verbal intelligence, and the academic achievement of EFL students, Fahim and Pishghadam (2007) found that academic achievement of the learners was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence (intrapersonal, stress management, and general mood competencies). Moreover, their upshots revealed that academic achievement did not correlate much with IQ, but it was strongly connected with verbal intelligence which is a sub-section of IQ test.

Learning styles

Some confusion exists about the use of the terms 'learning style' and 'cognitive style' as they are often used interchangeably. There are, however, some differences between the two. While cognitive style theories are not new and quite widely researched, Learning style theories, are new, and are usually considered practical because they are classroom-specific. Ability to learn is one of the most important characteristics of human beings, which differentiates them from other living creatures and renders them social beings. Although learning is defined in several ways, most of the psychologists agree that learning happens as a result of the interaction with the environment and it creates long-term differences in the behaviors (Fidan & Erden, 1991). Each learner has his/her own preferred way of perceiving, organizing, and maintaining the incoming information, and these different manners in which data are processed are generally regarded to be rather distinctive and consistent (Chou & Wang, 2000). Researchers are now of the unanimous view that not all learners learn in the same way (Witkin, 1973; Gregorc, 1979).

Amongst the earliest attempts aimed at delineating the term learning styles, one might refer to the definition set forth by Garger and Guild (1984) where learning style is referred to as the "stable and pervasive characteristics of an individual, expressed through the interaction of one's behavior and personality as one approaches a learning task" (p.11). In a similar vein, Kalsbeek (1989) defines the term as "a person's preferred approach to information processing, idea formation, and decision making; the attitudes and interests that influence what is attended to in a learning situation; and a disposition to seek learning environments compatible with these personal profiles" (p. 32). Furthermore, according to Pham (2000), learning styles are the learners' fixed methods for responding to and working with the existing stimuli in learning circumstances. Carbo (1980) points out that determining the unique learning styles of students and making necessary arrangements to adjust our instruction to such learner differences might help boost the educational accomplishments of our learners.

Visual –Audio and Kinesthetic (VAK) Model

VAK (Visual, Auditory, and Kinesthetic) model is one of most popular models for gauging the learners' different learning styles. Based on this model, all learners draw on one of the three major modalities, i.e. Visual, Auditory, or Kinesthetic, to acquire and learn new information and experiences. The claim set forth by this model is that one or two of these styles might be dominant in a learner, which, in turn, signifies the best way through which a learner takes in the new information by filtering what is to be learned .Thus, Visual, Auditory and Kinesthetic (VAK) model says there are only three types of learning styles that all learner are said to possess. In the ensuing section a brief account is provided of each of these three learning styles.

Visual learner

These learners are distinguished by possessing two sub-channels: Linguistic and Spatial. Visual-linguistic learners like to learn by written language, such as reading and writing tasks. They recall what has been written down, even if they do not read it more than once. They write down directions and pay attention to lectures if they watch them. And visual-spatial learners have problem with written language and are better with charts, and demonstration, videos and visual materials. They easily visualize faces and places by applying imaginations and never get lost in new surroundings. This type of learner learns everything through seeing, and may think in pictures and enjoy diagrams, illustrated books, videos and handouts, and using pictures helps him/her memorize the facts. Such learners tend to describe everything they see in terms of appearances. They are good writers and perform quiet well on written assignments, and are not pleased with lectures. Other features by which these learners are characterized might include their inclination as to taking detailed notes as well as seeing the teacher's body language and facial expression to fully understand the content of a lesson.

Auditory learner

This type of learner learns easily through verbal lessons and anything that allows them to talk out what they are learning. They learn by reading texts aloud, and do better on oral presentations and reports. They interpret the underlying meaning of speech through listening to tone of voice, pitch, speed and other nuances. Further, they prefer directions given orally, and seldom take notes or write things down. They often repeat what has just been said, and, at times, talk to themselves. Finally, written information may have little meaning to them until it is heard.

Kinesthetic learner

This group is mainly marked by two sub-channels: Kinesthetic (having to do with movement) and Tactile (pertaining to the sense of touch). Learners falling within this category are said to learn through moving, doing and touching. Thus, they need to touch, handle, and manipulate materials and objects, especially while they are listening or studying. They

are also good at drawing designs, count on figures, and talk using their hands. Such learners are usually good at sports, mechanics, using appliances and tools. They are often adventurous, like lots of movement and enjoy working with tangible objects, collages and flashcards. Other attributes of these learners are their crave for hands-on approaches and their propensity for moving when they are learning, as well as taking frequent breaks and listening to music while learning. It is additionally claimed that such learners may find it hard to sit still for long periods and may become distracted by their need for activity and exploration.

Empirical Research on Learning Styles

Interestingly enough a high proportion of the studies on learning styles seem to have been conducted in the domain of higher education (e.g. Biggs, 2001; Busato, Prines, Elshout, and Hamaker, 2000; Coffield, Moseley, Hall, & Ecclestone, 2004; Guild, 1994; Hartman, 1995). Although these studies classify different learning types and/or styles in different ways, their aims and approaches are, more or less, similar. Felder (1996) claims that since the instructional approaches around the cycle of learning models are similar, it is not important, which learning styles instrument has been chosen in each investigation. In a study seeking to examine the effect of gender on Japanese students' learning styles, Hatcher (2000) found that sex of learners had a significant effect on the learning style used. Likewise in a subsequent study performed to identify the overriding language learning styles used by fifth and sixth grade students in Taiwan, Hsun (2002) found that female students used learning styles more frequently than male students. Among the various learning style theories available, the delineation put forth by Kolb (1984, p. 41), characterizing the learning styles as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience [and in which] knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience", has been adopted in the current study.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of the current study were a total of 132 freshmen (40 males and 92 females) studying English as a foreign language at a range of different universities, i.e. Urmia state and Azad Universities, Azarabadegan non-profit university (in Urmia) and Naghadeh Azad University. In terms of age merely a slight amount of variation was witnessed, as most of the participants fell within the age range of 19 to 22 years. It is also worth noting that though all the participants were majoring in English language studies, their minors were not the same, and hence they came from one of the three major branches of English studies, that is TEFL, translation, and literature.

B. Instruments

Bar-On's EQ-i

One of the instruments utilized for data collection in the present research was Bar-On's (1997) EQ-i. Though the original version of the test included 133 questions, later revisions applied to the test by Bar-On himself (1997a, 1997b) reduced its size to a considerable degree, so that the modified version of the test comprised only 117 questions. Furthermore, through later amendments, the size of the domestically standardized instrument was reduced through eradicating the questions which had been rendered either irrelevant or inappropriate to Iranian context by Samouei (2003), who first introduced the test for domestic implementation.

Thus, what was utilized as the main source of data collection for the current research was this reduced form which encompassed 90 questions arranged in 15 separate sections, i.e. the so called subscales of Emotional Self-Awareness, Assertiveness, Self-Regard, Self-Actualization, Independence, Empathy, Social Responsibility, Interpersonal Relationship, Reality Testing, Flexibility, Problem Solving, Stress Tolerance, Impulse Control, Optimism, and Happiness. Finally, the test is said to be apt for implementation with only academics (the university students) aging 18 and over, in that the originally piloted population had included simply the undergraduates.

The answers to test questions were to be provided on a Likert Scale with 5 options from strongly agree to strongly disagree. While a greater number of the questions (48 out of 90) were scored in the direct mathematical order from 1 to 5 (with the full score being given to strongly agree and the minimum score being assigned to strongly disagree), the remaining 42 were graded in the reverse order. Owing to the fact that each of the test subscales was composed of six questions, the total score for each subscale equaled thirty. Furthermore, the maximum grade for the entire test was 450.

VAK Learning Styles Scale

The Visual-Auditory-Kinesthetic learning styles model or 'inventory', usually abbreviated to VAK, provides a simple way to explain and understand an individual's learning style. The VAK learning styles model provides a very easy and quick reference inventory for assessing people's preferred learning styles, and the most importantly, for designing learning methods and experiences that match people's preferences. The VAK learning styles self-Assessment questionnaire (Chislett & Chapman, 2005) is a 30-item survey which permits the assignment of a respondent to one of three learning styles: visual, auditory, and kinesthetic learning style. In this survey, thirty different settings are posed and respondents select a solution which is tied to one of the three learning styles. For the thirty items, the learning style most often selected determines the learning style label assigned to that individual. It is possible for a respondent to mark responses tied to two or three learning styles with equal frequency and, hence not be considered to have a single learning style. The average time allotted for the completion of the test is 20–30 minutes. The reliability of the questionnaire estimated via Cronbach's alpha was found to be 0.81.

C. Data Collection and Analysis Procedure

As stated earlier, the present study was carried out in Urmia and Nagadeh Universities. At the outset of the study, the participants were administered both learning styles scale and emotional intelligence test. For the data to be more reliable, the researchers explained the purpose of completing the questionnaires and assured the participants that their data would be kept confidential; besides, the participants' questionnaires were coded numerically and confidentiality and anonymity considerations were observed. EQ questionnaires were first scored based on the guidelines provided by Bar-On (1997), and then the total EQ scores and the scores of EQ's five major subscales were computed. Since there was no need to transform the raw scores into standard ones, the raw scores were used in this study. To determine the relationship between EI and learning styles, students' scores on visual, auditory, and kinesthetic sections were obtained through the use of learning styles questionnaires. To analyze the data, students' responses were converted into numerical scale. To ensure the normality of distribution, descriptive statistics were run on the obtained data. Moreover, to be able to pinpoint the viable relationship between the learners' EI and learning styles, Pearson product moment correlation was also carried out. Finally, to come up with a lucid view as to the viable effect of gender on the learners' performance on Bar-On's EQ-i, use was made of t-test, as well.

III. RESULTS

Table 1 summarizes the descriptive results of the two instruments –EQ and learning style – used in this study, and Table 2 reports on the upshots gained through kolmogorov–smirnow normal distribution test, based on which it was revealed that scores on EQ and learning styles were normally distributed.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EQ AND LEARNING STYLES

		EQ	Learning style
N	Valid	132	132
	Missing	0	0
Mean		59.6742	62.1818
Median		59.0000	62.0000
Mode		58.00	65.00
Std. Deviation		7.19891	11.10039
Variance		51.824	123.219
Minimum		30.00	43.00
Maximum		117.00	64.00

TABLE 2
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

		EQ	Learning style
N		132	132
Normal Parameters[a]	Mean	59.6742	.1281
	Std. Deviation	7.19891	.01004
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.907	1.101
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.383	.177

To investigate the relationship between students' EQ and their learning styles, Pearson product moment correlation was applied, according to which a significant correlation was found between EFL learners' EQ and their learning styles ($r = 0.66$, $p < 0.05$) (Table 3). To explore whether there was a statistically significant gender effect on the learners' performance on EI test, an independent samples t-test analysis was conducted, through which it was indicated that the mean scores of male and female learners varied significantly (Table 5). As Table 4 represents the mean score obtained by females was 89.37, while the one obtained by the males equaled 20.30, depicting that females tend to act better than males in terms of emotional intelligence.

TABLE 3
THE RESULTS OF CORRELATIONS BETWEEN EQ AND VAK

		EQ	VAK
EQ	Pearson Correlation	1	.657[*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.015
	N	132	132
VAK	Pearson Correlation	.657[*]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.015	
	N	132	132
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

TABLE 4
GROUP STATISTICS

EQ	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Female	90	89.3778	8.40570
Male	42	20.3095	.77689 4

TABLE 5
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

EQ	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	.291	.590	-.691	130	.021

IV. DISCUSSION

As stated earlier, the present study intended to investigate the would-be relationship between EFL learners' EI and their learning styles in Urmia and Nagadeh universities. With regard to the first research question of the study, the results revealed that there is a significant positive relationship between EI and learning styles. The size of this correlation indicates that generally high levels of EI are related to high levels of students' learning styles, and if one of the variables increases, the other will increase, as well. This piece of finding conforms to the results of the previous body of research, particularly those conducted by Elias, Tobias, and Friedlander (1999), Goleman, (1995, 1998), Mayer & Salovey (1997), Saklofske, et al. (2003), Saklofske, et al. (2007), and Zins, Travis and Freppon (1997). Yet, it is found to be in sharp contrast with the upshots gained by Johnson (2008) that pointed toward the non-existence of significant relationship between learning styles and emotional intelligence.

The second question of the current study investigated the relationship between EFL university learners' emotional intelligence and their gender. The results gained through the use of independent sample t-test revealed that the learners' scores on EQ scale were highly influenced by their gender, a piece of finding which was in conflict with those reported by Chan (2004), Hopkins and Bilimoria (2008), and Gencer and Cakiroglu (2007), yet, in line with the findings of Harrod and Scheer (2005), and Malterer, Glass, and Newman (2008) who indicated that there were significant differences between emotional intelligence of females and males. There are also a number of other studies which have almost conclusively indicated that individuals' emotional intelligence changes with the gender differences. For instance, Perry, Ball and Stacey (2004) and Day and Carrol (2004) pointed out that females enjoyed a higher level of EI than males. Likewise, Van Rooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran (2005) found that females have significantly higher reported emotional intelligence than males. Perry, et al.'s (2004) investigation on pre-service (student) teachers using the RTS can feature as another case in point, in which the researcher claims that females possess significantly higher emotional intelligence than males. Yet, as many researchers contend (Barchard & Hakstian, 2004; Perry, et al., 2004; Schaie, 2001; Van Rooy et al., 2005), further research is called for to explore the veritable relationship between gender and emotional intelligence.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The current study was, in the first place, targeted toward pinpointing the would-be relationship between emotional intelligence and learning styles among freshman academic EFL learners. As the findings of the study helped reveal, the emotional intelligence of learners was found to be positively correlated with their learning styles, showing that emotional intelligence is liable to play an important role in learners' learning styles. Better put, the conclusion can be that enhancement and development of each of these constructs can lead to the enhancement and development of the other. The second objective of the study was to identify the differences among the emotional intelligence of learners in terms of their gender. As the findings depicted, gender does have a role in determining the individuals' emotional intelligence level (in the present study females turned out to outperform males apropos emotional intelligence).

After all, findings of this study might help researchers, teachers, and policy makers focus more on enhancing EFL learners' learning styles and emotional intelligence. If we assume that it is possible to educate those who are low in emotional competencies to improve their abilities to better recognize their feelings, express them, and regulate them (Mayer & Geher, 1996) and if we hold on to the view that there is a viability for emotional enhancement (e.g. Alavinia, 2011a/b), efficient programs and policies contributing to the betterment of the emotional competencies of our learners are liable to be incorporated into our educational system. Moreover, English instructors are expected to be well familiar with the concept of emotional intelligence, and try to raise their own emotional intelligence as well as that of their learners. Furthermore, being informed about the fact that our learners make use of different learning styles in the process of learning might help sensitize us, as language educators, toward this learner diversity and preference for a particular mode of learning. This awareness is of great importance, because as Riazi and Riasati (2007) note, most teachers are not aware of their students' unique learning styles. This awareness is, in turn, expected to motivate the teachers to change their teaching style to meet each single student's learning style and preferences. The findings can also be helpful to students in that they provide them with critical awareness of their learning styles. Finally, the upshots gained through the present probe can help material and syllabus designers see which activities and approaches are most appropriate for students with different learning styles.

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Some Practical Approaches to Developing Learners' Wisdom, Ability and Quality*

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Abstract—Linguistic competence is closely related to developing learners' wisdom, ability and quality. The major intention of the paper is to arouse awareness of coordinating the development of wisdom, ability and quality. Some approaches are introduced on a tentative basis including wise applications of intelligent skills, linguistic humor, individuality, flexibility, adaption of materials, infiltration techniques, integration of skills, etc.

Index Terms—practical approaches, wisdom, ability, quality

I. INTRODUCTION

Much of our learners' behavior is practically influenced by our classroom teaching, while the way of our English teaching on campus is to a great extent affected by teachers' ideology and methodology. Traditionally-fashioned teaching style is focused on transmission of information and knowledge, on preparations for various examinations, including the national CET-4, CET-6 exams or Practical English Test for Colleges, etc. The ostensible purpose tends to help learners to pass language examinations or accumulate linguistic knowledge. The results of examinations stand out remarkably as a means of evaluating the quality of English teaching and learning. At present, the wide acknowledgement seems that great achievements have been achieved in college English teaching and learning. English has become more popular than ever across the country. More people are quite interested in what is conducive to efficiency and proficiency. On the other hand, some learners are still short of pragmatic communicative competence, and the society is not fully satisfied with some graduates' performance, or with language teaching on campus. For the sake of sustainable development of English teaching and learning in the future, we need to project a forward-looking image of college English teaching and learning, work out some solutions to the existing problems, especially insufficient attention to the coordinated development of learners' wisdom, ability and quality.

II. A BRIEF ANALYSIS OF WISDOM, ABILITY AND QUALITY

Teachers bear the responsibility to provide learners with required amount of scientific knowledge. The teachers of English ought to supply linguistic information, explain rules of grammar, contents of culture, sciences, etc. English knowledge is essential and English knowledge is power. But knowledge is not necessary wisdom, ability or quality. Practically speaking, the majority of the learners in China work hard at accumulation of knowledge. Some may be superior to a few native speakers in the aspect of grammatical knowledge. However, when they meet with pragmatic problems in their virtual work, they often lack wisdom for solution. How to help the majority of learners make wise use of knowledge, to improve their ability and quality remains a tough task for us to fulfill as well as a source of academic research. It is true that different approaches, tentative ideas or practices contribute to the steady development of wisdom, ability and quality.

The first aspect for discussion is to analyze the implications of wisdom in the process of English teaching and learning. In a broad sense, wisdom refers to good judgment, skillful tactics, intelligence or intelligent solutions, etc. Scientists make full use of wisdom to invent a lot of new devices e.g. machines, televisions, telephones, lights, computers, automobile, ships, planes, spaceship, radios, etc., making it possible for human beings to be stronger, faster and higher. In the process of English teaching and learning, wisdom mainly refers to good habitual judgment, learning efficiency, linguistic proficiency, healthy styles, intelligent skills, etc. Therefore, teachers and learners need to cultivate a good sense of learning flexibility, individuality, humor and intelligence. Linguistic flexibility is used to improve personal quality of changing or being changed reasonably to reach the requirements in a new linguistic context. Individuality usually refers to the quality of making someone or something quite different from all other things or people (Li, 2002). It is fundamentally concerned with the autonomous interests of learners. Linguistic humor mainly refers to the quality of making learning English as funny as possible, while learning intelligence refers to the quality of

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making it easier , more efficient and more interesting.

The next analytic aspect is aimed at the improvement of learners' comprehensive abilities. Ability broadly refers to the quality of being able to apply methods to solve problems, or useful skills for people to take part in mental and physical activities. In the process of English teaching and learning, ability includes the quality of being able to listen, to speak, to read, to write, to translate and to communicate. Generally speaking, the Chinese learners have better ability for multiple choice exercises because they are frequently trained time after time. Nevertheless, they often lack a balanced development of various abilities. At the beginning of the open-to-the-outside period, they were instructed to pay more attention to improving their abilities to read and write with less attention to abilities to listen and speak, hence the name of so-called mute English among some college learners. Later, they are obsessed with the improvement of abilities to listen and speak with less attention to the improvement of abilities to read and write. At present, it becomes an urgent task or top priority to find methods of striking a balance in developing the quality of being able to listen, to speak, to read, to write, to translate and to communicate, etc.

The third aspect for inclusion belongs to the improvement of quality. As its name implies, quality often refers to the level and sense of being acknowledged by the society including one's character, personality such as courage, intelligence, loyalty; features of a product such as size, color, feel or weight; the degree of being good or bad; the sense of satisfaction of life and work, etc. The quality needed for English learning covers various elements: political or ideological quality, professional quality, social quality, physical and psychological quality, etc. The ideological quality influences the purpose of learning. Learners with proper ideological quality are full of passion, while those with improper one are likely to be short of enthusiasm. The professional quality is closely related to the ability to learn and work. Learners with essential quality of culture and literacy obtain much enjoyment of learning. Otherwise, they may suffer hardships of learning activities. Social quality requires communicative ability including team-spirit, cooperative skills, job-hunting skills. If learners enjoy proper social quality, they are good at communicating with classmates and teachers, eager to fulfill assignments, brave to accept setbacks and make progress on their own. If learners are weak in some element of social quality, they may suffer autism, individualism, etc. Frankly speaking, it seems that the learners from multi-child families tend to possess such traditional virtues as hardworking, cooperation, etc. whereas the learners from one-child families tend to enjoy easiness, individualism, etc. What's more, physical and psychological health speaks much louder in a smooth learning process. Learners with physical health take more efforts in linguistic activities, learners with mental health are intelligent in solving problems.

III. SOME PRACTICAL APPROACHES TO DEVELOPING LEARNERS' WISDOM, ABILITY AND QUALITY

As we all know, knowledge is one thing, and wisdom is another. Changing knowledge into wisdom requires great efforts and practice. Different persons may have different ways of study, but some interesting approaches sound a bit intelligent to the majority, deserving learner's tentative practice: (1) alliteration: the approach to thinking of an individual sub-word for each letter of a general word, e.g. news=north, east, west, south; laser=light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation; sonar=sound navigation and ranging; radar=radio detecting and ranging. (2) separation: the approach to finding a separated word for a unit, e.g. bridegroom=bride + groom; skyscraper=sky + scraper; skateboard= skate board. (3) affixation: the approach to analyzing various affixes: motel= motor hotel; gasometer=gasoline meter; autographometer=automated graphology meter; transport=trans + port; hospitalize=hospital + ize, preschool= pre + school, etc.

Linguistic humor sounds intelligent in certain contexts, too. Some learners may find that English proverbs and riddles bring along with them a certain degree of humor and interest. For instance, when learners talk about the following expressions: timetable; vegetables; comb or saw; door bell; clock or watch; the hands of a clock; river, they may enjoy a sense of humor in corresponding riddles: What table has no legs? What tables can be seen in the fields? What has teeth but never uses them for eating? What never asks questions but gets a lot of answers? What walks all the time but never leaves its place? What hands never hold anything? What has a mouth, but never speaks; what has a bed but never sleeps in it? On another occasion when learners discuss the proverb "An optimist sees an opportunity in every calamity; a pessimist sees a calamity in every opportunity" it is likely to produce a sense of humor and to make it meaningful to understand such new words as optimist, pessimist, calamity, opportunity.

Individuality and flexibility may also combine to be intelligent learning approaches. Individuality usually involves the approach to automatically directing, managing, evaluating and redirecting learning processes, whereas flexibility reflects the approach to changing or being changed properly. Linguistic autonomy is often required in evaluating, selecting and adapting learning materials, and frequently based on autonomous principles, objectives, procedures, specification, including pre-use evaluation, whilst-use evaluation and post-use evaluation. The core of the aspect is to examine how well an individual method or a given material matches the needs of a linguistic program and how effectively and efficiently it can realize the individual objectives. The unique feature of individuality helps arouses learners' curiosity, interest and attention to variety, novelty, appealing designs, etc. making linguistic activity so friendly to learners that they feel relaxed and confident .Individuality accommodates different attitudinal and motivational backgrounds as much as possible, catering for a wide range of learning styles so that the majority can benefit a lot.

Three levels are essential in learners' flexible adaption of linguistic materials. The first level, i.e. macro adaption is ideally executed before a program begins. After comparing the content and the requirements of a program, learners may

omit or delete certain units and supplement novel, practical contents on their own. Macro adaption is very important because it helps learners to avoid waste of energy or time. The second level, unit adaption, includes reordering activities, combining some activities, removal of toxic styles or activities, rewriting or supplementing assignments, etc. It helps individuals to fulfill the aims of a unit, making individual learning become smooth and cohesive. The third level, specific adaption or micro adaption, involves adapting a certain part of a given content. Learners may rewrite a sentence, a paragraph or part of a passage. By means of various levels of adaption, learners have more chances to express various ideas in their own styles.

Healthy styles do matter in ones' life and study. According to some experts, one's life expectancy is determined by various elements: genetic element for about 15%, living condition for about 10%, medical level in the community for about 8%,natural environment for about 7%, individual life style for about 60%.They accept the concept that a life style makes a big difference of one's life expectancy. Similarly, a learning style tends to make a big difference in one's linguistic achievements.

All the human resources are required to be involved in global arrangements at full stages of development of various linguistic skills in all activities, e.g. exercises, quizzes, tests, exams, etc. Any degree of negligence in one aspect may influence the overall linguistic development. Holistic management infiltrates in linguistic comparison. For example, when learners express the idea "People ought to be informed of full information as to prices, quantity, quality and relative particulars of the product", they need to analyze and compare different versions for various applications in different contexts: "People ought to have access to full information as to prices, quantity, quality and relative particulars of the product. People ought to be supplied with full information as to prices, quantity, quality and relative particulars of the product. Full information as to prices, quantity, quality and relative particulars of the product ought to be provided for people. Businessmen ought to inform people of full information as to prices, quantity, quality and relative particulars of the product." With comparative skills, learners are able to gradually analyze and apply various structures in reading, writing, translation, etc.

Authentic and communicative approach plays an important role in improving learners' competence. Authenticity relies on a great variety of resources such as newspapers, photographs, advertisements, radio and television programs, computerized programs, network programs, audio cassettes, videos, CD-ROMs, electronic dictionaries, disks, grammar books, workbooks, photocopied materials, flashcards, reference materials, etc. Authentic materials are superior to fixed textbooks, in that they improve learners' ability in the unconscious process of routinely reading what is transmitted on Internet, radio, TV or what is printed in newspapers, which is helpful to update learners' knowledge of new expressions, e.g. affordable houses, financial crises, inflation phenomenon, etc. hence the improvement of their reading and listening abilities. In the meantime, authenticity is closely associated with communicative approach, because communicative skills are improved in a real social environment such as job-hunting, debates, etc. By means of email letters, qq. talks, micro-blogs, negotiations, dialogues, discussions, seminars, lectures, etc, learners have practical opportunities to improve communicative competence. Through notes, advertisements, letters, essays, brochures, credentials, resumes, introductions, handbooks, manuals, etc. they are sure to make authentic progress in writing and translation. For instance, the writing item in PRETCO on December 18, 2011, mainly tests learners' ability to complete a telephone message: "Mr. Peter Margin will fly to New York next Monday. He won't be able to meet you next week. So he hopes that he can meet you at 9:30 this Friday morning and discuss with you the cooperation between the two companies. Will you be free at that time? Please call him back after reading the message." Authentically, the assignment requires that learners listen to the telephone message, translate or organize the message before writing, keep authentic notes side by side.

Most important of all, the approach to improving learners' quality plays a more decisive role than those to developing wisdom and ability. Wisdom may be like learners' wings and useful weapons, ability may be like their physical strength, but quality is like human essence of life. Knowledge is not completely wisdom, wisdom is not fully ability, and ability is not necessary quality. But quality includes knowledge, wisdom, ability, etc. It serves as the direction as well as the life of learning.

Westerners usually resort to religions for ideology. In China, the approach of ideological infiltration is recommended for educational functions .Teachers can connect ideological work with every aspect of linguistic activities .For instance, when learners translate the sentence 'Some regions suffer such disasters as human wars, carbon dioxide emissions, sandstorm, earthquakes, tsunamis, floods, droughts, etc.' they are required to think about some disadvantages of human conflicts, natural disasters, analyze the cause and potential solutions, introduce the importance of harmony, cooperation, mutual respect and the like. Meanwhile, they are required to make use of the example to improve linguistic quality by considering different versions with the similar implication, e.g. "Some regions are affected by such disasters as human wars, carbon dioxide emissions, sandstorm, earthquakes, tsunamis, floods, droughts, etc. Such disasters as human wars, carbon dioxide emissions, sandstorm, earthquakes, tsunamis, floods, droughts, etc. affect some regions . Such disasters as human wars, carbon dioxide emissions, sandstorm, earthquakes, tsunamis, floods, droughts, etc. add to the sufferings in some regions. Such disasters as human wars, carbon dioxide emissions, sandstorm, earthquakes, tsunamis, floods, droughts, etc. enter into the negative existence of some regions. There are such disasters as human wars, carbon dioxide emissions, sandstorm, earthquakes, tsunamis, floods, droughts, etc. which affect the economic development in some regions." Teachers can make use of the case to introduce the material for energy and resource conservation in a hotel: 'We are committed to energy and resource conservation. Energy conservation helps reduce the effects of global

warming, acid rain and smog, and protects our natural resources. Water conservation is a vital concern as well. Our standard is to change your bed linen every third day and at check-out. If you would like your sheets changed during your stay, we will gladly accommodate you. Just place this card on you pillow or call Housekeeping. In addition to the above, we've also pioneered recycling programs and installed water saving device and energy saving lighting throughout the Hotel.' Like the Chinese medicine, the approach of ideological infiltration in the linguistic activity gradually produces positive effects on learners' viewpoint of life.

Ideological quality determines the proper direction of life and learning, whereas the improvement of professional quality is like improving learners' skill to drive a car. Learners need to infiltrate knowledge of a specialty into their linguistic activities, e.g. the knowledge of architecture, textile, electronics, mechanics, financial management, etc. Linguistic work of planning professional activities is basically mental and requires thinking things through logically. Learners ought to think before acting and act in light of professional knowledge rather than linguistic guesses. Effective planning helps learners adapt to change by identifying opportunities and avoiding problems and sets the direction for teamwork.

It is recommended that learners go outside campuses to be social and sociable. Being social implies that learners accumulate the knowledge of life and work in society, cultivate the ability to solve authentic problems related to work or life. Language should be learned according to language use in real life so that learners are able to develop communicative competence, which is the ability to use language appropriately in social situations. For instance, learners can develop the ability to write notices by imitating the real one offered by the Bureau of Shanghai World Expo Coordination in 2010:

1. China Pavilion operating hours: 9:00-17:00,last entry:16:00.The Expo Bureau reserves the right to reschedule the operating hours of the pavilion and to limit admission on a temporary base.

2. Each ticket allows admission of one person (single entry) on the designated date and time slot.

3. Non-refundable unless otherwise stated by the Expo Bureau.

4. Please maintain the ticket properly. Any improper acts, such as bending, moistening or exposing to strong magnetic forces , should be avoided.

5. No animals or any other items prohibited by the Expo Bureau are allowed in the pavilion.

6. No re-entry once the ticket is marked or punched.

7. Please keep the ticket for further check or other uses.

8. Please observe the regulations by the Expo Bureau and follow the instruction of staff on-site.

9. Hotline: +86-21-20202010-1111

There are many situations in which learners need to be sociable in the community. If they want to find a job, they need to communicate with the officer in human resource departments. Before they sign a contract with a businessman, they want to negotiate the deal. When they plan to organize a club, they persuade potential members to join the club. In order to improve communicative competence, learners need to construct a series of activities that use a variety of linguistic skills. If learners are able to negotiate with businessmen, they need to practice writing a contract. If they are able to understand a dialogue about buying things in a shop, they can use the situation as a model for practicing their speaking skills. If they are able to read a brochure, they are encouraged to write an introduction. The realistic communicative use of language encourages learners to improve their social quality.

As many factors enter into learners' development of mental and physical quality, it is frequently suggested that learners focus on such traditional virtues as health, honesty, and hardworking. For instance, when they learn the poem 'Wish You Good Health: Early to bed, Early to rise, Makes a man healthy, Wealthy and wise. Eat slow and live a long life. Eat at pleasure, drink by measure. Fear kills more than illness. Folly is an incurable disease.' they are guided to cultivate a healthy life style. If learners suffer setbacks in study, teachers ought to encourage them to improve their psychological quality, or they are encouraged to overcome difficulties by themselves.

Nowadays, there is a negative tendency that a few learners resort exclusively to Internet for information. They tend to download everything from networks, e.g. a paper, a letter, a resume, a story, etc. hence an epidemic of so-called plagiarism on campus. In order to get rid of the negative effects of Internet, two ways of integrating skills are promoted: simple integration, by which a receptive language skill serves as a model for a productive language skill, and complex integration, which is a combination of activities involving different skills and thematically linked. More practices of interactive skills are introduced in the classroom: dictations, debates, contests, etc. Dictations make learners convert the spoken words accurately into written language. Debates and contests make learners listen, speak, sometimes write down and read pieces of messages. These communicative activities play a role in enlarging learners' range of language production, cultivating their hardworking and honesty.

IV. CONCLUSION

The ultimate goal of foreign language teaching and learning is to enable learners to independently use the language in their routine work or daily life. Learners ought to be supplied with the language that will be used in the real world. But a gap still exists between the use of language in real life and the traditional pedagogy on campus. In virtual life, language is often used to perform communicative functions, whereas in traditional classroom pedagogy, the focus is on linguistic form rather than on communicative functions. Language is always used in a certain context, while traditional pedagogy

tends to isolate language from its context. One possible solution to narrow the gap is to develop learners' competence, which includes both the knowledge about the language and the knowledge about how to use the language appropriately in certain contexts.

The development of competence is closely related to wisdom, ability and quality. Wisdom is like our brain, it improves with the use of several intelligent methods, e.g. alliteration, separation, affixation; a sense of humor, e.g. proverbs and riddles; individuality and flexibility, e.g. adaption of learning materials, so on and forth. Different persons may have different levels of understanding, yet the development of learners' ability to read, to write, to listen, to speak, to translate requires several practical approaches, e.g. useful techniques of comparison, form of variety, balance of multiple skills, etc. Most importantly, we regard the improvement of learners' quality as the core of our task. Quality serves as our top priority, the direction as well as the life of all the activities in ELT. All of us need to connect ideological work with every aspect of our activities, through gradual infiltration. Integrating linguistic skills are of use for quality: simple integration, by which a receptive language skill serves as a model for a productive language skill, and complex integration, which is a combination of activities involving different skills and thematically linked.

Wisdom, ability and quality are interdependent. Wisdom without ability and quality is no better than foolishness. Ability without wisdom and quality is nothing but bluntness. Quality without wisdom and ability is meaninglessly out of function. Wisdom is like our money in a bank, ability is like our use of the money in the bank, and quality is like the proper use of the money in the bank. Some persons may possess the wisdom and ability to speak and write. Others may have the wisdom and ability to read and write, or enjoy a certain degree of quality. How to make the three elements coordinately develop is a really tough topic, which is beyond the scope of a single passage. Several practical approaches to developing wisdom, ability, quality require authentic practice, and our major intention is to arouse much awareness of the topic ,which may deserve further research in the future.

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The Relationship between Grammatical Knowledge and the Ability to Guess Word Meaning: The Case of Iranian EFL Learners with Upper Intermediate Level of Proficiency

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Abstract—**The present study provided some empirical data to examine the contribution of grammatical knowledge to getting the meaning of unknown words. The researcher's aim was to see if grammatical knowledge played any significant role in word guessing. For this purpose, thirty participants took part in this study. To evaluate their knowledge of grammar a sixty- item test of Nelson was given to them. Then a forty-five item test on vocabulary was administered to see how grammar knowledge can affect their ability in guessing. The findings indicated that grammar knowledge was a key factor in deciphering the meanings of unknown words. It was also shown that the more comprehensive the grammar knowledge was, the higher the learners' proficiency level in guessing words would be. Therefore, instruction of grammatical structures in L2 contexts is recommended.**

Index Terms—**grammatical knowledge, word meaning, EFL learners, vocabulary learning**

I. OVERVIEW

The ability to decipher the meaning of the text (both written and spoken) is one of the most important skills required of people in second and foreign language settings. Today we face lots of input (written and spoken) in our daily life. A great amount of this input is unknown to us; therefore, we need to guess. Any understanding of reading texts and knowing the utterances require close attention to a number of factors, one fundamental factor of which is the knowledge of grammar (Nassaji, 2004).

Knowing words is the key to understanding as well as being understood, and the bulk of learning a new language consists of learning new words. Since we are faced with lots of new vocabulary items in our reading and listening, one helpful technique is to guess the meaning of unknown words. In many cases this attempt fails because of the lack of our knowledge regarding the grammatical structure of the sentences (Anderson, 1991).

To illustrate how learners deal with unknown words, Read (2000) refers to initial evaluation of the unknown word in terms of its contribution to the general understanding of the texts. Learners normally evaluate the contribution of the unknown words to their general understanding. If an unknown word is not regarded as exerting a major influence on comprehension, it is normally ignored; on the other hand, if it is judged to greatly contribute to determining the meaning, a variety of strategies are used to disambiguate it. Most often learners tend to infer the meaning of unknown words from context. As Read (2000) suggests, this is considered desirable on the grounds that "it involves deeper processing that is likely to contribute to better comprehension of the text as a whole and may result in some learning of the lexical item that would not otherwise occur" (p. 53).

Learning to read in a second language is one of the most valuable skills L2 learners should develop for social and academic purposes. This makes reading an active process and a demanding skill as readers are required to use the background knowledge, the grammatical knowledge, the situational context and the contextual clues to construct an interpretation of the meaning of a text (Brantmerier, 2003b; Pritchard, 1990). As such a growing body of research on reading has focused on how readers:

a) Utilize background knowledge to construct a model of text (e.g., Brantmerier, 2003b; Johnson, 1982; McNamara et al., 1996; Pritchard, 1990);

b) Use L2 grammatical knowledge to understand text (e.g., Alderson & Urquhart, 1984; Anderson, 1984; Brantmerier, 2003b; Hammandou –Sullivan, 1991) and

c) Employ strategies to comprehend texts (e.g., Frantzen, 2003; Laufer, 1997; Young & Oxford, 1997).

The influence of background knowledge on reading comprehension has been investigated extensively. Differences in prior knowledge affect the usefulness of different resources available to learners resulting in degrees of learning. The facilitating effect of background knowledge on reading comprehension has been demonstrated in some ways.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Words are the basic units of the language without them one cannot express ideas effectively. Having a limited vocabulary is also a barrier that prevents students from learning a foreign/second language. If learners do not know how to expand their vocabulary, they gradually lose interest in learning.

Research has shown that intermediate and advanced EFL learners guess their vocabulary to a great extent through adjacent words and grammatical structure of the sentence. Readers' vocabulary knowledge is indeed an essential prerequisite for inferencing (Barnett, 1989; Huckin & Coady, 1999; Kelly, 1990). When readers come across unknown words they may be unable to make use of available contextual clues due to the unknown nature of the words that may be used to disambiguate an unknown word. Thus, usable context is affected by the proportion of known to unknown words; when there exists a large proportion of unknown to known words, learners may be unable or reluctant to use contextual clues for inferencing word meaning.

Grammar knowledge has a significant impact on inferencing. The role of grammar in L2 learning and processing has been well acknowledged (Haastrup, 1991; Kelly, 1990; Paribakht, 2004; Paribakht & Weshe, 1999). However, as Paribakht (2004) mentions, "it is far from clean how grammatical knowledge can assist learners in their L2 lexical processing and subsequent vocabulary acquisition" (p. 149). There are only few studies indicating that grammar knowledge is involved in L2 lexical processing (e.g., Paribakht, 2004; Paribakht & Weshe, 1999). Concurring the view that grammar knowledge influences inferencing, Haastrup (1991) notes that "lexical inferencing involves making informed guesses as to the meaning of a word in light of all available linguistic cues in combination with the learners' general knowledge of the world, her awareness of the context and her relevant linguistic knowledge" (p. 40).

Lexical inferencing is the most frequently used strategy by EFL learners (Kaivanpanah, 2004; Oxford, 1990; Paribkht, 2004). Consequently, although an in-depth understanding of factors influencing inferencing may not only help us develop insights into the nature of comprehension processes, it may, as Paribakht (2004) suggests "shed some lights on the role knowledge of grammar may play in lexical processing' (p. 150). In this area, the main focus of this research would be whether grammatical knowledge has any impact on guessing words. Unfortunately, grammar teaching has always been one of the most controversial and least understood aspects of language teaching. Few teachers remain indifferent to grammar and many teachers have been obsessed by it.

Therefore, to contribute to the developing literature in the field, this research aimed at investigating the relationship between grammatical knowledge and the ability to guess word meaning among Iranian EFL learners with upper intermediate level of proficiency.

III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

A number of studies including Ellis (2008), Lantolf and Johnson (2007), Paribakht (2004), Kaivanpanah (2004), Nassaji (2004), Frantzen (2003), Brantmerier (2003a), Schmidt (2001), Gass (1988), and Long (1996) have been conducted so far around the world to see whether relationship between grammatical knowledge and the ability to guess word meaning among Iranian EFL learners with upper intermediate level of proficiency.

The review of previous studies suggests that few studies for this case has been conducted in the context of Iran. Therefore, the present study aimed at revealing some common barriers that hinder vocabulary learning among Iranian students and also determining the impact of grammar knowledge on the ability of guessing word meaning among Iranian EFL learners with upper intermediate level of proficiency.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTION

To achieve the goals of this study, the following question was addressed:
Is there any meaningful relationship between the knowledge of grammar and the ability to guess word meaning?

V. RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

To investigate the above research questions of the present study, the following null hypothesis is addressed:
H_{01}: *There is no relationship between grammar knowledge and the ability to guess word meaning.*

VI. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

When foreign language learners are confronted with an unfamiliar word through intensive or extensive L2 reading, they must decide how to handle the word. This can be accomplished in a variety of ways, which include ignoring the word, checking a dictionary for the word's definition, and attempting to infer the meaning. Specifically, this will focus on inferencing strategies in L2 reading. More specifically, it will identify different inferencing strategies, how effective these inferencing strategies are, what factors can influence the success of inferencing, and what this means for teaching inferencing strategies in the L2 classroom. Almost all literature on inferencing strategies distinguishes between strategies centered on the unfamiliar word itself and strategies that are contextually based.

The phrase global strategies were used to describe the contextually based inferencing strategies. However, these terms only represent the broadest definition of inferencing strategies. From their study on the role of linguistic

knowledge, Kaivanpanah (2004) identified seven different inferencing strategies. The first strategy they found was sentence level grammatical knowledge, which involves looking for relationships between words to determine meaning. This strategy would fall under Hamada's idea of local strategies, where the focus is more on the word than contextual clues within the text.

According to Eliss (1991), the main reason for believing that lexical knowledge can help grammar acquisition is that knowledge of the words in a text permits learners to understand the meaning of the discourse which is in turn allows them to understand the grammatical patterning.

Among the factors the learners use in their guessing, grammatical knowledge is a vital one. A factor which has been less focused in the literature. When we go through textbooks we see a great number of them lack enough grammar practices that is due to the fact that is believed grammar is finite and it is not necessary to take it into our syllabus.

This study can probably establish a good relationship between the level of grammar knowledge and its role on word guessing so we see that knowledge of grammar is essential if the learners are supposed to read widely in the life.

VII. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A multiple-choice proficiency test, (i. e., OPT), was administered. Thirty female students out of fifty were chosen from among EFL learners in Saee Institute in Isfahan in order to select a homogenous group with upper intermediate level of proficiency. This test consists of 60 multiple-choice items (OPT, 2005). It includes three different sections 20 grammar items, 20 reading items, and 20 vocabulary items.

B. Materials

In the present study, the materials were composed of three types of tests based on which the required data was collected.

1. Vocabulary test

The vocabulary test was an essay-type test which entailed one hundred and fifty words randomly chosen from Nelson tests. The words belonged to all parts of speech and were selected in a way that the students had not seen before. The words were then listed and the participants were asked to write a definition, a synonym, or an opposite for each in either English or Persian.

2. Grammar Test

The grammar test was a multiple choice test composed of sixty grammatical items chosen from Nelson tests as a source of data. The items belonged to different grammatical structures including tenses, conditional sentences and so on.

3. Unknown Words in Context

Out of one hundred and fifty words given to students to write their meanings, there were about seventy words for which none of the participants could suggest any meaning. Therefore, from these unknown words, forty five words were randomly chosen based on which another test was prepared. Actually, these words were contextualized through providing grammatical contexts. The purpose here was to see how grammatical knowledge of the learners could affect their ability to guess the words they previously could not define.

C. Procedure

In order to collect data for this study several steps were taken. First, a multiple-choice proficiency test, (i.e., OPT), was administered. Thirty female students out of fifty were chosen from among EFL learners in Saee Institute in Isfahan in order to select a homogenous group with upper intermediate level of proficiency.

In the next step, in order to fulfill the purposes of the study, three tests were prepared and conducted in a one week period. The first one was a one hundred and fifty word test. This test was in the format of an essay- type test. There were words with enough space provided. The students were asked to write the Persian equivalents, synonyms or opposites to indicate that they knew the meanings of the words. The time allocated for this exam was forty minutes. The aim of this exam was to extract the words which were unknown to all participants. After the exam, those correctly answered words were ticked. Since the unknown words were needed, a search was made for those words which nobody could answer. Then, seventy words were found as unknown to all participants. These words were listed and two days later, another test was conducted under the supervision of the researcher. It was a grammar test in a multiple choice format with the purpose of evaluating the students` knowledge of grammar. To have a valid test, a test from Nelson was used. This test which had sixty items included varied grammatical structures as well as tenses, parts of speech, complex sentences, conditional and many more. The time allocation for this second test was thirty minutes.

Since the focus was to see if those students with a better knowledge of grammar could guess those words they had been unable to guess in a context free situation, the next step was to contextualize those words unknown to all participants. Forty five words from those eighty unknown words were selected randomly and each word was inserted in a distinct grammatical structure with the focused words underlined asking students to write the Persian equivalents, synonyms or opposites in the spaces provided. This test was also developed in an essay type and its allocated time was thirty minutes.

VIII. RESULTS

For the purpose of data analysis, the descriptive accounts concerning the basic source of examined data was first provided through which one can have an overview of the learners' overall performance on both grammar and vocabulary tests. The scores were computed out of 60 for the grammar and 45 for the vocabulary test.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY SCORES

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Grammar Test	30	40	56	46.26	4.16
Vocabulary Test	30	30	42	35.00	3.0

Accordingly, the performance of the learners in grammar was better than that of vocabulary with the former favoring a higher mean value of 46.26. Besides, the standard deviation values highlight the extent of variation that is higher for the grammar scores (4.16) and lower for the vocabulary scores (3.0). In other words, despite the scores variation on the grammar test, the learners' performance on the vocabulary test has been almost similar with the scores piled up around the mean. To examine the extent of correlation between the two sets of grammar and vocabulary data, it is primarily needed to ensure the existence of a linear correlation between the two variables. To this end, the following scatter plot was provided.
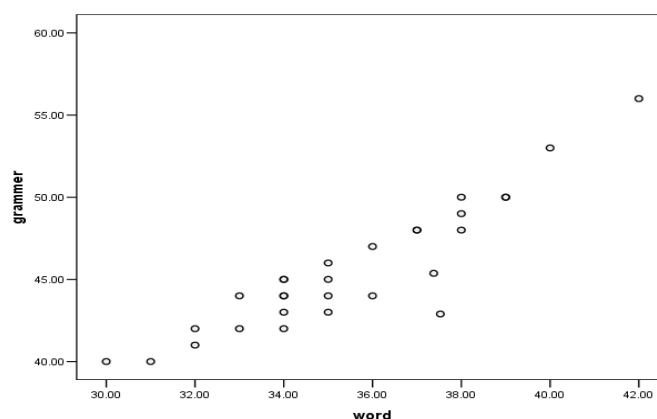

Figure 4.1. The Scatter Plot of Grammar and Vocabulary Scores

There appears to be a positive linear correlation between the two variables in a way that the more one knows grammar, the more successful his/ her vocabulary guessing will be.

Following the above graphic representation, the relationship between grammar knowledge and vocabulary guessing performance was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

TABLE 4.2
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY SCORES

		Grammar	Vocabulary
Grammar	Pearson Correlation	1	.621**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	30	30
Vocabulary	Pearson Correlation	.621**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	30	30

Accordingly, there was an almost strong, positive correlation between the two variables [r= .62, n= 30, p< .05], with high levels of grammar knowledge associated with higher levels of success in guessing the meaning of vocabulary items, leading to rejection of the null hypothesis.

The following graph clearly suggests a detailed account of such differences in the participants' grammar and vocabulary performances. Clearly, lower levels of grammar knowledge have resulted in lower levels of proficiency in guessing meanings. At the same time, higher levels of grammar have ended in more successful vocabulary guesses.
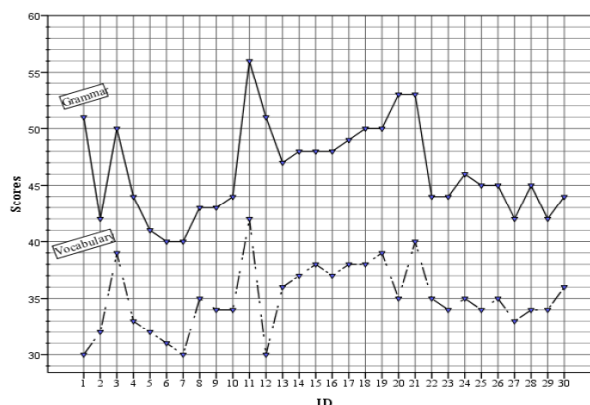
Figure 4.2. Individual Grammar and Vocabulary Scores

Meanwhile, the overall difference between the mean scores of these two sets of accounts is depicted through the higher position of grammar line in comparison with the vocabulary line.

As it was seen through analysis done using different statistical measures, the null hypothesis of the study which stated that:

1: There is no relation between grammar knowledge and the ability to guess word meaning can safely be rejected. Put it another way, it can be said that:

2: Apparently there is relation between grammar knowledge and the ability to guess word meaning.

IX. DISCUSSION

The study described in this paper set out to answer one question regarding whether there is any relationship between grammar knowledge and the ability to guess word meaning.

Concerning the research question, the findings displayed that the knowledge of grammar improves the ability to guess word meaning. This kind of knowledge helps not only vocabulary acquisition but also vocabulary guessing. As learners encountered new contexts, a large number of newly met words appear. Different methods are taken into account to succeed in getting their meanings. Unfortunately, the importance of grammar in L2 teaching and learning has been ignored for many reasons. The fact shows that grammar can help learners in many aspects because it serves as a tool to self-correct and self-edit the utterances we produce or receive in our daily life. Grammar in its broadest sense means knowledge of vocabulary formation and knowledge of sentence formation.

The findings of the study in hand are in line with the findings of other scholars doing research in this are including Parel (2004) also found that high school beginning-level ESL learners' morphological knowledge led to successful meaning-inference and even compensated for their limited vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension.

Other scholars (Nassaji, 2006; Paribakht & Wesche, 1999), believe lexical inferencing has been found to be widely used by L2 learners when dealing with unknown words and it has been closely associated with incidental vocabulary learning. For Paribakht and Wesche (1999), much lexical development in both L1 and L2 appears to occur as learners attempt to comprehend new words they hear or read in context.

Some professionals active in the field under study believe that Grammar knowledge has a significant impact on inferencing. The role of grammar in L2 learning and processing is well acknowledged (Haastrup, 1991; Kelly, 1990; Paribakht, 2004; Paribakht & Weshe; 1999). These studies are also in line the findings presented in the reference section.

Also other figures active in presenting theories in EFL/ ESL also believe lexical inferencing is the most frequently used strategy by EFL learners (Kaivanpanah, 2004; Oxford, 1990; Paribkht, 2004). Consequently an in-depth understanding of factors influencing inferencing may not only help us develop insights into the nature of comprehension processes, it may, as Paribakht (2004) suggests, "shed some lights on the role knowledge of grammar may play in lexical processing" (p. 150).

Again as it can be inferred from the very brief evidence provided that grammar knowledge can make significant difference in guessing word meaning.

To sum up, knowledge of grammar has proved a vital effect in guessing meaning. It means that grammar is a very important factor in deciphering the meanings of unknown words in a text. Moreover, the more comprehensive the grammar knowledge is, the higher the learners' proficiency level in guessing words will be. Therefore, it appears useful to put more focus on grammar teaching in the pedagogical settings so that it enhances language learning in all aspects.

X. CONCLUSION

In the discussion about the role and importance of word meaning guessing in second language instruction, the knowledge sources L2 learners draw upon have not been addressed properly. The present study was an attempt to

remedy this dearth of research and offer insights into the way grammar knowledge influences word meaning guessing. It is of utmost importance that language teachers spend more class time on familiarizing learners with grammatical constructions and text structure through explicit and implicit grammar instruction. Word meaning guessing is promoted on the assumption that there are available clues in the context to help learners infer the meaning of unknown words. If the context does not provide proper clues for word meaning guessing, teacher should motivate students to use external clues to infer. To get a better skill at word meaning guessing, one useful practice is to teach learners to check the accuracy of their guessing in a dictionary. The analysis of errors learners make while guessing meaning may shed some lights on how readers process texts and what can be done to assist them.

We can conclude that guessing the meaning of words and structures is a skill which needs some practice and knowledge. Our word meaning guessing is influenced by some factors including context clues and co-text clues. We need both clues at our disposal to get the unknown words across. One fundamental factor is the knowledge of grammar and structure of the sentences. This kind of knowledge whether acquired implicitly or explicitly, is essential for all aspects of language learning especially for guessing the components of a larger block.

XI. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The importance of vocabulary learning is obvious to almost all educationalists and learners. This is the first thing which a foreign learner encounters while entering the class. They have to deal with words in many different ways. Also, they have to memorize the words for their communication. But the importance of grammar in a foreign setting has been overlooked by many experts and learners. They do not know the value of grammar and its role in learning a foreign language. Perhaps, this is the case because of the way grammar is taught. Instead of throwing grammar away from our books and our syllabus, we as teachers and scholars should find some new methods and ways to teach grammar in a fun and lively manner.

Teaching grammar is said to be boring because I think this teaching does not aim at an communicative goal. Grammar is a tool like words for communication. To have a better command on our communication with other speakers we must develop not only our word power but also our grammar power. This grammar gives us chances to use words effectively and efficiently in our speech and our writing.

As was mentioned before, grammar is a sub skill which can have vital impact on other skills. Language without grammar is a list of words. Words by themselves are not enough communicative to transfer meanings and messages. My final word is that pedagogical grammar is necessary and should be an essential part of our syllabus.

XII. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

In the course of this study, there were several sources of limitation which exerted influence in a way to delimit the progressive nature of the findings.

For one thing, lack of a rich literature in dealing with the same subject at stake was one of the major shortcomings in this field. In other words, there was a lack of comprehensive helpful studies on investigating the relationship between grammatical knowledge and the ability to guess word meaning among Iranian EFL learners.

A second limitation of this study directly goes to the accessibility issue in terms of the participants. It appeared really difficult to find the appropriate number of students to have a random selection out of this larger group. If the sample were larger, the generalizability of findings would be in a better position. Due to this fact, a word of caution should be taken in to account in generalizing the results.

Finally, evaluation of grammatical and meaning guessing skills is not free of certain limitations.

XIII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Based on the present findings it is understood that grammar has a key factor in learning a foreign language. It helps learners to acquire an ability to guess the meanings of unknown words. Within a context there are so many factors which can help our success in guessing meaning. Other researchers should take a step to investigate other elements which can have an effect on word knowledge. We understand that grammar knowledge leads to vocabulary acquisition. A research should be done to see if vocabulary learning leads to grammar acquisition or not. SLA researchers should take this topic into their consideration and work on such an area. Therefore, further work on developing tests of these two knowledge types is still waiting to be addressed.

APPENDIX A VOCABULARY LIST

1. private	2. someone else	3. rent	4. appointment
5. surface	6. ask for	7. turn up.	8. cost
9. record	10. earning	11. popular	12. mistake
13. occur	14. way	15. race	16. satisfactory
17. forecast	18. go over	19. notice	20. chance
21. foreign	22. signature	23. make up	24. order

25. presently	26. intend	27. advertise	28. apply
29. grateful	30. crust	31. afraid	32. turn up
33. take off	34. beat	35. floor	36. stay
37. beach	38. disappointed	39. boring	40. expect
41. grow up	42. reach	43. wear	45. fare
46. prevent	47. strange	48. notice	49. trouble
50. amazed	51. excited	52. look up	53. carry on
53. crash	54. Nearby	55. favorite	56. deal with
57. ride	58. embarrassed	59. conductor	60. keep
61. stand for	62. get over	63. glance	64. custom
65. recovery	66. threatened	67. figures	68. sack
69. out of condition	70. run down	71. see off	72. come up
73. fold	74. advise	75. member	76. apologized
77. material	78. hostel	79. on arrival	80. keep on
81. break up	82. make out	83. wrap	84. survive
85. suit	86. label	87. illness	88. regret
89. vase	90. at first	91. in advance	92. do up
93. go on	94. take advantage	95. owe	96. scratch
97. in short	98. in effect	99. to some extent	100. consent
101. go in	102. hold up	103. run over	104. reward
105. rusty	106. rent	107come round	108. take in
109. plan	110. attend	111. run out of	112. accuse
113. bend	114. shortage	115. assure	116. modern
117. break out	118. take over	119. recipe	120. clerk
121. slip	122. lecture	123. Respectable	124. review
125. installment	126. come up	127. occasion	128. persist
129. put off	130. break off	131. bring up	132. retire
133. trap	134. turn out	135. teach	136. get over
137. power	138. common	139. take after	140. breed
141. opponent	142. go off	143. look down	144. signal
145. harm	146. purpose	147. agree	148. layer
149. pipe	150. relatives		

APPENDIX B THE GRAMMAR TEST

Choose the best answer.

First name   last name: teacher:

1. I don't. . . . . the letter but perhaps I read it.			
A. remember to see		B. remember seeing	
C. remind to see	-	D. remind to seeing	
2. We played tennis. . . . . the rain. .			
A. although	B. instead	C. even though	D. in spite of
3. If there are no buses, we'll have to take a taxi. We must get there.			
A. somehow or other		B. somewhere or other	
C. on one way or another		D. anyway or other	
4. . . . . I read, the more I understand.			
A. The more	B. So much	C: How much	D. For how much
5. . . . . he does his work. I don't mind what time he arrives at the office.			
A. So for as	B. So long as	C. In case	D. Meanwhile
6. . . . . entering the hall, he found everyone waiting for him.			
A. At	B. While	C. On	D. in
7 It's years. . . . . a picture.			
A. that I don't paint		B. that I didn't paint	
C. since I painted		D. ago I painted	
8. I found the first question.			
A. to be easy	B. the easy	C. that it was easy	D. easy
9. . . . . an empty seat at the back of the bus.			
A. She happened to find		B. She happened to meet	
C. It happened her that she found		D. It happened her that she met	
10. It was raining. . . . . was pity.			
A. what	B. that	C. the which	D. which
11. Your car is. . . . . mine.			
A. the same that	B. as	C. similar to	D. alike
12. I'm going away for a.			
A. holiday of a week		B. week holiday	

C. Holiday week		D. Week's holiday	
13. Why. . . . .? It's not very important.			
A. to worry	B. worry	C. you are worried	D. you are worry
14. I don't like. . . . . at me.			
A. theme shouting	B. them shout	C. their shout	D. that they shout
15. It often snows. . . . . January.			
A. on	B. in -	C. for	D. at
16. I'll meet you again. . . . . the weekend.			
A. by	B. or	C. at	D. for
17. It's the first turning. . . . . the left after the traffic lights.			
A. on	B. in	C. by	D. for
18. He wasn't. . . . . to lift the case.			
A. too strong	B. enough strong	C. strong enough	D. so strong
19. He can climb trees. . . . . a monkey.			
A. as	B. like	C. the same that	D. similar than

20. He. . . . . lives in the house where he was born.			
A. already	B. yet	C. still	D. ever
21. It's ten o'clock in the morning but he's still.			
A. at the bet	B. at bed	C. in bed	D. in the bed
22. He was a good swimmer so he. . . . . swim to the river bank when the boat sank.			
A. could	B. might	C. succeeded to	D. was able to
23. She's been very kind, ...?			
A. isn't she	B. hasn't she	C. wasn't she	D. doesn't she
24. He was left alone, with. . . . . To look after him.			
A. someone	B. anyone	C. not one	D. no one
25. I pulled the handle. . . . . I could.			
A. so hardly as	B. as hardly as	C. so hard as	D. as hard as
26. Have you got a match? I've left my. . . . . at home.			
A. cigarette lighter		B. cigarettes lighter	
C. cigarette's lighter		D. lighter for cigarettes	
27. That's the dog.			
A. cigarette lighter		B. cigarettes lighter	
C. cigarette's lighter		D. lighter for cigarettes	
28. I made him. . . . . What I had told him.			
A. repeating	B. that he repeated	C. repeat	D. to repeat
29. I was. . . . . tired that I had to rest.			
A. so much	B. so	C. enough	D. too
30. He. . . . . live in the country than in the city.			
A. prefers	B. likes better to	C. had better	D. would rather
31. He. . . . . his sister.			
A. remembers me of		B. remembers me	
C. reminds me of		D. reminds me of	
32. Put on your raincoat. . . . . It rains.			
A. because	B. for	C. in any case	D. in case
33. It's a difficult problem but we must find the answer.			
A. by one way or other		B. somehow or other	
C. anyhow or other		D. anyway or other	

34. I want. . . . . Immediately.			
A. that this work is made		B. this work made	
C. that this work is done		D. this work done	
35. He's used to. . . . . in public.			
A. be speaking	B. the speaking	C. speaking	D. speak
36. You can fly to London this evening. . . . . You don't mind changing planes in Paris.			
A. provided	B. except	C. unless	D. so for as
37. It's ages. . . . . him.			
A. that I don't see		B. that I didn't see	
C. ago I saw		D. since I saw	
38. He made me.			
A. angry	B. be angry	C. to be angry	D. that I got angry
39. Do what you think is right, ... They say.			
A. . however	B. whatever	C. whichever	D. for all
40. He arrived late, ... -. . . . . Was annoying.			
A. what	B. that	C. which	D. the which
41. His job is. . . . . yours.			
A. the same that	B. as	C. alike	D. similar to
42. He needs a.			
A. few days' rest		B. few days rest	
C. little days' rest		D. little days rest	
43. Do you know. . . . . the repairs?			
A. to do	B. how to do	C. to make	D. how to make
44. We usually have fine weather. . . . . summer.			
A. at	B. on	C. in	D. while

45. My flat. . . . . the third floor of the building.			
A. by	B. at	C. in	D. on

46. They live. . . . . the other side of the road.			
A. in	B. on	C. for	D. by

47. He isn't. . . . . to reach the ceiling.			
A. so tall	B. as tall	C. enough tall	D. tall enough

48. They treated him. . . . . a king when he won all that money.			
A. as	B. as being	C. like	D. like he was

49. I've told him several times but he. . . . . doesn't understand.			
A. yet	B. already	C. no longer	D. still

50. . . . . did you go in the car this morning?			
A. How far	B. How much far	C. How long	D. How much

51. He'd done that before, ...?			
A. wouldn't he	B. shouldn't he	C. hadn't he	D. didn't he

52. . . . . of them understood him.			
A. None	B. No one	C. Anyone	D. Someone

53. It's. . . . . Mountain in the word.			
A. the more high	B. the higher	C. the highest	D. the most high

54. I'm going to a concert tomorrow evening. So.			
A. I am	B. am I	C. I will	D. will I

55. That's the firm.	
A. what we've been dealing with	B. we've been dealing with
C. we've been treating with	D. what we've been treating with

56. She let the children. . . . . to play.		
A. going out	B. That they went out	
C. To go out	D. go out	" "

57. It was. . . . . that the couldn't finish it alone.	
A. a so difficult work	B. a so difficult job
C. such a difficult job	D. such a difficult work

58. I. . . . . photographs.			
A. enjoy taking	B. enjoy to take	C. amuse taking	D. amuse to take

59. I. . . . . me what happened.	
A. would like tell	B. would like you to tell
C. would like you telling	D. would like that you tell

60. . . . . he wasn't hungry, he ate a big meal.			
A. Although	B. In spite	C. Unless	D. Even

APPENDIX C WORDS IN CONTEXT

Write the meanings of the underlined words in English or persion in the space provided.

1. The weather **forecast** says it will rain tomorrow ----------.

2. There are a lot of mistakes in this exercise. I will have to **go over** it again with you ----------.

3. I am very **grateful** to you for your help ----------.

4. He is so mean that he would not give a beggar a **crust** of bread ----------.

5. I never expected you to **turn up** at the meeting. I thought you were abroad ----------.

6. He will soon **get over** his disappointment and be quite cheerful again by the morning ----------.

7. He **glanced** out of the window for a moment and then went on working ----------.

8. He is been working too hard and he is **run down**. He needs a rest ----------.

9. New problems are always **coming up** in the factory ----------.

10. he **folded** the letter carefully before putting it in the envelope ----------.

11. He is staying in the youth **hostel** in Market Street ----------.

12. The meeting **broke up** at midnight and we all went home ----------..

13. He is not as honest as he **makes out** ----------.

14. Everyone else was killed in the accident. I was the only one to **survive** ----------.

15. I will put the flowers in this **vase**. They will look nice there ----------.

16. We are going to have our house **done up.** The decorators are coming next week ---------.

17. He was **sacked** from the firm because he was always late for work ----------.

18. She got married although her parents had not given her their **consent** ----------.

19. I agree with him **to some extent,** but not entirely----------.

20. The dog was **run over** by a bus and killed ----------.

21. Don't leave your bicycle out in the rain It will get **rusty** ----------.

22. He has been accused of murdering his wife ----------.

23. I **assure** you that the goods will be delivered next week ----------.

24. The Second World War **broke out** in 1939 ----------.

25. A foreign firm have bought the shares in his company and **taken it over** ----------.

26. He bought his house on the **instalment** plan, paying a certain a mount of money each month ----------.

27. We can never relax in this office. new problems are **coming up** ----------.
28. If you **persist** in taking this attitude, we will have to ask you to leave ----------.
29. He talked so much during the match that he **put me off** my game ----------.
30. He **broke off** his engagement just before the wedding ----------..
31. His parents died when he was young so he was **brought up** by his uncle ----------.
32. When he **retires** at the age of 65, the company will give him a gold watch ----------.
33. The elephant fell into the **trap** the hunters had set for it ----------.
34. The weather forecast was good so it should **turn out** fine after all ----------.
35. He will **get over** his nervousness once he is on stage ----------.
36. This **breed** of dog is very useful for hunting ----------.
37. He shook hands with his **opponent** before the match ---------- .
38. If you forgot to put the cheese in the refrigerator, it may **go off** ----------.
39. She **looks down on** us because she went to an expensive school ----------.
40. One of the water **pipes** has burst and the kitchen is full of water ----------.
41. I **approved** of his course of action, so I told him to go ahead ----------.
42. Close the door please. I don't like sitting in a **draught** ----------.
43. He **scratched** his head, wondering how to solve the problem ----------.
44. I **owe** him some money and must pay him back him tomorrow ----------.
45. The flight was supposed to take off at eight o'clock but **in effect** we had to wait until nine ----------.

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A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

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- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
  o Submission of extended version
  o Notification of acceptance
  o Final submission due
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