Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

Code Switching as a Medium of Instruction in an EFL Classroom

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Abstract—Code Switching (CS) is shifting from one language to another in a conversation. It is a normal every day practice among people in the world for various reasons and usually an unconscious activity. This language switching might not be the whole sentence, but also can occur in brief phrases or words. Therefore, in this study, using CS as a medium of instruction was focused on. Meanwhile, the students' attitude towards CS, the positive impacts of CS on understanding the target language and the negative impacts of CS on students' learning ability were investigated. The data for this study were collected from 4 participants through audio recordings of a classroom observation and students' reflective journals. The findings suggest that the students code switched due to the lack of vocabulary knowledge and being in an informal environment that required the respondents to use language for different purposes; thus CS was used for checking understanding, asking for clarification and socializing. On the contrary, the teacher code switched because of clarification and translation into L1 whenever needed. On the other hand, reflective journals revealed using CS augments understanding of target language and they showed that students had positive views towards the application of CS.

Index Terms—code switching, bilingual education, student CS, teacher CS, EFL classroom instruction

I. INTRODUCTION

CS is a general occurrence in Iranian English learning context. Researchers have got different views about its definition. It is generally defined as a nonstandard use of L2 within an L1 situation by bilinguals or even those who speak two or more languages in the same conversation (Muysken, 1995). All over Iran, people communicate in different languages such as Persian, Turkish and Arabic. The official language is Persian; hence, People never get the chance to communicate in English unless they face a coercible situation like career requirements that make them use English in their every day conversation. In this case, use of English is rare; thus authentic context or real exposure to the language outside the language classroom is very limited, and this augments a tendency of using their mother tongue in the learning setting.

The aim of the study was to figure out possible impacts on students' understanding of target language, students' learning ability and to discover their attitudes toward utilizing CS as a medium of instruction in a learning environment.

Background of the Study

Researchers have disparaging views on the use of CS and this is based on various theoretical models and research methodologies. The dominant perspectives in the study of CS have been sociolinguistic in nature. The sociolinguistic approach has explored languages in touch with bilingual or multilingual communities and deals with the social and political motivations for its use. Little has been done on the sociolinguistic approach about CS such as attitudes of students, impact on their learning process, perceptions about linguistic features and situations in which CS occurs. Moreover, there is no sufficient literature about the impact of CS on students' understanding of target language and students' learning ability to see whether CS augments or deteriorates their progress in learning the target language.

Beside the perspective above, researchers propose different approaches toward CS. For example, (McClure, 2001; Poplack, 1978; Genishi, 1976; Zentella, 1982) suggest that language proficiency, language preference, social identity, and role of the participants are also crucial in a CS situation. For other linguists, the relationship between the two languages and the status, power, and prestige associated with them is also a deciding factor when code switching.

Research Strategy

The research strategy was employed within the qualitative research paradigm. The research data was gathered in three forms: an audio recording of classroom observation, self-report audio recording while observing the class and taking reflective journals of students.

Observation was done in the most unnoticeable way possible. Data was collected to determine how CS as a medium of instruction affected the learning and teaching processes. The researcher was the primary means of data collection, interpretation, and analysis. As a participant observer, the researcher monitored how the students reacted to CS application, and how they integrated CS during their problem solving discussions. The use of participant observation is to be closed to subjects while keeping a professional distance that allows acceptable data collection (Fetterman, 1998).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

What Is Code Switching?

CS is the communicative exchange between two language codes among people who contribute to those specific codes. In this exchange, a number of social and linguistic factors direct the way CS manifests itself. In natural conversations between two bilinguals, CS includes eighty-four percent single word switches, ten percent phrase switches, and six percent clause switching (Skiba, 1997).

CS occurs in many types. The first type of language switching is called mechanical switching, which appears unintentionally. This type of CS is also known as code mixing. Code mixing happens when the speaker cannot remember an expression, but can recall it in a different language. Another type of CS, known as code changing, is distinguished by fluent intrasentential shifts, altering focus from one language to another. It is motivated by situational and stylistic factors, and the purpose behind the switch between two languages is important (Lipski, 1985).

The reasons for CS are primarily social. Olmedo-Williams (1981) describes nine categories of CS from her study of language mixing in classroom settings. These categories include emphasis, sociolinguistic play, clarification, accommodation, lexica1ization, attracting attention, regulating behavior, and miscellaneous switches. She believes that lexicalization and clarification are related to the ability to express oneself better in the other language on a given topic. CS is also influenced by the setting and by the activity. In informal situations, students are more likely to code switch.

Moreover, Goodman and Goodman (1979), in a study on writing in bilingual classrooms, found that students often use language switching in spoken language, but rarely in written language. Since spoken language is less formal than written language, this seems to support Olmedo- Williams' conclusion that students code switch less in formal situations.

Code Switching and Bilingual Education

When learning a new language, most students code switch in the native language as they acquire new vocabulary in the second language. This language behavior may be puzzling for those who are responsible for placing these students in an appropriate educational setting. Although CS is considered as one of the involving features of bilingual speech, still some people think it is a disparaged form of conversation (Boztepe, 2005). An effort should be done to find out what causes CS and how it affects academic achievement while studying using L2.

Teachers can use CS in different activities to teach a second language. For instance, students can form two –member groups and switch languages intentionally in dialogue; it helps them to learn each other's language. Teachers can start a lesson in one language, and then switch to another language, while making the students comprehend both languages (Skiba, 1997).

Usually teachers' beliefs and attitudes influence CS. Apart from their personal understanding of CS, the educational policies affect teachers' language use (Liu & Ahn, 2004). The functions of teacher CS are recognized as topic switch, affective functions, and repetitive functions. In topic switching, the teacher alters his or her language considering the topic being taught. This usually occurs in teaching grammar, while students focus on the new knowledge. Affective functions are important in the declaration of emotions, and forming a relationship between the teacher and the student. In repetitive functions, CS is used to clarify the meaning of a word, while stressing on the content for better comprehension (Sert, 2005).

The functions of student CS are known as equivalence, repetition, and conflict control. Equivalence enables the students to convey information in spite of lack of proficiency. Repetition helps them get mastered in language they are trying to learn, and conflict control is used to prevent misunderstanding in communication (Sert, 2005).

Students' Attitude towards Code Switching

Another theory, which is relevant in this study, is "attitude" which is defined by Eagly and Chaiken as a "psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p.1). Furthermore, attitude is the result of perceptions experienced collaboratively. Consequently, each individual's judgment is inherent and is affected by surrounding factors such as behavior, culture and belief.

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

According to Hatch (2002), the participants determine whether and to what extent the researcher will have access to the information desired. The present study is the phenomenon of CS either contributing or destructing language learning

activity in a conversation class in a university in Malaysia. The language of learning and teaching in the class is mainly English, yet Persian is also accommodated due to the low proficiency of the students. There were four Iranian students chosen on the basis of purposive sampling. The age of the learners in the study ranged from 25 to 43 years. All of the learners speak Persian as their first language (L1). The teacher/observer who took part in the study was also Persian.

Data Collection Procedure

The data consists of naturally- occurring conversations among learners and their teachers. The researcher also observed conversations among the learners, to realize how they use CS in order to communicate with each other. Since the teacher/ observer was one of the participants and could not take comprehensive notes, she did a self- report audio recording during the observation for analyzing the data effectively afterwards. This was done for efficacy of compiling and analyzing the data. During data collection CS was not explained in order to reduce being influenced by understanding CS. The learners were told that they could use mother tongue when necessary. In this case, the learners were relaxed and spontaneous in their conversations.

The conversations were recorded on a good-quality voice recorder. A small MP3 player was placed at the corner of the desk where the participants were sitting.

At the beginning, the teacher started a discussion about the title of a short story, which students had to read and discuss in pairs and finally reproduce it individually.

The name of the story was "A Mystery", which was written for students who are at intermediate level of English.

Data Analysis

Based on the transcripts of the conversations during observation, the instances of CS to Persian language were identified and counted. For the analysis of CS, the following four questions were addressed in the data analysis and interpretation: 1) the types of language functions for CS; 2) factors affecting CS; 3) learners' attitude towards using CS in the EFL classroom; and 4) positive impacts of CS on students' understanding of target language.

To address these research questions, the reflective journals were analyzed and students' attitudes and their own experience were studied. In their writing, the students proposed some other external factors influencing CS that was not anticipated by the observer. The data analysis also followed a qualitative perspective, and the selected data were analyzed, described and discussed in the following findings section.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this study, through the audio recordings of classroom observation and reflective journals, it could be seen that the teacher and all learners of the two groups made use of CS in class. It could also be seen that CS by the teacher and by the learners was more frequent in using some special language functions such as clarification/persuasion, translation, and socializing. In this analysis, the participants were identified by the first letter of their names: Student S, Students O, Student A, Student R, and the teacher was identified by the letter T. The analysis and interpretation are presented in the following sections.

A. Code Switching and Language Functions

The language functions that were used by students and the teacher included: checking understanding, asking for clarification, clarification/persuasion, translation, and socializing. Each is illustrated with excerpts from the audio recordings.

Checking Understanding

As Flyman-Mattson and Burenhult (1999) explain, the main reason for teachers/students' CS to L1 is to make the audience understand their utterances. The following examples explain checking understanding function better. As it can be seen in the table 4.1, it is used twice only.

Examples:

T: What is the meaning of mystery?

S: *deltang shodan?* (To miss some body?)

In this excerpt, student S wanted to make sure that his understanding of the word 'mystery' is correct, so he code switched and asked the question in Persian with a rising intonation. In another situation, when student O wanted to double-check his understanding of the word track, he asked:

O: Track, *rade pa? (*Trace)

T: No, that is trace.

Asking for Clarification

According to table 4.1, students used the clarification function four times in the recordings. Whenever they found some thing that was a little difficult to understand, they would ask their peers to clarify it. Here is the example of Student O who did not understand teacher's explanation about working in groups, so he asked:

Example:

O: *Tozih bedim dastan raje be chi bud?* (Should we explain what the story was about?)

T: yes.

Another example is about a situation that Student A could not understand the whole picture of the story and Student R reciprocated by using Persian, because she might have taught Student A would not understand unless she switched to Persian.

Example:

A: *mishe ye summery bedi?* (Can you give a summary please?)

R: *Chize ba arzeshi mese Kristal, jawaher dozdide nashode…*(Nothing valuable like crystal or jewelry was stolen…)

Clarification / persuasion

CS makes it possible to give more information to clarify an idea or message. When the students do not know the meaning of the target language word, then it is natural for their group members to present clarification. Here the students have already finished reading the story and wanted to share their understanding with each other through discussion. CS emerged when there was a misunderstanding or an opposite opinion that could not be expressed in English. Especially when they wanted to persuade each other that their understanding of the message of the story was correct.

Example of clarification:

O: Squeez?

T: *Vaghti ye chizi ro michepooni* (when you press some thing firmly with your fingers)

Example of persuasion:

S: Jewelry is stolen.

O: *Na, tanha jayee ke jewelry dare ine dige. Neveshte ke* "the rubber stole nothing else?", *chize digeeye nadozdide? Nemige jewelry dozdide.* (No, the only place that states jewelry is here; it is stated, "The rubber stole nothing else"? Nothing else is stolen? It doesn't say Jewelry is stolen).

Translation

Students/teacher often switch their code to translate or elaborate the significant messages while explaining new vocabulary or instructions instead of proceeding in the foreign language; this makes comprehension easier.

For example, when student O was checking his understanding, asking the meaning of track which he had mistaken for trace, the teacher tried to explain and differentiate the word trace from track. Students O and Student R showed their understanding by nodding, but the others did not indicate a signal of understanding, so she had to switch to Persian:

Example:

T: When you walk, you leave traces behind you, which is called track.

(Students O and R nodded as a gesture of understanding while students A and S looked puzzled, so the teacher gave some more explanations):

T: Trace is the indication of passing of some thing, but track is the continuous line of some thing that has recently passed like the marks, which wheels of a car leave after passing.

(Again after the second explanation, they could not understand the slight difference between 'track' and 'trace', so the teacher code switched):

T: trace *yani asar.* (Trace means trace).

Most of the time translation is really needed especially when explaining grammatical points. Nation (2005) suggests overlooking all the criticism we have heard about translation; he believes that what is shown repeatedly in research acknowledges the effectiveness of this kind of learning.

There was an example indicating teacher's effort to explain a grammatical point, which the students could not understand due to lack of linguistic competence. She was trying to clarify the position of a pronoun in a sentence and show them how it replaced the noun before that, but they could not understand the meaning of reference that a pronoun refers to, so she code switched:

T: In the third line of paragraph four, we have the pronoun 'it' that refers to *marjae zamir* (reference) in the first line of this paragraph.

After she code switched, the students got the whole picture and could understand the meaning of three sentences involved.

Socializing

It was observed that the students switched from the target language to their native language while expressing their feelings of pleasure and displeasure. Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) also define the affective functions of CS in the domain of classroom, for example, the automatic expression of emotions in interacting with students. In this study, socializing happened three times: first, when my Turkish student who was not supposed to be in the class entered the class. The atmosphere changed when they saw him, because students started greeting him and joking with him in their mother tongue; the second time CS occurred was when every body expressed their feelings towards the difficulty of the short story; and the last incident of CS happened at the end of the class when the researcher switched off her audio equipments. The students expressed their feelings in CS as shown below:

A: *Taze dasht khoshemoon mioomad!* (We were enjoying it!)

O: *khube khube edame bedim!* (Good, good, let's continue!)(Laughs)

The frequency of CS based on the language functions the students used is summarized in the table below.

TABLE 1:
FREQUENCY OF CS BASED ON DIFFERENT LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS

Different Language functions	Student A	Student R	Student O	Student S	Teacher T	Total
Checking Understanding	--	--	1	1	--	2
Asking for Clarification	1	--	3	--	--	4
Clarification or Persuasion	--	1	2	--	2	5
Translation	--	--	1	1	3	5
Socializing	2	1	2	1	--	6
Total	3	2	9	3	5	22

B. Factors Affecting CS

Lack of Vocabulary Knowledge

Grosjean (1982) states that people switch when they cannot find the suitable term or when the language being used does not have the appropriate translation. The reason of CS is to fill this linguistic gap. Here is an example:

S: delicious?

O: *khoshmaze* (delicious)

S: *khoshmaze* (delicious)

Informal Environment

Within a less formal situation, the probability of using CS is augmented and students feel free to make use of L1, because they are not afraid of any penalty. By listening to the audio recordings, the researcher figured out that by changing the situation into a friendly one, the students found it possible to communicate in L1; it was as if they all shared the same feeling, because in all informal situations, the whole class code switched together.

Using English-Persian Dictionaries instead of English-English Ones

As shown in the reflective journals, Student R who made the less CS during the observation believed that checking bilingual dictionaries is one main contributing factor for promoting CS. Those who look up the words in bilingual dictionaries and learn the equivalence of words in L1 rather than memorizing the target language synonyms are used to remember words in L1 rather than the target language. This was one of the important points discovered by the researcher that was revealed itself in the reflective journal of students. These findings reflect the effectiveness of reflective journals.

C. Students' Attitude towards CS

CS during instruction affects the learning environment by increasing student understanding, comprehension, and application of the material. With regards to student-teacher relationships as part of a positive learning environment, it helps foster a better relationship with the students. It was easily recognizable that the students loved to follow the instruction when it was presenting in both L1 and target languages. During the observation and also in the reflective journals the students expressed their positive views towards CS and they wished they could have some of the instructions in L1, specially the grammatical ones.

D. Positive Impacts of CS on Target Language Learning

Cole (1998) argues that the strict exclusion of L1 in the classroom can lead to unusual behaviors, such as "trying to explain the meaning of a language item where a simple translation would save time and anguish." However, language teachers should keep in mind that there might be certain times, when the best choice would indeed be to avoid the use of the mother tongue. In this study, both students and the teacher tried to make use of L1 whenever needed. During the observation they tried their best not to code switch; however, when they were discussing the story, they realized that they might get the idea wrong, so they code switched.

E. Limitations of the Research

This study provided an analysis of the use of CS in an EFL classroom. However, it was limited in several ways that might be addressed in future research. One limitation of the study is the small number of participants; since the researcher had to find Persian participants in an international university, the subjects were not so many. Another limitation was the time limit allocated to the research. Regarding this problem, the third research question, which was about the negative impact of CS on students' learning ability and needed to be explored within at least 1 year, was partially answered.

V. CONCLUSION

The results of the study indicated that CS mostly occurred in the classroom to cater for the needs of the students. According to table 4.1, students made use of the functions of language in relation to their needs. Of course the influence of the informal environment should not be overlooked, since the most occurrence of CS was the socializing function.

However, the least happening one was checking for understanding; and clarification and translation were used equally. Overall it was quite obvious that informal environment as well as lack of vocabulary knowledge were the most crucial factors for CS to be appeared.

On the basis of the results, both learners and teachers need to be made aware of the limitations of CS because insensible use of CS can have long-lasting harmful consequences on the learners' production of the target language.

Reflection

This study presents the results of a qualitative study, which investigated the use of CS as a medium of instruction in an EFL classroom. Although the research clearly shows that bilingual education is effective for language students, the effects of CS on students' learning ability is still unclear. While the research regarding CS seems to indicate that its primary purpose is to communicate more effectively, there is still a need to consider how this language behavior affects students' learning ability. There should be a study within a long period of time to figure out whether CS has positive or negative impacts on this issue.

Finally, the findings indicated that CS in oral form allowed for effective communication between students and the instructor in a way that was natural and comfortable for all involved. CS can be a good technique to highlight the significance of a specific piece of information, whether it is a grammar rule, a name or an order. The repetition of one part of the discourse in L1 underlines its importance with regards to the rest of the speech.

According to what has been said until now, even though many teachers still feel uncertain towards the merits of code-changing in teaching a foreign language, CS may be considered as a useful technique in classroom interaction, especially if the goal is to clarify and convey the information to students in an efficient way. More researches in this area can open new dimensions because a better understanding of CS and bilingualism will have positive impacts on the planning for bilingual education. Program developers and policy makers should bear in mind that in the case of language, first we develop understanding and then we develop the language.

Recommendation for Future Works

For future studies, doing a comparative analysis, which includes other languages and students from different ages, is required to see how they use their native language and code switch during their interaction.

There should also be a long period of time for investigating the influence of CS on students' learning ability. The development of linguistic competence of the students within this period identifies the usefulness or harmfulness of CS. CS is a known phenomenon, but its effects on language learning has been rarely investigated. More research on this linguistic phenomenon is needed to add to the small body of literature.

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Verb-noun (Object) Selectional Restriction in Ebughu

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Abstract—**Ebughu has been classified as belonging to the Ibibiod group, a sub- branch of Lower Cross in Delta Cross within the Cross River branch of the (New) Benue-Congo (Urua, 2000).It is spoken in Ebughu village in Mbo local Government Area of Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. Much is not known in documented forms about Ebughu and its speakers. Like most languages of the world, Ebughu exhibits an interesting network of verb-noun object selectional restriction. This paper documents this phenomenon in Ebughu and notes that of the eight verb clusters documented here the degree of selection of noun objects by verbs varies significantly from verb to verb. While some verbs select very few nouns to co-occur with, others select a large number of nouns. This is clearly evident in the observation that of the eight verb clusters documented, two clusters have been observed to have 'nuclear' verbs while no nuclear verbs have been identified for the other six verb clusters. The two verb clusters with nuclear verbs are the 'buy' and "cut" clusters with their nuclear verbs *ɓé* 'buy' and *pégé*, cut' respectively. These two nuclear verbs, unlike the other members of their clusters, have the capacity of co-occurring with a variety of noun objects which have the inherent compatible semantic features of being bought and being cut respectively. This study is based on a database including both actual and potential words, which Ebughu speakers agree are consistent with their language rules.**

Index Terms—**selection, restriction, deviance, compatibility, constraint, co-occurrence**

I. INTRODUCTION

All natural languages have a number of features which make them distinct and one of such features is selectional restriction; a phenomenon which was first described by Chomsky (1965). Selectional (collocational) restriction is the co-occurrence constraint or possibility which exists between lexical items. It is the constraint on the combination of senses of lexical items indicated by certain semantic features which they have (Katz, 1966), since in the normal use of language, linguistic forms do not freely co-occur with other linguistic forms. Both strict subcategorization and selectional rules are basic co-occurrence rules that govern the phenomenon of selectional restriction. Whereas strict subcategorization places constraint on the syntactic environment of co-occurring lexical items and is therefore a syntactic constraint (Trask, 1993), selectional restriction, which is a semantic constraint, specifies the semantic properties that lexical items must have in order to co-occur (Brown and Miller, 1985). Selectional restriction requires that semantic features of co-occurring constituents should be compatible. Incompatibility of features co-occurring results in anomalous constructions (Anyanwu and Iloene, 2003). A typical example of selectional restriction is seen in the syntactic and semantic behavior of the English verb *admire*. This verb syntactically, must subcategorize for a following NP object complement and semantically is constrained to select a [+human] subject (e.g. *John admired the picture*). A violation of selectional restrictions is the explanation for the oddity of the following examples (i-ii).

(i)! John ate a stone.

(ii) The car admired the woman

The verb *eat* requires an edible object and the action of *admiring* can be fulfilled only by an animate actor. Even though the view about the role of selectional restrictions is rather diversified, there is general agreement about the central point of compatibility between verbs and their arguments. With respect to natural language processing system, selectional restrictions can help with parsing, word-sense disambiguation and the resolution of anaphora. The word *star* in the sentence "*John married a star*" is ambiguous between a "famous person" and a "celestial body". However, the example can be disambiguated it is obvious that the object of *marry* must be [+human]. A characteristic of selectional restrictions is that they are language specific. Thus, selectional restrictions are part of language-dependent lexical

information. However, a violation of selectional restrictions does not always result in an ungrammatical expression. In metonymic, metaphoric or idiomatic utterances, selectional restrictions may be violated (Soehn, 2005), as the following examples (iii-v) show respectively. Thus, the violation of selectional restrictions allows us to recognize a non-literal meaning.

(iii) She *put* the wine on the table, right next to the glasses.

(iv) He devoured the book in one single night.

(v) She *poured* out her grief to John

The phenomenon of verb-noun selectional restriction is an instance of selectional restriction (Lyons, 1968, Pearson, 1977, Ndimele, 1999 and 1997, Yule, 2006). Many languages (Emenanjo, 1975, Umeasiegbu, 1979, Anoka1983, Oweleke, 1995) have this syntactic-semantic feature including Ebughu and it is also part of Ebughu language dependent lexical information and the degree of selectivity varies from verb to verb in that while some verbs select numerous nouns to co-occur with, others select just a few. In this paper, we have made an effort to document verb-noun object selectional restriction in Ebughu and have noted that there exists a very strong selectional restriction between some verbs and some nouns. This means that some verbs in Ebughu co-occur with some specific nouns and not with others and this is an indication that the Ebughu verb plays a significant role in determining its accompanying nouns. Eight clusters of Ebughu verbs have been chosen for this analysis and some verbs within the clusters have been classified into nuclear and non nuclear verbs. Whereas a nuclear verb can select all the nouns that are permissible to the members of a given cluster, a non-nuclear verb can only select for co-occurrence within a cluster those nouns whose semantic features and those of the verb are maximally constrained. Ebughu sentences of the structure: $NP_1 + V + NP_2$ have been used for the presentation of the data, where NP_2 is a projection of the noun usually selected by the verb in its object position.

II. Verb-noun Object Selectional Restriction In Ebughu

The Ebughu verbs which are documented in this paper have been grouped into the following eight clusters: 'break', 'buy', 'carry', 'cut', 'harvest', "put on", 'open', and 'hold" clusters. We have also tired to present sketchy semantic componential analyses of the eight verb clusters using certain contrastive, diagnostic and supplementary semantic features (Ndimele, 1999)

A. The Break Cluster

In this cluster, five non-clear verbs have been identified here. There is no nuclear verb in this cluster. The non-nuclear verbs identified are: *w ̀ùk* 'tear to break' *bún* 'twist to break', *tùàk* 'hit to break', *núák* 'dislocate to break', and *núán* 'smash to break'. The semantic features; [+/-breakable], [+/- snappable], [+/- breakable into parts/pieces], [+/- thin object noun], [+/-breakable with hand/leg as instrument], [+/- can be hit against object], and [+/-can be hit with finger or toe] have been used to discuss the semantic compatibility relationship between a verb and its accompanying noun object in this cluster. Verbs in this cluster have a [+] or [-] value of these features encoded in their inherent semantics which specifically relate to the inherent semantic features of the accompanying noun objects usually selected by the verbs in the *break* cluster as shown below.

The Verb w ̀ùk 'tear to break'

The verb *w ̀ùk* 'tear to break' co-occurs with a noun object with the inherent semantic features: [+breakable], [+snappable], [-breakable into pieces], [-thin object noun], [-leg/hand required as instrument], [- can be hit against object], and [- can be hit with finger or toe] as the example in (1) shows.

(1) ̀òy ̀èb ̀ó   àgá   w ̀àk   ̀ògòk   ́àt ̀ì ̀è
wind   3sgcl.past tear to break   branch tree
'The wind broke the branch of the tree'

The Verb bún 'twist to break'

The verb *bún* 'twist to break' selects noun objects with the inherent semantic features: [+breakable], [+snappable], [+breakable into parts], [+ thin object], [+ breakable with hand/leg as instrument], [-can be hit against object], and [-can be hit with finger or toe]. An example is given in (2).

(2) ̀ùyà   ̀ògǫ́   bún   ípé
Uya   3sg.cl.past twist to break   stick
'Uya broke the stick'

The Verb tùàk 'hit to break'

The verb *tùàk* 'hit to break' selects objects with the inherent semantic features: [+breakable], [-snappable],
[- breakable into parts], [+thin object], [-can be hit with leg/hand as instrument], [+can be hit against object], and [+ can be with finger/toe]. Examples are shown in (3) and (4).

(3) ̀ayí   àgá   tùàk   ́ńn ̀ù ̀ọ̀kù
3sg. 3sgcl.past hit to break   toe
'S/he broke his toe'

(4) ̀ùyà̀ àgá   tùàk   núǫ̀bǫ̀k

Uya   3sgcl.past   hit to break   finger
'Uya broke her finger'

*The Verb **núák** 'dislocate to break'*

The verb núák 'dislocate to break' selects noun phrase object with the inherent semantic features: [+breakable], [+snappable], [-breakable into pieces], [-thin object], [-hittable with hand/leg as instrument], [+hittable against object], and [-hittable with finger/toe] as the example in (5) shows.

(5)   `ayí   àgá   núák   áfrá
      3sg.   3sgcl.past   dislocate to break   elbow
      'S/he broke his elbow

*The Verb **núáɍ** 'smash to break'*

The verb núáɍ 'smash to break' selects a object with the inherent semantic features: [+breakable], [-snappable], [+breakable into pieces], [+thin object], [+can be hit with hand/leg as instrument], [+can be hit against object], and [-can be hit with finger or toe].An example is given in (6).

(6)   ùyà   àgá   núán   úkídísó
      Uya   3sgcl.past   smash to break   mirror
      'Uya broke the mirror'

Sentences (1) to (6) are semantically and syntactically well formed in Ebughu because the verbs in the sentences have co-occurred with noun objects whose semantic/syntactic features are compatible with those of the verbs. Considering this, we can rightly account for why the following sentences (7-12) are semantically deviant.

(7)   *òyèbíó   àgá   núán   ògòk   âtìtìè
       wind   cl.past   smash to break   branch   tree

(8)   *ùya   agá   wìàk   úkídísó
       Uya   3sg.cl.past   tear to break   mirror

(9)   *àyí   ògɔ́   bún   áfrá
       3sg   3sgcl.past   twist to break   elbow

(10)   *ùya   àgá   núák   ípe
       Uya   3sgcl.past   dislocate break   stick

(11)   * àyí àgá tùàk ògòk átìtìè

(12)   *ùya   àgá   tùàk   ìpán
       Uya   3sgcl.past   hit to break   spoon

In (7-12), sentence (7) is considered deviant because the verb *nuán* 'smash to break' whose semantics also implicates breaking of a thin object into pieces using the hand or leg as instrument, has co-occurred with *ògòk* 'branch' a noun which, by its inherent semantic feature cannot be caused to break into pieces using the hand or leg as instrument. Sentence (8) is also semantically deviant because *wìàk* 'tear to break' inherently implicates a semantics of breaking by snapping into two (and not into pieces) a thin object that cannot be broken by the leg or hand. Therefore, it cannot take *úkídísó* 'mirror' whose semantic features differ completely. Sentence (9) is semantically deviant because *bún* 'twist to break' can only select a noun which is 'thin' and can be broken into parts using the hand or leg as instrument; *áfrá* 'elbow' does not have these features. Sentence (10) is semantically deviant too since *nuák* 'dislocate to break' can only select a noun which though, can be snapped into two but cannot be broken into pieces; *ípé* 'stick' does not possess this semantic features unlike *áfrá* 'elbow' which does. The semantic deviance in sentence (11) is due to fact that the verb *tùàk* 'hit to break' has co-occurred with the noun *átìtìè* 'branch'. However, since *tùàk* 'hit' involves the breaking of a finger or toe by hitting it against an object, *átìtìè* is not appropriate. Sentence (12) is also a semantically deviant because of the reasons also given for (11); *tùàk* 'hit to break' and *ìpán* 'spoon' cannot co-occur.

B. The Buy Cluster

In this cluster, we have identified three verbs: *líé* 'buy', *bɔ̀gɔ̀* 'buy by fetching', and *pègè* 'buy by cutting'. The verb *líé* 'buy' is a nuclear since it can select all 'buyable' objects while *bɔ̀gɔ̀* ' buy by fetching' and *pègè* 'buy by cutting' can only select some specific noun objects. This cluster is analyzable using the semantic features of [+buyable], [+/- can buy any object], [+/- liquid], and [+/- can buy cloth] and discussed below is a selectional restriction analysis of the cluster.

*The Nuclear Verb **lie** 'buy'*

The nuclear verb *líé* 'buy' co-occurs with a noun object with the semantic feature of being a [+buyable object] as the following examples show.

(13)   ùyà   àgá   líé   ṁmɔ́n

Uya 3sgcl.past buy   water
'Uya bought water'

(14) `ayí àgá   líé   ḿmí
3sg 3sgcl.past buy drink
'S/he bought a drink'

(15) `ayí àgá   líé   ádà
3sg 3sgcl.past buy oil
'S/he bought some oil'

(16) ùyà   àgá   líé   òfònúzìn
Uya 3sg cl.past   buy cloth
'Uya bought a cloth'

(17) èsú àgá   líé   m̀bòró
Esu 3sgcl.past buy   banana
'Esu bought a banana'

*The Verb **bogo** 'buy by fetching'*

The verb *bògò* 'buy by fetching' selects a noun object with the semantic features of [+buyable object] and [+liquid] as the following examples show.

(18) ùmóh ògó   bògò   ḿmón
Umoh 3sgcl.past   fetch to buy   water
'Umo bought water'.

(19) `ayí ògó   bògò   ḿmí
3sg 3sgcl.past   fetch to buy   drink
'S/he bought a drink'

(20) `ayí ògó   bògò   ádà
3sg. 3sgcl. past   fetch to buy   oil
'S/he bought some oil'

*The Verb **pège** 'buy by cutting'*

The verb *pège* 'buy by cutting' selects a noun object with the semantic features of [+buyable object] and [+ cloth] as the following examples show.

(21) àsúkwó ègé   pègè   òfònúzìn
Asukwo 3sgcl.past   cut to buy dress
'Asukwo bought a dress'

(22) ùmóh ègé   pègè   òfòn
Umo 3sgcl.past   cut to buy   wrapper
'Umo bought a wrapper'

(23) ùyà ègé   pègè   òfònúkò
Uya 3sgcl.past fetch to buy   cloth
'Uya bought a cloth (material)

The sentences provided above (13-23) are semantically well formed. Sentences (13) to (17) clearly show that *líé* 'buy' is the nuclear verb of the 'buy' cluster and can select any noun object for co-occurrence while the verbs *bògò* 'fetch to buy' and *pègè* 'cut to buy' select semantically compatible 'buyable' noun objects. A violation of the semantic/selectional restriction of the verbs will result in deviant structures as shown in (13-23) below.

(24) *ùmóh ògó   bògò   ᷈ipán
Ʊmóh 3sgcl.past   fetch to buy   spoon

(25) *àyí ògó   bògò   ùsìè
3sg 3sgcl.past   fetch to buy   plate

(26) *àyí ògó   bògò   òfònúzìn
3sg 3sgcl.past fetch to buy   dress'

(27) *ùmóh ègé   pègè   ḿmón
Ʊmóh 3sgcl.past cut to buy water

(28) *àyí ègé   pègè   ḿmí
3sg 3sgcl.past   cut to buy drink

(29) *àyí ègé   pègè   ádà
3sg 3sgcl.past   cut to buy   oil

The semantic deviance in (24) to (26) for instance, is due to the fact that the nouns ɨ̀pán 'spoon', ùsɨ̀e 'plate', and ɔ̀fɔ̀núzɨ̃n 'dress' do not possess the semantic qualities of [+liquid] which is semantically and inherently implicated in the verb bɔ̀gɔ̀ 'fetch to buy' despite the fact that they meet the other features required in this cluster. Sentences (27) to (29) are also deviant structures. This is because the verb pègè 'cut to buy' cannot co-occur with the nouns ḿmɔ́n 'water', ńmí 'drink', and ádà 'oil' which are [+liquid] despite the fact that they are [+buyable] as pègè can only select a noun object with the feature [+cloth] among other semantic requirements it can admit.

C. The Carry Cluster

In the carry cluster, no nuclear verb is yet identified. The verbs bé ' pick to carry', rĭàghá ' lift to carry', and wèɨ̂ 'strap on the back to carry' have been identified in this paper as separate variants and each selects for co-occurrence an appropriate "carriable" noun object. The weight and shape of the noun object selected is also of semantic significance. The semantic features required in this cluster are: [+carriable], [+/- light noun object], [+/- portable], [+/- effort required] [+/- care required], [+/- animate], and [+/- strappable on the back of some entity]. A semantic analysis of the members of this cluster is shown below.

*The Verb **bé** 'pick to carry'*

The verb bé 'carry by picking' requires co-occurring with a noun object with the semantic features of [+carriable], [+light object], [+portable], [-effort required], [-care required], [-animate], and [- carriable the back of some entity] as the following examples show.

   (30)   ùmóh àgé   bé   ǹwèd
          Umoh 3sgcl.past   pick to carry   book
          Umoh picked the book'

   (31)   `ayí àgé   bé   ípéúkùò
          3sg. 3sgcl.past   pick to carry   shoe
          'He picked the shoe'

   (32)   `amì ńgí   bé   ɨ̀tàm
          1sg. 1sgcl.past   pick to carry   cap
          'I picked the cap'

*The Verb **ríághá** 'lift to carry'*

The Verb ríághá 'lift to carry' selects an object with the semantic of features of [+carriable], [-light object], [+effort required], [-portable], [-care required], [-animate], and [- carriable on the back] as the following examples show.

   (33)   àsúkwó àgá   rĭàghá   útáí
          Asukwo 3sgcl.past   lift to carry   stone
          'Asukwo carried the stone'

   (34)   `amì ńgí   rĭàghá   úsíén
          1sg. 1sgcl.past   lift to carry   pot
          'I carried the pot'

   (35)   èsú àgá   rĭàghá   òkùò
          Esu 3sgcl.past   lift to carry   box
          'Esu carried the box'

*The Verb **wèɨ́** 'strap on the back to carry'*

The Verb wèɨ́ 'strap on the back to carry' requires to co-occur with a following noun object with the semantic features of [+carriable], [+light object], [+portable], [-effort required], [+care required], [+animate], and [+carriable on the back of an entity] as the example shows below.

   (36)   úsò àgé   wèɨ́   óyó (ké dé)
          Uso 3sg cl.past   strap on the back to carry   child (on back)
          'Uso carried the child (on the back)'.

Sentences (30) to (36) are all semantically well formed. They have also clearly illustrated the fact that the verbs in the carry cluster have co-occurred with the appropriate object nouns that can co-occur with them and any contrary selection disregarding the inherent semantic qualities of the nouns which the verbs select will result in deviance as shown in the following examples.

   (37)   *Ùmóh ágé   wèɨ́   ǹwèd
           Ùmóh 3sgcl.past strap on the back to carry   book

   (38)   *Ùmóh àgá   rĭàghá   óyó
           Ùmóh 3sgcl.past lift to carry   child

   (39)   *Àsúkwó àgé   bé   útáí

Àsúkwó 3sgcl.past pick to carry   stone
(40) *Àsúkwó ágé   wèî   úsíén
Àsúkwó 3sgcl.past strap on the back to carry   pot

Sentences (37) and (40) are semantically deviant because the verb *wèî* 'strap on the back to carry' which among other features requires [+animate] object has co-occurred with *ǹwèd* 'book' and *úsíén* 'pot' which are [-animate] noun objects. Also, sentence (38) is considered a deviant structure because the verb *rìàghà* 'lift to carry' which requires among other features the [-animate] and [-care required] has co-occurred with *óyó* 'child' which has both [+animate] and [+care required] features while the deviance in sentence (39) is due to the fact that the verb *bé* 'pick to carry' has co-occurred with *útáî* 'stone' whose features include [+effort required] and [-light object] features whereas bé 'pick to carry' inherently' implicates [-effort required] and [+light object]. It is important to note however that there is the possibility of co-occurrence between the verb *bé* 'pick to carry' and the noun *óyó* 'child' with the requirement that the prepositional phrase, *kè* dĕ will not complement the noun object as in (36). Thus, a sentence like the one in (41) is semantically well formed while (42) is not well formed.

(41) ùmóh ágé   bé   óyó
Umoh 3sgcl.past pick to carry child
'Umoh carried the child.

(42)* umo ágé   bé   óyó kè   dè
Umo 3sgcl.past pick to carry   child Prep. back
'Umoh carried the child on the back:

D. The Cut Cluster

The 'cut' cluster in Ebughu has a nuclear, *pégé* 'cut', which can select any noun object that can be cut while its variants, *kwáî* 'cut by peeling', *bàk* 'cut by slaughtering', *jók* 'cut by slicing', and *síák* 'cut by splitting'. The semantic features which are required in the analysis of this cluster are: [+can be cut], [+/- plant], [+/- leafy], [+/- animate], [+/- effort required], [+/- sliceable], and [+/- can be cut into parts].The semantic analysis of members of the cluster is provided below.

*The Verb **pégé** 'cut'*

The verb *pégé* requires to co- occur with a noun object whose semantic include feature of [+can be cut]. Examples are given below.

(43) àsúkwó égé   pégé   òzógòrò
Asukwo 3sgcl.past   cut   orange
'Asukwo cut the orange'

(44) `amì ḿgím   pégé   égbó
1sg. 1sgcl.past cut   goat
'I cut the goat'

(45) `ayí égé   pégé   ḿfàn
3sg. 3sgcl.past cut   vegetables
'S/he cut the vegetables'

(46) àsúkwó égé   pégé   ífiá
asukwo 3sgcl.past cut firewood
'Asukwo cut the firewood'

*The Verb **kwáî** 'peel to cut'*

The verb *kwái* has to co-occur with a noun object with the features of [+can be cut], [+plant], [-leafy], [-animate], [-effort required], [-sliceable] and [- can be cut into parts] as the following examples.

(47) àsúkwó ágá   kwáî   òzógòrò
Asukwo 3sgcl.past peel to cut   orange
'Asukwo cut the orange by peeling it'

(48) ùmóh ágá   kwáî   òbònô
Umoh 3sgcl.past peel to cut   pawpaw
'Umoh cut the cocoyam' by peeling it

(49) úyà ágá   kwáî   ípón.
Uya 3sgcl.past   peel to cut   cocoyam
'Uya cut the coco yam' by peeling it

*The Verb **bàk** 'slaughter to cut'*

This member of the cut cluster requires co-occurring with a noun object with semantic features of [+cutable], [+animate], [+effort], [-plant], [-leafy], [-sliceable] and [+can be cut into parts] as the examples below show.

(50)　ámì ḿgí　　bàk　　　　égbó
　　　 1sg. 1sgcl.past slaughter to cut　goat
　　　 'I cut the goat'

(51)　`ayí ágá　　bàk　　　　únìèn
　　　 3sg. 3sgcl.past　slaughter to cut　　chicken
　　　 'S/he cut the chicken'

(52)　`ayí ágá　　bàk　　　　ónàn
　　　 3sg. 3sgcl.past slaughter to cut　cow
　　　 'S/he cut the cow'

The Verb jók 'slice to cut'

The verb *jók* 'slice to cut' requires co-occurring with a noun object with the semantic features: [+can be cut], [+plant], [+leafy], [-animate], [-effort required], [+sliceable], and [+can be cut into parts] as the following examples illustrate.

(53)　`ayí ógó̖　　jók　　　　ḿfàn.
　　　 3sg. 3sgcl.past slice to cut　vegetables
　　　 'S/he cut the vegetables'

(54)　àsúkwó ógó̖　　jók　　　àlìbásà
　　　 Asukwo 3sgcl.past　slice to cut　onions
　　　 'Asukwo cut the onions'

The Verb síák 'split to cut'

This-occurs with a noun object with the semantic features: [+can be cut], [-plant], [-leafy], [-animate], [+effort required], [-sliceable], and [+can be cut into parts] as the following example shows.

(55)　àsúkwó̖ ága　　síák　　　ífíá
　　　 Asukwo 3sgcl.past split to cut　firewood
　　　 Asukwo cut the firewood

Sentences (43) to (55) clearly indicate that the verbs in the 'cut' cluster select nouns which correspond semantically to the inherent semantic features of the verbs themselves. Thus, if the selectional restriction rule in this cluster is violated, the sentences listed in (43) to (55) will become deviant structures as the following examples show.

(56)　*àsúkwó̖ àgá　　bàk　　　　òzógòrò
　　　 'Asukwo 3sgcl.past　slaughter to cut　　orange

(57)　*ùmóh àgá　　bàk　　　　òbò̖nô̖
　　　 'Umoh 3sgcl.past　slaughter to cut the　pawpaw

(58)　*àmí ḿgí　　kwáí　　　égbó
　　　 1sg 1sgcl.past　peel to cut　　goat

(59)　*`àyí ágá　　kwáí　　　úníén
　　　 3sg 3sgcl.past　　peel to cut　　chicken

(60)　*`àyí ágá　　síák　　　ḿfàn.
　　　 3sg. 3sgcl.past split to cut　vegetables

(61)　*àsúkwo ágá　　síák　　　òzógòrò
　　　 Asukwo 3sgcl.past split to cut　　orange

(62)　*àyí ógó̖　　jók　　　　ífíá
　　　 3sg 3sgcl.past slice to cut　　firewood

(63)　*àsúkwo ágá　　kwáí　　　ḿfàn
　　　 Asukwo 3sgcl.past peel to cut　vegetables

(64)　*úyà ágá　　bàk　　　　ípó̖n
　　　 Uya 3sgcl.past slaughter to cut　cocoyam

The semantic deviance observed in sentences (56) to (64) is obviously traceable to a violation of selectional restriction. Sentences (56), (57), and (64) for instance have the verb *bák* 'slaughter to cut' co-occurring with *òzógòrò* 'orange', *òbò̖nô̖* 'pawpaw', and *ípó̖n* 'cocoyam' and these have both [-animate] and [-effort required] semantic features while *bàk* 'slaughter to cut' has both [+animate] and [+effort required] features. Sentences (58) and (59), on the other hand are deviant because the verb *kwáí* 'peel to cut' which has the semantic implications of [+plant], [-animate], and [-effort required] has co-occurred with the nouns; *égbó* 'goat' and *únìèn* 'chicken' which have opposing semantic features of [-plant], [+animate], and [+effort required]. The structure in (63) is also a deviant structure because the subcategorized noun object has [-animate] and [-effort] features which are not compatible with the semantic features of

the verb *kwáí* 'peel to cut' as mentioned above. Also, sentences (60) and (61) are deviant structures as the semantic senses ([-plant], [+effort required], and [-sliceable]) of the verb *síák* 'split to cut' are opposed to that of the nouns *òzógòrò* 'orange' and *ńfàn* 'vegetables'. The deviance in sentence (62) is also because the verb *jòk* 'slice to cut' which has the basic semantic features of [+plant], [+leafy] and

[-effort required] has co-occurred with *ífíá* 'firewood' which has opposing semantic features of [-plant], [-leafy], and [+effort].

E. The Harvest Cluster

In this cluster, no nuclear verb is yet identified. However, four verbs; *bùó* 'dig to harvest' *tán* 'pick to harvest', *kwùó* 'pluck to harvest', and *tíe* 'tap to harvest' have been identified. The semantic features required for the analysis of this cluster are: [+harvestable] [+/-root/stump crop], [+/-instrument required], [+/-effort required], [+/-uprootable], [+/-fruit], and [+/- can be cut].

*The verb **bùó** 'dig to harvest'*

The verb *bùó* 'dig harvest' requires to co-occur with noun objects whose semantic features must include [+harvestable], [+root/stump crop], [+instrument required], [+effort required], [+uprootable], [-fruit], and [-can be cut].The following illustrate the verb in sentences.

(63)   ùyá ógó   bùó   ìgbé
       Uya 3sgcl.pst harvest cassava
       'Uya harvested the cassava'

(64)   àsúkwó ógó   bùó   èbrè.
       Asukwo 3sgcl.past harvest yam
       'Asukwo harvested the yam'

*The verb **tán** 'pick to harvest'*

This verb requires to co-occur with noun objects whose semantic features must include [+harvestable], [+uprootable], [-instrument required], [-root/stump crop], [-fruit], and [- can be cut] as shown in the following sentences (64-65).

(64)   úyà ágá   tán   ígòn
       Uya 3sgcl.past harvest melon
       'Uya harvested the melon'

(65)   àsúkwó ágá   tán   údídíp
       Asukwo 3sgcl.past harvest mushroom
       'Asukwo harvested the mushrooms'

*The Verb **kwùó** 'pick to harvest'*

This verb needs to co-occur with noun objects whose semantic features are [+harvestable], [+fruit], [-root/stump crop] [+instrument required], and [-can be cut] as the following examples show.

(66)   úyà ògó   kwùó   òzógòrò
       Uya 3sgcl.past   harvest orange
       'Uya harvested some orange'

(67)   asukwo ògó   kwùó   ógwòébè
       Asukwo 3sgcl.past harvest   pear
       'Asukwo harvested some pears'

*The verb **tíé** 'cut to harvest'*

This verb must co-occur with noun objects with the following features: [+harvestable], [+effort required], [+instrument required], [-root/stump crop], [-uprootable], [+fruit], and [+can be cut].Some examples involving this verb are given below:

(68) úbông   ágé   tíé   ájìè.
     Ubong   3sgcl.past harvest palmfruit
     'Ubong harvested the palmfruits'

Sentences (63) to (68) as shown above are semantically well formed since the verbs have selected appropriate noun object to co-occur with and a violation of this selection restriction rule will result in deviant sentences as shown below in (70-77).

(70)   *úyà áge´   tíé   ígòn
        Uya 3sgcl.past cut to harvest   melon

(71)   *úbông ágé   tíé   ígbè
        Ubong 3sgcl.past   cut to harvest   cassava

(72)   *úbông ágá   tán   ájìè
        Ubong 3sgcl.past   pick to harvest   palmfruit

(73)   *úyà   ágá   tán   òzógòrò
       Uya   3sgcl.past   pick to harvest   orange
(74)   *àsúkwò' ògó   kwùó   èbrè
       Asukwo   3sgcl.past   pluck to harvest   yam
(75)   *àsúkwọ   ògọ́   kwùó   ípón
       Asukwo   3sgcl.past   pluck to harvest   cocoyam
(76)   *úyà   ògọ́   bùọ́   ógwóébè
       Uya   3sgcl.past   dig to harvest   pear
(77)   *Ubong   ògọ́   bùọ̀   nmọ́nmọ́níkọ̀n
       Ubong   3sgcl.past   dig to harvest   waterleaf

The deviance observed in sentences (70) to (77) is due to the violation of selectional restriction. Sentences (70) and (71) for instance, are semantically not well-formed because the verb *tíé* 'cut to harvest' whose inherent semantic implication includes [+can be cut] and [+fruit] features has co-occurred with the nouns *ígòn* 'melon' and *ìgbé* 'cassava' whose semantic features are [-can be cut] and [-fruit]. Similarly, in sentences (72) and (73) the co-occurrence between the nouns *áịìè* 'palm fruit' and *òzógòrò* 'orange' with the verb *tán* 'pick to harvest' leads to semantic oddity since the inherent semantic features in both *áịìè* 'palm fruit' and *òzógòrò* 'orange which include [+fruit] and [+instrument required] do not match with the semantic implications of the verb *tán* 'pick to harvest' whose features include [-fruit] and [-instrument required]. Also, the deviance observed in sentences (74) and (75) stems from the co-occurrence of the verb *kwùó* 'pluck to harvest' with the nouns *èbrè* 'yam' and *ípón* 'cocoyam'. Since the verb *kwùó* 'pluck to harvest' has the semantic features [+fruit] and [-can be cut] while *èbrè* 'yam' and *ípón* 'cassava' both have the features [-fruit] and [-can be cut], the co-occurrence incompatibility between them results to the semantic deviance. In the same vein, sentences (76) and (77) are deviant because the verb *bùó* 'dig to harvest' whose semantic implications involve [+effort required] and [+root/stump crop] features has co-occurred the nouns *ógwòébè* 'pear' and *nmọ́nmọ́níkọ̀n* 'waterleaf' whose semantic features are [-effort required] and [-root/stump crop].

F. The Cover Cluster

No nuclear verb has been identified in this cluster. The verbs *fùk* ' put on the head to cover', *dònọ́* 'put on the feet to cover', *wán* 'tie to cover', and *gíné* 'hang to cover' have been identified in this cluster and each selects a different type of object to co-occur with. The features relevant for the analysis of this cluster are [+can be put on], [+/-coverable], [+/-wearable on head], [+/- wearable on the feet], [+/-wrappable round], [+/-bead/ornamental].Examples of the verbs of this cluster in sentences as discussed below.

   The Verb fùk 'put on the head to cover'

This verb must co-occur with a noun object with the semantic features: [+wearable], [+coverable], [+ wearable on the head] as shown in the following sentence.

(78)   nmà   fùk   ìtàm
       1sgcl.future   put on the head to cover   cap
       'I will put on a cap'

   The Verb dònọ́ 'put on the feet to cover'

The verb *dònọ́* 'wear to put on' needs to co-occur with a noun object with the semantic features [+noun], [+ wearable], [-bead/ornamental] and [+ wearable on feet] as shown in (79).

(79)   àsúkwọ́ ògọ́   dònọ́   ípéúkùò
       Asukwo 3sgcl.pst   put on the feet to cover   shoe
       'Asukwo wore a shoe'

   The Verb wán 'tie to cover'

The verb *wán* 'tie to cover' must co-occur with noun objects with the semantic features of [+can be put on], [+coverable], [- can be put on the head], [- can be put on the feet], [-bead/ornamental], and [+wrappable round] as the example below shows.

(80)   `amì   ńgín   wán   òfọn
       1sg   3sgclcl.past   tie to cover   wrapper
       'I tied a wrapper'

   The Verb gíné 'hang to cover'

The verb *gíné* 'hang on the neck to cover' must co-occur with a noun object with the semantic features: [- wearable], [-cover], and [+bead/ornamental] as the following example shows.

(81)   úyà   àgé   gíné   ńgwà

    Uya 3scl.past put to cover   beads
    'Uya wore some beads'.

From sentences (78) to (81), it is observable that the verbs of the 'cover' cluster are very restrictive in their selection of accompanying object nouns. Thus, the following sentences are not well-formed because of the violation of the verb-noun selectional restriction rules of members of the cluster.

(82) * ḿmá   dònọ́   ïtàm
        1sg.future   put on the feet to cover   cap

(83) *àmï ńgín   wán   ńgwà
        1sg   1sgcl.future   tie to cover   beads/ornaments

(84) *àsúkwọ́ ògọ́   fụ̀k   ípéúkùò
        Asukwo 3sgcl.past   put on the head to cover   shoe

(85) *uya àgé   gíné   òfọ̀n
        Uya 3sgcl.past hang on the neck to cover   wrapper

The deviance observed in sentence (82) is due to the fact that the verb dònò̀ 'put on the feet to cover' which has the semantic features, [+wearable on feet] has co-occurred with the noun ïtàm 'cap' whose semantic features implicates [+wearable on the head]. Sentence (83) is also a deviant structure because the noun ńgwà 'beads/ornaments' has co-occurred with the verb wán 'tie to cover' which has the features [-bead/ornamental] and thus, contrasts with the semantic features of the noun object it has co-occurred with. Also, sentence (84) is semantically deviant because the semantic features of the verb fụ̀k ' put on the head to cover' which includes [+wearable on the head] contrasts with that of the noun ípéúkùò 'shoe' which is [+wearable on the feet].The semantic deviance noted in sentence (85) is as a result of the fact that the verb gíné 'hang on the neck to cover' whose semantic implications include [+bead/ornamental] has co-occurred with the noun òfọ̀n 'wrapper' whose semantic implication includes [-bead/ornamental]. It is however, worthy to note here that in Ebughu, the object òfòn which can mean wrapper, dress or a cloth (material) depending on the context in which it is used, can be selected by the verb dónó to co-occur with in which case the construction will be of the form in (86).

(86) ùmôh ògọ̀   dònọ́   òfọ̀n
        Umoh 3sgcl.past put on the feet to cover   dress
        'Umoh   put on a cloth (around his feet)'

G. The Open Cluster

Two verbs have been identified in this cluster without any nuclear verb yet. The verbs are *síé* 'uncover to open' and *kwùnọ́* 'shift to open'. The semantic features; [+noun], [+openable], [+/-hand/any object required as instrument], [+/-ease], and [+/-light object] are necessary for the analysis of this cluster

*The Verb **síé** 'uncork to open'*

The verb *síé* 'uncork to open' requires to co-occur with a noun object whose semantic features include [+openable], [+hand/any object as required as instrument], [+ ease], and [+light object] as the following examples show.

(87) ùyá àgé   síé   ḿmí
        Uya 3sgcl.past uncover to open   drink
        'Uya opened the drink'

(88) ùmôh àgé   síé   úsïè
        Umoh 3sgcl.past uncover to open   pot
        'Umoh opened the pot'

(89) `ayí àgé   síé   òmụ́
        3sg. 3sgcl.past uncover to open cup
        'He opened the cup'

*The Verb **kwùnọ́** 'uncover to open'*

The verb *kwùnọ́* 'shift to open' necessarily co-occurs with a noun object whose semantics implicates [+openable], [+/- hand required as instrument], [- ease], and [+/ - light object] as the following examples show,

(90) àsúkwọ́ ògọ́   kwùnọ́   áɽïghè
        Asukwo 3sgcl.past shift to open   door
        'Asukwo opened the door'

(91) ùmôh ọ́gọ́   kwùnọ́   ḿpoïzàn
        Umoh 3sgcl.past   shift to open   car
        'Umoh opened the car'

From the examples above (87) to (91) the pattern of the verb- object noun selectional restriction in the open cluster is shown. Again, when this rule of verb-noun selectional restriction in the 'open' cluster is violated, semantically ill-formed sentences will result as shown below.

(92) *ùyá ògǫ́ kwừnǫ́ ḿmí
      Uya 3sgcl.past shift to open   drink

(93) * ayí àgé kwừnǫ́ òmú
      3sg 3sgcl.past shift to open   cup

(94) *asúkwǫ́ àgé sié àríghè
      Asukwo 3sgcl.past uncover to open   door

(95) *ùmóh àgé sié ḿpòìzàn
      Umoh 3sgcl.past uncover to opened   car

The semantic deviance in (92) and (93) is due to the fact that the verb *kwừnǫ́* can only select a noun whose inherent semantic features agree with its semantic features: [-ease] and [-light object]. However, in this case, the nouns *ḿmí* 'drink' and *òmú* 'cup' both inherently implicate [+ease] and [+light object] semantic features thus, making their co-occurrence with *kwúnó* unacceptable. Also the deviance in sentences (94) and (95) has arisen because the verb *sîé* 'uncover to open' has the semantic features of [+ease] and [+light object] while the nouns *àríghe* 'door' and *ḿpòìzàn* 'car' have the semantic features of [-ease] and [-light object] hence, the incompatibility in their co-occurrence.

H. The "Hold" Cluster

In this cluster, no nuclear verb is identified yet but each verb in this cluster selects appropriate noun objects that it can co-occur with it. The verbs *mó* 'grab to hold' *gbé* 'pack to hold' and *gá* 'grip to hold' are here identified as members of this cluster. The semantic features necessary for the analysis of this cluster are [+holdable], [+/-light object], [+/-holdable in between objects], [+/-animate], and [+/-countable]. The verbs of this cluster are briefly discussed below.

*The verb **mó** 'grab to hold'*

The verb *mó* 'grab to hold' must co-occur with a noun object that must have the semantic features of [+holdable], [+light object], [+countable], and [+animate]as the following examples show.

(96) ùmóh ògó mó óyò
      Umoh 3sgcl.past grab to hold child
      'Umoh held the child'

(97) àsúkwǫ ògó mó ǹsán ´zígé
      Asukwo 3sgcl.past grab to hold friend   his
      'Asukwo held his friend'

*The Verb **gbé** 'pack to hold'*

The verb *gbé* 'pack to hold' requires to co-occur with noun objects whose semantic features must be [+holdable], [+light object], [+in between object], [-animate], and [-countable] as shown below.

(98) ùmóh àgé gbé ńɗitié
      Umoh 3sgcl.past pack to hold   sand
      'Umoh held some sand'

(99) àsúkwǫ́ àgé gbé ányínyáná
      Asukwo 3sgcl.past   grab to hold   broomsticks
      'Asukwo held some broomsticks'

*The Verb **gà** 'grip to hold'*

The noun object of the verb *gà* 'grip to hold must be [+holdable], [+light object], [+ holdable in between objects] and [+countable] as shown below

(100) àmì ńgín gà ǹwèd
      1sg 3sgcl.past grip to hold   book
      'I held a book'

In the hold cluster, it has also been noticed that there exist a strong verb-noun object selectional rule as the verbs in this cluster must select appropriate nouns that meet their semantic requirement for co-occurrence. A violation of the verb-noun selectional rule in this cluster will also result in having deviant constructions as shown below:

(101) *umoh ògǫ́ mǫ̀ ányínyáná.
       Umoh 3sgcl.past   grab to hold   broomsticks

(102) *asúkwǫ́ àgé gbé óyó
       Asukwo 3sgcl.past pack to hold child

(103) *àmì ngín gà ńɗité

3sg 3sgcl.past   grip to hold   sand

(104) *Umoh àgé   gà   àfìyà

Umoh 3sgcl.past   grip to hold   crayfish

The verb *mò̩* 'grab to hold' in (101) whose semantics implicates [+animate] and [+countable] has co-occurred with the noun *ányînyáná* 'broomsticks' whose semantic features include [-animate] and [-countable] thus causing the construction to be semantically deviant. In sentence (102), the verb *gbé* 'pack' with the features [-animate] and [-countable] has co-occurred with the noun *óyó* 'child' which has [+animate] and [+countable] features and because of this co-occurrence, the resulting construction is semantically deviant. Also, the deviant status of sentences (103) and (104) stems from the fact that the verb *gà* 'grip' whose semantics implicates [+countable] has co-occurred with the nouns *ńdíté* 'sand' and *àfìyà* 'crayfish' which share the semantic feature of [-countable].

III. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Thus far we have analyzed the verb-noun object selectional restriction in Ebughu and this has been done by selecting some Ebughu verbs which we have grouped into eight verb clusters. The condition as well as the constraints which are imposed on a particular verb in the verb clusters in terms of the environment in which it must occur is stated with reference to the relevant semantic features of its accompanying noun object. Both the verb and its object must occur in the same minimal clause and the effects of selection are intrinsically connected the meaning of the verb since the verb plays a very crucial role in determining the kind of subject and object that it co-occurs with (Ndimele, 1999). It has been observed that some verb clusters in Ebughu have fewer verbs than others. For instance, the open cluster has just two verbs which are *síé* 'uncork to open' and *kwṳno* 'uncover to open' which also differ in their selection of noun objects; a violation of which will result in semantic deviance. This shows that verb-noun object selectional restriction phenomenon in Ebughu is not accidental but a clear case of semantic requirements of co-occurrence possibilities between verbs and nouns in the language.

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English Participial Adjectives and Arabic Agentive and Patientive Nouns

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Abstract—This paper is intended to conduct a fairly detailed contrastive linguistic analysis of the English participial adjectives: present participle and past participle, and their Arabic counterparts, namely, ?ismulfā9il/ agentive noun or active participle, and ?ismulmaf9ūl / patientive noun or passive participle. The process of contrast will be based on morphological, syntactic and semantic criteria. The analysis carried out in the study aims at investigating and scrutinizing, and exploring and revealing any points of convergence and / or divergence in the linguistic behavior of both English and Arabic participials. The paper falls into three sections. The first section incorporates a detailed analysis of the English participial adjectives: present participle and past participle in terms of morphological, syntactic and semantic perspectives. The second section is concerned with their Arabic counterparts: ?ismulfā9il / agentive noun , and ?ismulmaf9ūl / patientive noun in terms of the above mentioned perspectives . The third section is devoted to any possible conclusion that may be arrived at through an overall contrastive analysis of both English participial adjectives and their Arabic counterparts.

Index Terms—present participle, past participle, agentive noun, patientive noun, active participle, passive participle

I. ENGLISH PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVES

A. Morphological Perspective

English makes use of two participle forms; the *-ing* participle, also known as the present participle, and the *–ed* participle, or alternatively, the past participle. The *-ing* participle is derived by adding the *–ing* suffix to the base form of the verb, that is, **base+ing**, such as: *interest* - an *interesting* story, win - a *winning* team ,and *tire* - a *tiring* exercise .The *-ed* participle, which is sometimes called the *-en* participle, is produced by adding the *(e)d* suffix to the base form of the verb, viz, **base+ed** such as :*interest* - *interested* applicants , *defeat* - a *defeated* army ,and close - a *closed* shop. On the other hand, the *–ed* suffix has a variety of morphological realization with irregular / strong verbs. This might be the reason why some linguists refer to it as the **-en** participle. Following are some examples of irregular past participles, which are derived by ablating: *break* - a *broken* window, *lose- lost* property, and *freeze- frozen* meat.

The greatest majority of English participles are deverbal, i.e, derived from verbs. However, a few are derived from nouns: *appetite – appetising* food, neighbour – *neighbouring* villages. See (Downing and Locke, 1995, P.515) and (Noonan, 1994, P.172).Moreover, it is not uncommon to derive the *–ed* participles from nouns, especially when there is no corresponding verb. Such participles are called denominal,and some of them are: a *cleft* - a *clefted* sentence, a *talent* - a *talented* child, and a *beard* - a *bearded* man. In addition, a few **-ed** participles can assume two different morphological realizations depending on whether the participle is used attributively or predicatively, (Close, 1979, P. 87). This can be seen in the following examples:

Attributive	Predicative
a *sunken* skip	The ship is *sunk.*
molten lava	The lead is *melted.*
a clean- *shaven* man	His beard is *shaved.*
the *drunken* men	The men are *drunk.*
my *blest* father	I am blessed if I *know.*

As regards compounding, some participles can occur compounded with an adverb, an adjective , a noun, or a preposition. These compound structures with participles are common before nouns as can be seen below (Swan 1996, P. 405):

a *well –built* road	= (adv + -ed participle)
a *fast –growing* tree	= (adv + -ing participle)
a *good –looking* boy	= (adj + -ing participle)
a *blue –eyed* girl	= (adj + -ed participle/ nominal)
a *home-made* cake	= (noun + -ed participle)
a *flesh – eating* animal	= (noun + ing participle)

the *above- mentioned* point   = (prep. + -ed participle)

B. Syntactic Perspective

(Quirk et al, 1991, P.402-3) mention the following four features as characteristics of adjectives: **(i)** free occurrence in attributive position, **(ii)** free occurrence in predictive position, **(iii)** intensification with "*very*", and **(iv)** admissibility of comparison. See (Kaplan, 1989, P. 115), (Downing and Locke, 1995, P. 512-519), and (Aarts, 1997, P. 31). Now, to judge at the adjectival status of English participles, let us apply the above tests to two participles; interesting and *tired*:

  a. Attributive position:
    1. She told me an *interesting* story.
    2. The *tired* man went to bed early.
  b. Predicative position:
    3. Her story was *interesting.*
    4. The man seems *tired.*
  c. Intensification with "*very*"
    5. It was a very *interesting* story.
    6. He seems very *tired* when he came back.
  d. Admissibility of comparison:
    7. Her story was *more interesting tha*n yours.
    8. He was *more tried than* I expected.

As can be seen in the above examples, the application of the aforementioned tests shows that the participles *interesting* and *tired* achieve the full status of adjective, i.e *–ing* and *–ed* participles can be used like adjectives (Swan, 1996, P.403).They function both as modifiers and complements .These participial adjectives can be graded. See (Downing and Locke, 1995, P. 514). However, with the participles *closed* and *missing*, some of the above tests do not apply. Consider the following examples:

  a. Attributive position:
    9. She could not find the *missing* jewels.
    10. They were arrested in a *closed* area.
  b. Predicative position:
    11. Her jewels are *missing.*
    12. The shop is *closed*.
  c. Intensification with "very"
    13.* The jewels seem *very missing.*
    14.* The shop is *very closed*.
  d. Admissibility of comparison:
    15.* The jewels were *more missing than* she imagined.
    16.* The shop was *more closed than* we thought.

The application of the above tests shows that some participles behave as fully- fledged adjectives, while others display some deficiencies. At the same time, the above examples show that any participle that admits of intensification with "*very*" admits also of comparison and vice versa. However, adjectives that reject intensification with "very" accept it once they are compounded with an adverb or adjective, but not with a noun. The following examples illustrate the point:

  17.* *very boiled* eggs   vs   *very hard –boiled* eggs
  18.* a *very running* stream   vs   a *very slowly-running* stream
  19.* a *very growing* tree.   vs   a *very fast- growing* tree

But it can be argued that it is the adverb rather than the whole compound adjective that is intensified by "very". This relation can be shown in Figure (1) below:
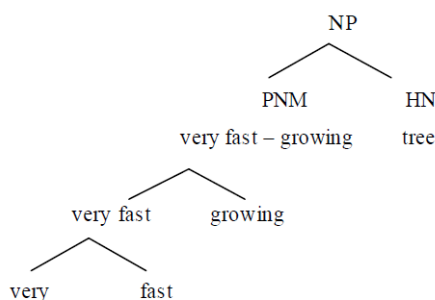

Figure (1)
NP: noun phrase, **PNM**: pronominal modifier, **HN**: head noun

Nevertheless, it might be possible to draw a hazy line of distinction between participles that admit of intensification with "very" and those that reject it. Such a line will enable us to call the former group "descriptive" adjectives and the latter group "classifying" adjectives, (Aarts and Aarts, 1988, P. 68).

Another syntactic feature of English adjectives in general is that they typically occur before the nouns they modify. This is also typical of participial adjectives in general. However, there are cases when an *–ed* participle must occur in postnominal position, (Quirk et al, 1991, P. 1329). This is the case when the *–ed* participle is followed by a by-agent/actor phrase or by other prepositional construction only post-modification is possible. See (Noonan, 1994, P. 172). Thus we have "the *defeated* army", the *offended* man are acceptable but:

20.a. the soldiers *killed in the battle*   [NOT: *the in the battle *killed* soldiers]

21.a. the books *published by Longman*   [NOT: *the by Longman *published* books]

22.a. the man *offended* by the policeman [NOT: *the *offended* by the policeman man]

But it is possible to think of these adjectives as remnants of reduced relative clauses. That means we often use participles after words in order to define or identify the nouns in the same way we use identifying relative clauses, (Swan, 1996, P.474) and (Roberts, 1998, P. 252).

20.b. the soldiers *who were killed* in the battle

21.b. the books *which were published* by Longman

22.b. the man *who was offended* by the policeman

In addition, some *–en* participials can occur in both pre-nominal and postnominal positions, but with a different meaning in either case, (Quirk el al, 1991, P. 1330). Consider the following examples:

23. a. the *teacher concerned*   = the teacher in question

  b. his *concerned look*   = his worried look

24. a. the *jobs wanted*   = the jobs wanted by individuals

  b. the *wanted man*   = the man wanted by the police

From a morpho-syntactic point of view, participial adjectives behave in a manner identical to that of adjectives proper. This is seen in the fact that the morphological form of a participial adjective is invariable regardless of the number, gender or case of the noun it modifies. This is illustrated in the following examples:

25. a. a *recorded* talk   vs   * some *recorded<u>s</u>* talk<u>s</u>

  b. a *dying* man   vs   a *dying* woman

Another morpho-syntactic consideration related to participial adjectives has to do with the transitivity or intransitivity of the verb from which the participial adjective is derived. From the fact that an *–ing* participle has an active meaning, while the *–ed* participle has a passive meaning, (Quirk et al, 1991, P.413), it follows that the *–ing* participle can be derived from both transitive and intransitive verbs, whereas the derivation of an *–ed* participle is restricted to transitive verb. Or to put it straight, an intransitive verb typically yields an *–ing* participle, while a transitive verb can yield both *–ing* and *–ed* participle adjectives. Here are some illustrative examples:

26. a. The man is *dying*   (vi)   He is a *dying* man

  b.* He is *died*   *He is *died* man

27. a. The creature *lives*   (vi)   It is a *living* creature

  b.*the creature is *lived.*   *It is a *lived* creature

28. The tale *excited* the children   (vt)   It is an *exciting* tale.

                                                     The tale is *exciting*.

                                                     The *excited* children would not go to bed.

                                                     The children were *excited*.

But the above restrictions on intransitive verbs do not apply across the board. In fact, some intransitive verbs can yield *–ed* participial adjectives. In such cases, the passive interpretation is impossible, (Swan, 1996, P,404). The following sentences exemplify the point:

29. The prisoner *escaped.*   (vi)   the *escaped* prisoner

30. The flower *has faded.*   (vi)   the *faded* flower

31. The general *retired.*   (vi)   the *retired* general

32. A leaf *has fallen.*   (vi)   a *fallen* leaf

But this should not be taken to mean that such verbs do not yield *–ing* participial adjectives. In fact, they do, and in such cases, the *–ing* participial adjectives refers to process, while its *–ed* counterparts refer to a state or result. See (Downind and Locke, 1995, P. 454). This point is illustrated in the following examples:

33. a. The child is growing.   It is a *growing* child. (process)

  b. The events are coming.   The coming events may be bad. (process)

34. a. The man has grown up.   He is a *grown* up man. (state)

  b. The leaves had fallen.   They are fallen leaves. (result)

On the other hand, the *–ing* and the *–ed* forms do not always have an adjectival status. Very often, their status is verbal or nominal. For the *–ing* form the verbal status is unquestionable when the form is followed by a direct object , (Quirk el al, 1991, P.414).Thus the *–ing* forms in the following examples have a verbal function:

35. His remarks are insulting us.

36. You are *horrifying* the children.

With the *–ed* forms, the verbal force is explicit when there is *by* – agent / actor phrase with a personal object, (Quirk el al, 1991, P.413). This point can be seen in the following examples:

37. She was *rewarded* by her boss.

38. He was *seen* off by everybody.

But both the *–ing* and he *–ed* forms achieve an adjective statue when intensified by "very" as exemplified in the following sentences:

39. His remarks are very *insulting*.

40. She looks very *tired* today.

It follows that the presence of "very" together with explicit indicator of verbal force would produce an unacceptable sentence, (ibid). This is why the following sentences are ill –formed:

41.* You are very *horrifying* the girls.

42.* She was very *rewarded* by her boss.

But with the *–ed* participle, there is an increasing tendency towards the acceptance of the co-occurrence of "very" together with a *by* –agent / actor phrase having a personal agent. (ibid: 415) Here are two examples:

43. The man was very *offended* by the police.

44. She is very much *appreciated* by everybody.

It is not out of place to state that the participle sometimes reaches full adjective status when it is compounded with another element (ibid).See (Quirk et al, 1972, P. 245).

45. The eggs are *boiled* hard	The eggs are (very) *hard - boiled*.
46. The news are *breaking* my heart	They are (very) *heart – breaking* news.
47. The girl is looking good.	She is a (very) *good-looking* girl.

That is to say many participial adjectives are compounded with a noun as can be seen in the above examples. Pseudo-participial adjectives can also be compounded: a *fair-haired* child, a *four –footed* animal. In these cases, the pseudo – participle cannot be used alone:* a *haired* child,*a *footed* animal .See (Downing and Locke, 1995,P.516).

C. Semantic Perspective

In the above section, it has been pointed out that both transitive and intransitive verbs can produce *–ing* participial adjectives, whereas typically only transitive verbs can produce **-ed** participial adjectives. This morpho-syntactic feature has very significant semantic correlations. The *–ing* participial adjective is active in meaning, whereas the **-ed** participle form gives a passive meaning. (Swan, 1996, P.404):

48. *falling* leaves = leaves that *fall*

49. a meat-*eating* animal = an animal that *eats* meat.

50. she walks out *smiling* = She was *smiling*.

51. a *broken* heart = a heart that *has been broken*

52. he lived alone, *forgotten* by every body. = He *had been forgotten* by everybody.

A further semantic extension of the above distinction is that the *–ing* participial adjective has an agentive reference, while its **-ed** counterpart has a patientive reference. The semantic role of each type of participle can be stated in the following terms:

1). The *present participle* adjective modifies a referent that is the agent of the verb from which this adjective is derived. Thus, we say:

53. *tiring* exercise	The *exercise tires* me.
54. *surprising* incident	The *incident surprises* me.

because transformationally , the nouns *exercise and incident* functions only as the *agent* of the verbs *tire and surprise*.

2). The *past participle* adjective modifies a referent that is the patient of the verb from which the adjective is derived. Thus we say:

55. a *broken* window	X *broke* the window.
56. the *boiled* egg	Someone *boiled* the egg.

because we expect *somebody* or *something* to have broken the window, and someone to have boiled the egg. In other words, we expect the *window and the egg* to have been affected by the action, rather than having affected it. But it has also been pointed out in the pervious section that some intransitive verbs can produce past participle adjectives with active meaning (Swan, 1996 ,P.404), although this is not the norm. It is not unusual to come across expressions like the following:

57. **a** the *vanished* civilization

58. **a** the *retired* general

59. **a** the *grown up* daughter

60. **a** the *escaped* prisoner

61. **a** the *developed* countries

In such cases, the semantic relationship between the past participle and the head noun is reversed. The past participle now assumes an agentive rather than a patientive role towards the head noun. This can be seen in the following paraphrases that can be postulated for the above expressions:

57. b. the civilization that (has) vanished

58. b. the general who (has) retired

59. b. the daughter who (has)grown up

60. b. the prisoner who (has) escaped

61. b. the countries that have developed

The same exception applies to those very few cases in which a present participle adjective is used to modify a noun that is related to it patiently. Consider the following examples:

62. a *losing* battle   a battle that we (have) lost

63. the *missing* jewels   the jewels that she (has) missed

In these examples, the head nouns, *battle* and *jewels*, hold a patientive relationship to their premodifying participle, *losing* and *missing* respectively.

Past participles used as adjectives are used to say how people feel,(Swan, 1996, P. 404) and (Eastwood, 1992, P.194):

64. I was very *interested* in the lesson   [NOT: I was very *interesting* in the lesson.]

65. I didn't enjoy the party because I was *bored.*   [NOT: … because I was *boring*.]

The present participles *interesting* and *boring* and the like describe people or things that cause the feelings. Compare:

66. She is an *interesting* writer, and I am very *interested* in her novels.

67. *Boring* teachers make *bored* students.

From a syntactic-semantic point of view, many adjectives have a form identical to participles .The rule of thumb in distinguishing adjectives from participles is as follows: "If the form has a verb which corresponds to it in meaning, it is a participle, if it does not, it is an adjective." (Noonan ,1994, P.173) Consider the following examples:

68. a. a *retired* salesman   [participle]

    b. an *unexpected* decision   [adjective]

    c. a *calculating* machine   [participle]

    d. a *calculating* person   [adjective]

Retired corresponds to a verb *retire, so* it is a participle. *Unexpected*, however, has no corresponding verb **unexpect* , so it is an adjective. *Calculating* does have a corresponding verb, *calculate*, but only in *calculating* machine does the meaning of the form in **–ing** correspond to the meaning of the verb. In *calculating* person, there is no such correspondence, so here *calculating* is an adjective. In *calculating machine*, it is a participle.

II. ARABIC AGENTIVE AND PATIENTIVE NOUNS (?ISMULFĀ9IL) AND (?ISMULMAF9ŪL)

A. Morphological Perspective

Arabic equivalents of English present and past participle adjective are known as *?ismulfā9il* and *?ismulmaf9ūl* respectively. The former is often referred to as agentive noun, and the latter as patientive noun. Each of these Arabic forms has two different morphological realizations depending on whether the root verb from which each form is derived is trilileral or multiletiral. Because of the fact that Arabic morphological processes are generally nonconcatenative, it would be more adequate to describe the morphology of **?ismulfā9il** and **?ismulmaf9ūl** in terms of the prosodic template model as suggested by, (Katamba ,1993, P.166). Following is a description of the morphological derivation of the above two forms by means of the prosodic template. (Rajhi, 1973, P. 75-84), (Maghalseh, 2007, P.521-532).

1). With roots of three consonants, also called triliteral, *?ismulfā9il* is derived by adding a discontinuous morph made of /ā/ inserted after the first consonant in the root, and /i/ before the final consonant, if the verb is sound e.g: θalam-a (oppress) becomes θālim (oppressor) , ja9al-a (create)becomes jā9il (creator).

69. ربنا أخرجنا من هذه القرية **الظالم** أهلها (النساء :75)

70. إني **جاعل** في الأرض خليفة (البقرة: 30)

If the verb is hollow, a verb of which the second radical is *(?alif)*, the agentive noun (?ismulfā9il) is derived by changing its second radical *(?alif)* into *(hamzah),* e.g. qām-a (stood) becomes *qā?im* (the one who is standing). If the second radical is *(hamzah),* it remains as it is e.g.: sa?al-a (asked) becomes sā?il (questioner) .

71. فنادته الملائكة وهو **قائم** يصلي في المحراب (آل عمران: 39)

72. سأل **سائل** بعذاب واقع (المعارج: 1)

If the verb is defective, a verb of which the third radical is *(wāw)* or *(yā?)*, the agentive noun is derived by inserting /ā/ after the first radical and deleting the third radical,(*yā?*), in the nominative and genitive cases, and keeping it in the accusative case. The following are illustrative examples respectively: baqiya (endure) becomes bāq-in (the thing that will endure), baghā (willfully disobey) becomes bāgh-in (the one who willfully disobeys), and θawā (dewel) becomes θāw-in (dweller).

73. ما عندكم ينفذ وما عند الله **باقٍ** (النحل : 96)

74. فمن اضطر غير **باغٍ** ولا عادٍ فلا إثم عليه (البقره : 173)

75. وما كنت **ثاوياً** في أهل مديَن (القصص : 45)

With the same class of verb, *?ismulmaf9ūl* is derived by a discontinuous morph consisting of /ma/ attached before the first constant in the root, and /ū/ before the last consonant, if the verb is sound e.g. ?akal-a (eat up) becomes ma?kūl (eaten up) baθ-a (scatter about) becomes mabθūθ (scattered about) .

76. فجعلهم كعصف <u>مأكول</u> (الفيل: 5)

77. يوم يكون الناس كالفراش المبثوث (القارعة : 4)

If the verb is hollow, it is changed into present form and the present marker (*yā?*) is changed into (*mīm*), e.g: Iām-a (blame) becomes malūm (blameworthy).

78. فتُلقى في جهنم ملوماً مدحوراً (الاسراء : 39)

If the verb is defective, it is also changed into present form and the present marker (*yā?*) is changed into (*mīm*) and the final vowel (*wāw*) is geminated, e.g. : raj-a (hope) become marjū (the one who is hoped).

79. قالوا يا صالح قد كنت فينا مرجواً قبل هذا (هود : 62)

The two processes are shown in Figures (2) and (3) below:

Vocalic Melody Tier
(Agentive)

Skeletal Tier

Root Tier

Tier Conflation

c v v c v c

k a a t i b (writer)

Figure (2)

Patientive Morpheme Tier
Vocalic Melody Tier

Skeletal Tier

Root Tier

Tier Conflation

c v c c v v c

m a k t u u b (something that is written)
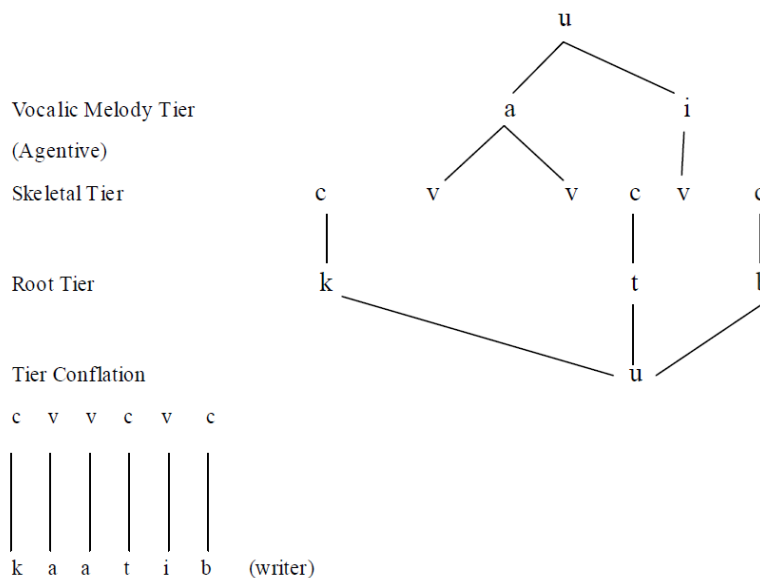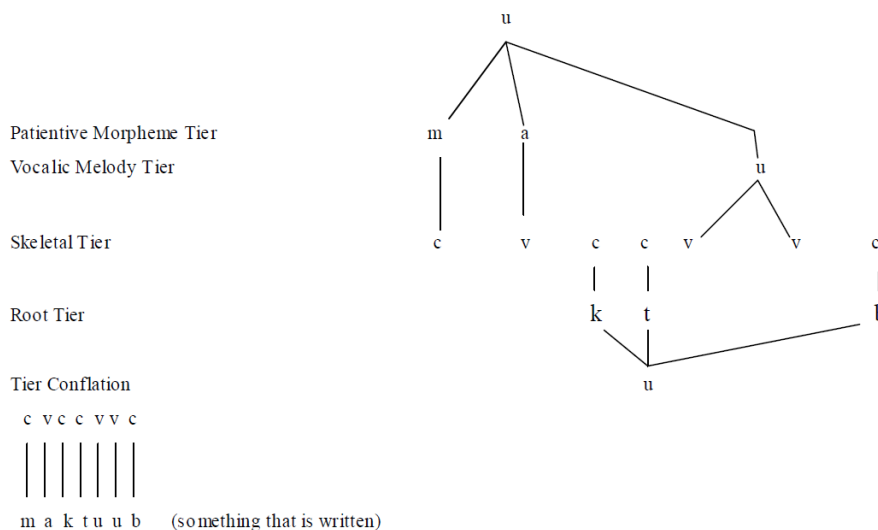
Figure (3)

Figure (2) represents the prosodic template for the the derivation of ?ismulfā9il (kātib) from the triconsonantal root (ktb). Figure (3) shows the prosodic template for the derivation of ?ismulmaf9ūl (maktūb) from the same triconsonantal root.

2. Verbs of multiliteral roots produce different morphological forms of ?ismulfā9il and ?ismulmaf9ūl. With such verbs the discontinuous agentive morph consists of /mu/ added before the first constant of the root, and /i/ inserted immediately before the final consonant of the root, e.g. ?axraj –a (brings forth) becomes muxrij (the one who brings forth).

80. والله مخرجٌ ما كنتم تكتمون (البقره :72)

The patientive morph consists of /mu/ prefixed to the first consonant in the root, and /a/ inserted before the final consonant of the root, e.g. ?axraj –a (cast out) becomes (muxraj) (be cast out).

81. قالوا لئن لم تنته يا لوط لتكونن من المخرجين (الشعراء : 167)

Figures (4) and (5) below illustrate this point:

morpheme tier   u

Patientive Morpheme Tier   m   a
Vocalic Melody Tier   i

Skeletal Tier   c   v   c   v   v   c   v   c
Root tier

          š   ā   h   i   d

Tier Conflation

u

c v c v v c v c

m u š a a h i d   (viewer)

Figure (4)

            u

atientive Morpheme Tier   m   u
Vocalic Melody Tier   a

Skeletal Tier   c   v   c   v   v   c   v   c

Root Tier   š   ā   h   a   d

Tier Conflation

u

c v c v v c v c

m u š a a h a d   (one that is viewed)
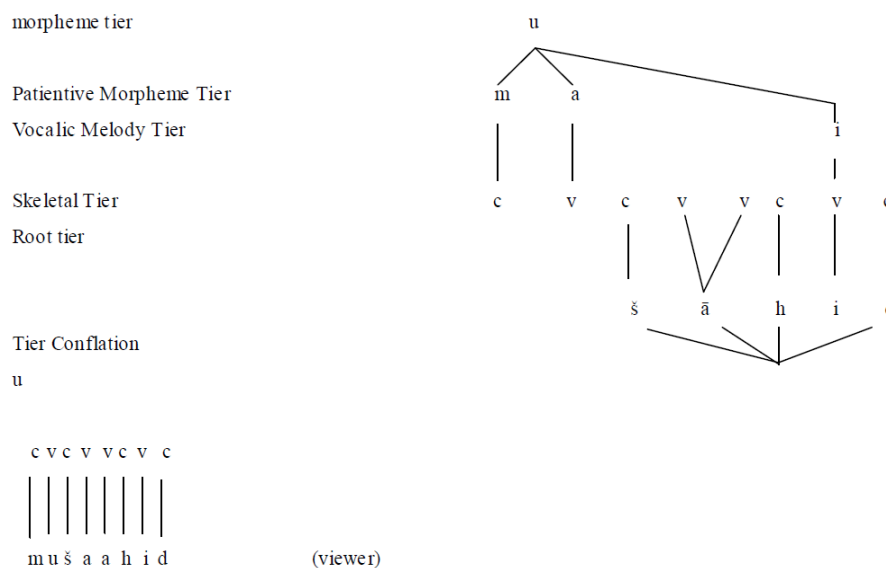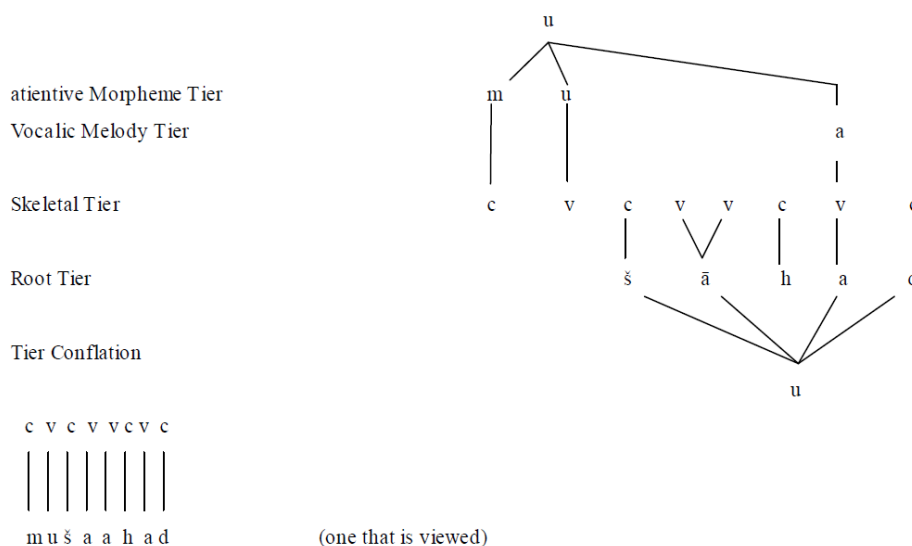
Figure (5)

Figure (4) shows the prosodic template for the derivation of *?ismulfā9il* (mušāhid) "viewer" from the quadriliteral root (šāhad-a), whereas figure (5) shows the prosodic template for the derivation of *?ismulmaf9ūl* (mušāhad) "the one that is viewed" from the same quadriliteral root.

With some verbs of multiliteral roots, both *?ismulfā9il* and ?ismulmaf9ūl can assume the same morphological form, (Rajhi,A, 1973, P.83) and (Afaghni, S, 1081, P.198-208) The meaning can be recovered from the context. This is especially the case when the penultimate sound in the multiliteral root is /ā/ and the verb is transitive, as in the following examples:

82. ?ixtāra - muxtār   : (lit) = chooser / something chosen
83. ?ightāba   - mughtāb   : (lit) = gossiper / someone gossiped

With some triconsonantal verbs, it is possible, semantically, for ?ismulmaf9ūl to have the alternative form *fa9īl*, as in the following examples:

84. qatala -   maqtūl / qatīl -   (killed)
85. jaraħa -   majrūħ / jarīħ -   (wounded)

B. Syntactic Perspective

From a morpho-syntactic point of view *?imulfā9il* and *?ismulmaf9ūl* show full agreement in number, gender, case, and definition with their referents, especially when the referent is personal or non personal noun, (Humuz, 1993, P.68 – 84) and (Afghani, 1981, P.198-208) as the following examples illustrate:

● **Agentive Noun:**
86. a   (الحشر:24) هو الخالق البارئ المصور له الأسماء الحسنى
       (definite, nominative, masculine, singular)

b. ولا يأب كاتب أن يكتب بما علمه الله (البقرة: 282)
   (indefinite, nominative, masculine, singular)

c. والسارق والسارقة فأقطعوا ايديهما جزاءً بما كسبا (المائدة: 38)
   (definite , nominative, masculine, singular)

d. لا عاصم اليوم من أمر الله (هود:43)
   (indefinite , nominative, masculine, singular)

e. ربنا أخرجنا من هذه القرية الظالم أهلها (النساء : 75)
   (definite , dative, masculine, singular)

f. ثم تردون الى عالم الغيب والشهادة (التوبة: 94)
   (indefinite , dative, masculine, singular)

87. a والسارق والسارقة فأقطعوا ايديهما جزاءً بما كسبا (المائدة: 38)
   (definite, nominative, feminine, singular)

b. كل نفس ذائقه الموت (الأنبياء: 35)
   (indefinite , nominative, feminine, singular)

c. ما كنت قاطعة أمراً حتى تشهدون (النحل:32)
   (indefinite, accusative, feminine, singular)

d. يوم تذهل كل مرضعه عما أرضعت (الحج:2)
   (indefinite , dative, feminine, singular)

88. a إذ يلتقى الملتقيان عن اليمين وعن الشمال (ق : 17)
   (definite, nominative, masculine, dual)

b. قالوا ان هذان لساحران (طه : 63)
   (indefinite, nominative, masculine, dual)

c. بل يداه مبسوطتان (المائدة: 64)
   (indefinite, nominative, feminine, dual)

d. وسخر لكم الشمس والقمر دائبين (ابراهيم: 33)
   (indefinite, accusative, masculine/ feminine, dual)

e. فلن لم يجد فصيام شهرين متتابعين (المجادله : 4)
   (indefinite, dative, masculine, dual)

89. a. واولئك هم المفلحون (البقرة: 5)
   (definite, nominative, masculine, plural)

b. بل هم قوم طاغون (الذاريات: 53)
   (indefinite, nominative, masculine, plural)

c. وكنا نحن الوارثين (القصص: 58)
   (definite, accusative, masculine, plural)

d. كونو قردة خاسئين (البقرة: 65)
   (indefinite, accusative, masculine, plural)

e. فسبح بحمد ربك وكن من الساجدين (الحجر : 98)
   (definite, dative, masculine, plural)

f. وما هم بخارجين من النار (البقرة:167)
   (indefinite, dative, masculine, plural)

90. a فالصالحات قانتات حافظات للغيب (النساء: 34)
   (definite, nominative, feminine, plural)

b. هل هن كاشفات ضره (الزمر : 38)
   (indefinite, nominative, feminine, plural)

c. ليدخل المؤمنين والمؤمنات , جنات تجري من تحتها الأنهار (الفتح : 5)
   (definite, accusative, feminine, plural)

d. والنخل باسقات لها طلع نضيد (ق: 10)
   (indefinite, accusative, feminine, plural)

e. فالمدبرات أمرا (النازعات : 5)
   (definite, dative, feminine, plural)

● **Patientive Nouns:**

91. a وهذا كتاب أنزلناه مباركٌ (الأنعام: 157)
   (indefinite, nominative, masculine, singular)

b. وقل ربي أنزلني منزلاً مباركاً (المؤمنون : 29)
   (indefinite, accusative, masculine, singular)

c. الى يوم وقت معلوم (الحجر : 38)
   (definite , dative, masculine, singular)

d. الى قدر معلوم (المرسلات: 10)
   (indefinite, dative, masculine, singular)

92. a وقالت اليهود يد الله مغلولة (المائدة: 64)

(indefinite, nominative, feminine, singular)

b. والشجرة الملعونة في القرآن(الإسراء : 60)

(definite, accusative, feminine, singular)

c. ولئن أخرنا عنهم العذاب الى أمة معدودة (هود : 8)

(indefinite, dative, feminine, singular)

93. a إذ المجرمون ناكسو رؤوسهم (السجدة :12)

(definite, nominative, masculine, plural)

b. وإن كلٌّ لما جميع لدينا محضرون (يس : 53)

(indefinite, nominative, masculine, plural)

c. وترى المجرمين يومئذٍ مقرنين في الأصفاد(إبراهيم : 49)

(indefinite, accusative, masculine, plural)

d. قال انك من المنذرين (الأعراف :10)

(definite, dative, masculine, plural)

94. a والمحصنات من النساء (النساء :25)

(definite, nominative, feminine, plural)

b. ولهم فيها أزواجٌ مطهرةٌ (البقرة : 25)

(indefinite, nominative, feminine, plural)

c. جنات عدن مفتحة لهم الأبواب (ص : 50)

(indefinite, accusative, feminine, plural)

d. يوم يكون الناس كالفراش المبثوث (القارعة :4)

(definite, dative, feminine, plural)

From a functional point of view, the two forms, *?ismulfā9il* and *?ismulmaf9ūl*, can realize three functions; modificational, nominal and adverbial, as follows:

a. Modificational: Here the two forms function as pre-nominal modifier and post-nominal modifiers typically following their referents:

95. ربناّأخرجنا من هذه القرية الظالمِ أهلها (البقره : 126)   pre – nominal   modifier

96. اهدنا الصّراط المستّقيمِ (الفاتحة : 6)   past – nominal   modifier

b. Nominal: Here the two forms are capable of realizing almost any function that is typically realized by noun:

97. واللّه مخرجٌ ما كنتم تكتمون (البقرة : 72)   (subject complement)

98. فيها سررٌ مَرفوعةٌ (الغاشية : 13)   (subject complement)

c. Adverbial: The typical adverbial function that the two forms can realize is that of manner adverbial; as the following examples show:

99. فتُلقى في جهنم ملوماً مدحوراً (الاسراء : 39)   (manner adverbial)

100. فما لهم عن التذكرة مُعرضين (المدثر : 49)   (manner adverbial)

The two forms, *?ismulfā9il* and *?ismulmaf9ūl* can be derived only from verbs. The former can be derived from both transitive and intransitive verbs, whereas the latter is derived only from transitive verbs, as can be seen in the following examples:

101. ما كنتُ قاطعةً أمراً حتى تشهدون (النمل : 32)

102. إنّ ابراهيمَ كان امةً قانتاً لله حنيفاً (النحل : 120)

103. وإنّكَ لمنَ المُرسلين (البقره : 252)

With respect to complementation, *?ismulfā9il* and *?ismulmaf9ūl* behave in the same manner as their corresponding verbs. This means that *?ismulfā9il* that is derived from a transitive verb can have a direct object, and even an indirect object if the verb is ditransitive. Consider the following examples:

104. a. انزل الله سكينته على رسوله وعلى المؤمنين (التوبة : 26)

b. انا منزلُون على اهل هذه القرية رجزاً (العنكبوت: 34)

105. a. منح المعلمُ الطالبَ وساماً

b. المعلم مانحٌ الطالبَ وساماً

In sentence (104.b) above, the underlined noun رجزاً functions as direct object of the italicized agentive noun منزلون. In sentence (105.b) the underlined nouns الطالب and وساماً function respectively as indirect object and direct object of the italicized agentive noun مانحاً . This transitivity is not possible for those forms of *?ismulfā9il* that are derived from intransitive verbs. Such forms do not take any object, as can be seen in the following example:

106. *a.* هربَ الطفلُ

b. الطفلُ هاربُ

As far as *?ismulmaf9ūl* is concerned, it has the function of its passive verb. This means that *?ismulmaf9ūl* that is derived from a transitive verb can have a pro-agent :

107 . ذلك يومٌ مجموعٌ له الناسُ (هود : 103)

108 . الخيلُ معقودٌ بنواصيها الخيرُ (حديث شريف)

The underlined nouns in the above sentences function as pro-agents of the italicized patientive nouns, مجموع and معقود.

As pointed out above, *?ismulfā9il* and *?ismulmaf9ūl* agree with their referents in terms of number, gender and case. In fact, this statement needs some modification. Adjectives referring to qualities that are exclusively characteristics of females may not show agreement in gender with their referents. Consider the following examples:

109 . سيدةٌ حاملٌ

110. إمرأةٌ عاقرٌ

Notice that the two words حاملُ and عاقرُ are masculine in form although their respective referents سيدةُ and إمرأة are feminine. This is because the qualities of pregnancy and infertility are characteristics of women.

C. Semantic Perspectives

When used as postnominal modifiers, *?ismulfā9il and ?imulmaf9ūl* display a high degree of semantic regularity. The former modifies a referent that is invariably the agent of the verb from which *?ismulfā9il* itself is derived. The latter, i.e. *?ismulmaf9ūl* modifies a referent that is the patient of the verb from which *?imulmaf9ūl* itself is derived. In other words, there is a consistent agentive relationship between *?ismulfā9il* and its referent in the same way that there is consistent patientive relationship between *?ismulmaf9ūl* and its referent, (Zamakhshari, P. 230), (Ibn Ya?ish, 6, P. 80), (Al- Istrabadi, 1985, P.2: 203) and (Samaira'i, 1981, P. 59) These interpretations can be seen in the following examples:

111. السم قاتلٌ

112. الشباك مكسورٌ

In sentence number (111) the noun السم is transformationally the agent of verb قاتلُ from which the italicized ?ismulfā9il, (قايل), is derived. Similarly, in sentence number (112) the noun الشباك is transformationally the patient of the verb كسر from which ?ismulmaf9ūl, (مكسور) is derived. These distinctive semantic relationships holding between the above underlined head nouns and their postnominal modifiers, i.e. ?ismulfā9il and ?ismulmaf9ūl, are not influenced by the number of letters / consonants found in the root verb from which the postnominal modifier is derived. Whether the root verb is trilateral or multiliteral, the semantic role played by the head noun towards *?ismulfā9il* is that of effecting agent, whereas the role played by the head noun towards *?ismulamf9ūl* is that of effected patient. The above labeling of *?ismulfā9il* as agentive noun, and *?ismulmaf9ūl* as patientive noun may not be appropriate when these two forms are used in a modificational function. In fact, in such a function, it is certainly more appropriate to refer to ?ismulfā9il as *agentive adjective*, and to refer to ?ismulmaf9ūl as *patientive adjective*.

From another semantic point of view that has morphological correlations, there are a number of forms that are almost semantically equivalent to ?ismulfā9il and ?ismulma9ūl, but which have different morphological realization. One of these forms which is sometimes semantically equivalent to ?ismulfā9il and ?ismulma9ūl is known as صفه مشبهة (lit. likened adjective). Some of the adjectives that belong to ?ismulfā9il are those that have the morphological forms fa99lān, faglā?, fa9il, and fa9īl :

113. ولما رجع موسى الى قومه غضبان اسفا (الاعراف : 150)

114. إنها بقرة صفراء (البقرة : 69)

115. وشروه بثمن بخس (يوسف : 20)

116. انه لفرحٌ فخور (هود : 10)

117. وانبتت من كل زوج بهيج (الحج :5)

Some of the adjectives that belong to ?ismulmaf9ūl are some of those that have the morphological form fa9īl, such as قتيل (killed) and جريح (wounded). Other forms that may assume the semantic role of ?ismulfā9il are known by the term صيغة مبالغة (lit. exaggerative form), (Maghalseh, 2002, P.424) and (Afaghani, 1981, P.198-208). This class may assume various morphological forms, such as fa9il, fa99āl, fa9ūl, mif9āl, and fa9īl. The following are illustrative examples:

118. بل هم قوم خَصِمون (الزخرف :58)

119. ان ربك فعّالٌ لما يريد (هود :107)

120. وحملها الانسان انه كان ظلوماً جهولاً (الاحزاب :72)

121. وارسلنا السماء عليهم مدراراً (الانعام : 6)

122. ان الله كان سميعاً بصيراً (النساء : 58)

One more point that is worth mentioning is that ?ismulfā9il and ?ismulmaf9ūl indicate pastness, futurity, continuity and durability, (Samira'I, 1981 , P. 51), (Zamakhshari, 4, P. 189), (Zamakhshari , 2 , P.230), (Al-Badri,1404, P. 272 & 308) , (Al-Istrabadi , 1985 ,2, P. 198).

(a) Pastness:

123. في الله شكٌ فاطرُ السماوات والارض (ابراهيم :10)

124 . كل يجري لأجلٍ مسمّى (الرعد :2)

The agentive noun فاطر in sentence (123) indicates pastness to mean فطر (created).Similarly, the patientive noun مسمّى (-ed appointed) in sentence (124) indicates pastness to mean(-ed appointed).

(b) Futurity:

125. كل نفس ذائقةُ الموت (الانبياء :35)

126. انّا مرسلوا الناقة (القمر :27)

127. ذلك يومٌ مجموعٌ له الناسُ و ذلك يومٌ مشهود (هود :103)

The agentive noun ذائقة in sentence (125), and مرسلوا in sentence (126) show futurity to mean (Every soul shall have a taste of death) and (We will send the she-camel) respectively. The patientive noun مجموع and مشهود in sentence (127) show futurity to mean (a day for which mankind will be gathered : That will be a Day of Testimony).

(c) Present time:

128.   ما لهم عن التذكرة <u>معرضين</u> (المدثر: 49)

129.   أني <u>مغلوبٌ</u> فانتصر (القمر: 10)

By the same token, the underlined agentive noun معرضين and patientive noun مغلوب indicate present time to mean (*They turn away from admonition*) and (*I am one overcome*).

(d) Continuity:

130.   انّ الله <u>فالقُ</u> الحبّ والنوى (الانعام: 95)

131.   اصحاب اليمين ما اصحاب اليمين في سدر <u>مخضود</u> وطلح <u>منضود</u> وظل <u>ممدود</u> وماء <u>مسكوب</u> (الواقعة : 27-31)

The underlined agentive noun فالق in sentence (130) and the underlined patientive nouns مخضود, منضود , ممدود , and مسكوب in sentence (131) imply continuity to mean respectively: (It is Allah Who causeth the seed-grain) and (the date-stone to split and sprout), (He is that cleaveth the day-break from the dark), (They will be among Lote-trees without thorns, among Talh-trees with flowers piled one above another, in shade long-extended, by water flowing constantly).

(e) Durability:

132.   <u>مالكِ</u> يوم الدّين (الفاتحة: 4)

133.   فيها سررٌ <u>مرفوعةٌ</u> واكوابٌ <u>موضوعةٌ</u> ونمارقُ <u>مصفوفةٌ</u> وزرابيُّ <u>مبثوثةٌ</u> (الغاشية: 13-16)

The underlined words in the above sentences indicate duration to mean respectively:(*Master of the Day of Judgment. Therein will be couches of dignity raised on high. Goblets placed ready. And cushions set in rows. And rich carpets all spread out*).

<div align="center">III.   CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS</div>

The following contrastive analysis will be carried out on the three levels of linguistic analysis handled in the two foregoing sections, i.e. the morphological, syntactic and semantic levels. The ensuing contrastive analysis will reveal the extent to which English participial adjectives and their Arabic equivalents, namely *?ismulfā9il* and *?ismilmaf9ūl* converge and / or diverge in relation to their respective linguistic behavior. However, for convenience, throughout the following sections, the terms *agentive noun* and *patientive noun* will be adopted to refer to the morphological forms of *?ismulfā9il* and *?ismulmaf9ūl* respectively.

A. Morphological Contrast

There is no similarity at all between the morphology of English participial adjectives and that of their Arabic equivalents. Whereas the derivation of English participial adjectives can be accounted for in terms of concatenative morphology, there is no way of describing the derivation of Arabic agentive and patientive nouns except by means of nonconcatenative morphology using prosodic template model. This is to say that the derivation of English participial adjectives is only a matter of suffixation that does not interfere with the internal phonological structure of the base. But when it comes to Arabic, the derivation of the agentive and patientive nouns relies heavily on vocalic infixation which may sometimes be accompanied by both consonantal and vocalic prefixation. Such a process involves the manipulation of the internal phonological structure of the base in such a way that concatenative morphological models cannot account for.

On the other hand, whereas English makes use of only two morphological forms of participial adjectives, namely, the *–ing* and the *–ed* participle forms regardless of the phonological structure of the base, Arabic is more variable in that it allows four different morphological forms of agentive and patientive nouns. In addition, in Arabic, the phonological structure of the base / root is the major factor that determines the morphological form of the agentive or patientive noun. This is evidenced by the fact that the morphological forms of Arabic agentive and patientive nouns that are derived from trilateral roots are completely different from those of their counterparts that are derived from quadrilateral or multiliteral roots.

From inflectional point of view, Arabic agentive and patientive nouns / adjectives have to agree with their referents in terms of number, gender, case and definiteness / indefiniteness. In contrast, English participial adjectives have invariable morphological forms regardless of any concordial aspect.

From a morpho-syntactic point of view, Arabic agentive and patientive nouns are invariably deverbal, i.e, derived from verbs, whereas English participial adjectives are either denominal (derived from noun), or deverbal. From another morpho- syntactic perspective, in Arabic transitive verb can yield both agentive and patientive nouns, whereas an intransitive verb yields only an agentive noun. However, in English there are cases when the *–ed* participial adjective is derived from an intransitive verb, as in *an escaped prisoner* or *grown man*.

B. Syntactic Contrast

Besides their modificational function, Arabic agentive and patientive nouns can realize the syntactic functions typical of nouns. English participial adjectives tend to display the same kind of behavior, except that they do not realize the function of manner adverbial. This can be seen in the following examples:

134.   I don't like the *unknown*.   (Od)

135.   The *unknown* is *interesting*   (S+Cs)

136.   I found him *interesting*.   (Co)

For Arabic examples, see (95-100) above.

From a systematic point of view, Arabic agentive and patientive nouns usually postmodify their referents. English participial adjectives typically behave in the opposite manner. That is, they premodify their referents. The following examples illustrate the point:

137.   قرأت رواية ممتعة.

138.   We saw a roaring lion.

With respect to complementation / transitivity, Arabic agentive and patientive nouns behave like their corresponding verbs so that, by extension, Arabic agentive and patientive nouns can be described as transitive or intransitive, (cf -105 104 above). Contrastively, English participial adjectives that are compounded with nouns have these nouns transformationally as direct object even though the noun precedes the participle. This can be seen in the following example:

139.   That animal eats *flesh.* It's a *flesh –eating* animal.

C. Semantic Contrast

Arabic shows a higher degree of systemacity than English. All Arabic agentive nouns are active in meaning and governed an agentive relationship to their head nouns. Similarly, all Arabic patientive nouns are passive in meaning, and related patientively to the nouns they modify. In English, the situation is marred by some kind of confusion in the semantic roles of participial adjectives. It is sometimes possible for an **-ing** participial adjective referent to assume a patientive roles, and for the referent of its**–ed** counterpart to assume an agentive role although the reverse is the typical kind of relationship which each of them usually has with its head noun. The following examples are illustrative of this point:

140. a. We have lost the battle   **b.** It is *losing* battle
141. a. The tree has fallen.   **b.** It is a *fallen* tree.

In (142.b) the head noun *battle* is modified by an *–ing* participle although the noun itself is the patient of the verb *lose* from which the participle *losing* is derived. By the same token, in (141.b), the past participle adjective *fallen* is atypically used to modify the head noun *tree* which is the *agent* of the verb *fall* from which the participle itself is derived.

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Deverbal Nominalisations across Written-spoken Dichotomy in the Language of Science

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Abstract—Scientific language has always been both a source of difficulty for the students of science and, in the recent decades in particular, a theme for speculation for the scholars seeking to describe and analyse language as it is used and conceived. The language of science has always been presumed to be more difficult than the language used in other fields. Scientific concepts and their sophistication are one source of its difficulty. The writing style and dynamics preferred by writers in the fields of science is commonly considered another source of such difficulty. Nominalisation, the use of derivative nouns of verbs and adjectives, which is more prevalent in the language of science compared with the language used elsewhere, is another feature attested to by many scholars. The present study aimed at comparative investigation of the phenomenon of deverbal nominalisations (nominalisations with verb origin) across written and spoken scientific language. The spoken samples were chosen from BBC's programs in the genre of science and the written samples from science textbooks and credited science magazines (different issues). The samples in each modality included 400,000 words (for each modality) amounting to 800,000 words as the total size of the corpora considered. The findings showed a higher frequency of verbs in spoken modality and of nominalisations in written. Another interesting point was the highest frequency of material process type in both verbs and deverbal nominalisations. (The typology of processes from the Hallidayean systemic functional grammar framework was the basis for classification of verbs and their respective nominalised editions.) Relational process type which claimed the second highest frequency among verbs showed a much lower frequency among nominalisations. The consideration of the slots accommodating the nominalisations in the sentences also revealed insightful points about possible differences between spoken and written language (of science) in terms of the concentration of semantic and lexical density.

Index Terms—systemic functional grammar/linguistics, grammatical metaphor, nominalisation, spoken scientific language, written scientific language, process types

I. INTRODUCTION

Scientific language, the language used to convey scientific concepts and notions, has attracted the attention of scholars in the field of applied linguistics for the purposes of both understanding this specific type of language and of helping the students of science acquire the specific register of language with functional levels of success. It has prevalently been associated with the reputation of being more difficult and complex than non-scientific registers. Beside the complexity of scientific notions, which are normally beyond the daily and routine demand of knowledge requirements, the diction and method scientists opt to employ in the disciplinary corpora is unanimously agreed upon as a main source of complexity. The authors of scientific corpora tend to avoid first person singular case and likewise try to avoid expression of ideas as their personal beliefs or understandings and, therefore, incline to use projections such as 'it can be claimed/concluded that' instead of adverbs like 'seemingly' or 'I presume that…'. This serves the purpose of making the arguments appear more impersonal, and thus, acceptable, meanwhile being another source of complexity in scientific discourse.

One of the major ways for creating such complexity is the attempt to include more information in a smaller number of words than it is common in normal language. An author can subsume a whole proposition, which is normally expressed via a stand-alone clause, in another clause, encompassing more than a single proposition in a single clause. This serves manifold purposes. It reduces the number of words in favour of a higher level of lexical and semantic

density. Moreover, it objectifies the act taking place in the original proposition and can either justify it by indirectly taking it for granted, or removing the responsibility of the agent through its omission from the clause. Based on the content and context of sentences, such a strategy can serve different purposes. In this process, the verb of the original proposition loses its agent and the nominalised version of the verb is employed, which is void of agent or time, and is considered an existent reality, or in Fairclough's (2003) terms, it is objectified. Moreover, it functions as a satellite for another verb, adding more semantic load to the typical scope hinging around any single verb.

II. BACKGROUND

A. Metaphor

Metaphor is, loosely put, the use of a lexical form for a semantic concept different from the semantic concept it is primarily intended for. In a more extensive use, it is the utilisation of a conceptual device for a different purpose than its originally intended one. In order to elucidate a concept, for instance, people might resort to a different but similar or analogous concept to convey their intentions. Therefore, it is a means of conveying and developing the realm and depth of knowledge. Baake (2003), in a similar token, believes that different types of metaphor have a role in the production, development or fine-tuning of knowledge. Science, according to him, "has never been without metaphor and related figures of thought and speech" (p. 68). He mentions Copernicus's metaphor of sun as a lantern on a hill as an illustrative example from the early days of modern science.

B. The Notion of Metaphor and Its Grammatical Edition

The ability to utilise a form to a (semantic) content different from, and in most cases similar to, that originally intended for that specific form constitutes the basis for literally all metaphoric use of language. Such ability plays a crucial role in any human being's introduction to and accommodation in the system of human existing and developing knowledge. Metaphor is considered one of the concepts linking semantics and lexicogrammar and also a good tool to study the semogenesis, or the evolution of meaning in cultures and individuals (Steiner, 2002-2003, *inter alia*).

Brought to the fore mainly through the works of the prominent systemicist, M.A.K. Halliday and his followers, grammatical metaphor enjoys a similar pivotal position in the development of science and expounding its various areas. In grammatical metaphor, it is the grammatical category (parts of speech or word classes) that falls beyond the common expectation. In sum, lexical metaphor includes the change of meaning while the word class remain the same (a noun taking up a different ideational meaning), while in the case of grammatical metaphor, the ideational meaning is consistent while the word class used to express it changes (e.g. *implement* and *implementation* have the same basic concept of a process) (Halliday, 1994; Halliday and Matthiessen, 1999); this is called transcategorisation. According to this notion of grammatical metaphor, first, every element in any language belongs in a category or class of words, and second, some words can depart from the word class they originally belong in. Therefore, semantic entities would likewise be expressed through a word class different from the originally intended one (Halliday and Matthiessen, 1999 and 2004).

Systemic functional linguistics considers three main metafunctions for language, which are realised in any piece of language use: *ideational*, *interpersonal* and *textual*. The ideational metafunction includes our understanding of the world and how notions and entities are interrelated. The interpersonal metafunction substantiates the social role and potentials of language. Finally, the arrangement of and the emphasis on different parts and elements in utterances and clauses is what the textual metafunction deals with (Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Halliday, 1985 and 1994).

These three metafunctions of language are determined by three mainly parallel determinants. They are field, tenor, and mode. Parallel to the ideational metafunction is field, or the matter of content or what is being talked about. It is also referred to as discourse type. The second factor considers the people involved in a linguistic exchange and the social ranks and relations they have, which is in accordance with the interpersonal metafunction. Mode, the last factor, runs parallel to textual metafunction and pertains to the form and format of the text being produced and exchanged. A simple example of this last factor could be whether it is written or spoken (Halliday, 1994; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004; Eggin, 2004; Thompson, 1996, 2004; Martin, Matthiessen and Painter, 1997).

The interplay between the closely connected sets of metafunctions and the context components (field, tenor and mode) confers on the language two types of choices to be made in each slot of a clause. They are paradigmatic and syntagmatic structures. *Paradigmatic structure*, or in better words *system*, is the source of power and potential for this theory of grammar, and also the source of the term *systemic* in the theory's name, that is, Systemic Functional Linguistics/Grammar. In paradigmatic system, in each stage of the production of a sentences or an utterance, the user has a full set of resources for each of the three main functions. Each choice made by the user is a choice denoting at least one of the three metafunctions. These three metafunctions should be considered simultaneously, or more appropriately, synchronously. Moreover, the choice of each item bears comprehensive implication of the possible (set of) choices to follow (hence *syntagmatic structure*) (Halliday, 2003; Matthiessen, Teruya and Lam, 2010). The result of the interaction between the two structures would be the unfolding of meaning on the part of the producer (speaker or writer) and its accumulation on the part of the receiving end (reader or speaker).

In systemic functional linguistics, within the ideational metafunction, each type of semantic notions or relations is *construed* through a particular type of linguistic items. Entities are normally construed through nouns, processes

through verbs and attributes through adjectives (Halliday, 1985 and 1994; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004). Such one-on-one relationships are unmarked (or congruent in functional systemic terms) (Halliday, 1994; Thompson, 1996 and 2004, *inter alia*). Prepositions, however, or more comprehensively, functional words, are typically employed to express the relationships among the semantic notions conveyed through lexical items.

There are three types of grammatical metaphor corresponding to the three metafunctions. In the ideational grammatical metaphor, the unmarked respective relationship between the three semantic notion types of entities, processes and attributes and their related construal vehicles of nouns, verbs and adjectives is dislocated. In the most common form of grammatical metaphor, nouns are used to construe processes and attributes (*nominalisation*). Therefore, the relationship between the three basic semantic types and the construal vehicles is marked. In the interpersonal metaphor, utterances take up social roles different from their original ones. Finally, in textual metaphor, the theme-rheme structure deviates from the unmarked structure. It-cleft, wh-cleft and initial adverbial clauses and phrases are some examples of textual grammatical metaphor.

C. Processes

Processes are the denotations of the pivotal elements of semantic functioning of human cognition and in the lexicogrammar as well (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004). Out of the three metafuctions, the ideational one, which treats language as representation of human experiences, is employed to convey the tenably broadest of the three fields of meaning served by language. This, however, is not intended to denigrate the other two metafunctions; it is simply wider and can accommodate a much more diverse range of what human beings can sense and conceive of, including constant flow of events like 'happening', 'doing', 'sensing', 'saying', 'being' or 'having' (Halliday and Matthiessen, 1999 and 2004). *Transitivity* is the system that governs the relationship among bits and pieces of our conceptions of the world (Halliday, 1994; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004; Eggins, 2004). Thus, it can be cogently claimed that verbs are employed to denote all experience types known to human cognition, physical and concrete or mental and abstract.

D. Process Types and Transitivity

The basis of ideational metafunction of language is developed around phenomena that happen in the world experienced by human beings. Happenings do have causing factors or participants. They may have recipients. They inevitably happen within contexts, not in vacuum, thus they are/may be connected with the circumstances. Therefore, the basis of human experience, and subsequently the ideational potential of language are determined by what they perceive by phenomena and their related factors and participants. Lock (1996) defines *transitivity* as "the general term for the configuration of participants associated with different processes" (p. 73). Process in SFL is the semantic phenomenon realised by verbs.

Based on the type of the process, the accompanying participants are determined (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, inter alia). Halliday and Matthiessen (2004 and 1999) believe that there are six main process types in English. Figure 1 shows these six types schematically (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 172).
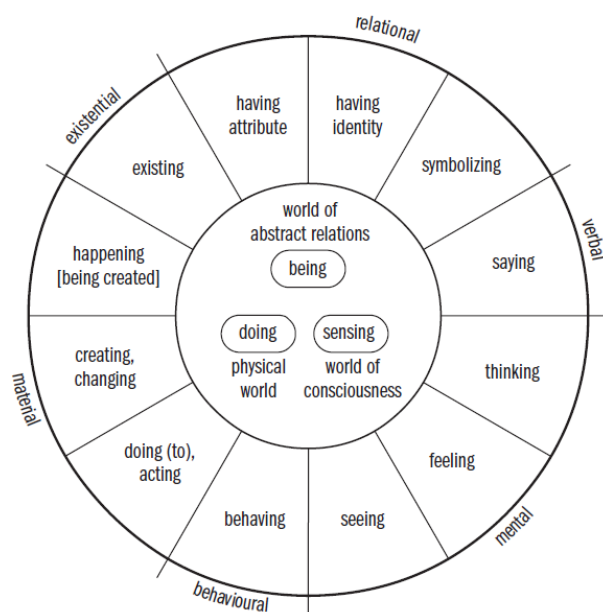
Figure 1. The grammar of experience: process types in English.

The processes of the outer experience in the world are referred to as material processes, while those denoting the inner experience, or the experience of consciousness, are referred to as mental processes. The processes expressing the

link or relation between two fragments of experience are called relational processes. Verbal processes refer to those that reflect or are induced by inner experience and involve any type of saying or doing something with language. Behavioural processes refer to the outer manifestation of inner feelings, experience, intension or decisions, such as laughing. Finally, the existential process type refers to verbs by which phenomena of all kinds are simply recognised to 'be', or 'exist'. The point needs to be clarified that these are the main process types of most languages. There may exist minor types in some languages, and there is a degree of variance among languages in terms of the minor ones. Moreover, these notions are not crisp Aristotelian categories; rather, they are fuzzy notions and there may be some overlap among some type samples (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, pp. 170-174). Figure 2 presents the main elements of the system network of transitivity in English (Halliday and Matthiessen. 2004, p. 173).
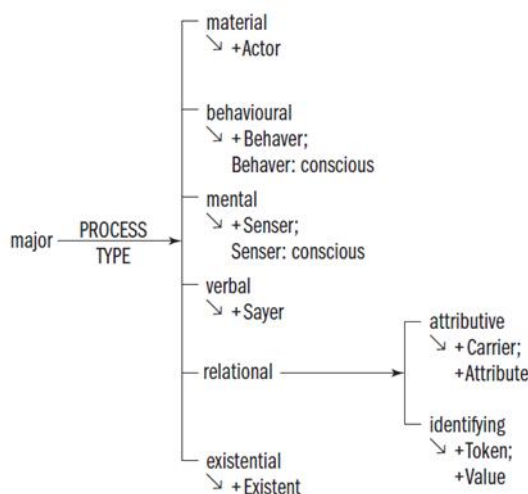
Figure 2. Transitivity represented as system network.

E. Grammatical Metaphor in Processes

Transcategorisation is where the case of grammatical metaphor of processes, and therefore verbs, belongs in. There is, however, not a single route for all verbs to undergo grammatical metaphor. Compare the following examples (Halliday and Matthiessen, 1999, p. 242):

analyse verb: (*analyst* n./*analysis* n./*analytic* adj./*analytically* adv.)
behave verb: (*behaviour* n./ *behavioural* adj./ *behaviourally* adv./ *behaviourist* n.)

In some cases, fewer though, verbs are formed on the basis of other classes of words rather than being the platform for other cases of grammatical metaphor. The following are just a few instances (Halliday and Matthiessen, 1999, p. 242):

flake noun: (*flaky* adj./*flakiness* n./*flake* v.)
awake adj.:   (*awaken* v./*awakening* n.)

Any judgment as to the originality (and therefore congruency) of either class of etymon should, for certain, be passed on extreme discretion and reliable diachronic (and semantic) evidence. This, however, may not be of prime importance on the sheer issue of transcategorisation. In terms of congruency or metaphoricity, on the other hand, (and (un) markedness as well) this plays an important part in determining different classes as more congruent (unmarked) or more metaphoric (marked). (In some cases, there would be no satisfactorily reliable level of certainty as of the congruency of either class of the same etymon.) In the case of grammatical metaphor through the vehicle of nominalisation, the case of verbs as the more congruent grammatical category accounts for the majority of ideational metaphors hinging around verbs based on the logic that the verbs at issue here are semantic denotations of processes. In the case of the noun-based verbs, however, the change applied on the base noun to transform it to a verb denotes an action happening to the concept and yet a nominalised grammatical metaphor is by no means out of the question.

III. THE PRESENT STUDY

Banks (2005) attributes the origin of grammatical metaphor in the form of nominalisation to Newton's Principia Mathematica from the seventeenth century, which was translated from the original Latin version into English in 1729 by Motte. These cases of nominalised grammatical metaphor run parallel to the Latin version. Banks (2005) believes that the influence of Latin on English in terms of nominalisation, while being rarely, if ever, considered, is worth careful study. This fact born in the mind, the conducted research appears disproportionately lagging behind. Some projects provide possible cases that grammatical metaphor can take (such as nominalisation) or common different functions they may serve in the sentences (e.g. Koptjevskaja-Tamm, 1993; Halliday, 1998). There are, however, some cases tackling

the phenomenon of grammatical metaphor in some details. Taverniers (2006), Sušinskienė (2004, 2008 and 2010), Farahani and Hadidi (2008), Sayfouri (2010) and Baratta (2010) are to be named as examples. Sušinskienė (2004, 2008 and 2010) considered the use of nominalised grammatical metaphor in scientific, political and media discourse, respectively. Taverniers (2006) sheds light on the semantic variation associated with grammatical metaphor. Farahani and Hadidi (2008) conducted a comparative study of the use of nominalisations between modern prose fiction and scientific discourse. Sayfouri (2010) compared the medical articles written and published by native and non-native authors and published in English and American journals on the one hand and in those published in Iran in terms of Swales'(1990) moves analysis as well as grammatical metaphor. Finally, Baratta (2010) considered the developmental path of nominalisation in the writings of undergraduate students. There, therefore, still exists the potential for more profound study of this linguistics phenomenon, particularly in the realm of genre analysis.

Based on the different natures of written and spoken language and the need for further research, the present research was inspired to compare the use of nominalisations in terms of their origin, frequency and the slots of the clause they serve to fill in in the discourse of science across the two written and spoken registers. Halliday (1989, 2007), Tillmann (1997), Aijmer and Stenström (2004), Wikberg (2004), Nelson, Balass and Perfetti (2005), Biber (2006), Miller (2006), McCarthy and Slade (2007) and Wichmann (2007) emphasise the different nature and aspects of written and spoken discourse, implicationally instilling the worthiness of further research on the differences between written and spoken discourse. The transient nature of spoken discourse versus the stability and permanence of writing, the time available (if any) to construct, revise and reconstruct the structures across the two language modalities, the nature and feature of interaction between the producing and the receiving ends in speech and writing, the level of formality and the different between written and spoken discourse in terms of the grammatical structures they employ frequently are some salient features of difference worth noting, which make research on discrepancies between them worth the while.

On the other hand, the research in most linguistic studies in general, and in grammatical metaphor in particular, has focused mainly on written discourse, leaving the spoken edition of language and the aspects it differs from the written edition almost totally unattended to. To be more precise, the studies on grammar, linguistic structures (mainly in structuralism), and genre analysis have frequently been based and conducted on written language marginalising the spoken corpora, whereas spoken data accounts for the bulk of the research on register analysis (Ferguson, 1996). Research projects spanning across the two register variations are, therefore, a rarity in the literature.

The present study, thus, has its inspiring origins in the remarkable potential of the research on the grammatical metaphor on the one hand and the different nature of spoken discourse from that of the written one and some scholars' admission that spoken language is, at least, as valuable as the written version on the other hand.

A. Material

Studer (2008) supports the single-genre data for the purpose of corpus analysis. He argues that if the corpus samples do not take adequate account of the properties of the genre(s) they are taken to be typical or representative of, the corpus is no longer possible to be used as a research tool. The point not to be neglected here is the grounds on which the corpus is to be developed, analysed and the findings to be interpreted. The corpus produced for a particular purpose would definitely be associated with problems or totally useless if used for a different goal. His suggestion for the use of single-genre corpora would not be of much value when the researcher addresses (a) general, not genre-specific, feature(s) of the language. But in most cases of research in the field of ESP that are focused on genres and their affinities and discrepancies, such a suggestion would be not only of great value but also indispensible.

The spoken scientific text type samples analysed herein were adopted from BBC radio programs in the form of downloadable audio files. They were downloaded from www.bbc.co.uk/podcasts over a period of about four years, from 2008 to 2011. It should also be noted that the programmes downloaded and analysed in this project were not all consecutive editions for practical download constraints and randomisation process.

The programmes chosen here were limited in terms of the number. This, per se, would seem an essential flaw for the samples on grounds of including few people's use of language, and therefore would be censured on account of limited generalisability, were it not for the type of the programmes included; they involved many different interviewees and consequently introduce the element of variety, and thus the basis for better reliability. (All programs normally involve at least two guests as interviewees.) Moreover, the diversity of the topics included in different editions of the programmes within each type of the text types extends the range of the areas to which the findings can be generalisable.

B. Transcription (raison d'être)

In order for the spoken language to lend itself to detailed analysis, it needs to undergo transcription to be transferred into the more stable format of writing. McEnery and Wilson (2001) consider the analysis of raw spoken data difficult and transcription a necessity for a successful analysis. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2005) state that transcription, like many other sources of data, is a capable source in that it is the direct performance of the speaker translated from speech into writing. They consider it a useful way of avoiding being swamped by the abundance of the materials created. It gives the researcher the opportunity to review, re-read, categorise, summarise, interpret and analyse the data in the comfort and copiousness of his time and concentration. However, phonological and prosodic details would be left out in simple transcription. It should not be left short of heed that such compensatory techniques would be required for

prosodic studies and conversation analysis purposes. For the purpose of mere syntactic or lexical aspects of language analysis, such techniques would not be required or of much use.

C. Transcription Method

Halliday (1989) states that the proper way to transcribe a piece of spoken language is to include the possible pauses and thoughts that occur over the process of speech, similar to representing all the stages that a student goes through to prepare a composition. He names several methods for transcribing spoken language and points out their usefulness for research and pedagogical purposes. Notwithstanding the detailed complexity of the proposed methods, he notes that such extreme level of detailed transcription is not necessary for most purposes and that transcription into ordinary orthography is sophisticated enough for most research and pedagogical goals.

As mentioned above, there are many issues surrounding the issue of the quality and degree of details included. Regarding the present research, however, and the type of the analysis required here, the need for the detailed annotations is obviated and the verbatim lexical degree of transcription was adopted, and the annotations and phonetics symbols as well, are dispensed with.

It should be noted that grammatical dysfluencies were transcribed in fidelity to the original speech. These dysfluencies constituted some common types. In some cases, the speakers would, presumably unintentionally, repeat a lexical item while their mind is free to prepare and decide on the next items and the organisation and array they would appear in. Grammatical deviations from the standard grammar are also frequent occurrences. Such deviations would be either due to local dialects or the shortage of the mental processing capacity which seems to be excessively engaged by focus on the content or other issues. A third reason may presumably be the deficiencies with the speakers' language (often existing in non-native cases). The last case was quite rare in the data included in the present research. Moreover, such grammatical deviations are basically in the minor local scope and (almost never) cause any delay or breakdown in the communication. In the analysis phase, the grammatically correct versions were considered, and the repetitions, which spoken language (English in particular) abounds with, were, as well, considered single-occurrence, as expected in fully grammatical and standard version of the language. In case of the indistinct words or expression, the whole clauses were discarded from the analysis so that the analysis would be on complete clauses.

D. Spoken Scientific Discourse

The samples of spoken language with scientific content were chosen from BBC's science programmes. The source programmes were *Science in Action*, *Material World*, *Digital Planet*, *Medical Matters*, *Health Check* and *In Our Time*, downloaded from www.bbc.co.uk/podcasts over a period of three years, from 2008 to 2010. The first two programme deal with the most recent scientific breakthroughs in different areas of science and their applications. The third one sheds light on the recent issues and advancements in the field of computer-based technology. The fourth and fifth are normally related to the advancement in medical sciences and health issues and problems in real life. These programmes and their approximate length are listed below:

Science in Action: 4000 - 4500 words each, 16 programmes, 69,480 words
Medical matters: 5000 - 5500 words each, 16 programmes, 85,772 words
Material World: 5000 - 5500 words each, 16 programmes, 86,897 words
Health Check: 4500 – 5500 words each, 16 programmes, 72,354 words
Digital Planet: 4500 - 5500 words each, 16 programme, 81,632 words

The total number of the words of these programmes amounted to 396135. In order to round the number off at approximately 400,000 words, another programme, which was an edition of *Science in Action* (4384 words), was randomly chosen and then added to the list given above. The total number of the words included in the category of spoken scientific discourse, therefore, was 400,519. Some sentences were discarded at random to bring the number even closer to the round number.

E. Written Scientific Discourse

The process of the selection in this category was identical to the previous one (based on page numbers, with random deletion of some clauses). The only difference was the sources which the selection was made from. The following the list of the sources from which the written scientific samples were selected:

1. Scientific American, Online exclusive issue, no. 12, Extreme Physics, 2004.

2. Scientific American, 2009 (all issues included).

3. Life: The Science of Biology (ninth edition), 2011, by Sadava, D., Hillis, D. M., Heller, H., C., and Berenbaum, M. R., published by Sinauer Associate, Inc. and W. H. Freeman and Company, Sunderland and Gordonsville (respectively): USA.

4. The Theories of Chemistry, 2003, by Boeyens, J. C.A., published by Elsevier, Amsterdam.

5. Basics and Highlights in Fundamental Physics (Proceedings of the International School of Subnuclear Physics), 2001, edited by Zichichi, A., published by World Scientific: Singapore.

6. Fundamentals of Physics, 9th edition, 2011, by D. Halliday and R. Resnick and J. Walker, published by John Wiley and Son, Inc.: USA.

F. Some Notes on the Method

In the case of inversion wherein nominalisations were involved, the judgment was based on the uninverted version. As an instance, the nominalised 'awakening' was considered to be in post verbal position in the extract: 'a spring awakening perhaps we can do with some kind of spring after all'. The logic behind the choice was the semantic basis which subordinates an object to a verb, not vice versa. In other words, the present study hinges around the framework of transitivity rather than thematic (theme-rheme) structure. However, in detailed semantic considerations, the original array of words would be of higher priority.

Appositives were considered in the category of the word(s) they were based on. In 'Speed, for example, is defined in terms of the base quantities, <u>length</u> and time, and their base standards', '<u>length</u>' would be considered an object of preposition. The substitution of verbs were likewise considered as the words they substituted for on grounds that the substitutions are in fact forms denoting specific semantic concepts belonging to the words they represent. In case of the verbs, the common substituting element is 'do' and its inflections. A similar occurrence, mainly in spoken language, is ellipsis, or substitution by zero elements. Ellipses are normally based on the physical, or less commonly, linguistic context. 'Don't!', for instance, relies on the physical context for its sematic interpretation. Some other cases of ellipses are readily possible to be interpreted through simple reliance of prevalence or linguistic context. A speaker's utterances like 'Good!' or 'Fine' would easily be interpreted as the reduced forms of 'It's good!' or 'It's fine!'. This last type is, however, absent from the formal written register.

In case of the occurrence of formulae in written scientific passages, in chemistry and physics passages for instance, they were discarded and therefore not included in the word count. This was done on grounds of formulae being more of merely notational than linguistic nature, and the present research did not aim at multisemiosis or intersemiosis.

The repetitions of linguistic elements or structures were treated as single occurrence. The case of repetition in spoken language, in the samples analysed here, appeared to be of two types; they occurred either for the purpose of providing their mind some time to prepare the following words in the stream of speech, which is typically limited to single item structures, or for the purpose of adding emphasis to the repeated structure, which may include a whole clause. In either case, the sheer occurrence is a phenomenon of a pragmatic rather than purely linguistic nature, and the repetitive cases were considered a single occurrence.

G. Point of Departure

The initial analysis of texts without a general sketch of what to expect and how to categorise the cases of deverbal nominalisations and verbs is, in nature, utterly qualitative, and, therefore, demands extensive amount of time and unaffordable level of mental capacity to avoid the definite confusion created by such large amount of qualitative data at hand, which is beyond human mental capacity. A possible solution would be resorting to software realm. Software programs devised for the purpose of text analysis are yet at preliminary stages, with the complexity and abstraction level of language use and meaning in view. Therefore, analyses beyond the clear-cut classes of words and clauses either require human intervention or totally manual analysis of language samples. The limited human mental capacity, however, necessitates the definition of a clear-cut and manoeuvrable framework as a basis for (further) effective analysis.

To the end already explained, first, 10,000 word samples were analysed for the purpose of primary analysis. The word categories at issue, namely deverbal nominalisations and verbs, were considered in terms of their types and the structures wherein they were used. Once the instances of the word types at issue in the preliminary samples were considered, the resultant types were classified and tabulated, to a degree of comprehensiveness as to encompass all probable instances of a specific word sample in distinct groups and to an extent of detail as not to perplex the process of analysis and handling the groups and the data thus obtained. At next stage, the rest of the text samples intended for analysis were analysed in accord with the already based classifications and the frequency of each cell in the table was added, in an accumulative manner, to the results from the preliminary stage of analysis. The functional systemic typology of processes (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, for instance) was used for the classification of verb types and types of nominalisations, but as to the slots the nominalisations fill, four main categories emerged from the preliminary study: *pre-verbal*, *post-verbal*, *object of preposition* and finally as *modifier*.

In the case of verbs, being finite or non-finite was another factor of analysis. Finite clauses are those housing a tense of verb, like all independent and dependent clauses, and the non-finite clauses are those lacking a clear tense element. Participle clauses, either present or past, and infinitive clauses are all non-finite. This point was considered based on the grounds that non-finite clauses, especially participle clauses, are thought of as adding syntactic complexity to the discourse, and therefore a feature mainly prevalent in written academic register.

As it is common for similar studies in the field of discourse analysis, the data in this research did not undergo any statistical analysis; the figures are presented in the form of raw frequencies. In cases the number of the words analysed in a specific text type exceeds a million, the frequencies would be standardised as the number of a specific type of words in a million words. Here, therefore, since the number of the words in each type of text is 400,000, the results are reported in raw frequencies.

IV. RESULTS

The cumulative results of the analysis of the two discourse types are presented in the following tables. TABLE 1 presents the frequency of deverbal nominalisations in spoken scientific discourse and TABLE 2 shows their frequency in written scientific discourse. In these two tables, the frequency of nominalisations in terms of the underlying process types and the four slots they occupy in the sentence is provided for spoken and written scientific discourse types.

TABLE 1.
DEVERBAL NOMINALISATIONS IN SPOKEN SCIENTIFIC DISCOURSE.

	Pre-verbal	Post-verbal	Obj. of prep.	Modifier	N
Material	623	1052	4479	187	6341
Behavioural	52	391	104	27	574
Mental	572	1049	176	85	1882
Verbal	233	182	664	39	1118
Relational	43	138	214	28	423
Existential	8	13	17	0	38
N	1531	2825	5654	366	10376

TABLE 2.
DEVERBAL NOMINALISATIONS IN WRITTEN SCIENTIFIC DISCOURSE.

	Pre-verbal	Post-verbal	Obj. of prep.	Modifier	N
Material	3782	4081	4763	576	13202
Behavioural	98	134	182	2	416
Mental	566	1045	1118	4	2733
Verbal	231	747	715	87	1780
Relational	10	26	29	5	70
Existential	8	19	34	3	64
N	4695	6052	6841	677	18265

The frequency of verbs in terms of their process types in each of the two discourse types are provided in TABLES 3 and 4 for the purpose of comparison. Their frequency in the two clause types of finite and non-finite is also part of the data provided in these tables.

TABLE 3.
PROCESS TYPES IN SPOKEN SCIENTIFIC DISCOURSE.

	Finite	Non-finite	N
Material	15307	4917	20224
Behavioural	2165	874	3039
Mental	7793	578	8371
Verbal	3539	1335	4874
Relational	16203	1402	17605
Existential	1529	4	1533
N	46536	9110	55646

TABLE 4.
PROCESS TYPES IN WRITTEN SCIENTIFIC DISCOURSE.

	Finite	Non-finite	N
Material	9326	4376	13702
Behavioural	76	35	111
Mental	2737	864	3601
Verbal	2683	1182	3865
Relational	7058	1932	8990
Existential	503	78	581
N	22383	8467	30850

As it can be seen in the tables, there are considerable differences among various process types (as verbs or nominalisations) and their accommodating structures across the two modalities (spoken and written). Probably the first striking point would be the difference in the frequency of verbs. Spoken scientific samples included 55646 verbs in all, while in the written counterpart, the number is 30850. Another noticeable point across the two modalities is the difference between finite and non-finite use of verbs; in spoken discourse only 16.4% of verbs occur in non-finite clause, while in written discourse, non-finite clauses account for 27.5% of all verbs used. In terms of nominalisation frequency, written register stands in a higher position than the spoken register does (18265(written) vs. 10376(spoken)), while in terms of verb frequency, the converse applies (55646 (spoken) vs. 30850 (written)).

The frequency of deverbal nominalisations appears to vary process type and the slots they fill in the sentence. The common overall ranking of frequency in both registers is *object of preposition*, *post-verbal*, *preverbal* and *modifier*. However, the values were not of the same proportion across the four slots for the two text types; in written discourse, the first three slots enjoyed values closer to one another than in spoken discourse. In other words, the difference between the two text types in terms of nominalisation frequency increases from the first slot down to the last. It is worth mentioning that in spoken scientific discourse, this trend applies to the total number of deverbal nominalisations, and to

material, relational and existential process types; behavioural, mental and verbal process type nominalisations deviate from this overall pattern. In written scientific discourse, the overall pattern applies to all process types' nominalisations.

The differences between the two registers appear to vary considerably across process types. All in all, material process type accounts for a considerable part of the processes used in the two registers, both in verbs and nominalisations. The interesting point is that relational processes rank second in terms of the verbs used, in both written and spoken discourse type, but are relegated to the fifth place just above that of existential process type (in both written and spoken text types).

V. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

Spoken language turns out to have more verbs in a given scope of a sample compared to the written language. With the scope of the samples in the two modalities being the same, this fact shows that spoken language accommodates more clauses and propositions. It follows that there are fewer words in each sentence and clause in spoken language. The transient and online nature of speech requires that the speaker use shorter clauses in order not to inundate the listeners' minds with too much load to be decoded at the same pace as the speakers'. Therefore, as logically expected, speech includes clauses easier to encode and decode. With written language, the language user has more time to reflect upon different parts of clauses and passages and usually makes them longer, more refined, sophisticated, and semantically and syntactically loaded.

The higher frequency of non-finite clauses in written discourse compared with spoken discourse would logically indicate a higher level of abstraction and complexity in written language. Participle clauses and infinitive clauses add to complexity level of the language in that they make a proposition syntactically a subordinate of another clause. Moreover, due to their complexity and the demand they place on the mind of both participants in a communication (speaker or writer on the one hand and listener or reader on the other), participle clauses are generally considered mainly a feature common to written formal register rather than spoken. In the samples considered herein, however, there is even a higher likelihood of participle clauses being used than in informal spoken register. Formality can safely be considered a factor bringing spoken language closer to written language, while colloquial, informal language or slang are further away from the written edition on the formality continuum. In the case of nominalisations, the same underlying issue applies; the frequency of nominalisations in spoken language is lower than that in written language, and so is the semantic complexity and lexical density created by them.

Material process type constitutes more than 60% of nominalisations in spoken and written discourse type investigated here (61% and 72%, respectively) while the frequency drops to 36% and 44% in the case of verbs used in spoken and written text samples, respectively. An opposite trend is salient in the case of relational processes. They rise from almost a negligible minority in the realm of nominalisation to the conspicuous second most frequent type among verbs in both modalities (31.6% and 29% of verbs in spoken and written samples, respectively). A logical corollary of these changes in frequency is that nominalisations fall mainly in material process type leaving relation process type out by a wide margin. Language reflects human experiences and conceptions. It is safe to assume that most of the events and phenomena human beings experience are of material and tangible nature (doing or happening). The rest of the process types can be considered to have mainly evolved to handle the concepts denoting material experience; the relational process type denotes how human experience can be related with one another and handled. Mental and behavioural types are used for inner experiences, conceptions and feeling which have their origin within human beings rather than outside, and as the results show, are limited in scope compared with material type.

The precedence of nominalisation occurrence in the post-verbal position over that in pre-verbal position could provide good clues as to the nature of language processing in the mind of human beings. Nominalisations, as the condensed form of clauses, add to the semantic load and lexical density of language. It can, therefore, be inferred that human mind tends to implement and maintain verbal communication through simple points of departure for clauses and to expand and elaborate on them to provide more pertinent information. Since the information structure of given and new overlaps in absolute majority of cases the theme-rheme structure, it can safely be assumed that human being naturally tend to start their clauses and sentence with smaller pieces of information and then proceed to provide more (elaborate) information following the given information as a prompt. In the case of written language, on the other hand, the mind is set free from the constraints inherent in speech and is therefore provided with more freedom to manoeuvre on the point of departure (the difference between pre-verbal and post-verbal nominalisations is less in written language than that in spoken discourse in terms of their proportion).

There are some caveats to be considered in all studies of language analysis in all forms including genre analysis, register analysis, ESP speculations and even the division of language into spoken and written modalities. Bhatia (2001) and Hyland (2002) note that any classification of language into different genres, registers or ESP taxonomies are subject to a level of continuity and overlap, and therefore involve some degree of variation and dynamicity. This is due to the fact that language reflects the reality and reality does not necessarily include discrete concepts and sharp borders among its entities, and consequently is inherently full of fuzziness and indeterminacies. As a result, the system reflecting the reality would inevitably involve many cases of fuzziness and indeterminacy. Bennet (2009) and Martin (1993) also point out the fact that the distinction presumed to exist among academic discourse in terms of humanities or sciences actually fade in reality into subtle and gradual continuity. Hammond (1990) has a similar viewpoint towards the sharp

dichotic distinction between spoken and written language and assumes an inherent relationship between them. The present study, therefore, is no exception and does not have any definitive claims as to its findings and, by the same token, considers its findings and implications not sharp absolute distinctions but rather treats them as descriptions of language samples lodged on different spots of a continuum determined by a grid of a myriad of factors ranging from content, the relationship between the interlocutors involved, the modality, the formality level, users' idiosyncrasies… existent in the real world and the language employed to describe it.

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Teacher Talk and Learner Involvement in EFL Classroom: The Case of Iranian Setting

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Abstract—The present study was an attempt to investigate the ways through which teacher talk can create opportunities for learning in an EFL classroom. In addition, it identified how the teacher talk can lead to more and more learner involvement in an EFL context. The study also determined the types of the teacher talk which can decrease learning a foreign language. To achieve such aims, three experienced teachers who were teaching English as a foreign for more than 5 years were selected based on the purposeful sampling procedure to serve as the participants of the study. Their talk was audio recorded for three subsequent sessions and then analyzed based on the interactional features proposed by Self evaluation of teacher talk (SETT) framework. The findings supported the role of the teacher talk as being a determinant one in the performance of the foreign language learners. Also, the results of this research play a significant role in ascertaining the ways in which Iranian foreign language teachers improve their talk to optimize learner contribution. Therefore, a teacher should be able to shape learners contribution and make strategic decision in the moment by moment of lesson according to SETT framework which is regarded as a crucial factor for developing foreign language learning in L2 classroom context.

Index Terms—conversation analysis, interactional features, EFL classroom

I. INTRODUCTION

Communication in the EFL classroom is a complicated phenomenon which is central to classroom activities. Therefore interaction in EFL classroom is considered to be the key to learning a foreign language and according to Van Lier (1996, cited in Walsh, 2006) if a foreign language teacher wants to become effective teacher, interaction should be considered as the most important thing in the SLA curriculum.

An effective teacher should try to improve second language classroom and promote learning for doing it. There are many ways in which teachers can influence learning through their choice of language and their interactional decision making (Walsh, 2002).

Every EFL teacher not only understands classroom communication but also to improve second language classroom and promote learning for doing it. Less than any decade, ESL books have been changed in Iran; however no outstanding developments have occurred in second language learning. This is indicative of the fact that merely changing the conversational books or increasing academic knowledge of the teachers is not enough for the improvement of teaching and learning.

Glew (1998, p. 2, as cited in Walsh, 2006) argues that SLA occurs through the interaction that take place between the learner's mental abilities and the linguistic environment. According to Long (1983, 1996, as cited in Walsh, 2011) Learning can be promoted through communication, when learners engage in the negotiation of meaning. The quality of interaction is determined by teachers in their face to face communication with learners. An awareness of the interactional processes can help teachers and learners have a comprehensive understanding of how language is acquires in a formal context (Walsh, 2006).

In Iranian context, some teachers deliberately or not, create opportunities for learner involvement since their use of language and pedagogic purposes coincide with each other. Sometimes, in an EFL classroom, however the teacher does not know how to facilitate student involvement by constructing a context in which student involved. Some teachers appear to impede interaction and obstruct student involvement. Some of them cannot control the use of language, cannot match pedagogic and linguistic goals. Therefore they cannot maximize learner involvement which is conductive to foreign language acquisition.

Although some institution use up-to-date conversational books and employ experienced teacher with good English language, they cannot make dramatic changes in foreign language learning because their methodologies, their choice of language use remain somehow constant.

Walsh (2002), considered how a teacher through their choice of language, construct or obstruct learner participation in face to face classroom interaction. From his research emerged a number of ways in which teachers can improve their teacher talk to facilitate and optimize learner contribution.

In the following, this study investigated the extend to which EFL Iranian teachers hinder and facilitate learning for students through their choice of language , how the teacher can enhance language use and in what way the teacher deny opportunities for foreign language learning. Some teachers in conversational classes appear to impede interaction and obstruct student involvement. This study considered the ways through which the teacher can construct or obstruct student involvement in face to face classroom communication in conversation class and identified the ways EFL Iranian teachers can improve themselves and optimize student involvement. In addition, second language teacher should find interactional awareness to control use of language in class to improve teaching and learning because teacher's ability to control use of language in class is as important as their ability to select appropriate methodologies.

II. BACKGROUND

Among different tenets of language teaching investigation, conversation analysis is the one which widely contributes to the course of research through the examinations of teacher talk in second language classroom. According to Firth and Wagner (1997, 2007, as cited in Gruyter) learning should be seen as a social process and language should be considered as a complex, dynamic system which is managed by teacher and learner. Also, Learning can be happened in the moment by moment co-construction of meaning and by using conversational analysis. In another word learning occurs through interaction with others.

According to Edwards and Westgate (1994, as cited in Gruyter)

The point is that classroom talk should be similar a conversation, since most of the time for practical purposes it cannot, but that institutionalized talk…. shows a heightened use of procedures which have their 'base' in ordinary conversation and are more clearly understand through comparison with it (p.116).

Walsh (2002) in one of his research examines the ways to show to the teachers, understanding classroom communication, shaping learner contribution and making strategic decision in the moment by moment of a lesson are very crucial factors for developing SLA in L2 classroom context. The study reported that the teachers make extensive use of metalanguage designed to enable them to make good interactive decisions online by using sample of their own data. The process of interpreting data and 'meaning-making' in the reflective feedback interview lead to teachers make conscious changes in own classes.

In another research, Walsh (2003) proposes a process model of reflective practice for second language teachers, designed to facilitated closer understanding of language use and interactive decision making. The L2 classroom is shown as a dynamic and complex series of inter-related contexts, in which interaction is central to teaching and learning. An understanding of the interactional organization of the L2 classroom is achieved through the use of SETT procedures. Naturalistic research methods were used to emerge new views for understanding and interactional competence of a small group of university EFL teachers. These methods were originated form institutional discourse conversational analysis methodology, action research, and sociocultural research perspective. In this study, teachers were found opportunities to see their classrooms. Totally, the process of consciousness-raising in this study, was designed to redirect teacher's attention away from materials or methodology-based decisions towards decisions on interactional choice.

In the following, Walsh (2006) expresses that the important point in every second language classroom is that the appropriate language use in every second language classroom occurs when teachers are sufficiently aware of their goal at moment by moment in a lesson to match their teaching aim and pedagogic purpose to their language use.

In addition, discussing the Talk of the TESOL Classroom (2006), Walsh determined different ways to enable an EFL second language teacher to shape learners contributions and make strategic decision in the moment by moment of a lesson. The study determined that there is a mutual relationship between the interaction and language learning. Moreover he argued that the developing interactional awareness for teachers lead to using appropriate interactional features and then teacher awareness is exemplified in their use of metalanguage, critical self evaluation and more conscious interactive decision making. In his research, SETT framework helps facilitate second language learning. His research is an attempt to investigate the ways through which a foreign language teacher can increase learning opportunities and improve EFL classroom. This research is limited to Iranian EFL classroom.

This study considered, EFL Iranian teachers in Top Notch conversational books, at fundamental level, to describe, how to Iranian teachers can create opportunism for foreign language learning or deny opportunities for learning. Recognition these opportunities help EFL learners consiously increase learning a foreign language.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

For the purposes of the study, three EFL teachers with their students selected to participate in this study. In each class there were approximately 12 learners, their age ranged from 18 to 26. They were in the same level, intermediate, and had similar needs as a learner. One of the main reasons for choosing these three classes at the fundamental level was

that the basic level was the most important step in conversational class. The focus of these classes was increasing oral fluency.

B. Materials

The data for this study were gathered through studying students in Top Notch conversation classes, at the fundamental level and audio recorded for later analysis. Each of the three experienced teacher who was selected to participate in this study was recorded for three subsequence sessions (four hours and 30 minutes for each class). The lesson for each one was different from another. After gathering the data and mode operating according to Walsh's model, they were analyzed based on the principles of conversation analysis (CA).

C. Procedures

Any language classroom, according to the protocol of each second language class, must involve four modes and fourteen interactional features. Based on the curriculum and design of Top Notch books,   SETT framework is followed and exercised during these conversational classes unconsciously. Each of these three classes was recorded for three subsequence sessions. After gathering the data and mode operating according to Walsh's model, they were analyzed based on the principles of CA. This method was used in Walsh's studies (2006, 2011) that it was received in an email massage from Steve Walsh in September. In this study, all of the phrases and sentences transcribed, analyzed and all interactional features were determined.

D. Data Analysis

The Analysis of the teacher talk should be done in the light of the overall aims and modes operating. In this analysis lesson modes should also be identified. Teacher talk is analyzed according to the interactional features of Walsh. Moreover, Mann-Whitney U test is conducted in conducting the present analysis. In the following, features in the classes were grouped under two positive and negative impacts. Three features of teacher echo, teacher interruption and turn completion were analyzed under the negative effect based on the interfering role in sustaining oral communication. Thus, scaffolding, direct repair, content feedback, extended wait-time, referential question, seeking clarification, extended teacher turn, display question and extended learner turn were categorized under the positive effect due to their encouraging nature in improving the learners' attempts in Top Notch conversational book, at fundamental level.

Our analysis focuses on the ways in which three non-native English teachers create space and sometimes deny opportunities for learning through their choice of language. First, specific features in second language classroom seem to enhance space were presented through five short extracts.

A). Scaffolding (in turn 27, 29, 31)
26. L2: … vegetables is…good for us and …and sandwich is bad for us=
27. T: =vegetables=
28. L2: =vegetables
29. T: … plural form of the verb after vegetables (3)
30. L2: vegetables are=
31. T: = vegetables are good, not vegetables is good. Every day you should eat vegetables like lettuce, carrots, cucumber…and other thing because all of them are good for your body

Communication breakdown is very common feature of an EFL classroom and it occurs because learners do not find appropriate words or phrases to express their thought. Scaffolding describes the ways in which teachers provide learners with linguistic support to help self-expression (Bruner, 1983, 1990, as cited in Walsh, 2006). In this skill a teacher is similar to many parents when helping their young children (Walsh, 2006); therefore teacher can involve learners in a conversation to find a correct word at a given moment.

B). Extended Wait Time (in turn 43, 47)
43. T: = but I am not sure (laugher) (3) so…Mohammad what can you do? (3)
44. L (Mohammad):= I can play soccer I can…I can cook
45. T: =you can cook
46. L (Mohamad):=I …can swim
47. T: =what can't you do? (5)

In the above extract extended wait time is created during the dialogue and in the following extract learners contribute with no teacher intervention.
194. T: ok…who is ready? Hasan and Ali…come here
195. L (Ali): can you draw=
196. L (Hasan): =no can you=
197. L (Ali): =yes I draw very well=
198. L (Hasan): =when did you learn=
199. L (Ali): =when I was about… eight…
200. L (Hasan): was it hard
201. L(Ali): not at all

Extended wait-time is the time allowed by teacher to answer a question (Nunan, 1991, as cited in Walsh, 2006, 2011), thus it increases the number of learners responses which lead to longer answers and more learner contribution.

C). Direct Error Correction (in turn 52, 54)

49. T: = because they move to Japan…and now tell do you like to visit japan

50. LL: =yes. 50

51. L6: I like to... ((4)) Japan, China, Italy=

52. T: =I like to go to Japan, China, Italy…what about other (3)

53. L7: kore=

54. T: =Korea

Direct error correction is a common skill in second language classroom. Furthermore, direct error correction is preferred by learners (Seedhouse, 1977).

D. Seeking Clarification (in turn 174)

173. L12: what do… I was about eight (5) mean=

174. T:= about eight…it means that he can't remember the exact time…maybe he was seven and 10 months and …maybe he was eight and 2 month therefor he says I am about eight…and what does not at all mean?...what does it mean…..

175. L12: no=

Seeking clarification is a mutual relationship that occurs between teacher and learners, thus sometimes the teacher asks a learner to clarify something that a learner has said and sometimes learners ask the teacher to clarify something that teacher has said (Walsh, 2006, 2011).

E). Content Feedback (in turn 193)

191. T: yes we have falling intonation when your question start with WH question or information questions…so memorize a conversation=

192. L (4): =sir I memorizes it (laugher)

193. T: thank you let's other memorize the conversation you are the first one I will ask you, he is so…so eager to learn English

Content feedback imply to teachers personal reaction to comments made by learners (Walsh, 2006, 2011).

In contrast, sometimes teacher talk lead to interactional space reduced and opportunities for learning minimized. The extracts determine how foreign language learning decrease.

F). Turn Completion (in turn 235, 237)

233. L5:= she can't wear those pants. They're too long

234. L6:=she can't buy those shoes, they are too… too...

235. T: big

236. L7:=he doesn't want that shirt.it too…too…

237. T: it's too small=

238. L8:=I don't want this sofa …it's too expensive

Turn completion happens in EFL classroom when teachers fill in the gaps and advance the discussion (Walsh, 2006, 2011). When turn completion happens in EFL classroom, there is no negotiation of meaning, no need for clarification and confirmation check.

G). Teacher Echo (in turn 267, 269)

266=. L (Mohamad):I can cook well but I can't ski

267. T: = you can't ski=

268. L (Mohamad):=I can drive=

269. T: =you can [drive]

F). Teacher Interruption (in turn 264)

262. L (Maryam): please pass the …yogurt

263. L (Fatemeh): sure (mispronounced)

264. T: sure

265.L (Fatemeh): [sure]…here you go,[here you go]

Teacher echo is a common phenomenon in any second language classroom and it has a several functions (Walsh, 2006, 2011). The function of teacher echo in Top Notch conversation class, at Fundamental level is considered as a negative features because teachers do not know when and why to use echo. They allowed teacher echo to become a habit in their classes.

IV. RESULTS

Classroom discourse is the most important point that takes place in the foreign language classroom. Understanding an interaction in an EFL classroom helps EFL teachers to improve Teaching and learning. For doing so, researchers need to understand classrooms and analyze the interaction in the context.

Following the above detailed accounts of the nature of the teachers' employed features in reaction to the learners' communicative efforts, the observed features in the classes were grouped under two positive and negative impacts.

Accordingly, nine features of scaffolding, direct repair, content feedback, extended wait time, referential question, seeking clarification, extended teacher turn, display questions and extended learner turn were categorized under the positive effect due to their encouraging nature in improving the learners' attempts. On the other hand, three features of teacher echo, teacher interruption and turn completion were analyzed under the negative effect based on their interfering role in sustaining oral communication in Top Notch conversation classes, at fundamental level in Iranian context.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE ACCOUNTS FOR THE EMPLOYED FEATURES IN THE CLASSES

Effect		Frequency	Percent
Positive	Scaffolding	74	9.8
	Direct Repair	39	5.2
	Content Feedback	21	2.8
	Extended Wait Time	142	18.8
	Referential Question	28	3.7
	Seeking Clarification	47	6.2
	Extended Teacher Turn	96	12.7
	Display Questions	69	9.1
	Extended Learner Turn	239	31.7
	Total	755	100.0
Negative	Teacher Echo	124	56.4
	Teacher Interruption	82	37.3
	Turn Completion	14	6.4
	Total	220	100.0

Based on the recorded data, out of 755 cases of positive features extended learner turn was the most frequently employed feature (31.7%) followed by extended wait time (18.8%) and extended teacher turn (12.7%). Meanwhile, content feedback (2.8%) and referential question (3.7%) were among the least frequent employed features in the classes.

On the other hand, out of 220 cases under the negative effect category, more than half belonged to the teacher echo (56.4%) and turn completion had the lowest frequency in this part (6.4%).

The following graph provides a clear representation of the observed features in the classes suggesting a number of suggestive hints.
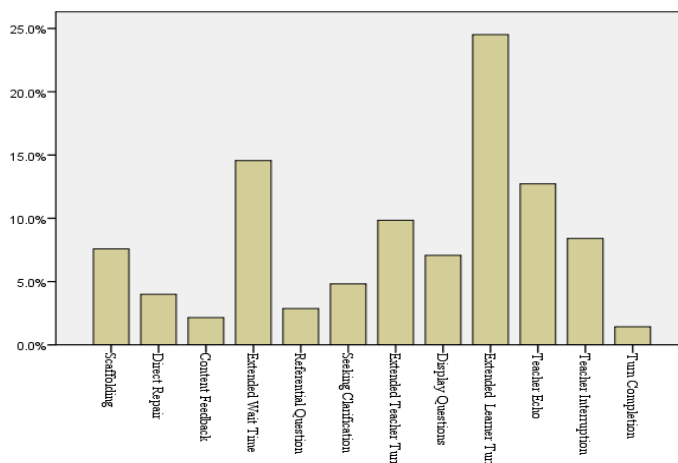
Figure 1. Employment of all the Features in the Classes

Besides approving the earlier mentioned comparative accounts of the employed features, this graph further highlights the fact that despite the high frequency of teacher echo employment, this negative feature lags far behind certain positive features like extended learner turn and extended wait time. In addition, the least frequent negative feature as turn completion is clearly lower than the least frequent features in the positive section.

Following the above descriptive accounts, in an attempt to assess the degree of difference in the use of positive and negative features, Mann-Whitney U test, the non-parametric parallel of T-test, was conducted. Accordingly, the differences in the numbers were statistically significant between the two positive and negative impact groups ($p < 0.05$). Put differently, the positive features had been highly favored by the teachers in their class management efforts in comparison with the negative features located on the other least frequent extreme.

V. DISCUSSION

After analysis of the data, features was divided into positive and negative features according to their constructiveness and destructiveness. Findings of this study are indicative of the fact that these Iranians context tend to show sign of constructiveness but the aim of this study was the Iranian teachers increase their interactional awareness.

Responding to the first research question concerning the extent of teacher create opportunities for learning in EFL classes is shaping a contribution by seeking clarification, scaffolding, modeling, extended wait-time, content feedback or repairing learner output. An EFL teacher is better to be informed that interactional space is maximized through increasing wait-time, reducing teacher echo and promoted extended learner turn. The focus of every conversation class in Iran is oral fluency and a teacher should be able to create opportunities to enhance learners' output. Using above strategies can greatly minimize the breakdown in communication and maximize learners understanding. In another word, for increasing learning, it should be deliberated the process of learning contribution by scaffolding, seeking clarification, extended wait-time or extended learner turn.

The second research question asked about the teacher talk that hinders second language learning. Teacher interruption, teacher echo and turn completion were destructive features. An EFL Teacher by extended wait-time and reducing teacher echo can decrease teacher interruption. When turn completion happened, there was no negotiation of meaning and therefore learning decreased. Decreasing these features in class, result in increasing language learning. Therefore using some appropriate strategies in second language learning can decrease the destructive features and increase learning.

The finding of this study corresponds to Walsh's studies in this area. Every foreign language classroom in Iranian context is held in order for learners to learn how to use a language as a vehicle for communication and the main focus of every EFL class is to consider the ways to optimize foreign language learning process. Walsh (2006) stated that any second language lesson can be considered as dynamic and complex series of interrelated context rather than a classroom as single social contexts. So interaction is the crucial part of teaching and learning. In order to enhance learning, learner should have a comprehensive understanding of the relationship between teacher talk, interaction and learning opportunities (Walsh, 2002). In addition, Walsh's studies (2006, 2011) determined that the best way for optimizing second language learning is shaping a contribution. Further interactional awareness help EFL teachers increase quality and quantity of the class.

VI. CONCLUSION

In each foreign language class, there are so many features, some of which are constructive and some of these are destructive. In order to optimize learning opportunities, a teacher should be trained to increase constructive features and try to decrease destructive ones. So in this research; it has been portrayed how an EFL teacher can become more effective. Design and curriculum of Top Notch conversational books which are very popular today in Iran, in some way, includes the framework of SETT. However, it is better for an EFL teacher to knowingly apply SETT framework by effective practice until it becomes part of the teacher's plan and classroom. This study showed that expanding SETT framework in Iranian context enhances second language learning.

In order to have a better second language classroom, teachers should be aware of all the interactional features which lead to the improvement of second language classroom or in another word a second language teacher should become the researcher of his own practice. Further research can investigate each EFL teacher for three consequent sessions (each session for 15 minutes) to understand if the teacher's awareness of interactional features can help them to improve their teaching and increase learning or not. Furthermore, a class can be determined as a control group, and another class can be considered as an experimental group and teacher in this class should have comprehensive information about interactional features. Finally, the result of the two classes can be compared.

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Contrastive Analysis in China: Today and Yesterday

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Abstract—**It is widely believed among linguists in China and even in the world at large that contrastive analysis (also contrastive linguistics) was borrowed from the Western linguistics by the hand of Ma Jianzhong, a Chinese linguist in the late Qing Dynasty and author of China's first grammar book *Ma's Grammar Book of the Chinese Language* (1898), and that the starting point of contrastive analysis in Chinese philology is 1898, the year when *Ma's Grammar book of the Chinese Language* was officially published. However, this remark is inconsistent with the historical fact and aichives on the development of contrastive analysis in China. Through the literatures available on Buddhist translation studies, traditional Chinese rhetoric and Chinese grammar by Western missionaries, we find that the development of contrastive analysis in China has three clues: Buddhist translation practice, the earliest source which can trace back to the period of Three Kingdoms (220 A.D-280 A.D.), Western Missionary Chinese grammar books of which Wonder of Western Writing (1605) is one of the earliest grammar books involving remarks on contrastive analysis between Chinese and western tongues, and traditional Chinese rhetoric literatures in which contrastive analysis was found to come into being during the Latter Jin Dynasty.**

Index Terms—**contrastive analysis, sources of Chinese contrastive analysis, status-quo, history**

I. INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Since 1957, when Robert Lado put in print *Linguistics across Cultures* (1957), contrastive analysis has popped into a popular topic among scholars, though Benjamin Lee Whorf proposed the term of "contrastive analysis" in 1941 (Whorf, 1941, p.240). In China, contrastive analysis was paid attention to since 1980s, and reached its peak at the turn of the century.

It is widely agreed among Chinese scholars that contrastive analysis was introduced from western scholars. In *Contrastive Linguistics: Historical and Philosophical Survey* (2006), Pan Wenguo & Tan Huimin believe that Ma Jianzhong, author of *Ma Shi Wentong* (Ma's Grammar Book of the Chinese Language, 1898), imported this practice in compiling the first Chinese grammar book (the first by Chinese scholar), with reference to western *gelangma* (actually a transliteration of the French word Grammaire introduced by Ma), which was regarded the beginning of Chinese contrastive analysis (Pan &Tan, 2006, p.82-86), and that contrastive analysis in the West started with German linguist Humboldt in "*On the Comparative Study of Language and Its Relation to the Different Periods of Language Development*" (Humboldt, 1820, p.1). But I wonder in deed if it is as what Pan & Tan dealt with in their book.

In the West, ancient Greek is the source of the western languages and cultures in that "the Latin is a composition of the Greek and of the ancient Tuscan languages" (Smith, 1985, p.193), and Latin grammar was also established, based on Greek grammar system, in which process contrastive analysis must have been used and did come into being, the origin of today's contrastive analysis. Since then on, this practice has ever been used to deal with linguistic issues by scholars from all schools of all times. Before Humboldt, Adam Smith took comparison as one of three means (comparison, generalization and abstraction) to elucidate his views on the first formation of languages in "*Considerations Concerning the First Formation of Languages*" (1761), so Humboldt is not the first western scholar who ever talked about this practice in linguistic matters.

What about the origin and its development of contrastive analysis in China? Is it as what Pan and other scholars who hold the same view that contrastive analysis started with Ma Jianzhong (1898)? This paper aims to give a historical outline of contrastive analysis in China, focusing on what contrastive analysis is, when this practice got started, what fields it was ever used, etc.

II. HOW IT WAS DEFINED IN CHINA

Before we explore the origin of contrastive analysis in China, we need necessarily to find out what contrastive

analysis and its nature are, which forms the prerequisite of our further exploration in this paper. For the sake of convenience, we, in this paper, take only the definitions given by Chinese linguists.

Contrastive analysis is also called contrastive studies or contrastive linguistics; they are co-referents to the same subfield of linguistics and served frequently as equivalents to each other in a general sense, and contrastive linguistics is generally considered much more formal. However, for some linguists, the three terms bear their distinctions. As to the distinctions between contrastive analysis and contrastive linguistics, Yang Zijian (1937-2009), the late professor from China Ocean University, believes that "contrastive analysis, the earliest referent derived from comparative philology, is a method of linguistic analysis, focusing on applied contrastive analysis while contrastive studies covers theoretical and applied linguistic analysis" (Yang, 1999, p.72; Yang, 2004, p.40, my translation).

As to what contrastive analysis or contrastive linguistics is, Xu Yulong is the first Chinese scholar to give this subject a definition as below:

Contrastive analysis is more often used for applied contrastive studies, especially as a method in foreign language teaching, thus often associated with contrastive analysis hypothesis[1]. (Xu, 1992/2002, p.444)

This definition originally put forth in *A General Introduction to Contrastive Linguistics* (Xu, 1992), is language-teaching oriented and given in a narrow sense. In this paper, we take contrastive analysis in a general sense, which equals contrastive linguistics defined as:

Contrastive linguistics (analysis) is a branch of linguistics which aims at a systematic synchronic description of two (or more than two) languages in order to determine the similarities and differences between them and find out the implications of such similarities and differences for language-related activities. (Xu, 1992(b), p.12; Xu, 2002, p.445)

In the definition above, we can find the following features: Firstly, it is a branch of linguistics; secondly, it focuses on the synchronic study of two or more languages; thirdly, it aims to discover the differences and similarities, especially the differences, by the means of description; fourthly, its findings will be applied to related fields.

Grounded on the definitions available, Yang Zijian, from the perspective of contrastive study of English and Chinese, revised them as the following:

Contrastive linguistics between English and Chinese is a subfield of linguistics, with theoretical linguistics and applied linguistics in nature, which aims at a synchronic and diachronic contrastive study between English and Chinese in order to describe and explicate the differences and similarities between them and apply the findings to language studies and other related fields. (Yang, 1994, p.14-15; my translation)

In this definition, Yang stresses on its nature of theoretical and applied linguistics, its focuses on discovering their differences and similarities, and on describing and explicating them, which are the advances of this definition. Pan Wenguo & Tan Huiying, based on this definition, gives their revised version as follows:

Contrastive linguistics is a subfield of linguistics under the guidance of linguistic philosophy, focusing on all the levels of theoretical and applied linguistics, which aims at contrastive study of two or more languages or dialects in order to describe their differences and similarities, especially the differences, and explicate both of them in terms of the relationship between human languages and their spiritual activities for driving the building and development of general linguistics, promoting the understanding of and communicating between cultures and civilizations, and reaching the goal of people all over the world living in harmony. (Pan & Tan, 2006, p.252-253; my translation)

In Pan and Tan's definition, they make the following four improvements: firstly, it is put in the guidance of linguistic philosophy; secondly, it can also be used to study dialects besides individual languages; thirdly, it claims to explicates the differences and similarities between languages or dialects in terms of the relationships between human languages and their spiritual activities; fourthly, it calls for new aims of building and developing the subject, promoting interlingual communication and understandings, and reaching the goal of world in harmony except for language teaching and other language-related applications.

From the above definitions, we can conclude that the objects of CA are two or more languages or dialects, its methods are synchronic or both of synchronic and diachronic contrast or comparison, its task is find out the differences and similarities between languages or dialects, and its aim is to describe and explicate their differences and similarities for further use in other areas. However, comparative linguistics focuses on comparing languages in order to trace their phylogenetic relationships in order that the putative parent language from which kindred languages are thought to have descended could be reconstructed, and the materials taken for comparison consist in the main of individual sounds and words.

III. Aims and New Developments of CA as a Discipline

For CA, the essential prerequisite is to grasp the basic properties or say heterological elements of two or more languages in question, as formal issues in languages are in nature formal expressions made of the given linguistic qualities. If the basic properties or heterological elements of two languages are found, the implications of their differences and similarities could be determined for further use in other areas.

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[1] Contrastive analysis hypothesis is an assumption that we can predict and describe the patterns of L2 that will cause difficulty in learning and those that will not cause difficulty through contrastive analysis of L1 and L2. Its strong version claims that CA has the capacity of predicting errors, while its weak version suggests that it is only tenable in diagnostic function. (Xu, 2002, p.444)

As to the aims of CA, Gerhard Nickel believes that contrastive linguistics for the most part compares languages with the quite utilitarian aim of improving the methods and results of language teaching, (but) it is not merely relevant for foreign-language teaching, it can (also) make useful contributions to machine translation and linguistic typology (Nickel, 1971, p.1-2). Christopher N. Candlin also believes in the preface for *Contrastive Linguistics* (James, 1980) that there was always more to contrastive analysis than making claims about learner difficulty (in that) contrastive analysis has had much to offer to translation theory, the description of particular languages, language typology and the study of language universals. From the quotations above, we learned that CA started with language teaching, and then extended into the areas of translation studies, linguistic typology and even dictionary compiling, focusing on the application of CA theory, which promotes the establishment and development of CA as a separate discipline.

As CA may be conducted intralingually or interlingually, on a synchronic or diachronic basis, four types of comparison may be distinguished: synchronic intralingual comparison, diachronic intralingual comparison, synchronic interlingual comparison and diachronic interlingual comparisom (Xu, 1992b, p.12-13; Ke, 1999, p.6-9), which could be illustrated in the following diagram:

Contrastive Analysis

intralingual comparison   interlingual comparison

diachronic   synchronic   diachronic   synchronic
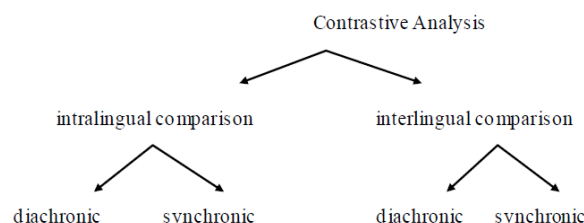
Diachronic intralingual comparison refers to the comparison of constituents on the levels of sound (phonetic and phonological), words (lexical), structure (grammatical) and meaning within a language through history to determine what changes of the given constituents occurred, which is in the area of philology, mainly adopted by linguists in linguistic history, etymology, etc. while synchronic intralingual comparison refers to the comparison of constituents on the same levels within a particular language during a given period.

Diachronic interlingual comparison is so-called comparative historical linguistics, which mainly focused on comparing historically related forms (especially sound) in different languages to reconstruct the proto-language while synchronic interlingual comparison is developed lately and most complicated, which focuses on comparing two or more languages or dialects to determine the differences and similarities and to find out the implications of the differences and similarities for language universals, linguistic typology, language teaching and other language-related areas as mentioned above.

In terms of the purposes of CA researchers, we may classify it into theoretical contrastive linguistics and applied contrastive linguistics, the former emphasizing on giving an exhaustive account of the differences and similarities between two or more languages or dialects, providing adequate models and theoretical frameworks for their comparison, and determining how and what elements are comparable, establishing basic notions as congruence, similarity and equivalence between the forms of different languages, and arranging theoretical findings and models for applied CA research while the latter taking as its objective the application of theoretical findings to compare two or more languages or dialects for practical purposes, for instance, language teaching and learning, translation studies, bilingual dictionary lexicography, etc. Furthermore, theoretical CA can be divided into general and particular CA theoretical studies while applied CA into general and particular CA applied studies, as the following diagram shows:

Contrastive Analysis

theoretical CA   applied CA

general   particular   general   particular
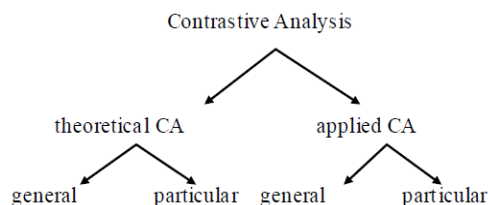
In view of the areas studied, CA can be broken into macro contrastive analysis and micro contrastive analysis, the former representing a broader perspective of linguistic analysis, with the goal of determining what elements to be compared and of comparing how people use language to communicate with each other, equaling to some extent theoretical CA, while the latter being the classic CA, with the goal of comparing the universal as well as particular properties of languages on the levels of phonetics, phonology, lexis, grammar and meaning. Besides what mentioned about the levels of macro CA, textual and pragmatic levels are also considered, with the popularity of translation studies.

The status quo and general development of modern CA in China have been dealt with, and we, through literatures on linguistics since 1898 when Ma Jianzhong put in print his book on Chinese grammar and 1912 when the first book on linguistics was published, find that the CA practice in China was introduced from the West first by Ma Jianzhong after

he had finished his study in France and then by way of mainly Japanese translations of general linguistics and historical linguistics of European linguists, starting with *Rudiments of the Chinese Spoken Language*[2] (1912) by Hu Yilu, an ever student in the linguistics program at the then Tokyo Imperial University, followed by Chinese translation of An Teng Zheng Ci's [安騰正次] *A General Introduction to Linguistics*[3] (1927) by Wang Gulu, a Chinese linguist in 1930s, and other translations of linguistic literatures from various sources, among which *Yu Yan Xue Shi* [History of Linguistics] (1943) is a specific book focusing on importing linguistic methods of historical and comparative philology.

However, before the introduction of modern CA, there existed CA practice in Chinese philology, but when CA came into being in China has been open to debate.

IV. WHEN DOES CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS COME INTO BIRTH IN CHINA?

Chinese is a unique language in terms of linguistic typology, and Chinese characters are also regarded as a system with the longest history, both of which are considered as the transmission medium of Chinese cultures, the source and foundation of Chinese culture circle in Asia. In the development of the Chinese language, two forces of foreign cultures ever took their parts, one of which is Buddhism filtering into China in the 1st century, coming with its influences on Chinese sound studies and Chinese poetic parody; the other is Christianity entering into China with modern Western science and technology, with its impacts on the reformation of the Chinese system and linguistic methodology.

In translating the religious sutras and canons, contrastive analysis got into birth. In the process of compiling Chinese learning books for missionaries and of learning Chinese for sake of spreading their religious doctrines, contrastive analysis was used to the best. Besides the influences of the two forces, there is another force within traditional Chinese rhetoric studies, forming its own style of contrastive analysis.

A. Contrastive Analysis Derived from Buddhist Translation

It is universally agreed for the time that Buddhism filtered into China in the period of the Latter Han Dynasty[4] (around the 1st century) and the translation of Buddhist sutras started almost 100 years later. In the process of translating Buddhist sutras, translators observed the differences between Sanskrit and Chinese, as Zhi Qian [5] (Lokaksema) in the period of Three Kingdoms (220 A.D-280 A.D.) tells in *Preface to Dharma Pãda* (230 A.D.) as follows:

"天竺言語與漢異音雲。其書爲天書語爲天語。名物不同傳實不易。"（支謙 230：5b-c）

"*Sanskrit differs from Chinese in sound; Sutras in Sanskrit are books from Heaven (devalipi), and Sanskrit sounds are sounds from Heaven. Names and objects in Sanskrit are all different from those in Chinese, so to render them is not an easy job*" (Zhi, 230, p.5b-c; my translation).

In the quotation above, the differences between Sanskrit and Chinese are concluded from the contrastive analysis in the Buddhist translating process, so the quoted lines are not only an evidence for translation practice summary but a record of contrastive analysis in Buddhist translation. Between these lines quoted above, the differences on the levels of sound and naming was known by means of CA, and was called for translators' attention.

As to contrastive analysis in Buddhist translation, we can get further evidence from Tao An's summary of translation practice from the years 220-589 A.D. in *Preface to Heart Sutra Translation* in *Compilation of Notes on the Translation of the Tripitaka* (vol.8), in which Tao An (312-385 A.D.) proposed in terms of stylistic equivalence in translation his *Theory of Five Losses* as below:

"五失本、三不易"論，即："譯胡爲秦，有五失本也：一者，胡語盡倒，而使從秦，一失本也。二者，胡經尙質，秦人好文，傳可衆心，非文不合，斯二失本也。三者，胡經委悉，至於歎詠，叮嚀反復，或三或四，不嫌其煩，而今裁斥，三失本也。四者，胡有義說，正似亂辭，尋說向語，文無以異，或千五百，刈而不存，四失本也。五者，事已全成，將更傍及，反騰前辭，已乃後說，而悉除此，五失本也。"（道安，摩訶缽羅若波羅密經鈔序，《出三藏記集》卷 8；參見周儀, 1998, p.6）

"*In translating sutras from Sanskrit and other languages into Chinese, there occur Five Losses of forms: The inverted order in Sanskrit and other languages used in sutras should be rendered into Chinese word order, which is called the First Loss; The style of sutras is simple, but Chinese readers love adorned writings, so to meet Chinese readers' taste, the translation of sutras should be embellished, which is considered as the Second Loss; Repetitiveness preferred in Sutra bodies, especially in Panegyrics should be eliminated in Chinese translation, which is thought as the Third Loss; A texte with repetitive content of words ranging from 500 to 1000 (a text in form of summary), following each commentaire, should be eliminated, which is regarded as the Fourth Loss; The recapitulative lines about the previous section in the new introductory section should be eliminated, which is the Fifth Loss.*" (Tao, Preface to Heart Sutra Translation; c.f. Zhou, 1999, p.6; my translation)

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[2] Hu Yilu in the book introduced into China linguistic methodology of "historical and comparative treatment of language, and science of principle" (1912, p.100), and called for the adoption of these methods in the study of the Chinese language.

[3] In this book, the theory and linguistic methodology were borrowed from European linguists and used to study Japanese. This book was ever used as the course book of linguistics in Taiwan Imperial University when 安騰, the author of the book, gave lectures of linguistics in Taiwan.

[4] Han Dynasty in Chinese history ranges in time from 202 B.C to 220 A.D., consisted of the Former Han Dynasty (202 B.C -23 A.D.) with its capital in today's Xi'an, the capital city of present Shan'xi province, and the Latter Han Dynasty (25 A.D.-220 A.D.) with its capital in today's Luo Yang, a city in the northwest of present Henan Province.

[5] Zhi Qian is his Chinese Buddhist name, as to when he was born and died was unknown.

From the five differences mentioned in this quoted paragraph, we learned that during the years 220-589 A.D in China, contrastive analysis was adopted to analyze and compare the stylistic parameters of two or more languages on the textual level as the one popular in the world academic circle today.

And these methods used in Buddhist translation were borrowed by missionaries from all parts of the world to translate Christ scriptures in the late Ming Dynasty (c.f. Xu, 2008, p.20), which shows the values of contrastive analysis in religious translation. In addition to Christ scripture translation practice, translation practice of western science and technology works in the Late Ming Dynasty and the early Qing Dynasty also adopted the findings of contrastive analysis in translating Buddhist sutras, which can be seen in the Translator's Remarks of the translated version of *Evolution and Ethics* (1905) as below:

"譯文取明深義，故詞句之間，時有顛倒附益，不斤斤計較於字比句次,而意義不倍本文。……西文句中名物詞，後乃遙接前文，足意成句。故西文句法，少則二、三字，多者數十百言。" （嚴複 《天演論》譯例言）

"This translation is done, based on sense, not on the arrangement of words and sentences of the source text, so inversions and additions sometimes occur between the lines, but its content is not far from the source text. ... Words for names and objects in English sentences are connected and co-referred contextually, and a sentence is complete when a thorough thought is expressed, so an English sentence ranges from two or three words to several dozens of words." (Yan, Remarks on Translation of On Evolution and Ethics, 1905)

Based on the summaries of translation practice, it is safe to suppose that contrastive analysis comes with Buddhist translation practice since the Latter Han Dynasty, and it was developed into linguistic theory to guide and direct the later Buddhist and Christ scripture translation practice, and even the translation of Western science and technology works, with the goal of producing high-quality translations. So we assert that contrastive analysis budding in ancient China has run through the embryonic stage into its maturity in the field of translation practice.

In addition to the contributions of contrastive analysis to religious translation, contrastive analysis was also adopted in making Chinese phonological system under the influence of the introduction of Sanskrit linguistic studies coming with Buddhist sutras. As to the details about Chinese phonological system, please refer to Chapter 5 of *A Short History of Linguistics* by Robins (2001, p.124-125).

In terms of its nature, contrastive analysis derived from translation practice in ancient China is performed interlingually and synchronically, which is evidently shown in the quotations above.

B.   Contrastive Analysis Derived from Missionaries' Grammar Writing

Missionaries from all corners of the world came to China in the Ming Dynasty. To facilitate their religious missions and Chinese learning as the means of spreading Christian doctrines, they constructed Chinese-learning books by imitating Latin Grammar and comparing Chinese with their mother tongues on the levels of sound, structure and meaning, especially of sound.

The first known book of this sort is *Wonder of Western Writing* (1605) by Italian Missionary Matteo Ricci (1551-1610), which was composed of three articles on Catholic doctrines in the form of Chinese Romanization. Through systematic comparison, Matteo Ricci with the help of his fellow missionaries constructed the first reformation of Chinese Romanization, the foundation of Chinese pinyin system today, which is illustrated as the following table:

Ricci System	Chinese Pinyin	Ricci System	Chinese Pinyin	Ricci System	Chinese Pinyin
/su/	/si/	/hu/	/fu/	/o/	/ong/
/shi/	/xi/	/yu/	/you/	/r/	/l/
/ti/	/qi/	/n/	/ing,ang,eng,ong/		
/tsu/	/cu/	/e/	/ei/		

In this system, /ti/ is read as /qi/ meaning "seven" (七) in Chinese, and /n/ represents nasals as ing, ang, eng, ong in the current Chinese Pinyin system. Even now this system is also used among Chinese overseas.

Based on Ricci's system of Chinese Romanization, Belgian Jesuit Nicolas Trigault (1577-1628) constructed traditional Chinese phonology in *An Audio-visual Aid to Western Scholars* or *Xiru Ermu Zi* (1626). Compared with Ricci's Italian-like transcription of Chinese characters, Trigault also referring to the pronunciation of European languages produced a quite Chinese-oriented transcription, which exerted much more impact upon the cognition of Chinese among missionaries and upon the development of traditional Chinese phonology.

Through comparing the structure of Chinese and European languages, Italian Jesuit Marinus Martini (1614-1661) constructed in Latin *Grammatica Sinica* (1653) which is one of the best-preserved Chinese grammar books written in Western languages, and may probably be the first intact Chinese grammar book.

Spanish missionary Franciso Varo (1627-1687) turned to study Chinese structure and sounds by comparing Chinese (an official speech based on Nanking dialect) with his mother tongue Castilian and French, and produced in Latin *Arte de la Lengua Mandarina* (1703) which is the first published Chinese grammar book worldwide.

Twenty years later, French Jesuit Joseph Henri Marie de Prémare (1666-1736) finished *Notitia Linguae Sinicae* (1728) which covered Chinese classic literatures, dictionaries, Chinese characters and sounds, and called for immersing the rules in thousands of Chinese grammar examples. It is believed among missionary Chinese grammar researchers that Prémare (1728) is the first to distinguish the spoken Chinese and the written Chinese (c.f. Lunbaek, 1991, p.180) on

stylistic features and grammatical features through elucidating Chinese particles and their grammar rules. Prémare through comparison with European languages believed Chinese has no grammar besides a few grammar terms such as "full words", those capable of standing alone and bearing in individual lexical glosses, which are further divided into "living words" and "dead words", and "empty words" serving grammatical purposes within sentences containing full words but scarcely having a stable meaning in isolation (c.f. Robins, 2001, p.122). It is through Prémare that these terms have been passed into general linguistics. His analysis of Chinese in Prémare (1728) produced much influences among missionary Chinese scholars, among which Jean Pierre Abel Remusat (1788-1832) put in print *Les démens de la grammaire chinoise* (1822), just to mention a few of them.

From the above evidences, we can see that contrastive analysis was adopted in analyzing Chinese in the areas of sound, structure and stylistic features and in writing "Chinese textbooks" in the early 17th century China, which should be regarded the earliest contrastive analysis in the areas of language teaching and textbook writing in order to improve the learning performances among western missionaries. In terms of its nature in the 17th century, contrastive analysis was conducted interlingually and synchronically as it was conducted in religious translation.

C.   Contrastive Analysis Derived from Traditional Chinese Rhetoric Studies

However, in traditional Chinese philology, there also existed contrastive analysis, especially in the works of traditional Chinese rhetoric.

Zhi Yu (?-311A.D.), a man of letters in the Latter Jin Dynasty[6], compared Chinese poetic styles in terms of traditional Chinese rhetoric in the book *Wen Zhang Liu Bie Lun* (Essay on the Origin of Literary Genres) (c.f. Yuan & Zong, 1998, p.61) in which he traced the history of Chinese poetic genres, distinguished eleven poetic genres, and gave his comments on their roles respectively.

Followed by Liu Xie's *Ti Xing* (Of Genre and Character) in *Wen Xin Diao Long* (The Literary Mind and the Carving of Dragons, 501-502) on how to compose elegant Chinese writings, Liu Xie (around 465-520 A.D.) in this work made a contrastive analysis of writings by the authors of different characters, which touched on the relations between literary styles and writers' personality for the first time (c.f. Yuan & Zong, 1998, p.74).

Li Zhiji (661-721) in Tang Dynasty, through contrastive analyses of history works in *Shi Tong* (Aspects of Historiography, 708), made a generalization and conclusion for the historiographical works before Tang Dynasty and discussed the theories and methods of historiography writing (c.f. Yuan & Zong, 1998, p.96).

Chen Kui (1128-1203) in Song Dynasty made a breakthrough of contrastive analysis adopted by the three pioneers above. In his literary and rhetoric work *Wen Ze* (Theory of Writing), he conducted contrastive analyses of works of different times diachronically, of works of contemporary writers synchronically, of works of different genres and of different paragraphs of a same singe work (c.f. Yuan & Zong, 1998, p.153-166). Since then on, contrastive analysis developed rapidly and reached its peak among the philologists in Qing Dynasty phonology researches.

As to the nature of contrastive analysis adopted by Chinese native scholars through history, it is mainly used in intralingual researches in the areas of literary styles and discourse analysis, and the theory and methods of writing. Contrastive analysis in the first three pioneers is more diachronic than synchronic while contrastive analysis in Chen Kui is both diachronic and synchronic, the first usage of both of them in a single philological work in Chinese history.

D.   Conclusion

Through the analyses above, we can conclude that contrastive analysis derived from translation practice is based on the cultural barriers and linguistic differences to look for the commensurability between two languages for transmitting the thoughts and meaning from the source texts into the target texts, that contrastive analysis in missionary Chinese grammar books aims at finding a short cut in learning Chinese to achieve the best performance within the shortest time, which is the earliest form of current applied contrastive linguistics, and that intralingual contrastive analysis aims at making sense better, improving writing rules and rhetoric skills, developing stylistic norms, and generalizing grammar rules to lay a foundation for Chinese philology.

Contrastive analysis in the above fields came from the practices of religious and science translation, missionary grammar book writing and Chinese rhetoric researches and was developed into current theories of CA, following the law of "practice-theory- the integration of theory with practice", so the history of contrastive analysis in China is incomplete without the contrastive analysis in translation practice and missionary grammar book writing.

Additionally, Xun Gu (exegetics) in Chinese philology also involves contrastive analysis when scholars searched through literatures to explain the given words in ancient texts. This tradition can trace back to Han Dynasty, almost the same period as the contrastive analysis in Buddhist translation practice.

V.   CONCLUDING REMARKS

The history of contrastive analysis in China starts both "intralingual CA" and "interlingual CA" from the Latter Han Dynasty to the early of Qing Dynasty, and follows the law of practice-theory-the integration of theory with practice. By the historic features and characters of contrastive analysis in China, the history of contrastive analysis in China can be

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[6] It is also called West Jin in terms of its capital location.

distinguished into the period of classic CA and of modern CA.

Classic CA starts with Buddhist translation practice and exegetics of Chinese philology in the Latter Han Dynasty, going through traditional rhetoric in the Latter Jin Dynasty and missionary grammar book writing in the late Ming Dynasty to the early Qing Dynasty. For details of classic CA, refer to 4.4 in this paper.

Modern CA starts with Ma's Grammar Book of the Chinese Language (1898), going through the stage of CA practice in language teaching (1898-1977) to the stage of CA theoretical development (1978-2010). The turning point from CA practice in language teaching to CA theoretical development is the lecture titled *On the Exemplification of Contrastive Analysis in Chinese-English Grammar* (Lv, 1977) which was developed and published with the title of *Study Grammar through Contrasting* (1977) in *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*. Since then on, Modern CA turned to the exploration of CA theory and the establishment of CA as a separate discipline. So far, modern CA has extended from the fields of phonetics, phonology, morphology, semantics, pragmatics, discourse analysis, etc. into the areas of bilingual lexicography, translation studies (descriptive translation studies, machine translation, translation process, etc.), textbook writing of Chinese as a foreign language, building of bilingual corpus, teaching of Chinese as a foreign language, etc.

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The Effect of Intensive and Extensive Focus on Form on EFL Learners' Written Accuracy

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Abstract—A number of Second Language Acquisition researchers argue that since focus on form facilitates second language development, therefore special attention to focus on form in the case of adult learners seems to be necessary. This area of research has been one of the hotly-debated issues in SLA literature. The main purpose of the present quasi-experimental study is to investigate the effects of intensive and extensive focus on form instructions on EFL learners' written accuracy. For the purpose of the study 40 learners of English at pre-intermediate level were chosen randomly as the participants of the study and assigned into two groups of experimental which received different types of instruction for 2 months. A narrative task and written production focused and unfocused tasks were employed to collect data from the participants. The collected written data was quantified in terms of the accuracy measure introduced by Ellis (2008).T-test was employed as the statistical means of analysis. The results of the study revealed significant differences between the performances of two groups in terms of the accuracy in focused written production task. The study carries significant implications for second language teachers, SLA researchers as well as task designers.

Index Terms—focus on form, intensive focus on form, extensive focus on form, accuracy, task, noticing hypothesis

I. INTRODUCTION

When second or foreign language learners speak or write, the fluency, accuracy, and complexity of their utterances will be affected in different linguistic domains by many factors such as experience of the teacher, anxiety of L2 learners, planning time, topic familiarity, nature of the task, proficiency of the learners, task type, task condition, task structure, and very importantly the degree of noticing and attention to forms (Rahimpour, 1999, 2008).

Although there has been a plethora of research supporting the effectiveness of form-focused instruction as corrective feedback in general (Gu, 2007; Ellis, 1999, 2003, 1994, 2005, 2008; Rahimpour, 1999, 2001; Rahimpour and Salimi, 2010; Farrokhi and Rahimpour, 2011; Khatib and Alizedeh, 2012; Asadollahfam, et al, 2012; Bichener, et al, 2005; Jernigum, 2012; Chandler, 2003; Falhasiri, et al, 2011), there have been very few studies regarding the role of the nature of focus on form and the degree of drawing learners' attention on EFL learners' written performance. The main purpose of the present experimental study is to investigate the effect of intensive and extensive focus on form on L2 learners' written performance in terms of accuracy.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Mastering the grammar of a second language and being able to correctly implement this knowledge is a demanding and challenging task to accomplish. Due to this reason, most of EFL/ESL learners often encounter difficulty in expressing themselves accurately in oral or written productions. They may have a good knowledge of language structure and usage but might have difficulty in using that declarative knowledge in practice, thus unable to convert it into procedural one. As Khatib and Alizadeh (2012) argue this makes grammar instruction open to research. Furthermore, the paradoxical research results (Gu, 2007; Noris and Ortega, 2000) and many other researchers makes this area a burgeoning area of investigation, specially within task-based approach over the past two decades.

A. Focus on Form

Focus on form has been variously defined by different scholars in the field of SLA.
Long (1983) defines it as

Focus on FORM… overtly draws learner's attention to linguistic elements, as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communicative (Long, 1983, p.45-6)

Long and Robinson (1998) defines focus on form in an operational way as follows:

Focus on Form often consists of occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features by the teacher or one or more students triggered by perceived problem with comprehension or production (Long and Robinson, 1998, P: 23).

In line with Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990, 1994, 2001), Skehan (1996) supports the role of focus on form in assisting the learners to link declarative to their procedural and communicative use of the form structure. He suggests that

Learners benefit from some type of explicit instruction prior to the activity to help them activate their knowledge of TL structures and facilitate awareness of the forms they will encounter (Skehan, 1996, p: 46).

Schmidt (1990, 2001) also argues that L2 learners must efficiently notice and be aware of the features of input in order for intake and learning to be possible. He also mentions attention as a necessary construct for understanding every aspect of SLA (cited in Rahimpour and Salimi, 2010).

B. Focus on Form and Its Types

Focus on Form is usually compared with focus on Forms. Long (2000) defines focus on form**s** as a traditional teaching approach in which teachers present the learners with pre-selected and sequenced linguistic items. Van Patten (2002) criticized traditional instruction of focus on forms as "putting the cart before the horse" (p. 795), explaining that it generally intends to manipulate output as a means of changing the nature of the developmental system. Ellis (2001) and Farrokhi and Rahimpour (2011, p. 151) categorize focus on form into three types of focus on forms, incidental, and planned focus on form. As it was mentioned, focus on form**s** is nothing but the traditional structurally designed syllabus in which language is considered as a system and the primary focus is on language structure and forms (Long, 1996, Asadollahfam, et al, 2011). Planned focus on form involves the use of communicative tasks designed to elicit pre-selected forms in a meaning-focused context. The third type of F-O-F is the incidental form in which attention is paid to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in the course of instruction. This type of focus on form aims at eliciting general samples of the language, rather than specific forms. This type of instruction according to Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2002) involves the use of unfocused communicative tasks.

C. Extensive and Intensive Corrective Feedback and the Gap in Literature

Corrective feedback has recently attracted many researchers' interest in SLA literature. On theoretical grounds, there are different views on the role of naturalistic SL acquisition; Krashen (1985) believes that corrective feedback is not only useless but also harmful since it disrupts the flow of discourse and communication. However, there are many researchers who claim that corrective feedback is effective and necessary and has a facilitative role in SL development (Schmidt, 1990; Long, 1996; Swain, 1998). These researchers argue that noticing involved in focus on form help learners to recognize the gap between interlanguage and target language. Van Patten (2002) and Ellis (2009) also support the role of corrective feedback in the form of negotiation for meaning in making the learners notice their errors and creating form-meaning connections and helping SL acquisition.

What remains missing in the literature is *the effect of the degree of attention on foreign language learners (intensive and extensive focus on form) on L2 learners' written production* (Ellis, 2008).

Ellis (2003) defines extensive focus on form as drawing learners' attention on the whole range of linguistic items involving various grammatical, lexical, and phonological non-targets like forms produced by the learner. Intensive focus on form, however, involves drawing learners' attention repeatedly to specific language items, particularly a grammatical one. Bearing the gap in literature in mind, specifically, investigation of types of focus on form (intensive/extensive) could contribute to SLA literature theoretically and practically.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESES

This study aims at answering the following research question and the hypotheses in relation to written corrective feedback:

RQ: What are the effects of intensive and extensive focus on form on L2 learners' written accuracy?

H0: There is not any significant difference between intensive and extensive focus on form and L2 learners' written accuracy.

H1: Learners receiving intensive focus on form strategies will outperform learners receiving extensive focus on form in terms of accuracy in written production.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the study were 40 pre-intermediate learners of English affiliated to Iran National Language Institute, West Azerbaijan, Iran. The syllabus in this institute is a meaning-based one that provides students with different opportunities to take part in communicative activities (Interchange series, Richards, et al, 2005). They were

selected randomly on the basis of their performances on a test (Oxford Proficiency Test, 2004). They had the same experience of language learning background for 4-5 years in the same institute. The participants were chosen out of 80 homogeneous learners- the same level.

B. Procedure

Having been divided into 2 groups of intensive and extensive groups, the learners received treatment in the form of extensive and intensive form-focused instruction for one semester on the forms focused in units1-5 of interchange Book 2. The participants in intensive group received corrective feedback from the teacher on the tasks assigned by the teacher to the learners on pre-selected language forms (past tense) covered by each lesson. The corrective feedback given to L2 learners was in the form of direct error correction form. The other group (extensive) received treatment in the form of CF on the written assignments for not only forms covered, but also on any lexical and grammatical errors. A narrative written task, as well as written production focused and unfocused tasks were employed as the means of data collection for post-test and delayed post-test, respectively. Accuracy measure for the accuracy of written narrative task was error-free T-units per T-units (Ishikawa, 2006; Rahimpour, 1999; Salimi, et al, 2011). The delayed post-test was administrated after two weeks.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

T-test was employed as the statistical means of analysis for comparing the means of 2 groups in narrative task, as well as written production task.

Table 1 shows the results of descriptive statistics for the accuracy of written narrative task.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE ACCURACY OF WRITTEN NARRATIVE TASK IN INTENSIVE AND EXTENSIVE FOF GROUPS

Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Accuracy Extensive Witten Task	20	.6790	.11107	.02484
Accuracy Intensive Written Task	20	.7025	.13653	.03053

Figure 1 vividly shows the means of accuracy of written narrative task in intensive and extensive groups.
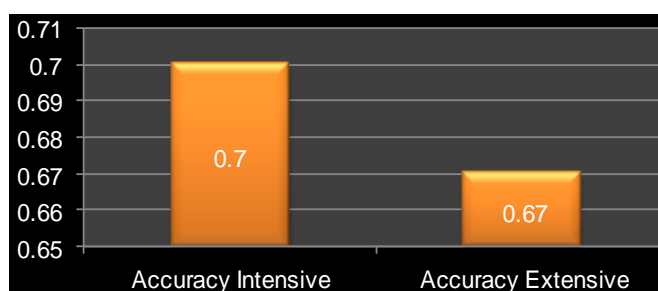
Figure 1 Comparison of the Means of Accuracy of Written Narrative Task in Intensive and Extensive FOF Groups

According to the figure, learners receiving intensive form-focused instruction outperformed learners who received extensive focus on form strategies in terms of their accuracy in written narrative task. Independent samples T-test was employed as the statistical means of analysis. The results are shown in the following table.

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE ACCURACY OF WRITTEN NARRATIVE TASK IN INTENSIVE AND EXTENSIVE FOF GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.904	.348	-.597	38	.554	-.02350	.03936	-.10317	.05617
Equal variances not assumed			-.597	36.488	.554	-.02350	.03936	-.10328	.05628

According to table 2, although intensive group outperformed extensive group; however, the result of inferential statistics of Independent Samples T-test revealed no significant difference between the accuracy of two groups. As a result, the null hypothesis stating that "there is not any significant difference between intensive and extensive focus on form and L2 learners' written accuracy" is confirmed. A delayed written production post-test including focused and unfocused was also employed to test the effect of durability of the instruction.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE ACCURACY OF WRITTEN PRODUCTION FOCUSED TASK IN INTENSIVE AND EXTENSIVE FOF GROUPS

Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Accuracy Intensive Focused	20	14.35	1.725	.386
Accuracy Extensive Focused	20	12.55	2.012	.450

Table 3 shows the results of descriptive statistics for the accuracy of written production focused task.
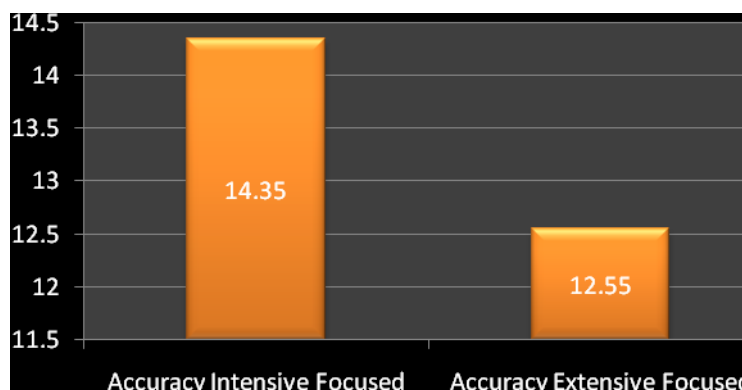
Figure 2 Comparison of the Means of Accuracy of Written Production Focused Task in Intensive and Extensive FOF Groups

Figure 2 also shows the means of accuracy in focused task for both groups. It is clear that participants receiving intensive form-focused instruction outperformed extensive group in terms of accuracy in written production focused task.

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE ACCURACY OF WRITTEN PRODUCTION FOCUSED TASK IN INTENSIVE AND EXTENSIVE FOF GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.467	.499	2.793	37	.008	1.613	.578	.443	2.783
Equal variances not assumed			2.787	36.302	.008	1.613	.579	.440	2.787

Table 4 shows the results of Independent Samples T-test for the accuracy of written production focused task for both groups. The results of statistical analysis show that there is significant difference between means of two groups in terms of the accuracy in focused task. As a result, intensive form-focused instruction was much more effective than intensive form-focused instruction in the delayed post-test. Thus, our null hypothesis is rejected and the hypothesis stating that *"learners receiving intensive focus on form strategies will outperform learners receiving extensive focus on form in terms of accuracy in written production"* is confirmed.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE ACCURACY OF WRITTEN PRODUCTION UNFOCUSED TASK IN INTENSIVE AND EXTENSIVE FOF GROUPS

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Accuracy Intensive Unfocused	12.40	1.569	20
Accuracy Extensive Unfocused	13.35	1.663	20

Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics of groups in intensive and extensive in terms of accuracy in unfocused task in the delayed post-test.
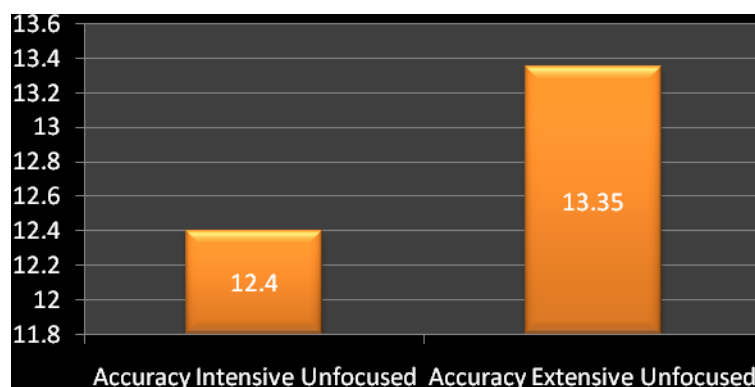
Figure 3. Comparison of the Means of Accuracy of Written Production Unfocused Task in Intensive and Extensive FOF Groups

Figure 3 shows that learners receiving extensive form-focused instruction outperformed learners receiving intensive form-focused instruction in terms of accuracy in written production unfocused task in the delayed post-test.

TABLE 6.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE ACCURACY OF WRITTEN PRODUCTION UNFOCUSED TASK IN INTENSIVE AND EXTENSIVE FOF GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.101	.752	-1.858	38	.071	-.950	.511	-1.985	.085
Equal variances not assumed			-1.858	37.873	.071	-.950	.511	-1.985	.085

According to table 6, no significant difference was found between the performances of two groups in written production unfocused task in delayed post-test. As a result, the null hypothesis stating that *"there is not any significant difference between intensive and extensive focus on form and L2 learners' written accuracy"* is confirmed.

VI. DISCUSSION

Regarding our hypothesis claiming that there is a significant difference between intensive form-focused instruction group's performance and extensive form-focused instruction group's performance, the results of statistical analysis for written narrative task revealed that there was no significant difference between the performances of the two groups statistically. However, learners who received intensive form-focused instruction did slightly better than those who received extensive form-focused instruction. The findings of the study are in line with the findings of Truscott (1996) and Ferris (1999). According to Truscott (1993) the type of feedback provided didn't have any significant effect on the accuracy. Also, Ferris (1999) suggests that the effectiveness of written corrective feedback depends on the feature itself whether it is treatable or not. The rejection of the hypothesis does not mean that form-focused instruction was ineffective. Rather, both types of instruction were effective when Pearson correlation for both groups was computed.

The findings of the study also ran against the findings of Bichener et al (2005) who found that type of written corrective feedback had significant effect on the accuracy in intensive way when separate linguistic categories were utilized. According to them, the provision of full, explicit written feedback, together with individual conference feedback resulted in significantly greater accuracy when different linguistic forms (past tense and the definite article) were used in new pieces of writing. Their findings were in line with our proposed hypothesis. They also found that providing learners with corrective feedback would help learners notice the difference between their errors and the corrections they receive. Noticing such differences is widely accepted in SLA literature as crucial for uptake and long-term retention (Schmidt, 1990, 1994). The findings of the study also ran against the findings of Rahimpour & Salimi (2010) who found significant difference between the performances of learners who received implicit (extensive) and explicit (intensive) instructions. The results showed that learners who received extensive instructions outperformed learners who received intensive instruction.

Considering the results of statistical analysis for the delayed post-test in focused and unfocused task, it was revealed that there was significant difference between the accuracy of two groups in focused task. That is, learners who received intensive form-focused instruction outperformed learners who received extensive from-focused instruction statistically. The findings of the study are in line with the findings of Bichener et al (2005), Norris and Ortega (2000), Falhasiri et al (2011), Sheen (2007), and Chandler (2003). Norris and Ortega (2000) examined the effectiveness of L2 instruction by conducting a meta-analysis of experimental and quasi-experimental studies. The results of their study proved some positive evidence for the superiority of explicit, intensive instruction over implicit, extensive instruction and evidence

for the durability of L2 instruction. They also indicated that "a focus on form and a focus on forms are equally effective" (P: 501). The results of the study of Falhasiri et al (2011) also proved that explicit, deductive, and intensive instruction would decrease the error frequency of the students, specifically interlingual errors. Chandler (2003) studied the effect of different types of corrective feedback on L2 learners' accuracy and fluency in writing. The results proved that all types of corrective feedback were effective; however, intensive correction was best for producing accurate revisions. This high rate of accuracy in intensive group can be attributed to the nature of the drawing learners' attention repeatedly to the same structure and as a result more consciousness of the linguistic feature would occur which would facilitate greater attention to form resulting in greater accuracy.

VII. Pedagogical Implications

The present study carries important implications for SLA literature, SLA researchers, second and foreign language teachers, and syllabus and task designers. For SLA literature, the study can contribute to the theory of SLA by understanding more about the nature of the processes of second language acquisition. For SLA researchers, as Hyland and Hyland (2006) argues:

While feedback is a central aspect of L2 writing programs across the world, the research literature has not been equivocally positive about its role in L2 development, and teachers often have a sense they are not making use of its full potential (p. 83).

Furthermore, the inability and inadequacy of communicative teaching alone to promote high level of accuracy in learners is a fact in EFL contexts. Therefore, task-based language teaching is particularly suitable for formal instruction. Designing such tasks (focused/unfocused) would release more traditionally oriented non-native speaker teachers from the requirement to lead communicative activities in target language. Task designers can also take into account the degree of the attention necessary for performing a task. In line with the findings of the study, the importance of the study is attributed to the fact that it lends additional support to the importance attributed to the incorporation of focus on form as well as focus on forms into meaning-oriented instruction especially in EFL contexts.

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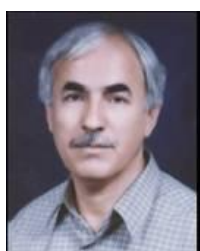
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Innovative Teaching Methodology: Application of Computer and Technology in Iranian Business English Courses

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Abstract—**Business English teachers ought to look for simple, enthusiastic and learner friendly ways to facilitate teaching while drawing the attention of their eager learners who are expecting specific target achievements. As it is stated by Kern and Warschauer (2000), in line with this requirement and expectation the development of Computer assisted language learning around the globe and its impacts on language pedagogy, Computer assisted language learning in general and application of technology in particular can assist Business English teachers to provide the learners with an intriguing and stimulating atmosphere to learn business Skills. The aim of this paper is to report a pilot study on the adoption of technology in SAPCO business English classes for a two- year long period and mainly reflect the 733 learners' feedback over teachers' performance in these classes. It should be mentioned that this study is an ongoing study which will have several phases focusing on assessment, peer-observation, team-teaching and e-learning that will be elaborated on the forthcoming papers.**

Index Terms—**CALL (Computer assisted language learning), technology, business English, e-learning, team teaching, assessment, peer-observation**

I. INTRODUCTION

For the past several decades, the value of pedagogical implications of computers in classrooms has been controversially debated and explored in relevant scholarly investigations. According to Davis (2006), the reported evidence on the "heightened motivation of learners" through the application of computers as a learning facilitator device indicates a triumphant success for the application of means of technology in Education. However, the existing reflections in the history reveal simple and limited application of technology by instructors. In other words, majority of the instructors tend to employ technology as confined to simple writing assignments and surfing the net (Cuban, 2001; MacDonald, 2004; Oppenheimer, 1997, 2003). In this study, innovative application of CALL (computer assisted language learning) along with implication of means of technology in Business English classrooms in Iran is presented.

A. History

The history of pedagogical application of computers for language instruction purposes goes back to 1960s when it was initially introduced on university mainframe computers. Marty (1981) pointed out that the PLATO project, launched at the University of Illinois in 1960, was a momentous landmark in the early development of CALL. The advent of the microcomputer in the late 1970s drew the attention of a wider range of audience, ending up a boom in the development of CALL programs and a flurry of publications of books on CALL in the early 1980s.

There have been several attempts to document the history of CALL. Sander (1995) covers the period from the mid-1960s to the mid-1990s, focusing on CALL in North America. Delcloque (2000) documents the history of CALL worldwide, from its commence in the 1960s to the advent of the new millennium. Davies (2005) reviews CALL's past and attempts to predict where it is heading to. Hubbard (2009) presents a compilation of 74 key articles and book excerpts, originally published in the years 1988-2007 that offers a comprehensive overview of the wide range of leading ideas and research results that have impetus impact on the development of CALL or that show promise in doing so in the future.

During the 1980s and 1990s several attempts were made to establish a CALL typology. A wide range of various types of CALL programs was classified by Davies & Higgins (1985), Jones & Fortescue (1987), Hardisty & Windeatt (1989) . These entailed gap-filling and Cloze programs, multiple-choice programs, free-format (text-entry) programs, adventures and simulations, action mazes, sentence-reordering programs, exploratory programs - and "total Cloze", a

type of program in which the learner has to reconstruct a whole text. Most of these early programs still exist in modernized versions.

Davies et al.(2011) state that since 1990s it has become increasingly difficult to categorize CALL as it now extends to the use of blogs, wikis, social networking, podcasting, Web 2.0 applications, language learning in virtual worlds and interactive whiteboards (Section 3.7).

Warschauer (1996) and Warschauer & Healey (1998) took a different approach. Rather than focusing on the typology of CALL, they identified three general historical phases of CALL, classified according to their underlying pedagogical and methodological approaches:

The first phase embarked since 1950s and implemented officially during 1960s.This phase was fundamentally constructed on the basis of behaviorist theories of learning and teaching while concentrating on the importance of spoken forms over the written one with specific focus on drill and practice- based programs. Computers played tutorial role and acted as tutors for language instructions. This approach was mainly at work for vocabulary acquisition till 1970s that it lost its popularity as a result of the paradigm shifts in language teaching and invention of microcomputers. However, as mentioned by Bangs and Cantos (2006), the initial popularity of CALL came to an end due to two main reasons:

1. Lack of imagination and creativity in designing new and challenging exercises, and

2. The high cost and maintenance of the computers.

With the advent of cognitive school of thought and shifting attentions toward cognitive aspects of language, learning and in fact language was viewed as a mentally constructed system and Language learning is perceived to develop through the operation of innate cognitive ability or language input. Thus, language education was formed and led toward cognitive process involved in learning and use of language. It was when the second phase, communicative phase, emerged. This was considered as a theoretical and pedagogical reaction toward the behaviorist approach. Form-focused instruction and implicit grammar instruction were at priority. Learning was stressed to be a creative process of discovery, expression, and development in accordance with the cognitive theories. Programs such as text reconstruction software which allowed learners working alone or in groups to rearrange words and texts to discover patterns of language and meaning and simulations which stimulated discussion and discovery among learners working in pairs or groups were designed.

TABLE1.
THREE PHASES OF CALL

Stage	Technology	Pedagogical approach	View of language	Use of computers	Teacher's role
1960s-1980s: Behavioristic or structural CALL	Mainframe	Grammar-translation and Audio-Lingual	Structural	Habit formation: Repetitive drills Drill-and-practice Translations tests	Sole source of language information to give instruction
1980s-1990s: Communicative CALL	PCs	Communicative language teaching	Cognitive	Communicative exercises: Using forms Implicit grammar teaching forms Text reconstructions Simulations	Activator Facilitator
1900s to 21st century Integrative CALL	Multimedia Internet-based application	Content-Based, Task-Based, Project-based, ESP,EAP	Social, socio-cognitive	Authentic social, context, discourses Integrate various skills(Reading, Writing, listening, speaking) of language learning and use	Counselor Mentor

Underwood (1984) applied the principles of communicative language teaching to CALL and established a number of premises for "Communicative CALL" (pp. 52-54):

1. Activities will focus on acquisition practice (using forms to communicate) rather than learning practice (forms them).

2. Grammar will always be implicit (built into the lesson or activity), though explicit grammar explanation will be available on a call-up basis.

3. Activities should require learners to take a creative action in the target language (or to produce a response based on comprehension of an utterance) rather than manipulating prefabricated language.

4. Activity feedback will not aim at correcting or evaluating each response: According to Terrell (1977), activity feedback will "raise expectations for competence in communication, and lower expectations for structural accuracy" (p. 325).

5. Activity feedback will avoid calling out learners' incorrect answers just as "wrong": Provide help by means of appropriate and well-formed models or give hints.

6. Activities and instructions should be written in the target language. CALL software should try to communicate with the learner without reverting to the learner's mother tongue, though some help or explanations can be made available on a call-up basis.

7. CALL activities should be flexible, not based on the principle that every stimulus has one and only one response.

8. CALL activities should allow learners to explore the subject matter: there is no predetermined material of any sort, but rather an environment in which discoveries can be made.

9. CALL activities should create a context in which using the target language feels natural (on screen: learner(s)-machine interaction and off-screen: learner(s) - learner(s)/teacher-learner(s) interaction).

10. CALL software is not an electronic book (CALL activities will aim at doing things books cannot).

11. CALL software should be fun and attractive (try to avoid drill exercises or exams).

Mayor (2001) contends that the above principles may have been drawn up some twenty years ago, but in their essence they remain sound, even though research has built on them through the years of experience, and not just in language learning.

With all the popularity, communicative CALL was criticized by constructivists. They stressed on the important impact of the past experience on learning. Therefore, they viewed learners as involved in meaning construction and mainly focused on what learners can analyze, investigate, collaborate, share, build and generate based on what they already know, rather than what facts, skills, and processes they can parrot. In fact they hold that learners are constructors rather than mere receivers of preached input. In other words, constructivist learning is based on learner's active participation in problem-solving and critical thinking in learning activities. As a result, many teachers moved away from a cognitive view of communicative teaching and placed greater emphasis on language in authentic social contexts. Task-based, project-based, and content-based approaches all sought to integrate learners in authentic environments, and also to integrate the various skills of language learning and use. This led to a new perspective on technology, language learning and teaching, which has been termed as integrative CALL, an approach which seeks both to integrate various skills, for example, listening, speaking, reading and writing, and also integrates technology more fully into the language learning and teaching process. According to Warschauer (1996), this phase is based on two technological developments of the last decade- multimedia computers and Internet. Warschauer adds that the multimedia technology represented by the CD-ROM allows the combination of various media such as sound, graphic, text and video on no one machine which facilitates integration of all four language skills.

With the increasing use of computers in areas like business, communication, and entertainment, educational instructions have also started examining ways to incorporate computers in the classroom. Since the appearance of language laboratories, technology has always been regarded as a new remedial aid for language teaching and learning. Nearly forty years ago, the latest technology gadget was the language laboratory, not the computer.

B. The Benefits of CALL

According to Wang (2006), pedagogical application of computer in language teaching entails the following merits;

• *Fostering classroom learning*: Application of technology in language classrooms can motivate learners and let them experience authentic moments in the classroom. This is carried out by means of audio-visual aids run by computer programs. In other words, this trend can foster and facilitate learning through simulating abstract issues concretely.

• *Encouraging more individualized and autonomous learning*: Learners often attend language classes with different needs, interests and heterogeneous levels of proficiency. These can not only act as pedagogical hindrances for the instructors but also can affect the learners' pace and style of learning. Technology and computers in particular can help teachers to meet the learners' needs with different educational aids at their own pace. This creates a learner-centered classroom environment where the instructors act as facilitators who give the learners opportunity to learn how to learn. With the help of individualized instruction, consequently, equal opportunities are provided for all kinds of learners, i.e. slower learners can catch up, and advanced learners can do extra assignments.

• *Exchanging the stored data and resources*: Through application of modern technology, classroom data are generated, stored, shared and swapped among learners and instructors.

• *Facilitating communication through internet*: Instructors and learners can swap data and information via internet and particularly through electronic mails. Moreover, through virtual resources like virtual libraries learners have more opportunity to explore and keep their knowledge updated while having exposure to the target language.

C. Computer Assisted Language Learning within the Framework of Task Based Learning (TBL)

The Task Based Learning (TBL) which has a great number of advocates around the globe was presented as a result of a paradigm shift in language from the behaviouristic PPP paradigm (present, practice and produce) into a learner-centered approach- the TBL paradigm. The traditional PPP approached language instruction as a rather rigid, teacher –centered process where the instructor worked within a framework in accordance with the taught forms. In other words, the learners' performances were evaluated as correct or incorrect with reference to the specific taught forms and nothing outside the instructed forms was approved as correct response. TBL paradigm, on the other hand, provides the opportunity for an individual internal learning process, i.e. the learners carry out different tasks and interact with other peers in pairs or groups in order to create a more comfortable and anxiety- free atmosphere in the classroom. This is usually facilitated through instructors' support to supply appropriate tasks and material for the learners, instructors' counsellorship, observation and mentoring, employing continuous assessment, encouraging consciousness raising among the learners, facilitating clarification when needed, a catalyst for a language focus process. Thus, CALL (computer assisted language learning) can be innovatively practiced if integrated within the framework of TBL (task based Learning). CALL offers the language instructor and learner a number of activities and tasks that when carefully

planned as part of the pedagogical room will facilitate language learning. Adventure games, Chat online, Cloze exercises, Commenting/correcting electronic texts/essays/exercises, Cross Words, Drills, "Electronic dictionaries, Electronic Portfolios, Fill-in the blank, Find the answers ,Find the right sequence (or jumbled sentences), Grammar, Hot words, Listening exercises, Matching words, sentences, or pictures, Multiple Choice, Role plays , Simulations, Task based learning and Vocabulary training are among many applications which can practically prove such an integration.

II. The Pilot Study

A. Situation Analysis

Effective Business skills courses were designed with request of an automotive part supplier company's (SAPCO) training department whose objective was upgrading staff English proficiency in accordance with their professional needs. As a result of SAPCO language committee meetings held in 1385, a need analysis matrix was drawn up indicating the staff's need in accordance with their organizational position in the company. At last, it was decided to hold classes for three groups of Experts, bosses and managers. Since this department had experienced General English training courses with "New Interchange" and "Passages", the first population of the students who were selected to participate in "Oxford Effective Business Skills" was among the Intermediate level students of New Interchange courses. Two major points were considered here;
1. learners' proficiency level (Intermediate and upper-intermediate)
2. learners' organizational positions(Experts, bosses and managers)

B. Course Description

Effective business English classes were held in three courses namely; "Effective socializing", "Effective telephoning" and "Effective meetings". However, after two years and based on the organizational needs, a follow series of e-learning classes are being held that are accompanied with team-taught workshop courses that will be presented on the forth coming paper. The books are selected from Oxford publication business English series. The following tables illustrate the course specifications;

TABLE2.
FIRST SERIES OF CLASSES

Course	Hours	Units	Started	Finished	Number of Classes held
Effective socializing	40	8	85/8/13	85/10/25	10
Effective telephoning	60	10	86/1/18	86/4/30	10
Effective meeting	40	8	86/7/29	86/10/18	7

Note: Classes were held twice per week and each session lasted 1:30 minutes.
Number of female learners: 39
Number of male learners: 288

TABLE3.
SECOND SERIES OF CLASSES

Course	Hours	Units	Started	Finished	Number of Classes held
Effective socializing	40	8	86/1/18	86/3/21	6
Effective telephoning	60	10	86/10/22	86/7/28	5
Effective meetings	40	8	87/1/9	87/4/15	3

Note: Classes were held twice per week and each session lasted 1:30 minutes.
Number of female learners: 28
Number of male learners: 141

TABLE4.
THIRD SERIES OF CLASSES

Course	Hours	Units	Started	Finished	Number of Classes held
Effective socializing	40	8	86/8/12	86/10/17	8
Effective telephoning	60	10	87/8/6	Not finished	5
Effective meetings	40	8	87/86	Not finished	2

Note: Classes were held twice per week and each session lasted 1:30 minutes.
Number of female learners: 36
Number of male learners: 178

C. Teachers' Performance Assessment

Below you can find learners' average scores of the teachers' performance assessments done by learners through intranet. The assessments conducted end of every course.

TABLE5.
TEACHERS'PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENT RESULTS

	Effective socializing	Effective telephoning	Effective meeting
First series	%89.5	%91	%92
Second series	%94	%95	%92
Third series	%92	Not assessed yet	Not assessed yet

D. Application of Technology in SAPCO Business English Classes

Internet and Intranet: a web site was designed for the English courses in which there were supplementary links provided for the learners who could have access to them via intranet (in the company) and internet (outside the company). Furthermore, the classes were connected to the high- speed internet so that the teachers could have access to online educational sources.

E-mail: teachers and learners swapped files including the "class notes", "assignments" and "tests". Teachers also provided the learners' with appropriate responses to their questions.

Computer video projector: each class was equipped with a video projector and a screen to act as a white board with the compatibility of storing data written on the board and simultaneous application of audio-video files in the classroom. The possibility to make use of various writing styles, stationeries and fonts by the teacher on the board added up to the learners' motivation in the class.

DVD player: The possibility to show films with optional subtitles and the ease of scene selection and of course the high quality of the films were of other advantages of DVDs that were replaced by VCDs and VHS cassettes.

Electronic Dictionary: Longman contemporary dictionary was installed in every class and teachers and learners could have access to definitions, examples and British/American pronunciation samples.

Mp3 player: teachers recorded the learners' voice in production phase then the audio files were mailed to them to have self-assessment and evaluate the individual progress by comparing their audio files during the course.

E. Learners' Profile

Learners who participated in these courses were mainly BA, BS, MA, MS graduates and a few were AA holders. Of total number of 733 participants %86 were male and %14 female learners. They majored in wide variety of engineering courses and were %38 MS/MA, %60 BS/BA and %2 AA graduate students in engineering courses from public universities in Iran. The pre-requisite level was intermediate, so the first group was selected among the learners who had already passed Intermediate courses in SAPCO training department. The following series of classes were held after administrating Cambridge placement Test in SAPCO. Learners all were capable of using computer and Internet.

F. Teachers' Profile

Three female teachers with at least 10 years of experience participated in this project. The teachers held regular meetings to exchange experiences. They further kept journals and reflected their ideas on them. Teachers had basic knowledge of computer. They had already passed Windows, word, and Internet courses.

III. FINAL WORDS

The Business English courses designed in SAPCO are the first domestic system that is run with the application of CALL in the country. Thus, this can be viewed as the first experience for the training department administrators, teachers and learners. To evaluate the progress and the possible pinpoints, the teachers kept reflective journal writing as well as regular meetings. As indicated in teachers' performance progress table (questionnaires available on the intranet of SAPCO), learners considered their performance as developing through series of courses held. However, Learners' further feedback is illustrated in the following list:

1. Application of video projectors in the class motivated us more.

2. The class-note saving and sending system is beneficial since we can have access to all the teacher's classroom notes via e-mail.

3. The possibility to ask questions and solve our language problems via e-mail outside the classroom is great.

4. The quality of DVDs are higher than VHS and that helps us in listening comprehension

5. Using electronic Longman contemporary Dictionary is fantastic. We can have access to the British and American pronunciations, collocations, and variety of definitions along with real example on the spot.

6. Teachers' use of PowerPoint presentation was so intriguing.

7. Classroom tasks were more effective.

8. Group work and pair works while looking at the screen instead of opening our books were interesting.

Regardless of the advantages, we should refer to possible drawbacks;

1. Both teachers and learners need to be trained how to work with computer and they need to have worked on basic ICDL skills.

2. The system will cost a lot for institutes. Although computers are available almost everywhere, video projectors and particularly their maintenance are costly.

3. High-speed internet connections are problematic in our country.

4. Since teachers are not paid for their outside class services provided for the students, they won't have enough motivation to mail the learners, work on word files, create PowerPoint and etc.

Forth coming phases

As mentioned earlier, this is an ongoing study and more findings regarding assessment, peer observation, team teaching and e-learning are under process and will be presented in the forthcoming papers.

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Individualized Instruction in Large Classes of Integrated English in CALL Environments

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Abstract—this study set out to address the problem of low efficiency and effectiveness in large classes of integrated english in china's colleges. the authors of this paper converted the previous teacher-centered, one-for-all teaching in a large class of integrated english into more student-oriented, individualized instruction. first, the students were asked to make their own learning plans. second, the teacher for the study (one of the co-authors) adjusted the teaching content based on a needs analysis. and third, the teacher guided the students in autonomous learning through a learning management system (lms) "rofall", which was co-developed by network technology engineers and college english teachers (including the authors of the paper). to evaluate this new teaching model, the authors compared students' scores on the cet-4 test with those of previous model tests and analyzed students' feedback from questionnaires and in-depth interviews. results showed students' comprehensive mastery of english was enhanced, especially in terms of vocabulary capacity, grammar knowledge, reading skills and listening ability; however, they showed a slight preference on the previous teaching model than the present one. a comparison of the two teaching models was surveyed and elaborated. the study concluded that individualized instruction based on students' needs analysis and through call environments could be a feasible way to improve efficiency and effectiveness of large class of integrated english. ways to ameliorate this model would include 1)improving students' perception of learning ; 2)training students' meta-cognitive abilities and language learning strategies; 3) the teacher's strict supervision; 4) valid assessment; and 5) understanding and support from the school administration.

Index Terms—individualized instruction, LMS, integrated English, CALL

I. INTRODUCTION

Teachers all over the globe are exploring ways to make teaching more efficient and effective. The first author attempted to find solutions to practical problems emerging in her Integrated English classroom. One such problem was that of class size. Given that there were over 50 students, the teacher felt compelled to use a lecture approach, making it difficult to engage students and meet their individualized needs.

In fact, research findings from the study of Integrated English class at the college level in China would suggest that teachers could be more efficient in the use of their time and more effective in their use of teaching methods. In an overview of research on large classes of College English in China in the past decade, Wang and Yan (2011, pp. 105-106) listed the problems and difficulties of such classes: 1) the underqualification of the teaching staff, 2) individual differences among students, 3) difficulties in organizing class activities with such a large group, 4) difficulties in student management, 5) lack of teacher-student communication, 6) out-of-date teaching methods, and 7) a heavy teacher workload.

In response to these issues, solutions have been proposed, including the use of CALL environments in classroom teaching (Cai, 2003; Wang et al, 2003; Nan, 2006; Jin, 2007; Wang, 2009; Xu, 2011), the emphasis on cooperative learning (Yuan, 2003; Zhang, 2007; Xu, 2011), autonomous learning (Lv, 2003; Pang, 2006; Tan & Qiu, 2008, Wu, 2011), a communicative language teaching approach (Wen, 2003), task-based instruction (Wang, 2009), insights from Management Theory (Xiao, 2010) and so on.

These suggestions have been shown to be useful in addressing some of the issues like the organization of class activities, the improvement of teacher-student communication, and the updating of teaching methods. However, there remained one outstanding issue that was not adequately addressed in the research literature in China: the difficulty in attempting to cater to each student's individual learning needs (Yu, 2004; Xu, 2007). This paper on an empirical study intended to fill that gap. Another innovation of this paper lies in the application of an in-house language learning management system (LMS) "Rofall", which was built to rectify some problems in the existing LMS. The adoption of this new LMS was an attempt to contribute to the revisited research on the effective use of CALL environments.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Individualized Instruction

Individualized instruction is a method of instruction in which content, instructional technology (such as materials) and pace of learning are based upon the abilities and interests of each individual learner. It has points of contact with the constructivism movement in education, started by Swiss biologist Jean Piaget, which states that the student should build his or her learning and knowledge (Wikipedia, 2012).

In China, individualization instruction has been a classic educational principle passing down from dynasties to present times (Zhang, 2003). Typical of Confucius' way of teaching, "yin cai shi jiao", which means teaching based upon each student's individual characteristics, has been well proved to be effective. In America, almost from the inception of formal schooling, individualized programs have been developed. Over the years, the revived interest in individualization has taken a bewildering array of forms that "Individualized instruction" is considered to be a phylum rather than a species of approaches to teaching (Gibbons, 1970, p.28).

According to Gibbons (1970), individualized programs can be further divided into subgroups of instruction of individuals and that of group or class. While the first subdivision is based on how the teacher addresses his students, the second subdivision is based upon the decision-making pattern that the teacher establishes in the classroom. The features of such programs, are teacher-directed (active), teacher-student cooperation (responsive) and democratic (permissive), as demonstrated in Figure 1. In individualized instruction, the teacher should 1)be well situated between actively in control and permissive in the instructional program; and 2) plan cooperatively, and responsive to students' questions and requests in a timely manner (p.35).

Meanwhile, as language teaching has become more learner-focused and interactive, there has also been an emphasis on helping students take more responsibility for meeting their own language learning needs (Brown, 2002; Chamot, 2001; Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, & Robbins, 1999; McDonough, 1999; Oxford, 1990, 2001; Rubin & Thompson, 1994, quoted in Cohen & Weaver, 1997, p. 4) . Independence, self-direction, initiative, freedom and responsibility must be developed in students (Gibbons, 1970, p. 49).
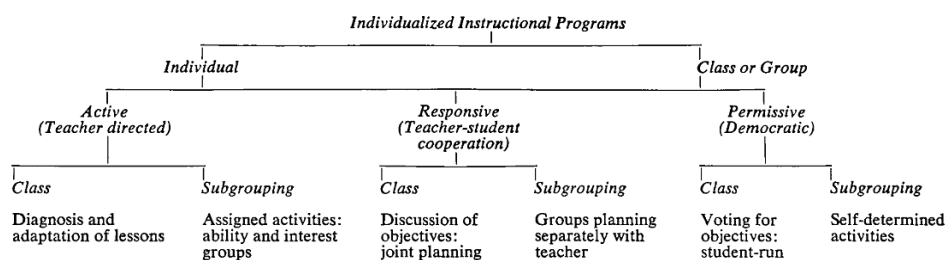
Figure 1. A Rough Classification of Individualization (Gibbons, 1970, p.37)

B. Large Class of Integrated English in China

Integrated English, originally called Intensive English, was proved to meet students' learning needs and social requirements in the 1980s and the early 1990s (Cai, 2007). However, it began to be notorious for "time wasting and of low teaching effects" in the late 1990s (Dai, 2001). Problems were found in terms of its teaching effects (Cai, 2003), teaching objectives, teaching model and assessment (Cai, 2005). A reform of College English was then carried out. College English was advocated to focus on students' communication skills and shift from a teacher-centered pattern to a student-centered pattern, supported by "computer- and classroom-based teaching models" (Department of Higher Education, 2007, pp. 25-26).

A class is considered to be of large size when there is over 50 students (Hayes, 1997). Large class size has been common in China: it is surveyed that the ratio of College English teachers versus students is about 1: 100 in China (Shu, 2004, p. 290), probably due to China's large population and the enlarging recruitment of college students starting from 1999. A large class size has been considered a great challenge to pedagogy. "There have been overwhelmingly positive in the belief that class size reduction leads to better student behaviour, easier classroom management and the development of more positive attitudes in learners" (Korostoff, 1998; Wang & Finn, 2000).

C. Needs Analysis

Needs Analysis (NA) was defined as "the activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the learning needs of a particular group of students"(Brown, 2001, p. 35). In this definition, the "learning needs" mean "a gap or measurable discrepancy between a current state of affairs and a desired future state" (Berwick, 1989, p. 52). Simply put, they are "the gap between what is and what should be" (Brindley, 1989, p. 63). NA is a vital prerequisite for developing a curriculum because "it forms a rational basis for all the other components of a systematic language curriculum" (Iwai et al, 1999, p. 7). Its importance in curriculum design has been widely recognized (Yalden, 2000; Brown, 2001; Hutchinson & Waters, 2002; Shu, 2004; Wen, 2004; Ni and Liu, 2006).

D. CALL Environments

CALL environments could facilitate individualized instruction, in that they makes it possible to tailor the subject matter, assessment to the individual needs of students (Volman, M. 2005, p. 18) and "permit each student to proceed at his own rate" (Skinner, 1968, p. 30), so as to facilitate differentiation and individualization in education.

III. RESEARCH

A. Research Questions

The two research questions for this study were:
1) How does individualized instruction improve the participating students' learning outcomes?
2) How do the teacher-centered, one-for-all lecturing model and individualized instruction model compare in terms of their relative popularity in the eyes of the students?

B. Participants

The participants consisted of 115 freshmen students (62 men, 53.4%; 54 female, 46.6%) of two classes in the year 2010 taught by the first author of this paper at her home university. Majored in E-commerce and Law and Telecommunication Engineering and Management, the students were from International School, where all the courses were conducted in English. They were required to finish College English courses in one year which students of other schools finished in two years. All of them had access to the Internet and were adept at using computer applications. Their English scores of National College Entrance Exam (NCEE) ranged from 87 to 140, with a mean of 126.4 (full marks: 150). Compared to the highest NCEE mean of top universities (140) , lowest (around 70 to 80) and the mean of most colleges (below 100) in China (Cai, 2009a) , they had a fairly excellent background in English.   According to the survey, the students' motivation for learning English was mainly instrumental (68.6 %). Their dominant purpose was to get good grades in both CET-4 and final exams (32.26 %). Only 10.75 % of them had Deep Motivation (They said they learnt English because they loved the language and were interested in English learning).

C. Process

1. Needs analysis and teaching objectives

In this study, the teacher guided the students to write down their goals in English learning at the beginning of the term. Their writings answered three questions:
1) What do I want to achieve by the end of this semester?--"What should be" (Brindley, 1989, p. 63)
2) How far away am I from that goal?--"What it is" (Brindley, 1989, p. 63)
3) How can I achieve that goal?--"How to be there".

Upon reading, the teacher commented on each student's learning objectives and guided them to make their independent study plans.

2. Reform in the teaching plan

According to students' common objectives, the teacher made a new teaching plan which increased student's autonomous learning. Before carrying out the plan, the teacher explained to the students the importance of independent study from the perspective of constructivism and gave them trainings on language learning strategies.

As demonstrated in the following table, changes of the teaching model were: previously, the teaching model was more teacher-centered and focused on students' reading abilities. These students used to have six-hour English class one week: four-hour Intensive Reading, one-hour autonomous listening practice and one-hour speaking activities. The new teaching model, on the other hand, aimed to be more student-centered and placed more emphasis on student's autonomous learning and practice of listening and speaking skills. The previous four-hour intensive reading class was condensed into two hours only, sparing two hours to be used in the computer lab instead, with one hour for speaking activities and the other for autonomous learning via a LMS "Rofall".

TABLE I.
CHANGE OF THE TEACHING MODEL OF INTEGRATED ENGLISH

Previous Model	**4**-hour Intensive Reading (teacher-centered)	**1**-hour speaking (teaching)	**1**-hour autonomous learning (mainly listening practice via a LMS "New Perspective")
New Model	**2**-hour Intensive Reading (more **student-centered**)	**2**-hour speaking (teaching)	**2**-hour autonomous learning (listening, **vocabulary, writing, reading, simulated tests for CET-4 and** via two LMS "New Perspective" and **"Rofall"**)
Environments	multimedia classroom (furnished with fixed tables and chairs, an elevated stage and a computer, a overhead projector and a blackboard in the front)	computer lab (Each student has access to a computer and the Internet if permitted; the teacher's computer includes a teaching software which enables demonstration, supervision, organization and recording.)	

3. Teaching environments

The teaching was surrounded by CALL environments. In the multimedia classroom, a computer and an overhead projector were equipped. In the computer lab, computers and the Internet are available to each student. Two learning

management systems(LMS) applied in this class were "New Perspective" and "Rofall". Rofall was more frequently used since it rectified problems in "New Perspective", which was developed earlier.

The Rofall system is an LMS co-developed by College English teachers (led by the second author of this paper) and engineers of School of Network Education at the authors' home university. To solve the problem of limited resources (mainly listening and speaking exercise) in the other LMS "New Perspective", Rofall integrates resources on more English skills, covering listening, reading, speaking and writing skills. There are 18 types of questions, including both objective questions and subjective ones (See Table ii). The system also contains model tests and authentic CET-4 exams for evaluating students' progress. As a system developed to cater to each student's needs, Rofall enables users (either the teacher or students) to select and "prescribe" different exercises and tests. Scores and detailed feedback of objective questions will be generated immediately once a test is finished. The system can also grade some subjective questions like fill-in questions and comment initially on summary writing. Yet it waits for teachers' manual grading and more detailed comments of student's composition writing. There is a discussion board where students can obtain the teacher's advice whenever necessary.

TABLE II.
EIGHTEEN TYPES OF QUESTIONS IN THE ROFALL SYSTEM

No.	Objective Questions	No.	Subjective Questions
1	Short Answer Questions	10	Rapid Question-answer Exercise
2	True or False(1)	11	Sentence Repeat
3	True or False(2)	12	Intonation Practice
4	Multiple Choices	13	Personal Statement
5	Spot Dictation	14	Group Discussion
6	Sentence Dictation	15	Sentence Completion
7	Compound Dictation	16	Summary Writing
8	Construction Questions(1)	17	Essay Writing
9	Constructing Questions for Given Answers (2)	18	Question-answer Exercise

4. Teaching content

With half of its original class time, intensive reading was conducted according to the principle of "less lecturing and more students' practice" (Sheng, 1990, p. 260). The teacher spent less time on introducing the authors of the articles in the textbook, and explained only important new words (most frequently seen and used ones) in the reading. The students were asked to preview the text and ask in class for explanations of other new words that they considered necessary.

In the additional hour of autonomous learning, students chose materials and exercise to do in the Rofall system at their own pace. The materials selected were authentic, varied, up-to-date and interesting, and arranged in the sequence of from the easy to the difficult. To guide the students through the multitude of exercises, the teacher recommended some of the exercises with a prolonged deadline. Students can decide whether, when and how much they do optional exercises according to their own English background. They may ask the teacher for guidance during the process. The teacher evaluated students' learning by both their efforts and grades, which were recorded by Rofall.

D. Instruments

Instruments employed in this study included data from pretests and posttests, questionnaires and interviews.

The pretests were a city-wide placement test and a Model CET 4 test, which all freshmen took at the beginning of the term. The posttests were a final exam of College English and the CET-4 exam. The questionnaires (available upon request) were designed to analyze students' motivations for learning English, perception and ability of autonomous learning, opinions on both teaching models, LMS's roles, their expected teachers' roles, etc. To reduce ambiguity, each question avoided "N/A" choice and used instead an open-ended structure "Others (please fill in_____)". Interviewed were eight students at random on a voluntary basis. The interview lasted for about 15 minutes each, exploring mainly their English backgrounds, opinions on the new teaching model and their English independent learning experiences.

E. Data Analysis

The questionnaires were delivered and completed on line through the Rofall system. Out of 115 students, 96 (83.48%) participated. All of the 96 questionnaires were collected and counted valid.

Data on students' pre- and post- test was analyzed by using SPSS 14.0:

1. Descriptive statistics (mean, variance, standard deviation, percentage) were used to analyze the scores of pretests and posttests and the answers of the questionnaires;

2. A paired sample t-test was employed to compare the students' listening abilities in both pretest and posttest.

3. A one-sample t test was used to compare these students' placement test scores (pretest) and final exam scores (post-test) with that of the rest of the grade, so as to detect any progress they achieved if any.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Learning Outcomes

1. Improved comprehensive mastery of English

Good grades of CET-4 test was the students' primary goal. This goal was achieved. Compared to the mean of their Model CET4 test (493.82) at the beginning of the term, the students' scores in CET 4 after this term increased to 531.50, which is significant at .05 level (sig.=.000), as indicated in Table 1, 2 and 3.

TABLE 1.
IMPROVEMENT OF COMPREHENSIVE MASTERY OF ENGLISH (COMPARISON OF MODEL CET 4 AND CET 4 SCORES)
(DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS)

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest (ModelCET4)	495.64	115	72.846	6.793
Posttest (CET4)	531.50	115	62.203	5.800

TABLE 2.
IMPROVEMENT OF COMPREHENSIVE MASTERY OF ENGLISH (COMPARISON OF MODEL CET 4 AND CET 4 SCORES)
(PAIRED SAMPLES CORRELATIONS)

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pretest (ModelCET4) & Posttest(CET4)	115	.523	.000

TABLE 3.
IMPROVEMENT OF COMPREHENSIVE MASTERY OF ENGLISH (COMPARISON OF MODEL CET 4 AND CET 4 SCORES)
(PAIRED SAMPLES *T* TEST)

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pretest (ModelCET4) - Posttest (CET4)	-35.852	66.603	6.211	-48.156	-23.549	-5.773	114	.000

Since CET-4 is a national test of high validity and reliability on students' comprehensive English abilities, these results seem to evidence students' increased comprehensive mastery of English. It is also indicated that the new teaching model could be conducive to enhancing students' learning outcomes.

2. Better vocabulary capacity, grammar knowledge and reading skills

The second learning objective of the students was to improve their mastery of textbook knowledge. This goal was also realized at the end of the term. As Table 4 and 5 display, before the term started, the students sat in a city-wide placement test and scored 56.97 on average, which was lower than the mean (57.63) of the whole grade, though without significance (sig.=.5), However, after being trained in the new teaching model, the students made progress in their final exam, with the mean 83.52 above the average of all freshmen (81.38) with significance (sig.=.018).

TABLE 4.
IMPROVED MASTERY OF TEXTBOOK KNOWLEDGE (COMPARISON OF PLACEMENT TEST SCORES AND FINAL EXAM SCORES WITH THE REST OF THE
GRADE) (DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest (placement test)	115	56.9741	10.46274	.97144
Post test (final exam)	115	83.2137	10.12579	.93613

TABLE 5.
IMPROVED MASTERY OF TEXTBOOK KNOWLEDGE (COMPARISON OF PLACEMENT TEST SCORES AND FINAL EXAM SCORES WITH THE REST OF THE
GRADE) (ONE-SAMPLE *T* TEST)

	Test Value in Pre-test =57.63202; Test Value in Post-test =81.381743					
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
Pretest (placement test)	-.677	115	.500	-.65788	-2.5821	1.2664
Post test (final exam)	2.409	115	.018	2.14412	.3808	3.9074

The final exam assessed principally the students' mastery of textbook knowledge, mainly vocabulary capacity, grammar knowledge and reading skills, which they learnt in the condensed two hours of class time per week instead of four as the rest of the grade did. This result indicates students' learning outcomes may not necessarily be in direct proportion to the teacher's lecturing time, and individualized instruction might be more efficient and effective in enhancing students' learning results.

3. Increased listening ability:

From Table 6, 7 and 8, it is found that students' listening ability grew substantially after this term. Their listening test scores rose from 172.91 in pretest (Model CET-4 exam) to 190.84 in post-test (CET-4) with significance (sig.=.000) at .05 level.

TABLE 6.
IMPROVEMENT OF LISTENING ABILITY (COMPARISON OF MODEL CET 4 AND CET 4 SCORES) (DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS)

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ListenPost-test (Model CET-4)	190.8435	115	28.07402	2.61792
ListenPre-test (CET-4)	172.9130	115	28.02116	2.61299

TABLE 7.
IMPROVEMENT OF LISTENING ABILITY (COMPARISON OF MODEL CET 4 AND CET 4 SCORES) (PAIRED SAMPLES CORRELATIONS)

	N	Correlation	Sig.
ListenPost & ListenPre	115	.321	.000

TABLE 8.
IMPROVEMENT OF LISTENING ABILITY (COMPARISON OF MODEL CET 4 AND CET 4 SCORES) (PAIRED SAMPLES T TEST)

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
ListenPost-ListenPre	17.93043	32.68905	3.04827	11.89184	23.96903	5.882	114	.000

B. The Role the LMS "Rofall" Plays in Students' Learning

Rofall has been playing an important role in students' autonomous learning and therefore well accepted. As shown in Table 9, The majority of the students (74.2%, a combined percentage of Choice A and B) considered Rofall very helpful, only one person voted for "not helpful", and another student who chose "others" commented that "In theory Rofall should be helpful. But I don't use it often because of heavy load of homework of other subjects. But I believe it should be very helpful if used appropriately."

TABLE. 9
IS ROFALL HELPFUL FOR YOUR ENGLISH LEARNING?

Question 4. The Rofall systerm is _____to your English study this term.	
Items	Percentage
A. greatly helpful	12.9%
B. very helpful	61.3%
C. somewhat helpful	24.7%
D. not helpful	1.2%
E. exerting a negative effect	0.0%
F. Others (Please specify:_____)	1.1%

Most students thought highly of the exercises in Rofall, as indicated by the combined percentage 80.7% of Choice A and B in Table 10. The reason for student' recognition lied mainly in the formative assessment nature of feedback mechanism in this system (Choice C and B in Table 11) as well as the high validity and reliability of the test, which were compiled from authentic CET-4 exam tests (Choice A, 33.3%, in Table 11). The system also facilitated the students' use of management strategy in autonomous learning by keeping records of their learning profiles(Choice D, 29%, in Table 11).

TABLE. 10
QUALITY OF THE QUESTIONS IN ROFALL

Question 3. What do you think of the exercise in Rofall system in general?	
Items	Percentage
A. very good	31.2%
B. all right	49.5%
C. not very good	20.4%
D. can't be worse	0.0%
E. others (Please specify)	0.0%

TABLE. 11.
REASONS FOR APPROVAL OF ROFALL

Follow-up of Question 3. For those who choose A and B in question 3, the reason is (multi-answer question)	
Answer	Percentage
C. The system offers detailed explanations of answers to some multiple choice questions which help us understand the reason of that choice.	48.4%
B. The system offers feedback and explanations automatically after one finish a model test in it. These guidance helps us to learn independently afterwards.	44.1%
A. The validity and reliability of the questions is good, considering the exercises are from authentic CET-4 exam paper.	33.3%
D. The system keeps record of one's exercises and tests. This enables one to track, understand and reflect upon his/her learning progress.	29.0%
E. Others (Please specify)	2.2%

In spite of the majority' acceptance and recognition, the system is not without problems. As revealed earlier in Table 9, there were 24.7% students dubious about the system and deemed it "somewhat helpful" (Choice C). In addition, 20.4% thought the exercise in Rofall was "not very good" (Choice C, in Table 10). The following table (Table 12) demonstrates some disadvantages of the system.

TABLE. 12
REASONS FOR DISAPPROVAL OF ROFALL

Follow-up of Question 3. For those who choose C and D in question 3, the reason is	
Answer	Percentage
E. Sometimes I feel confused without teachers' face-to-face explanations available to most of the exercises.	16.2%
B. There is some spelling mistakes and wrong answers to some questions.	9.7%
C. I feel reluctant to do some of the vocabulary-building questions, which are too difficult, take too long to do yet help little in vocabulary enlargement.	9.7%
G. Some of the questions are not designed in agreement with my learning objectives.	7.5%
A. The questions are too boring.	6.5%
F. I couldn't do these questions off campus due to limited access to the internet and computers.	4.3%
I. I don't feel motivated to do these exercises, since how much and well I do them has nothing to do with my final score or credits.	2.2%
H. The Rofall system doesn't have a user-friendly interface.	1.1%
J. Others (Please specify_____)	1.1%
D. Nothing can be gained from the questions which are too simple.	0.0%

The most obvious problem in doing online exercise was the lack of teachers' face-to-face guidance, as Choice E (16.2 %) in Table 12 shows. Besides, not all of the questions were appropriate for the students' present English proficiency—certain vocabulary questions were considered too difficult (Choice C, 9.7%) and some were not in agreement with students' learning objectives (Choice G, 7.5%). The high level of difficulty of these questions was confirmed again from the fact that no one clicked Choice D, which stated that the questions were too simple for learners to gain anything from. The questions in the system were also criticized for typos and mistakes (Choice B, 9.7%) and boring nature (Choice A, 6.5 %).

What students didn't take as major causes were their own motivation to do these questions, and access to facilities or operational ability to do exercise online, which was reflected in a small proportion (four students) who selected Choice I, H and F. This shows the students were computer literate and well-prepared for doing exercises online. This fact offers Rofall a promising future as an independent learning management system, as long as it keeps perfecting its questions.

In a summary, despite typos and mistakes, the Rofall system has been widely accepted and has much potential to be used in more contexts of independent learning, thanks to its relatively satisfying practice, advantage in formative assessment (immediate and detailed feedback and keeping track of one's learning process) as well as students' computer literacy.

C. Comparison between the New Model and the Traditional One in Terms of Popularity

1. A slightly higher preference for the traditional model

Both the previous teaching model and the new one were acceptable to the students, who somehow showed a slightly higher preference for the previous one. As shown in Table 13, students' approval rate of the new teaching model was 75.27%, a little lower than that of the previous one 78.5% (three more students). Students' preference on the more teacher-centered approach has posed an interesting question: why didn't the new model get more credit when it has generated better learning outcomes?

The reasons, analyzed first from the students' written comments in the questionnaire and follow-up interview responses, lie in the advantages and disadvantages of both models. As demonstrated in Table 13, the students believed that, although the previous model was boring and hardly satisfying their individual needs in learning, it excelled in clearer objectives which the teacher set for all, more cooperative learning opportunities in class, and informative lecturing in a time efficient manner; while in the new student-centered model, they sometimes felt confused about learning objectives and needed more supervision and guidance in autonomous learning, although this new model provided them with opportunities to learn independently, enhanced their language skills and honed their autonomous learning ability.

TABLE 13.
APPROVAL FOR BOTH MODELS AND REASONS

What is your opinion on both teaching models?		
	The Previous Model (More teacher-centered, one-for-all)	The New Model (More student-centered, individualized)
Approval	78.5%	75.27%
Why approve?	Clear objectives; Informative and efficient; Cooperate learning.	Chance to learn independently; Autonomous learning ability; Language skills.
Why disapprove?	Boring; Less individualized learning.	Lack of supervision; Lack of training on learning strategies.

2. Students' perception and ability of autonomous learning

Why was the new teaching model less popular when it in fact generated better learning outcomes? A further investigation was conducted on students' perception and ability of autonomous learning.

Even after the training on autonomous learning and learning strategies, students still had some misperceptions about autonomous learning. Some students believed the teacher shouldn't intervene in students' autonomous learning, otherwise it wouldn't be real autonomous learning. This argument mistook autonomous learning as a learning free from any supervision and guidance. While in fact, "the objection in learner autonomy is not against the teacher acting as a facilitator, guide, supporter etc but against the teachers directing all students' activities and students being totally dependent on their teachers and being unable to function effectively without the teachers" (Thang, 2009, p. 16).

Another belief held by some students was that the teacher should impart more textbook knowledge, which the final exam assessed. It was expected that the teacher spend more time explaining language points and grammar knowledge. This seems to reveal the students' high dependence on the teacher and textbooks and their inclination of learning for the test, a continuation of learning habit shaped in pre-college education (Wang & Luo, 2008, p. 170), which was test-oriented and knowledge-based. Students' view of the teacher's role of imparting knowledge can also be traced back to the Chinese tradition of seeing oneself as a part of a "relational hierarchy" (Chang & Holt, 1994, p. 105). This hierarchy of human relations sets the general context within which we must understand Chinese students' respect for authority and their view of the teacher as the authority figure (Ho & Crookall, 1995, p.237).

The cultural trait of honoring authority, high dependence on the teacher and the habit of cramming for the test have hindered the students from developing their own autonomous learning ability. One consequence was the students' lack of self-discipline, which was shown in a frank and bold comment: "Since we were allowed to learn English autonomously, I spent most of my time learning other subjects like Physics and Mathematics."

Another factors hindering students' development of autonomous learning ability was their lack of meta-cognitive awareness and strategies. As one of the three categories of learning strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 44), meta-cognitive strategies are higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity (Brown et al. 1983). As seen in Table 14,15, and 16, As few as 10.75% (in Table 16) would detect their problems in learning and make adjustment accordingly; only one third reflected upon their learning strategies (31.18%, in Table 14), monitored their learning process on their own (34.41%, in Table 15) and assessed their own learning (33.33%, in Table 17); about half of them (47.31%, in Table 14) pondered about learning strategies rarely.

TABLE 14.
MONITORING: HOW DO YOU REFLECT ON YOUR LEARNING STRATEGIES?

Answer	Percentage
A. I often reflect on my learning strategies to improve them.	31.18%
B. I think about my learning strategies rarely.	47.31%
C. I will think about my learning strategies under the teacher's guidance.	16.13%
D. I have never thought about reflecting on learning strategies.	4.3%
E. Others	2.15%

TABLE 15.
MONITORING: HOW DO YOU REFLECT YOUR LEARNING PROCESS, LIKE COMPARING WHAT YOU HAVE ACHIEVED WITH YOUR LEARNING OBJECTIVES?

Answer	Percentage
A. I often do so. I will change or improve my learning methods once I find I haven't achieved my goals.	34.41%
B. I will reflect my learning progress after the teacher reminds me to.	29.03%
C. I will do nothing more than comparing my answers to the correct ones.	27.96%
D. I have never thought about reflecting on my achievement.	4.3%
E. Others	5.38%

TABLE 16.
MONITORING: HOW DO YOU DEAL WITH YOUR PROBLEMS IN LEARNING ENGLISH?

Answer	Percentage
A. I often reflect and detect my problems in learning English and make adjustment accordingly.	10.75%
B. I often reflect to see if I have problems in learning English.	19.35%
C. I never think about my problems in learning English unless I meet them.	68.82%
D. I have never thought about my problems in learning English.	0.0%
E. Others	2.15%

TABLE 17.
EVALUATION: HOW DO YOU ASSESS YOUR LEARNING PROGRESS?

Answer	Percentage
A. I often do so.	33.33%
B. I will think about it carefully after the teacher evaluates my learning.	31.18%
C. I will evaluate under the teacher's guidance.	18.28%
D. I will check out the teacher's assessment instead.	9.68%
E. Others	8.6%

These results indicate students' weakness in meta-cognitive ability and the importance of learner training, especially on their meta-cognitive strategies. Meta-cognitive strategy plays a key role in autonomous learning (Yang, 2002, p. 29). Without which, learners will lose their directions in learning and therefore miss the opportunities to plan, regulate and reflect on achievements (O' Malley & Chamot, 1990, pp. 48-49). This argument in part explains why some students felt "confused" and "disoriented" about their learning goals, process and progress. Learners' feeling of dis-orientation was considered one of the disadvantages of the new teaching model.

V. CONCLUSION

From the analysis above, we can conclude that individualized instruction based on students' needs analysis and through CALL environments could be a feasible way to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of large classes of Integrated English. In this empirical study, the students' comprehensive mastery of English has been improved, in terms of both language knowledge (vocabulary and grammar) and language skills (reading and listening). The LMS Rofall system was considered helpful in facilitating students' individualized learning with the relatively good questions and immediate feedback mechanism. However, the more student-centered, individualized instruction model was slightly less favored (75.27%) compared to the previous more teacher-centered, one-for-all teaching model (78.5%). The main reasons, among other things, reside in the advantages and disadvantages of the two models, China's cultural trait of honoring authority, and students' relatively weak autonomous learning ability.

There are several factors that can improve the effect of this more student-centered, individualized teaching model. The most important of all is to improve students' perception of autonomous learning and train them to be better language learners. One's perception about learning and mastery learning strategies determines one's learning outcomes (Wen, 1995; Wu, 2000). Given students' passive learning habit and test-orientation due to previous education and the Chinese culture, special efforts are needed in motivating them to be active autonomous learners and empowering them with appropriate learning strategies, in particular meta-cognitive awareness and strategies, which play a key role in one's growth of autonomous learning ability.

Another crucial facilitator would be the teacher's strict supervision and valid assessment. Even highly motivated students could slack off sometimes and hardly make efforts, let alone the majority of non-English major students who hold mainly extrinsic motives for learning English. The teacher's supervision is still highly necessary within the Chinese context. Formative and summative assessments should be combined and well-structured so as to motivate students' learning in the right directions.

In reality, the implementation of the individualized teaching model requires support outside the classroom. For instance, without much decision-making rights, an ordinary College English teacher could change only the additional teaching materials (not the uniform textbook) and alter slightly the breakdown of evaluation. Yet the decision-making of both teaching content and assessment are prerequisites for carrying out any teaching reforms. Therefore, this reform of in College English teaching calls for understanding and support from the school administration.

With all these conditions met, there would be opportunity to increase teaching efficiency and effectiveness in a large class of Integrated English in China. The ultimate goal, or the utopia of individualized instruction would be "a coherent instructional program that tolerates and nurtures widely divergent goals and accomplishment, a program designed to prepare students for complete control of their own education so that schooling, ultimately, is inseparable from living" (Gibbons, 1970, p. 49).

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Definition-based Versus Contextualized Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract—**Ability to infer the meaning of unknown words encountered while reading plays an important role in learners' foreign language word knowledge development. The current study was an attempt to investigate the efficiency of two vocabulary learning procedures, i.e. definition-based (decontextualized) versus contextualized. In the contextualized group there were 53 students of grade one in high school and pre-university who were taught meaning inferencing strategies in which they read their textbooks, identified unknown words in the texts, and inferred the meanings of the unknown words. There were also another 54 students in the decontextualized group who learnt the new words' translations out of context before a new lesson was taught. The findings of the study revealed that the students in decontextualized group slightly outperformed the contextualized group on the vocabulary post-test. It is concluded that definition-based learning was more effective in improving learner's vocabulary knowledge.**

Index Terms—**incidental vocabulary learning, contextualized learning, definition-based learning**

I. INTRODUCTION

Second-language vocabulary acquisition viewed previously as a 'victim of discrimination' (Levenston, 1979) is a field of investigation that has seen an explosion of experimental research in the past 25 years along with Meara's (1980) call for redressing the 'neglect' of vocabulary development research. Researchers and experts in the fields of reading comprehension and vocabulary have claimed that "vocabulary knowledge is instrumental in reading comprehension and essential for the application of certain reading strategies, such as inferring meaning from context" (Llinares, Leiva, Cartaya, & St. Louis, 2008 p. 55).

Snellings, Van Gelderen and De Glopper (2002) maintain that "for fluent language production lexical retrieval is an essential subprocess"(p. 723). It involves selection of lexical concepts whether articulated or written down. Many research findings show that poor vocabulary knowledge leads to incorrect inferences or misunderstanding of the content while reading English materials in their academic studies (Laufer, 2001; Nation, 2001).

Melka (1997) suggests three necessary dimensions for adequately describing a person's vocabulary: the number of words known (vocabulary size or breadth), the amount of knowledge present for each word (depth of knowledge), and how quickly this knowledge can be utilized (automaticity). If these three descriptive dimensions are valid, then there is a clear void in the area of vocabulary testing, since no current test adequately describes these three plans.

Researchers in the domain of vocabulary acquisition also concur with the following two major issues: acquisition through direct instruction of vocabulary (intentional) and incidental vocabulary acquisition through exposure to context (Hulstijn, 2001; Nation, 2001). Intentional vocabulary learning refers to activities that aim at vocabulary development predominantly (Shahrzad & Derakhshan, 2011) and incidental vocabulary acquisition refers to learning something for example vocabulary as the by-product of something else such as reading for comprehension. The incidental vocabulary learning is not the concern of this paper. This study is concerned with intentional vocabulary learning and teaching.

Whether students be taught individual word meanings directly or in context, which would involve the presentation of the word within a sentence, seems to be an existing debate among language professionals. According to Sternberg (1987; as cited in Paribakht & Wesche, 1999), even if most vocabulary is learned from context, one should not conclude that this "is the fastest or most efficient way of learning specific vocabulary".

However, the proponents of context-based learning argue that vocabulary learning is more than individual word learning. By learning words in context, the learner acquires not only linguistic knowledge of a word, such as phonetic, syntactic and semantic rules, but also the knowledge of how to use the word properly in a context. They also argue that in a definition-based learning only one definition or synonym or a translation of the word in the native language is given, i.e. the learner becomes familiar with just one meaning of the word and this leads to only a shallow level of word knowledge, and it does not increase comprehension of the text containing the instructed words.

Nagy (1997) believes that the number of words that can be effectively retrieved is a major limitation of definition-based learning. He writes:

Those who believe that definition-based instruction makes a major contribution to vocabulary growth must hold to a parsimonious model of the mental lexicon, there must be relatively few words to be learned, and very few meanings per word. Such a model of lexicon therefore must rely very heavily on reference specification, rather than sense selection, to account for contextual variation in meaning. However, such reliance on reference-specification is a two-edged sword. On the one hand, it makes definition-based instruction more plausible by allowing a reduction in the number of definitions that need to be learned. On the other hand, it leads to a discrepancy between the definition and the meaning that a word conveys in any given context (p. 72).

II. RESEARCH BACKGROUND

In a study of Hebrew speakers studying EFL, four modes of presentation were compared by Laufer and Shmueli (1997), including lists: (I) words presented in isolation, (2) words in minimal context, i.e., in one meaningful sentence, (3) words in text-context, and (4) words in elaborated text context. Results showed that using simple vocabulary lists can yield better vocabulary retention than relying on lists with more information. Retention gains for word recognition were superior in modes 1 and 2, i.e., when less information or limited context was given about the word and inferior in modes 3 and 4 when more information or extended context was given.

In another study, Mondria (2003) investigated whether a word-learning method in which learners inferred the meaning of unknown words from the context and memorized the meaning ("meaning-inferred method") lead to better retention than("meaning-given method") one in which the meaning of unknown words was given in the form of a translation so that learners could immediately start memorizing. The results were as follows: (a) although both method lead to a similar level of retention, the meaning-inferred method was considerably more time-consuming and therefore less efficient; and (b) there was some level of retention in every stage of the meaning-inferred method, but the learning effect of memorizing was the greatest, and the learning effect of verifying and inferring were somehow the same.

Zaid (2009) undertook a study for the purpose of exploring the effects of the following approaches in vocabulary instruction with 34 Level III College of Languages and Translation students. One approach emphasized direct teaching of the individual meanings for a set of unfamiliar words. The second approach emphasized teaching students to derive word meaning from sentence context, rather than teaching specific meanings. Conducting both Pre-test and post-test he found that both approaches were effective in helping students acquire, retain and further recall the lexical items instructed.

One of the central cognitive processes in reading comprehension is inferencing (Nassaji, 2006). Inferencing has been defined by Brown & Yule (1983) as the connections that people establish when they try to interpret texts. It relates to a whole understanding of longer pieces of discourse in which context affects reading comprehension. "Therefore, inferencing and meaning-guessing are the product of contextualization"(Zaid, 2009, pp. 56-57).

Nagy (1997) in a discussion of the factors involved in lexical inferencing groups learners based on their knowledge bases into three main categories: linguistic knowledge, world knowledge, and strategic knowledge. The linguistic knowledge category covers students' syntactic knowledge, lexical knowledge, and knowledge of word schema (i.e., knowledge of the possible meanings of the word). The way the learner understands and uses the related domains of knowledge is her world knowledge. Strategic knowledge is knowledge of the actual strategies learners employ while they are inferencing and deducing the unknown lexicon meaning from context. Nagy suggests that strategic knowledge may not be a necessity for the acquisition of the words meaning from context, but that sometimes, while the learner is aware of the existence of new words in the text, he or she can deliberately attempt to induce the meanings of these words from context.

The purpose of this study is to investigate which method of vocabulary learning as delineated above, that is contextualized and decontextualized vocabulary learning suits Iranian high school learners. The significance of the study is that it focuses on the efficacy of the vocabulary learning strategies of Iranian EFL learners, a case which has not received the due attention among researchers and demands experimental studies.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

This study aims to investigate the degree of vocabulary learning in non-context vocabulary presentation versus contextualized word instruction. The participants were 103 female students within the age range of 16-19 years. In order to select these participants, the Oxford Placement Test was administered to 120 learners. The results of the test indicated that the majority of participants (n=103) were at the elementary level who were randomly assigned to two conditions of contextualized and decontextualized vocabulary learning.

B. Procedures

The contextualized group was taught meaning inference strategies. They were taught how to infer the meanings of the words from the local and global contexts of the lexicon. They were taught the prefixes and suffixes necessary for

inferencing. They were told that they can ignore the meaning of some words which are not at the center of reading comprehension. They were trained how to deal with cohesive devices, and how to use them for a better understanding of the whole discourse. The decontextualized participants were another school's students with the same proficiency level and age range (i.e., elementary level). They were taught the words out of context. They learnt the words' translations by rote learning before learning the new lesson. Then they got familiar with the words within the reading passages. They could see where and in what situations the new words were used. In order to gain knowledge about the students' proficiency level a multiple choice vocabulary test was given to all 103 students both in contextualized and decontextualized group in the first session of English class. Then, each group received the special treatment specified for that group at the beginning of research. After the treatment period, the same vocabulary test that was given to them before the treatment was administered to both groups to discover which group benefited more from the kind of instruction they got. The results of the study are presented in the following section.

IV. RESULTS

This study was an attempt to compare the effectiveness of contextualized versus definition-based methods of instruction, as two popular procedures of vocabulary teaching, to EFL high school learners. In order to find out which method of vocabulary instruction is more effective, the present study investigated the efficiency of definition-based versus contextualized vocabulary instruction after the two groups received different treatments for a whole educational semester consisting of about 15 sessions. To this aim, two groups of high school students were chosen and assigned to two groups incorporating a contextualized group and a non-context group.. To have a baseline for the comparison of the two groups, both groups were given a vocabulary test at the beginning of the experiment. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for this pretest.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PRETEST.

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest	decontext	54	13.80	3.05	.41
	context	53	12.48	4.31	.59

As Table 1 reveals the mean scores of the definition-based (decontextualized) and contextualized groups on pre-test are 13.80 and 12.48 respectively. This implies that there is a slight mean difference between the two groups prior to the experiment. Since this is crucial that the two groups have comparable language ability at the beginning of the treatment which enables us to confidently assign them to two groups and begin the experimentation it is necessary to investigate if this mean difference is significant. An independent samples t-test is run to find out about the significance of the difference between the vocabulary knowledge of the two groups (Table 2).

TABLE 2
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF THE PRETEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
pretest	Equal variances assumed	4.917	.029	1.835	105	.069	1.325
	Equal variances not assumed			1.829	93.613	.071	1.325

As it appears in table 2, the p value for 93 degrees of freedom is .071 which is less than p critical value (p=.05). As a result, it can be concluded that there is no meaningful difference between the mean score of the participants in both contextualized and decontextualized groups. The implication is that the two groups have similar level of abilities as far as their vocabulary knowledge is concerned.

After the treatment, another test of vocabulary was conducted to determine which group had a more significant improvement with regard to their vocabulary knowledge. Having analyzed the data, it was found that the mean score of the decontextualized group (M= 14.48) displayed a greater growth than the mean score of the contextualized group (M= 13.20) by a small margin (Table 3).

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE POSTTEST.

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
posttest	decontext	54	14.48	3.000	.408
	context	53	13.20	3.555	.508

As it is shown in the above table, the mean of the decontextualized group is larger than the mean score of the contextualized group. To better understand the relationship, if any, between improvements in vocabulary knowledge

and the different conditions under which students worked during the term, the post-test results and gain indexes were subjected to further statistical analyses. The comparison of mean values for the different conditions as seen in Tables 3 indicate that there was a difference between the results obtained by the different groups in the post-test. To understand if this mean difference is statistically big enough to prove one method superior over the other, an independent- samples t-test was employed (Table 4)

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF THE POSTTEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
posttest	Equal variances assumed	.681	.411	1.969	101	.052	1.273
	Equal variances not assumed			1.953	94.387	.054	1.273

As the table displays, the obtained p value for 101 degrees of freedom is .052 which is slightly larger than .05 indicating that the null hypothesis of no difference between the mean score of the two groups is rejected. This means that the mean score of the decontextualized group is meaningfully greater than the mean score of the contextualized group which indicates the outperformance of the definition-based learning group. However, this mean difference is not that big to totally reject the efficacy of context-based vocabulary instruction. The findings of the study are discussed in the following section.

V. DISCUSSION

There exist conflicting views among language professionals concerning the relative superiority of two approaches to learning second language vocabulary: learning words in context vs. learning words out of context. Convictions are strong among many language professionals that contextualized vocabulary learning is more effective than learning words in lists. For example, Oxford and Scarcella (1994), observe that while decontexutalized learning (word lists) may help students memorize vocabulary for tests, students are likely to rapidly forget words memorized from lists. However, in recent literature dealing with vocabulary acquisition, there can be seen increasing advocacy for explicitly teaching words out of context at an early stage of language acquisition, with more context-based vocabulary learning taking place at later stages of language development (Meara, 1995).

This study compared the efficacy of vocabulary learning non-context, i.e. definition-based, with contextualized word learning in order to shed more light on the best conditions of vocabulary learning. As indicated by the findings, the students in the decontextualized group outperformed the participants in the contextualized group. The contextualized group had many problems facing so many words simultaneously within the text. Most of the time they were frustrated because of the high level of difficulty of their course books. The huge number of the new lexicon put in the text hindered students' abilities in meaning mining and inferencing.

The contextualized group just paid attention to the word for the purpose of comprehension and when the goal was achieved and they could infer the word meaning out of context whether partially or completely correct, they ignored the word itself and also its phonological and morphological features. In other words, vocabularies were attended for the sole purpose of reading comprehension and not for its own sake. As Nation (2002) argues there is a matter of fragility in meaning-focused learning. The amount of vocabulary learning in contextualized group is most of the time lower than the decontextualized group, if it is assumed that both approaches have the same effect of vocabulary learning and retention, still the decontextualized one leads to better results if the factor of time is taken into consideration.

Context seems to be unfortunately unhelpful in getting learners through the right meaning of especially new lexicon. Although both age ranges, i.e., first grade of high school and pre-university level showed the same results for the two situations, the older groups were somehow better at guessing words from context. As Van Daalen-Kapteijns, Elshout-Mohr, and de Glopper (2001) propose 'mature readers and readers of high verbal ability use more advanced strategies than younger readers and readers of low verbal ability'. This can be because of their intellectual growth and also the number of words they know, "The more words a learner knows, the more likely it is that he or she will have a greater depth of knowledge for these words" (Qian, 2002, p. 517).

No additional, deliberate analysis of the features of the word or the word-meaning complex need to be undertaken by the contextualized group while meaning inferencing. The student's intention is simply meaning generation for the momentary task of interpretation of the passage at hand. Hence, training on contextualized meaning-guessing can help EFL students to do without English-Persian vocabulary pairs which seem to be inefficient in learning the vocabulary of the English language.

It must be noted that the study was undertaken in an EFL situation, i.e., in Iranian high schools where the students' level are mostly elementary. It is supported by previous research (Nielsen, 2006) that a fundamental vocabulary building is more effective through decontextualized and definition based learning at early stages of language development.

Apart from all these factors the issue of individual differences should also be taken into consideration. Seeking a single best approach for any kind of teaching suited to all individuals in every situation and even surprisingly across the time cannot be a reasonable and rational strategy. What seems to be more plausible is first of all a good curriculum development based on student needs, which Brown (2009) sees as the first step in every curriculum development, then looking for a 'principled approach' of teaching based on that specific situation.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study was undertaken by high school English teachers who are teaching at public schools and are concerned about the limited vocabulary knowledge of learners. Given the importance of a sound vocabulary knowledge which is a prerequisite for reading comprehension, the researchers aimed at discovering the best techniques of vocabulary instruction. The next step would be to equip learners with these effective techniques and strategies to enable them to improve their vocabulary knowledge in a short time. Because in some cases learners' vocabulary level is so low that it would be unrealistic to expect them to successfully apply certain vocabulary strategies such as guessing meaning from context for reading comprehension.

The findings of the study showed better results of vocabulary knowledge gain in out of context teaching than the contextualized one which means that the results can be a support of definition-based learning. However, the results should be taken as suggestive rather than definitive, since there are many variables which affect an effective vocabulary learning and teaching principle. Thus, this does not mean that contextualized teaching should be avoided. It seems that the most effective way of teaching in Iranian EFL classes is to start the teaching of the new lesson first by defining the words. This will be a helpful approach to reduce the load of so many new words in the reading text. The next essential step is reading the texts which are related to the vocabularies taught. Melka (1997) argues "only after several occurrences can a word be considered to be a part of the child's lexicon, though reproduction of the item would still be quite impossible" (p. 86). Therefore, spaced repetition and exposure of the new lexicon is of most importance in an EFL situation.

It is noteworthy that context-based and definition-based are neither the only vocabulary learning techniques nor the best techniques that are available for learning. Introducing and having learners practice using a variety of alternative vocabulary learning strategies can be considered an effective way of enabling learners to achieve more effective independent vocabulary learning in the future. Other extra activities that also produce improvement in students' vocabulary knowledge include having them work on different types of vocabulary exercises which require students to process the new word at different cognitive levels once the word has been initially learned through L1 to L2 translation. Extensive reading is also believed to be an excellent activity that improves vocabulary knowledge and increases learner's autonomy. Finally, focusing students' attention on certain words discussed in the class as well as the extrinsic motivation to do well on tests also appear to play a role in vocabulary acquisition. Further   research can address the issue   of whether context can induce effective learning and long-term retention of new words.

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The Effects of Strategic Planning and Topic Familiarity on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Written Performance in TBLT

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Abstract—**Task-based language teaching is recently the most frequently used method in second language instructions. The current study has focused on two main factors that have been proposed in TBLT, i.e. strategic planning and topic familiarity. It aims to investigate the effect of manipulation of strategic planning and topic familiarity on EFL written task performance. The participants were 80 intermediate female learners of English as a foreign language from a private language institute in Urmia, Iran. All of the written productions were coded using three measures covering accuracy, fluency and complexity. Using SPSS software, ANOVA have been used to analyze the collected data. The findings of this study carry significant pedagogical implications for task and syllabus designers, second language teachers and testers and also SLA researchers.**

Index Terms—**task-based language teaching, strategic planning, topic familiarity, accuracy, fluency, complexity**

I. INTRODUCTION

For many years, language teaching and learning has been one of the most challenging and interesting areas of research. In recent years, tasks and task-based language teaching have played a central role in second language acquisition (SLA) research and language pedagogy and have attracted the interest of many second language teachers and researchers (Ellis 2003, 2005; Rahimpour, 2008; Skehan and Foster1999; Tavakoli and Skehan, 2005; Salimi and Dadashpour 2010; Mehrang and Rahimpour 2010; Tavakoli and Foster, 2008; Salimi et al, 2012; Kuhi et al, 2012; Salimi and Dadashpour, 2012).. In order to make a balance between focus on form and meaning in task-based approach to language instruction, the SLA researchers have suggested some proposals and one of them is providing planning time to ensure that the learners will focus on form and meaning at the same time (Skehan, 1996, 2003; Skehan and Foster, 1999; Yuan, 2001).

There are different types of planning in task-based language teaching. Ellis (2005) classifies task-based planning to two main kinds; pre-task planning and within-task planning. According to Ellis, pre-task planning includes *rehearsal* and *strategic* planning, and within-task planning is divided into *pressured* and *unpressured.*

Besides planning time, topic familiarity is also one of the factors that have been proposed in TBLT. Familiarity of the learners with the topics of the tasks which is the second independent variable of this study, as cited in Ellis (2003), impacts on the learners' propensity to negotiate meaning. Language users or language learners make use of their knowledge of the world to help them produce or comprehend the texts.

How planning affects second language production is of both theoretical importance to second language acquisition (SLA) researchers and of practical importance to language teachers (Ellis, 2005). Planning is assumed to be a strategy that frees learners from real-time communicative stress (Sangarun, 2001), frees up learners' attentional resources to attend to form (Van Patten, 1996), and allows learners to process the content and language of their planned production at a deeper and more meaningful level (Wendel, 1997). And pedagogical and practical importance of the present study is that it might help the language teachers to manipulate the tasks in a better way in TBLT. To this end, this study aimed to examine the impact of planning time and topic familiarity on the learners' writing to find some ways to improve the writing skill of EFL learners.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Ellis (2005), there are three central theoretical backgrounds for the study of planning in task-based research. They are Tarone's (1983) account of stylistic variation, models of speech production and writing, and

cognitive models of L2 performance and language learning. Although different they are; these three theories have three main construct in common, i.e. attention and noticing, limited working memory capacity, and focus-on-form. As cited by Ellis (2005), one of the researchers who have been most influential in promoting the attention and noticing view is Richard Schmidt (1990, 1994, 2000). He (1990, 1994) believes that conscious attention or noticing is essential for language learning. The second theory is limited working memory capacity. According to Ellis (2005), working or short-term memory of the human beings has a limited capacity for processing information. It means that the extent to which language learners are able to attend to a specific system depends on the extent to which other systems are automatized. For example, when the learners use the working memory processing space to process the grammar, the attention that they can pay to lexical will be limited. And also there is a claim about the need for focus-on-form to acquire a second language especially in the case of adult learners. As cited in Ellis (2005), there are two rationales for this claim. Some of the researchers like Van Patten (1990) believe that it is difficult for the L2 learners to focus on meaning and form at the same time. The second rational for this claim is that interlanguage development can only take place if learners attend to form while they are engaged with meaning. According to Ellis (2005), providing the second language learners with the opportunity to plan the task before its real performance may lead to more attention and noticing, coping with limited capacity of working or short-term memory, focus on form along with meaning.

Also, the most influential theories in studies on oral and written task planning are Levelt's (1989) model of speech production and Kellogg's (1996) model of writing. Both models of production explicitly apply an information processing framework to an explanation of language production. The relevance of these models to studies on the effects of planning on oral and written language production is that they provide a basis for considering the components of language production on which learners focus while planning, and examine the effects planning strategies have on actual production (Ellis, 2003).

Besides planning time, the other independent variable of the current study was topic familiarity or prior knowledge of EFL learners about the topics of the tasks. From cognitive aspects, cognitive psychologists believe that knowledge is organized in the form of schemata (Long, 1990). Background knowledge or knowledge of the world is central to the way we understand language (Anderson and Lynch, 1988; Long, 1990). As cited by Sarandi (2010), the term prior information refers to a range of knowledge types, including our world knowledge, topic familiarity and previous experience in an area (content schemata), our expectation of the rhetoric of a text (formal schemata) (Carrel and Eisterhold, 1983) and the information received through earlier input, usually termed as co-textual information (Brown and Yule, 1983). By activating background knowledge, either in a top-down fashion via associative cognitive networks (Kintsch, 1998), reader or listener familiarity with text content appears to aid overall comprehension, in fact, in this process, the focus of the learners is on meaning not form of the written or spoken text.

A. Research into Planning and Topic Familiarity

Ellis (1987) found that "the amount of planning time available to the learner has a systematic effect on accuracy levels" (p. 12). Wendel in 1997 reported that strategic planning resulted in significant gains in complexity and fluency of language production but no significant results of greater accuracy were reported. Ortega (1999) concluded that planning before performing an L2 task can naturally promote a conscious focus on form. Kawauchi (2005) found that strategic planning had beneficial effects on complexity, accuracy and fluency of oral narratives. Yuan and Ellis (2003) also found that strategic task planning enhances grammatical complexity and fluency while unpressured within-task planning promotes accuracy and grammatical complexity. Mehrang and Rahimpour (2010) found that planning time had no effect on the accuracy and fluency of the learners' performances but led to more complex performances when participants performed the unstructured tasks. Yuan (2001) found that strategic planning enhances complexity of production, whereas accuracy is more enhanced under the unpressured within-task planning condition. Fluency, however, has been found to be equally enhanced through both planning conditions. Ellis and Yuan (2004) reported that whereas pre-task planning resulted in greater fluency and greater syntactic variety, the opportunity to engage in unpressured on-line planning led to increase accuracy. And also they found that strategic planning has a positive effect on complexity of written language productions. Ahmadi (2008) indicated that students improved their writing skills significantly after they were taught through strategic planning. Al-Humaidi (2008) found that the no-planning and strategic planning participants achieved statistically greater levels in one variable of fluency than the within-task planning participants. No statistically significant differences were found among the three groups in complexity and accuracy. Rahimpour and Nariman-Jahan (2011) reported that more fluent and complex performance was produced under planned condition by low proficiency learners, and quite the reverse, the high proficiency learners produced more fluent and complex performance under unplanned condition.

B. Research into Topic Familiarity

Chang (2006) revealed that while reading comprehension monitoring efforts were motivated by both topic familiarity and linguistic difficulty, inferencing events were primarily facilitated by topic familiarity. Pulido (2007) also found that familiarity of the learners with the topics of the reading tasks leads to better comprehension of the texts. Combs (2008) revealed that neither typographically enhanced text nor the topic familiarity training had a significant impact on the acquisition of form. Schmidt-Rinehart (1994) indicated that the subjects scored considerably higher on the familiar topic than on the new one. In a similar study, Sadighi and Zare (2002) provided some evidence in support of the effect

of background knowledge on listening comprehension. Othman and Vanathas (2004) also indicated that topic familiarity has an influence on listening comprehension. Chang & Read (2007) also revealed that providing background knowledge and familiarizing the learners with the listening tasks' topics is the most effective support for listening comprehension of the EFL learners. Rahimpour and Hazar (2007) revealed that the topic familiarity had a positive effect on accuracy and fluency of participants' oral output but it had a negative effect on complexity of their oral performance. Hayati (2009) concluded that familiarity of the language learners with culturally-oriented language material promotes the Iranian EFL learners' listening proficiency. Sarandi (2010) found that the experimental group did not perform significantly better than the control group.

As it can be concluded from the results of the above mentioned studies that have been done on the effects of topic familiarity or prior knowledge on L2 learners' reading and listening comprehension, in most of them, it has positive effects on reading and listening proficiency. However, according to Rahimpour and Hazar (2007), it is necessary to consider topic familiarity as a task feature in syllabus design and materials development. So, because of its importance in TBLT, there is a need to consider the effects of topic familiarity on four language skills.

And also, from the results of the studies on planning time, it seems that strategic planning has a positive effect on fluency and complexity, but the results for accuracy are mixed and are not very clear. And also, most of the researches have been done on the effects of planning time on oral production, but a few studies have been done on L2 learners' written performance.

In addition, most of the EFL learners, even the graduated ones have some difficulties in English writing. Difficulties of writing have been attributed to different factors, among which is the fact that Iranian learners have not been trained to practice pre-writing activities in their L1 and L2. Even, they do not know how to use the planning time to plan their writings before or during the task performance.

Furthermore, when the L2 learners are exposed with the tasks with familiar topics or when they have prior information about the topics of the tasks to be performed, in fact, they automatically focus-on-meaning rather than form (Long, 1990; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994; Markham and Latham, 1987). And when the L2 learners are provided with the pre-task planning time before the task performance the learners focus on form rather than meaning in their planning time (Tsui and Fullilove, 1998). This study aimed to explore the effects of simultaneous manipulation of these two factors on written task performance which to the best of the researcher's knowledge has not been studied so far. Thus, the present study aimed to fill these gaps.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESES

RQ: What are the effects of strategic planning and topic familiarity on L2 learners' written performance in terms of accuracy, fluency and complexity in an EFL context?

H0: Simultaneous manipulation of topic familiarity and pre-task planning time does not have any significant effect on L2 learners' written performance in terms of accuracy, fluency and complexity.

H1: Familiar and planned group will outperform the other groups in terms of accuracy, fluency and complexity.

H2: Unfamiliar and unplanned group will produce less accurate, less fluent and less complex written products than other groups.

H3: Familiar but unplanned group will produce more fluent and complex but less accurate written products.

H4: Unfamiliar but planned group will produce more accurate but less fluent and less complex written products.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Participants of the current study were 80 intermediate Language learners studying English as a foreign language at Atlas language institute in Urmia, Iran. All of them were female and from a bilingual community (Turkish as their mother tongue and Farsi as their L2).

B. Accuracy Measure

The number error-free T-units per T-units (Arent, 2003; Rahimpour, 2008; Salimi, Dadashpour, and Asadollahfam, 2011).

C. Fluency Measure

The fluency of the written production of the learners was measured by words per T-units (Ishikawa, 2006; Kuiken and Vedder, 2007, Salimi, Dadashpour & Asadollahfam, 2011).

D. Complexity Measure

Complexity involves measuring both lexical and syntactic complexity. Lexical complexity of the written text was not taken into account because the learners were allowed to ask the researcher or their teacher about the intended lexical item. Regarding syntactic complexity, a measure of the ratio of the number of clauses to total number of T-units was adopted (Mehnert, 1998; Ellis and Yuan, 2004; Salimi, Dadashpour, and Asadollahfam, 2011).

E. Data Collection Procedure

The participants were randomly divided into 4 groups. Each group included 20 participants. The subjects of the first group were asked to write a composition about 'Nouruz' which was a familiar topic for Iranian students. And also this group was provided with pre-task or strategic planning time in which participants were given 10 minutes to plan for their writings prior to performing the task. Again, the second group like the first one was asked to write a composition about 'Nouruz'; but, the subjects of this group were not allowed to plan their writings before doing the task. The third group was required to write a composition about 'Christmas' which was an unfamiliar topic for them. This group like the first one was provided with 10 minutes of strategic planning time before and 20 minutes of time for doing the writing task. The fourth group like the third one was asked to write a composition about 'Christmas' without planning time.

V. Data Analysis and Results

ANOVA was employed to compare the means of accuracy, fluency and complexity of the written productions across the four groups.

A. Testing the First and Second Hypotheses

The mean differences of accuracy, fluency and complexity of the four groups are presented in table 1.

TABLE 1:
COMPARISON OF THE MEANS OF ACCURACY, FLUENCY, AND COMPLEXITY OF WRITTEN PRODUCTIONS ACROSS THE GROUPS

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Accuracy	**F.P**	20	0.337	0.28446
	F.UP	20	0.305	0.28391
	UF.P	20	0.264	0.28735
	UF.UP	20	0.2605	0.22137
	Total	80	0.2916	0.26739
Fluency	**F.P**	20	7.405	1.97066
	F.UP	20	6.4415	1.50998
	UF.P	20	6.6515	1.83167
	UF.UP	20	5.848	1.67612
	Total	80	6.5865	1.81080
Complexity	**F.P**	20	1.511	0.48516
	F.UP	20	1.4775	0.28392
	UF.P	20	1.3015	0.25313
	UF.UP	20	1.5800	0.46240
	Total	80	1.4675	0.39181

According to the above table, the mean of the fluency and accuracy in the planned and familiar group was higher than the fluency and accuracy of the written performances in the other groups. However, complexity mean of this group is not higher than the others.
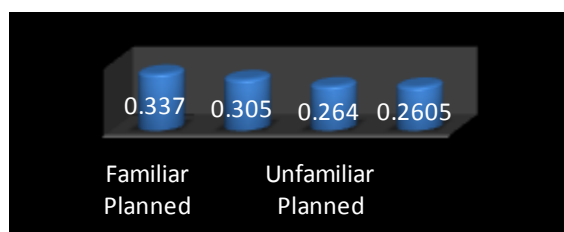
Figure 1: Comparison of the Mean of Accuracy of the Written Performances across the Groups

Based on the table 1 and figure 1, there was not a significant difference between the accuracy of the first and the other groups.
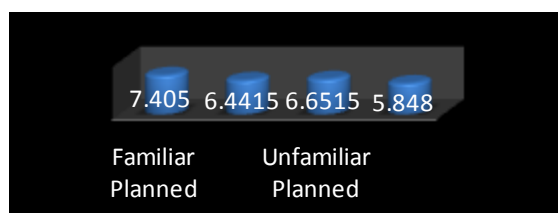
Figure 2: Comparison of the Mean of Fluency of the Written Performance across the Groups

According to figure 2, the mean of the fluency in the planned and familiar group was higher than the fluency of the written performances in the other groups.
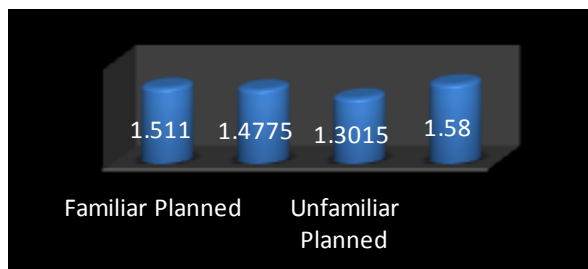
Figure 3: Comparison of the Mean of Complexity of the Written Performances across the Groups

According to figure 3, the mean of the complexity in the planned and familiar group was not higher than the complexity of the written performances in the other groups.

TABLE 2:
THE RESULTS OF INFERENTIAL STATISTICS OF ANOVA FOR ACCURACY, FLUENCY, AND COMPLEXITY OF FOUR GROUPS

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Accuracy	Between Groups	0.079	3	0.026	0.361	0.781
	Within Groups	5.569	76	0.073		
	Total	5.648	79			
Fluency	Between Groups	24.811	3	8.270	2.684	0.053
	Within Groups	234.230	76	3.082		
	Total	259.042	79			
Complexity	Between Groups	0.844	3	0.281	1.895	0.138
	Within Groups	11.284	76	0.148		
	Total	12.128	79			

However, based on the inferential statistics, it was concluded that statistically topic familiarity and strategic planning did not have any significant effect on the accuracy, fluency and complexity of the language learners' written productions in this research. As a result, the first and the second hypotheses of this study are rejected and the null hypothesis is accepted.

B. Testing the Third and Fourth Hypotheses

Table 3 indicates the descriptive statistics concerning fluency and complexity of the four groups.

TABLE 3:
COMPARISON OF THE MEANS OF FLUENCY AND COMPLEXITY OF WRITTEN PRODUCTIONS ACROSS THE GROUPS

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fluency	F.P	20	7.405	1.97066
	F.UP	20	6.4415	1.50998
	UF.P	20	6.6515	1.83167
	UF.UP	20	5.848	1.67612
	Total	80	6.5865	1.81080
Complexity	F.P	20	1.511	0.48516
	F.UP	20	1.4775	0.28392
	UF.P	20	1.3015	0.25313
	UF.UP	20	1.5800	0.46240
	Total	80	1.4675	0.39181

As it is clear in table 3, there were some differences in the means of fluency and complexity between four groups of this study.

TABLE 4:
THE RESULTS OF INFERENTIAL STATISTICS OF ANOVA FOR FLUENCY AND COMPLEXITY OF FOUR GROUPS

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Fluency	Between Groups	24.811	3	8.270	2.684	0.053
	Within Groups	234.230	76	3.082		
	Total	259.042	79			
Complexity	Between Groups	0.844	3	0.281	1.895	0.138
	Within Groups	11.284	76	0.148		
	Total	12.128	79			

Based on figure 2 and figure 3, and also according to table 4, it was concluded that although there was a difference between the means of fluency and complexity of the planned and familiar group with the other groups; but, the difference was not statistically significant.

Table 5 compares the accuracy means of the written performances across the groups.

TABLE 5:
COMPARISON OF THE MEANS OF ACCURACY OF WRITTEN PRODUCTIONS OF FOUR GROUPS

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Accuracy	**F.P**	20	0.337	0.28446
	F.UP	20	0.305	0.28391
	UF.P	20	0.264	0.28735
	UF.UP	20	0.2605	0.22137
	Total	80	0.2916	0.26739

As it has been shown in this table and according to figure 1, there were some differences in the means of accuracy of the four groups.

TABLE 6:
THE RESULTS OF INFERENTIAL STATISTICS OF ANOVA FOR ACCURACY FOR FOUR GROUPS

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Accuracy	**Between Groups**	0.079	3	0.026	0.361	0.781
	Within Groups	5.569	76	0.073		
	Total	5.648	79			

Table 6 shows the results of statistical analysis of ANOVA. The results revealed that there is not statistically significant difference between the accuracy means of the four groups. Thus, it can be concluded that familiarity of the learners with the topic of the task did not lead to more fluent and complex language and also, strategic planning time did not lead to more accurate language production. As a result, the third and fourth hypotheses of this study are rejected and again, the null hypothesis is accepted.

VI. DISCUSSION

Considering the results of the data analysis on strategic planning and accuracy of EFL learners' written productions, it was found that strategic planning time did not have any significant effect on accuracy. Concerning the effect of planning time on accuracy, The findings of this study are in line with Wendel (1997), and Yuan and Ellis (2003, 2004), Foster and Skehan (1999), Ortega (1999), Mehrang and Rahimpour (2010), Yuan (2001), Al-Humaidi (2008), and Rahimpour and Nariman-Jahan (2011).

This production of less accurate when they were provided with strategic planning time can be attributed to the level of the participants in the current study. And also, language learners were not instructed about how they can use that time to plan their written performance. Thus, most of the learners did not know how to employ that pre-task time to focus and attend to form of the language that consequently leads to produce more accurate language.

Considering the results for fluency and complexity, the findings are in line with Kawauchi (2005) and Rahimpour and Nariman-Jahan (2011) who found that planning only promoted the complexity and fluency of the high-intermediate EFL group. However, considering the effects of strategic planning on complexity and fluency, the results of this research are in contrast with the findings of Wendel (1997), Foster and Skehan (1999), Mehnert (1998), Ortega (1999), Foster and Skehan (1999), Yuan and Ellis (2003), and Yuan (2001).

Concerning the effect of topic familiarity on complexity, the results are in line with Rahimpour and Hazar (2008), but they are in contrast in terms of fluency and accuracy. Also, the findings of this study are somehow in line with a research that has been conducted by Combs (2008), who found that topic familiarity did not have any significant effect on L2 learners' acquisition of form.

Some of the studies that have been done on the area of the impact of topic familiarity on reading comprehension found that it had a facilitative effect on reading comprehension, e.g. Chang (2006), and Pulido (2007). Therefore, the results are against the findings of these researches.

The results of this study which indicated that familiarity of the learners with the task topic did not have any significant effect on the learners' performance collaborates evidence for a study that was conducted by Sarandi (2010).

The findings of the current study are in contrast with the findings of the researchers like Schmidt-Rinehart (1994), Sadighi and Zare (2002), Othman and Vanathas (2004), Chang and Read (2006), and Hayati (2009) who found that familiarity of the learners with the topic led to more listening comprehension. In these researches the effect of topic familiarity was investigated on receptive skill (listening); meanwhile, this research examined its impact on writing that is a productive skill.

VII. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study have a number of pedagogical implications for SLA researchers, syllabus and task designers, EFL teachers, material developers and language testing specialists who are interested in task-based language instruction (TBLT). It may be desirable, the writing assignments or tasks to be arranged and taught according to their topic's familiarity to students. Teaching writing is more difficult and challenging than teaching other language skills.

There is almost no explanation of the standards of good writing, neither is there a discussion of the self-regulation strategies that should be applied to accomplish a specific assignment.

In order to account for such shortcomings, as it was mentioned in discussion section, Harris & Graham (1997) suggested a model called self-regulatory strategy development (SRSD) for teaching writing. Six stages that were defined in SRSD model are as follows: ("It" refers to the writing process using both self-regulation and specific writing strategies).

Develop background knowledge: The teachers help learners develop their pre-writing skills.

Discuss it: This stage involves a discussion between the teacher and the learners on the best strategies to accomplish specific assignments or tasks.

Model it: The teacher models how to use the strategy that was discussed in the previous stage, employing appropriate self-instructions.

Memorize it: In this step, the strategies discussed in the previous step and the self-evaluation notes are memorized.

Support it: Learners and teachers collaboratively practice the strategy using graphic organizers for the strategy and self-instruction to complete specific writing assignments.

Independent performance: Learners use the strategy independently at this stage.

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The Use of Adverbial Conjuncts of Chinese EFL Learners and Native Speakers–Corpus-based Study

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Abstract—This paper presents the difference about the use of adverbial conjuncts between Chinese EFL learners and native speakers. The learners' corpus CLEC and the native speakers' corpus LOB have been used. Statistics and Chi-square test value demonstrate that Chinese EFL learners tend to overuse, underuse, and inappropriately use conjuncts compared with native speakers. They prefer to use a rather small set of conjuncts, such as listing conjuncts. Besides, Chinese EFL learners have a tendency to place the conjuncts in initial position, while native speakers prefer the medial position. The way that Chinese EFL learners emphasize on structure rather than content may cause the overuse of conjuncts, and limited exposure to those conjuncts may lead to the singleness of their positions.

Index Terms—adverbial conjuncts, corpus, statistics, overuse, position

I. INTRODUCTION

There is a common phenomenon among Chinese English learners that they always have some difficulties in using adverbial conjuncts. In this way, their expression and communication may not be logical enough comparing to native speakers. As a result, their essays and speeches tend to be unpersuasive and unorganized in some cases.

One possible cause for that are the overuse, underuse, and inappropriate use of adverbial conjuncts. The problem for Chinese EFL learners is not that they avoid using adverbial conjuncts, but their choices of those conjuncts are rather limited in that learners are not familiar with some words, whereas they are too familiar with other "universal" words. Particularly, we may notice that some listing conjuncts frequently appear while we use English. Besides, the position of those conjuncts within sentences is also worthy to be discussed. Therefore, this paper will find out those adverbial conjuncts that Chinese EFL learners prefer to use, and then to see if there is any difference in the use of them, compared to the way native speakers do. Furthermore, the present study will compare the position of certain conjuncts within sentence between learners and native languages users. Corpus will be used to find evidence for such differences, thereby revealing the problems that learners have when using those adverbial conjuncts.

CLEC and LOB are chosen as the comparing corpora for this study; analysis with statistics will be given and shown to prove the result of comparison. Reasons for the comparing results will be explored, and finally, suggestions will be given in accordance with the problems that Chinese EFL learners might have when using adverbial conjuncts.

II. STUDY OF ADVERBIAL CONJUNCTS

A. Definition of Adverbial Conjuncts

In previous study, several alternative terms about adverbial conjuncts have been used, for instance, "conjunctive adverbials" (Wei-yu Chen, 2006, p. 113) or "conjuncts" (Quirk et al, 1985, p. 6). In English, adverbials most commonly take the form of adverbs, adverb phrases, temporal noun phrases or prepositional phrases. In every sentence pattern, the adverbial is a clause element that tells where, when, why, or how. There can be more than one adverbial in a sentence. In addition, the same adverbial can be moved to different positions in a sentence. Adverbial conjuncts make up an even stronger category of conjuncts. They "conjoin linguistic units, such as sentences, paragraphs and even large parts of a text" (Quirk et al, 1985, p.7). Hence they show logical relationships between two independent sentences, between sections of paragraphs, or between entire paragraphs. They are one word items or fixed word combinations, which contribute to the clarity and comprehensibility of a text.

B. Classification of Adverbial Conjuncts

Grammarians and linguists have carried out many different classifications of adverbial conjuncts. Biber et al (1999) and Quirk et al (1985) are two prominent figures in this field, who all have a broad definition of epistemic modality but

delimit the category slightly differently. This study resorts to the classification of Quirk et al's, which divides adverbial conjuncts on the basis of their semantic functions. Here is the list of the category.

TABLE1
CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBIAL CONJUNCTS

Semantic roles	Concrete words
Listing	First(ly), second(ly), third(ly), in the first/second/third place, first of all, to begin with, next, then, finally, last(ly), last of all, in addition, additionally, and, similarly, likewise, further (more), besides, also, moreover, equally, correspondingly, in the same way, what's more, above all, for one thing…for another (thing)
Summative	in sum/summary/conclusion, summing up, to sum up, to summarize/conclude, in all, all in all, overall, (al)together, in brief, in short, briefly, generally (speaking), in general, so far, thus, therefore, on the whole
Appositive	That is (to say), i.e., in other words, namely, (more) specifically, particularly, in particular, for example, e.g., for instance, or rather
Resultive	Consequently, as a/in consequence, hence, so, therefore, thus, as a result, in turn, somehow, subsequently, else, then, finally, eventually, in other words
Inferential	Accordingly, in that case, in this way, perhaps, by the same token, otherwise
Contrastive	However, on the other hand, rather (than), alternatively, conversely, on the contrary, in/by contrast, by the way of contrast/comparison, in comparison, nevertheless, nonetheless, notwithstanding, (al)though, yet, but, in spite of that, all the same, despite, unfortunately
Transitional	By the way, in the meantime, instead (of), anyhow, anyway, still, in any case/event, at any rate, after all, at the same time, at all events, needless to say, admittedly

The above list of words, nevertheless, is not an absolute classification of adverbial conjuncts. One matter that can make the analysis of certain semantic roles problematic is that some of the conjuncts can be listed under several roles. For instance, the word *thus* can be listed under summative, appositive and resultive roles depending on the context (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 365–p. 368). Since these roles share some features and are semantically connected, the exact classification of the connector might in some cases be difficult. Yet this paper aims to discover the overall use of adverbial conjuncts, thus accurate clarification of each certain word is not necessary in this study.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Corpus, Instrument and Measurement

The corpus materials used in the present study are CLEC and LOB. CLEC contains 1 million words of English compositions collected from Chinese learners of English with differing levels of proficiency, covering senior secondary school students, English-major, and non-English-major university students in China. The LOB Corpus (Lancaster-Oslo-Bergen Corpus) was compiled in 1980s in collaboration between the University of Lancaster, the University of Oslo, and the Norwegian Computing Centre for the Humanities, Bergen. With an amount of 1 million words, LOB is used as the reference corpus.

The study takes WordSmith 5.0 as instrumentation, to test the frequency of each adverbial conjunct. Top used conjuncts of both corpora will be listed.

To be more specific, raw frequency data will be examined in this research, to see how often a certain conjunct occurs in both the learner corpus and the native corpus. The calculating data will provide a general view about which category of conjuncts are most frequently used by native speakers and Chinese learners respectively. By comparison, afterwards, statistics will help to find out which conjuncts are particularly overused or underused by Chinese learners. Moreover, the position of those conjuncts that Chinese students prefer to use the most will be presented; three variants have been distinguished: initial, medial and final position. In comparison with native language users, the paper will judge whether learners have appropriately used those conjuncts depending on the percentage of occurrences.

Chi-square Test will be used to show the comparing result between the two corpora, so as to describe the possible differences. It will provide evidence to prove whether the observed difference is statistically significant.

B. Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to present a quantitative analysis of the conjuncts used by Chinese students. The research questions examined in the study are:

a. Are there any differences in the use of adverbial conjuncts between Chinese and native speakers? How do they differ from each other?

b. Compared to native speakers, do Chinese learners overuse or underuse certain conjuncts?

c. Do Chinese learners place the conjuncts in the same positions in sentences as native speakers?

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. General Use of Adverbial Conjuncts

Since the total numbers of the two corpora are approximate, the occurrence frequency is comparable.

TABLE 2
TOTAL NUMBER OF WORDS IN CORPORA/CONJUNCT TOKENS

	CLEC	LOB
Overall tokens (running words)	1,273,080	1,222,586
Total number of conjunct tokens	12881	8476

x^2=745.733　p=0.0000

Table 2 reflects the overall use of adverbial conjuncts of both Chinese EFL learners and native speakers. In Chi-square test that the *p* value is below 0.05, therefore the difference in overall use is statistically significant. It is obvious that Chinese student use adverbial conjuncts more frequently than native speakers. Statistics demonstrate that there is a general tendency of overuse by the Chinese EFL learners. There are actually some overuse problems with adverbial conjuncts.

To have a more specific insight into the usage of each category, other statistical results, including frequency and Chi-square test results are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3
CONJUNCTS USED ACCORDING TO CLASSIFICATION OF AC & CHI-SQUARE TEST

Semantic roles of AC	CLEC	LOB	Chi ^{2}test	
			x^2	*p*
Listing	3764	1173	1259.972	0.0000
Summative	971	824	6.832	0.0000
Appositive	1138	742	68.237	0.0000
Resultive	1342	1025	30.637	0.0000
Inferential	486	533	4.490	0.0000
Contrastive	3502	2980	23.638	0.0000
Transitional	1678	1271	40.974	0.0000

Notes: AC=Adverbial Conjuncts

Each of the computed *p* value is significantly lower than the required value. Thus it is fair to say there is a general tendency for Chinese learners to overuse or underuse adverbial conjuncts compared with native English speakers. All the semantic categories are used more frequently in CLEC except for that inferential conjunct is the opposite.

In general, the overuse of adverbial conjuncts can be explained from three aspects. One is that Chinese EFL learners learn and use those conjuncts as grammatical markers rather than natural connectors. They are taught that articles without conjuncts are poorly organized and not logically complete. As a result, they tend to use them on purpose, as to reach some certain criteria or to follow some grammatical rules. Another is the exam-driven effect of Chinese education system. One way to judge the quality of learners' essay is the quantity of conjuncts especially the adverbial conjuncts. Standard of good article encourages students to use conjuncts as many as they can. Lastly, Chinese EFL learners are unable to use English as fluently as their mother tongue. Once they have some trouble in expressing, they would be willing to use more connectives and conjuncts for help, in order to give more explanation, make their sentence clearer.

The ranks of categories are similar in both CLEC and LOB, which suggests that Chinese EFL learners have the same habit as the native while they try to make their discourse well organized.

Now let's take a look at the differences between CLEC and LOB in each semantic category. Apparently, listing conjunct and contrastive conjunct are the most popular categories that learners prefer. In LOB however, contrastive conjunct and transitional conjunct rank the top two. Even though both learners and native speakers use contrastive conjuncts, the frequency in LOB is quite low compared to that in CLEC. A shaper difference is Chinese EFL learners' strong preference of using listing conjuncts. A quick check indicates that native speakers seldom use those conjuncts such as *first, second*, etc.

To explain the results, there are several notable perspectives. Most of the essay topics in CLEC are assigned by teachers or a certain committee which the students are not quite familiar with; moreover, these topics are mostly argumentative, which make it difficult for the student to maintain the content and the form of the essays in a logical order. In order to express their viewpoints explicitly in a limited time and in the context of exams, students use a lot contrastive conjuncts so that they can demonstrate more ideas to enrich their content. Meanwhile, students use more listing conjuncts than other conjuncts, so that their writings can be easily and explicitly arranged in a good order with the help of these listing conjuncts.

Nonetheless, the number of inferential conjuncts in CLEC is lower than that in LOB. Inferential conjuncts have the function of developing content, implicating themes, and elaborating ideas. Compared to native speakers, it seems that Chinese EFL learners are not good at developing further ideas or taking deeper insight.

B. Individual Conjuncts

The above analysis has already provided a general overview of the whole use of adverbial conjuncts. Next, the study will narrow down to focus on some individual conjuncts, which learners tend to overuse or underuse as compared with native speakers , so as to discover features characteristic of Chinese learners' use of English adverbial conjuncts.

TABLE 4
TOP TEN CONJUNCTS USED IN THE CORPUS

CLEC	n	LOB	n
But	1609	But	1052
For example	865	Though	601
First	760	However	548
However	690	Rather	397
Though	606	Although	365
Second	473	Therefore	289
although	327	Then	297
Secondly	317	Thus	250
Therefore	312	Particularly	229
Then	295	Finally	159

From the result we can see that Chinese learners rely too much on some certain conjuncts, such as *but, however, though* and so on. Among the top 10, for instance, *first, second, secondly* and *for example* didn't appear in those of the native speakers. The difference exposes the feature of Chinese student's writing. 3 of the 4 are listing conjuncts, suggesting listing category is frequently used. We may conclude that Chinese learners like to list their ideas one by one, in stead of making some logical connection when they shift to other thoughts. Listing words help learners to list facts or reasons together and put them in ordinal position. By using such words, it can be easier for learner to organize their article, and make ideas seemingly relative.

Besides, Chinese EFL learners tend to use a certain set of words they are familiar with, and avoid using some unfamiliar words which native speakers use a lot, such as rather, particularly, thus and so on. This might be explained by the fact that learners have used a smaller and less varied range of conjunct types, or they have tended to avoid using certain conjuncts in which they had less confidence due either to their lack of understanding of the abstract meaning of some items or their inexperience in using them. This result suggests that we are still beyond an idiomatic level. Among the above list, the three words which did not rank into top 10 in CLEC (rather, particularly, thus) reflects the different habit between learners and native speakers in organizing ideas. The word rather is used to express a preference or to say what you want to happen; particularly is used to emphasis certain point; thus indicates the coming of conclusion. These adverbial conjuncts make articles more logics and integrated compare to those listing words.

Since the corpora provide differences of the choice of adverbial conjuncts and LOB is a collection of authentic essay of native use of English, it should arouse more attention in the using of words that learners are not that familiar with. Those high frequency words might learners' essays more idiomatic.

C. Position of Conjuncts

In English, many connectors can have a changeable position in clauses and sentences. Even though the clause initial position is the norm for most connectors, some connectors are common in medial position (e.g. *however*) or final position (e.g. anyway) (Quirk et al, 1985). Since 6 words (*but, however, though, although, therefore, then*) in top 10 are the same in the two corpora (except for slight ranking difference), only the clause position of these 6 conjuncts is examined in the current study. Three variants have been distinguished: initial, medial and final position. Table 5 shows the position of the conjuncts in the learner corpus and the native corpus.

TABLE 5
POSITION OF CONJUNCTS IN CLEC & LOB

	CLEC				LOB			
	n	initial	medial	final	n	initial	medial	final
but	1609	691/43%	918/57%	0	1052	326/31%	725/69%	0
however	690	555/80%	135/20%	1/≈0	548	111/20%	432/79%	5/1%
though	606	315/52%	291/48%	0	601	45/7%	544/91%	12/2%
although	327	227/69%	100/31%	0	365	107/29%	258/71%	0
Therefore	312	245/79%	67/21%	0	289	32/11%	257/89%	0
Then	295	135/46%	160/54%	0	297	83/28%	214/72%	0

Most time conjuncts rarely show up at the end of sentences. But we can see that words like *however* and *though* can be put in the end of sentences. In consequence, conjuncts do not only appear at the beginning and in the middle of sentences.

The main finding according to the above table is: Chinese EFL learners prefer the clause-initial pattern when using conjuncts. Take *however* as an example, 80% of it is in initial position while 20% is in medial in CLEC, whereas in LOB 20% of it is in initial but 79% is in medial. The percentage of the initial position is always higher than the medial in CLEC, but displays conversely in LOB. As a result, there is a tendency for learners to place conjuncts initially. The percentage shows, however, native speaker usually put conjuncts in the middle of sentence. The results should arouse our attention about the position of conjuncts.

The comparing results can be explained in the following perspectives: in one term, learners acquire the meaning of those adverbial conjuncts first but not the ability of using it. Contrastively, native speakers acquire such vocabulary at a rather young age, thus they use those conjuncts more smoothly and naturally. In comparison, Chinese EFL learners'

flexibility of using adverbial conjuncts is lower than that of native speakers. In another term, learners might be more careful while putting those conjuncts into their sentence, whereas native speakers are more confident. Therefore the position of adverbial conjuncts is more variable in LOB than in CLEC.

V. Conclusions

A. Major Findings

This paper has offered a quantitative analysis of how Chinese learners use conjuncts. The overall results show that Chinese learners tend to overuse conjuncts than the native speakers do. There are also some differences in the usage of individual conjuncts between the learners and the native speakers. The comparing result indicates that Chinese EFL learners rely on a rather small set of conjuncts in their use of the language. The learners have a preference of using listing and contrastive conjuncts. In contrast, a quick test shows native speakers use fewer listing conjuncts. In the case of the top six most frequently used conjuncts, Chinese EFL learners have a tendency to place the conjuncts in initial position, while native speakers prefer the medial position in a sentence.

As for the reasons, a highly relevant one is that Chinese English teaching always focus on the organization and structure in fostering writing ability rather than developing thinking ability. In consequence, learners are willing to choose simple and clear connectors to directly illustrate their ideas one after another. In another term, the vocabulary of EFL learners is rather limited. They might be confused by the meaning of adverbial conjuncts, let along the use of it. Hence, listing and contrastive conjuncts are easier to understand and master. Besides, genre of the article in CLEC has limited students' choice of words. Most of the articles in CLEC are collected from the CET tests. Affected by the marking standard, learner will pay more attention to the connection, structure, and language fluency instead of the content. Therefore, adverbial conjuncts can be use to modify their article so as to cover the inefficiency of the content, owing to the fact that conjunct firstly can connect sentences and paragraphs, secondly can help to build up a well-organized article. These all contribute to the facts that conjuncts are more frequently used by learners than natives.

B. Pedagogical Implication

Chinese EFL learners, even advanced learners, overuse, underuse, or inappropriately us adverbial conjuncts. Such phenomenon directly results in disjoin, illogical and lacking of reader consideration writings of nonnative English speakers. Given that there is a connection between a writer's use of connectives and a reader's perception of a text as being cohesive and persuasive, it follows that EFL learners' writing could be improved by instructions on the use of conjuncts.

On the basis of the above analysis, we can work out several ways to improve the phenomenon of overuse and inappropriate use of adverbial conjuncts. On one hand, learners' writing could be improved by instructions on the use of conjuncts; more adverbial conjuncts should be acquired. It must be made explicit to students that cohesion does not result from simply scattering large numbers of conjuncts and other categories of cohesive devices all over the text. Students should learn how connectives, only when used aptly and selectively, can signal different types of logical and conjunctive relations between sentences or propositions.

In other words, EFL learners should place more emphasis on how to use conjuncts correctly and effectively. Instead of putting most of the adverbial conjuncts in the initial position, they have more than just one way of use. From a broader horizon, English study can also include some thinking training, instead of focusing only on language patterns. On the other hand, we can view more original writings, so as to get familiar with the flexible use of adverbial conjuncts, about where they usually appear in sentences. In these ways, we can be more creative in English writing, getting use to a new thinking style, and use adverbial conjuncts more idiomatically.

C. Limitation and Suggestion

The investigation of this study has been restricted to a manageable range of adverbial conjuncts; hence the number of adverbial conjuncts is not exhaustive, only the top 10 has been focused on in the present study.

It has to be mentioned here that statistics in table 5 are manually collected, so there might be some statistical errors when it comes to the actual number, but the data round off the percentage, which means the comparing result is reasonable.

What's more, more authentic data might be more precise, since CLEC is a rather restricted corpus according to its source. From this perspective, it is advisable for researchers to make efforts to collect authentic and natural language for further research.

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Gender and Field of Study and Performance on an English Language Proficiency Test

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Abstract—This study reports the performance of five thousand one hundred and eighty three undergraduate and graduate students on a language proficiency test called Ministry of Science, Research and Technology (MSRT). It consists of one hundred traditional multiple choice items selected from the disclosed Test of English as a Foreign Language and measures the listening and reading comprehension abilities as well as structural knowledge. It was taken by students majoring in five branches of knowledge, i.e., agriculture, basic sciences, engineering, humanities and social sciences, and medical sciences, in Iran. The One-Way ANOVA analysis of scores showed that female test takers scored significantly higher than males not only on the MSRT but also on its structure, listening and reading comprehension subtests. The same analysis also showed that engineering test takers scored significantly higher than agriculture, basic sciences and humanities and social sciences on the listening comprehension subtest and MSRT. The scores of engineering and medical science test takers on the reading comprehension subtest were, however, significantly higher than humanities and social science test takers only. The results are discussed and suggestions are made for future research.

Index Terms—foreign language, proficiency, listening, reading, structure

I. INTRODUCTION

Language proficiency is treated as an ability which is measured "to determine whether this … ability corresponds to specific language requirement" (Valette, 1977, p. 6). The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) is, for example, designed by Educational Testing Service (ETS) in America as a traditional multiple choice item English language proficiency test. The scores obtained on the TOEFL "help the admissions staff determine if your skills are adequate for enrollment into the program of study you have selected" (ETS, 1995, p. 6).

The paper-and-pencil version of TOEFL consists of three separate subtests: 1) listening comprehension, 2) structure and written expression and 3) reading comprehension. The third subtest contains "a variety of short passages on academic subjects. Each passage is followed by question about the meaning of the passage" (ETS, 1991, p. 7). This subtest along with the other subtests of the TOEFL are designed by language testing specialists on the assumption that they provide a *fair* measure of adult English language proficiency for test takers whose first and/or second languages are not English.

Fairness of an ability measure such as the TOEFL is defined as providing test takers with scores which are *not* affected by extraneous variables such as cognitive styles, gender, field of study and educational level. Khodadady, Fatemi and Etminan (2012), for example, employed two tests to explore the relationship between the test takers' cognitive styles and their English language proficiency (ELP). They utilized the Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) designed by Witkin, Oltman, Raskin, and Karp (1971) and the schema-based cloze multiple choice item test (S-Test) designed by Gholami (2006) as measures of cognitive styles and ELP, respectively.

As language proficiency measures, S-Tests differ from the TOEFL in terms of their constituting passages and the nature of items developed on *the words comprising the passages*, i.e., schemata. S-Tests are designed on *authentic* passages which are written to be read by literate English speakers. In addition to authenticity, the alternatives comprising the items have syntactic, semantic and discoursal relationships not only with the keyed response but also with the schemata comprising the whole passage (e.g., Khodadady & Elahi, 2011).

Khodadady, Fatemi and Etminan (2012) administered the S-Test to 253 undergraduate and graduate students of English and used their scores to divide them into low, middle, and high proficiency groups. The performance of these three groups on the GEFT revealed that "neither low nor high proficiency groups employed their cognitive styles because their performance on the two tests" showed no significant relationship. The middle proficiency group, however, utilized both field-dependent and field-independent styles "to compensate for their partially acquired language proficiency" (p. 806).

To the best knowledge of the present researchers, no independent study has, nonetheless, been conducted to explore the fairness of the TOEFL in a foreign language context such as Iran. To fill the gap, the present study attempts to find

out whether the disclosed TOEFL administered by the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology (MSRT) in Iran and named the MSRT produces significantly different scores for test takers having different gender and field of study. Such an attempt is educationally important because a large number of applicants take the MSRT every year and many decisions are made on the basis of their performance.

According to the Iran MSRT (2011a, 2011b, 2011c), the test is held in thirteen cities, i.e., Ahwaz, Babolsar, Esfahan, Hamedan, Kermanshah, Mashhad, Qom, Rasht, Shiraz, Tabriz, Tehran, Urmia, and Zahedan, monthly. In addition to being a requirement for getting admitted to graduate studies in Iranian universities, governmental scholarships are awarded only to those whose performances are above the cutoff score on the MSRT, i.e., 50 out of 100, for agriculture, engineering, and basic sciences, and 55 out of 100 for humanities and social sciences. Moslemy Naeeny (2011) announced that 13943, 17526, and 14757 applicants took the MSRT in the years 2009, 2010, and 2011, respectively.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The scores and some bio data of five thousand one hundred and eighty three applicants who took the MSRT on September 8th and 18th, 2011 were given to the present researchers by an authority in the Iran MSRT. Since 703 test takers had scored lower than 11 out of 100 on the test, they were excluded from all statistical analyses. The remaining 4480 test takers had studied various fields as diverse as Arabic language, arts, law and physiology. These fields were classified into five major branches as shown in Table 1. As can be seen, the largest number of test takers had studied medical sciences (n = 1349, 30.1%).

TABLE 1.
THE MAJOR BRANCHES OF KNOWLEDGE STUDIED BY TEST TAKERS

Branches	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No specified	15	.3	.3	.3
Agriculture	309	6.9	6.9	7.2
Basic Sciences	1296	28.9	28.9	36.2
Engineering	713	15.9	15.9	52.1
Humanities and Social Sciences	798	17.8	17.8	69.9
Medical Sciences	1349	30.1	30.1	100.0
Total	4480	100.0	100.0	

Out of 4480 test takers, 1942 (43.4%) and 2538 (56.6%) were female and male in gender, respectively. While 912 (20.4%) did not specify what academic degree they held at the time of examination, 170 (3.8%), 2992 (66.8%) and 406 (9.1%) had obtained their BA/BSc, MA /MD /MSc and PhD degrees from Iranian universities, respectively. No data were provided as regards the participants' age; however, they were all speaking Persian as their mother/second language.

B. Instrument

Based on the disclosed paper-and-pencil TOEFL items, a language proficiency test called MSRT is compiled in Iran. It consists of three subtests, i.e., listening comprehension, structure and written expressions and reading comprehension.

1. Listening Comprehension

The listening comprehension subtest of the MSRT consists of thirty traditional multiple choice items developed on short conversations between two speakers. Upon hearing the conversation, the test takers must read the four choices offered for the question raised, choose the correct alternative and mark it on the answer sheet as the example below illustrates. (The time allotted is 15 minutes.)

Example:	On the recording you hear: (Woman): I don't like this painting very much. (Man): Neither do I. (Narrator): What does the man mean?		
Alternatives	**A** He doesn't like the painting either **B** He doesn't have any paintings.	**C** He doesn't know how to paint **D** He doesn't know what to do.	

2. Structure and Written Expressions

The structure and written expressions subtest of the MSRT consists of thirty multiple choice items. The items dealing with the structure present a sentence in which a word or phrase is deleted and offered along with three alternatives to measure test takers structural knowledge as shown in sample item below. (The time allotted is 20 minutes.)

Example:	… no conclusive evidence exists, many experts believe that the wheel was invented only once and then diffused to the rest of the world.		
Alternatives	**A** Even **B** Although	**C** But **D** So	

Four parts of a sentence are, however, underlined for written expression items and the test takers are required to choose the part which violates a structural rule of the English language as shown in the example below. (The time allotted is 20 minutes.)

Example: <u>Pharmacists</u> fill drug prescriptions, <u>keeping</u> records of the drugs their patients
                          A   B
             are taking to <u>make sure</u> that harmful combinations <u>were not prescribed</u>.
                                        C   D

3. Reading Comprehension

Forty multiple choice items developed on several short passages constitute the reading comprehension section of the MSRT. All the lines of the passage are numbered for the ease of reference and the meaning of some words appearing in certain lines are questioned as shown in the example below.

In the mid-ninetieth century, the United States had tremendous natural resources that could be exploited in order to develop heavy industry. Most of the raw materials that are valuable in the manufacture of machinery, transportation facilities, and consumer goods

Line   lay ready to be worked into wealth. Iron, coal and oil- the basic ingredients of industrial growth- were plentiful and needed only the
5   application of technical expertise, organizational skill, and labor.

Example: The word "only" in line 5 is closest in meaning to
Alternatives   **A**   merely   **C**   greatly
               B   lastly   **D**   rapidly

In addition to the meaning of the words constituting the reading passages, most items require test takers to read them carefully and based on the information given in the texts select the alternative which they think offers the best answer to each question as shown in the item below. (The time allotted is 40 minutes.)

Example: What does the passage mainly discuss?
               A. The history of railroads in the United States
               B. The major United Stated industrial centers
Alternatives   **C**. Factors that affected industrialization in the United States
               D. The role of agriculture in the nineteenth century

C. Procedure

The Iran MSRT holds the test under standard conditions several times in several cities during the year. According to authorities 13943, 17526, and 14757 applicants to higher education took the MSRT in 2009, 2010, and 2011, respectively. The participants of this study took the test in September 2011 and their scores were given to the researchers in July 2012.

D. Data Analysis

Since there was no data available as regards the test takers' performance on individual items, the scores on the listening comprehension, structure and written expression as well as the MSRT itself were subjected to KR-21 formula to estimate their level of reliability. The estimate is based on the assumption that "all items are of the same difficulty" (Thorndike, 2005, p. 119). The One-Way ANOVA test was employed to find out whether female and male test takers' mean scores on the test and subtests would differ significantly from each other. It was also utilized to explore whether test takers majoring in different branches of knowledge would perform differently on the test. The descriptive as well as inferential statistics were estimated via IBM SPSS Statistics 19.00 in order to test the five null hypotheses below:

H1: There will be no significant difference in the mean scores obtained by female and male participants on the MSRT and its three subtests.

H2: There will be no significant difference in the mean scores of test takers studying agriculture, basic sciences, engineering, humanities and social sciences, and medical sciences on the listening comprehension subtest of the MSRT.

H3: There will be no significant difference in the mean scores of test takers studying agriculture, basic sciences, engineering, humanities and social sciences, and medical sciences on the structure subtest of the MSRT.

H4: There will be no significant difference in the mean scores of test takers studying agriculture, basic sciences, engineering, humanities and social sciences, and medical sciences on the reading comprehension subtest of the MSRT.

H5: There will be no significant difference in the mean scores of test takers studying agriculture, basic sciences, engineering, humanities and social sciences, and medical sciences on the MSRT.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics as well as KR21 reliability coefficient of the MSRT and its subtests. As can be seen, the MSRT enjoys an acceptable level of reliability, i.e., .78. Among the three subtests, the reading comprehension has the highest standard deviation, i.e., 4.70, indicating that, it could differentiate among the test takers best. The reliability of the reading comprehension subtest, i.e., .58, is; however, relatively lower than that of listening comprehension subtest, i.e., .60, while the structure subtest is the lowest, i.e., .54.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND RELIABILITY ESTIMATE OF THE MSRT AND ITS SUBTESTS (N = 4480)

Tests	# of items	Mean	Variance	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	KR-21
Listening	30	9.56	15.370	3.920	1.212	2.081	.60
Grammar	30	13.71	17.641	4.200	.266	-.020	.54
Reading	40	17.33	22.053	4.696	.222	.106	.58
MSRT	100	40.60	104.761	10.235	.773	1.104	.78

Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics related to female and male test takers' performance on the MSRT and its subtests. As can be seen, the female test takers have outperformed their male counterparts. The One-Way ANOVA analysis showed that the mean scores of female test takers not only on the listening comprehension (F = 16.851, df = 1, $p < .001$), structure (F = 52.365, df = 1, $p < .001$), and reading comprehension (F = 12.143, df = 1, $p < .001$) subtests but also on the MSRT (F = 37.654, df = 1, $p < .001$) are significantly higher than those of male test takers. These results thus *disconfirm* the *first* hypothesis that *there will be no significant difference in the mean scores obtained by female and male participants on the MSRT and its three subtests.*

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF FEMALE AND MAKE TEST TAKERS

Tests and subtests	Gender	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error
Listening Comprehension	Female	1942	9.84	4.059	.092
	Male	2538	9.36	3.798	.075
Structure	Female	1942	14.23	4.128	.094
	Male	2538	13.31	4.213	.084
Reading Comprehension	Female	1942	17.61	4.594	.104
	Male	2538	17.11	4.763	.095
MSRT	Female	1942	41.67	10.311	.234
	Male	2538	39.78	10.103	.201

Table 4 presents the descriptive statistics of scores obtained on the listening comprehension subtest by the test takers majoring in five major branches of knowledge. The One-Way ANOVA analysis showed that the mean scores of five branches differ significantly from each other (F = 9.038, df = 4, $p < .001$). Scheffe post hoc test, however, revealed that only two majors outperformed others significantly.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF SCORES ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION SUBTEST

Five Branches of Knowledge	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error
Agriculture	309	9.21	4.002	.228
Basic Sciences	1296	9.38	3.827	.106
Engineering	713	**10.23**	3.989	.149
Humanities and Social Sciences	798	9.17	3.881	.137
Medical Sciences	1349	**9.73**	3.943	.107
Total	4465	9.57	3.924	.059

Table 5 presents the Scheffe post hoc test of the mean scores obtained by test takers majoring in five branches on the listening comprehension subtest of the MSRT. (The table is simplified and shortened to save space.) As can be seen, only the engineering test takers have scored significantly higher than those majoring in agriculture, basic sciences and humanities and social sciences. The mean score of medical science test takers is also significantly higher than that of humanities and social sciences only. These results partially *disconfirm* the *second* hypothesis that *there will be no significant difference in the mean scores of test takers studying agriculture, basic sciences, engineering, humanities and social sciences, and medical sciences on the listening comprehension subtest of the MSRT.*

TABLE 5.
SCHEFFE POST HOC TEST OF SCORES ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION SUBTEST

(I) Branch	(J) Branch	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Engineering	Agriculture	1.015[*]	.266	.006
	Basic Sciences	.847[*]	.182	.000
	Humanities and Social Sciences	1.054[*]	.202	.000
	Medical Sciences	.502	.181	.104
Medical Sciences	Agriculture	.513	.247	.364
	Basic Sciences	.345	.152	.272
	Engineering	-.502	.181	.104
	Humanities and Social Sciences	.552[*]	.175	.041

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 6 presents the descriptive statistics of mean scores obtained on the structure subtest taken by the test takers majoring in five major branches of knowledge. The One-Way ANOVA analysis showed that the mean scores of the five branches differ significantly from each other (F = 13.536, df = 4, p <.001).

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF SCORES ON STRUCTURE SUBTEST

Five Branches of Knowledge	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error
Agriculture	309	13.52	4.204	.239
Basic Sciences	1296	13.87	3.889	.108
Engineering	713	14.41	4.411	.165
Humanities and Social Sciences	798	12.88	4.565	.162
Medical Sciences	1349	13.74	4.058	.110
Total	4465	13.72	4.197	.063

Table 7 presents the Scheffe post hoc test of the mean scores obtained by test takers on the structure subtest of the MSRT. As can be seen, the basic science, engineering and medical science test takers have scored significantly higher than those majoring in humanities and social sciences. The mean score of engineering test takers is also significantly higher than those of agriculture and medical sciences as well. These results *disconfirm* the *third* hypothesis that *there will be no significant difference in the mean scores of test takers studying agriculture, basic sciences, engineering, humanities and social sciences, and medical sciences on the structure subtest of the MSRT* to a large extent.

TABLE 7.
SCHEFFE POST HOC TEST OF STRUCTURE

(I) Branch	(J) Branch	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Basic Sciences	Agriculture	.353	.264	.775
	Engineering	-.541	.195	.102
	Humanities and Social Sciences	.988*	.188	.000
	Medical Sciences	.127	.162	.962
Engineering	Agriculture	.895*	.284	.042
	Basic Sciences	.541	.195	.102
	Humanities and Social Sciences	1.529*	.215	.000
	Medical Sciences	.668*	.193	.018
Medical Sciences	Agriculture	.226	.263	.946
	Basic Sciences	-.127	.162	.962
	Engineering	-.668*	.193	.018
	Humanities and Social Sciences	.861*	.186	.000

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 8 presents the descriptive statistics of mean scores obtained on the reading comprehension subtest taken by the test takers majoring in five branches of knowledge. The One-Way ANOVA analysis showed that the mean scores of five branches differ significantly from each other (F = 5.551, df = 4, p <.001).

TABLE 8.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF READING COMPREHENSION SUBTEST

Five Branches of Knowledge	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error
Agriculture	309	16.85	4.618	.263
Basic Sciences	1296	17.38	4.492	.125
Engineering	713	17.63	4.938	.185
Humanities and Social Sciences	798	16.75	5.090	.180
Medical Sciences	1349	17.58	4.498	.122
Total	4465	17.33	4.697	.070

Table 9 presents the Scheffe post hoc test of the mean scores on the reading comprehension subtest of MSRT. As can be seen, only the mean scores of engineering and medical science students are significantly higher than that of humanities and social sciences. These results partially *disconfirm* the *fourth* hypothesis *that there will be no significant difference in the mean scores of test takers studying agriculture, basic sciences, engineering, humanities and social sciences, and medical sciences on the reading comprehension subtest of the MSRT.*

TABLE 9.
SCHEFFE POST HOC TEST OF READING COMPREHENSION

(I) Branch	(J) Branch	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Humanities and Social Sciences	Agriculture	-.097	.314	.999
	Basic Sciences	-.629	.211	.064
	Engineering	-.878*	.242	.010
	Medical Sciences	-.825*	.209	.004

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 10 presents the descriptive statistics of mean scores obtained on the MSRT taken by the test takers majoring in five major branches of knowledge. The One-Way ANOVA analysis showed that the mean scores of five majors differ significantly from each other (F = 12.404, df = 4, *p* <.001).

TABLE 10.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MSRT

Five Branches of Knowledge	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error
Agriculture	309	39.58	10.158	.578
Basic Sciences	1296	40.64	9.479	.263
Engineering	713	42.27	10.796	.404
Humanities and Social Sciences	798	38.81	11.004	.390
Medical Sciences	1349	41.05	10.008	.272
Total	4465	40.62	10.237	.153

Figure 1 presents the plot drawn on the mean scores obtained on the MSRT. As can be seen, the engineering and medical science test takes' mean score is the first and second highest. The humanities and social sciences as well as agriculture test takers have scored the first and second lowest, respectively.
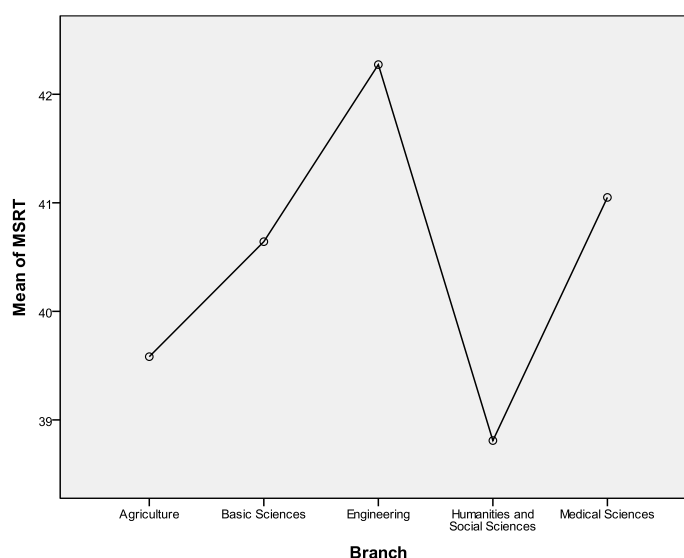
Figure 1. Means plots

Table 11 presents the Scheffe post hoc test of the mean scores on the MSRT. As can be seen, the mean scores of basic science, engineering and medical science students are significantly higher than that of humanities and social sciences. The scores of engineering students are also significantly higher than those of agriculture and basic sciences. These results thus di*sconfirm* the *fifth* hypothesis *that there will be no significant difference in the mean scores of test takers studying agriculture, basic sciences, engineering, humanities and social sciences, and medical sciences on the MSRT.*

TABLE 11.
SCHEFFE POST HOC TEST OF MSRT

(I) Branch	(J) Branch	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Basic Sciences	Agriculture	1.059	.645	.609
	Engineering	-1.632[*]	.475	.019
	Humanities and Social Sciences	1.832[*]	.458	.003
	Medical Sciences	-.408	.396	.901
Engineering	Agriculture	2.691[*]	.694	.005
	Basic Sciences	1.632[*]	.475	.019
	Humanities and Social Sciences	3.464[*]	.525	.000
	Medical Sciences	1.224	.472	.151
Medical Sciences	Agriculture	1.467	.642	.266
	Basic Sciences	.408	.396	.901
	Engineering	-1.224	.472	.151
	Humanities and Social Sciences	2.240[*]	.455	.000

The results of this study are in line with those found by Clapham (1996), Moy (1975) and Shoham, Peretz, and Vorhau (1987). These researchers hypothesized that test takers would score significantly higher on the proficiency tests whose reading passages are closely related to their field of study. Although their findings did not confirm the hypothesis

as regards all the fields investigated, Shoham *et al.* (1987) observed that "humanities and social science students did not do significantly better on the test passage that was considered to be more closely related to their academic discipline" (p. 86). Similarly, the humanities and social sciences students in this study had the lowest score on the MSRT and its subtests.

The findings of the present research, however, differ from Shoham *et al.* (1987) in that the passages comprising the reading comprehension subtest of the MSRT are not field specific. They usually deal with general topics and are mostly written or modified by testing specialists and thus lack authenticity (Khodadady, 1997, 1999). The very unauthentic nature of these passages, i.e., their being written for the sake of testing reading comprehension ability rather than being read for purposes other than testing, might have endowed these passages with certain features which are easily discerned by engineering and medical science test takers.

IV. CONCLUSION

This study explored the performance of one thousand nine hundred and forty two female and two thousand five hundred and thirty eight male test takers on the MSRT proficiency test developed on the disclosed structure, listening and reading comprehension items taken from the disclosed TOEFL. Its findings showed that female test takers scored significantly higher than their male counterparts, implying that either female test takers' English proficiency is significantly higher than males or the MSRT is gender specific and its fairness is open to question.

The significantly different performance of test takers majoring in agriculture, basic sciences, engineering, humanities and social sciences, and medical sciences on the MSRT, however, seem to support its gender specificity because it is also affected by the test takers' field of study. Engineering test takers, for example, outperformed agriculture, basic sciences and humanities and social sciences on the listening comprehension subtest of MSRT. Their scores on the reading comprehension subtest were also significantly higher than humanities and social sciences. These results indicate that engineering test takers may have an attribute other than English proficiency which helps them perform better than agriculture and basic science test takers on some measures such as listening comprehension tests.

The non-language attribute possessed by engineering students seems to be shared partly by medical science test takers whose performance on the MSRT does not significantly differ from that of engineering. Similar to engineering, medical science test takers' scores on the reading comprehension subtest of the MSRT differ significantly from only humanities and social sciences. However, they do not score significantly higher than agriculture and basic sciences on the listening comprehension subtest as engineering test takers do. These results seem to support gender as well as major specificity of MSRT and call for the administration of other proficiency measures such as conventional C-Tests (Klein-Braley, 1997), authentic C-Tests (Khodadady & Hashemi, 2011) and S-Tests (Khodadady, 2012; Khodadady, Alavi, Pishghadam, & Khaghaninezhad, 2012) along with the MSRT to replicate the study and secure fairness in testing in the light of future findings.

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Break Verbs in Caused-motion Construction

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Abstract—The relation between verbs and constructions has been the focus of linguistic research. It is generally believed that verbs are more likely to occur in constructions of the similar sense. *Break* verbs encoding change of state can appear in caused-motion construction, however. From a connectionist view with the framework of conceptual frame, an indirect connection between *break* verbs and the caused-motion schema can be established, and verbs occur in the construction as a result. Moreover, certain semantic features connect some verbs more closely to the construction.

Index Terms—*break* verbs, caused-motion construction, a connectionist view

I. INTRODUCTION

A verb may participate in different syntactic structures and new senses arise as a result. In the following sentences, the verbs *break*, *run*, *laugh*, and *shout* appear in the same construction and have the new sense of causing something or somebody to move on a path.

(1) a. He threw the ball into the hole.
    b. He put an apple on the table.
    c. He broke the walnuts into the bowl.
    d. They ran the rats through the maze.
    e. We laughed him out of the room.
    f. He shouted her out of the room.

Compared to caused-motion verbs (like *throw* and *put*), these verbs in isolation, however, lack this caused-motion sense. Accordingly, their argument structures are inconsistent with the semantic structure of the sentences where they occur. From a projectionist view, the verbs fail to provide semantic interpretation for the arguments in the sentence. In order to explain the semantic relation between the verb *run* in (1c) and the syntactic arguments, it is necessary to posit a different argument structure for the verb, namely, run <agent, runner, path>. Verbal polysemy thus occurs, but it is not favored by parsimony.

Goldberg's (1995) probe into caused-motion constructions sheds new light on the research. She chooses to interpret caused-motion in terms of a construction combining verb and directional preposition to yield a particular, conventionalized interpretation.

"Such a construction must be specified in grammar to account for certain cases in which the semantic interpretation cannot plausibly be attributed to the main verb and other means of deriving the semantics compositionally also fail" (Goldberg, 1995, 152).

Goldberg (1995) assumes that caused-motion semantics doesn't exist in any of lexical items independently, but in what she calls constructions. As a result, causative or motion explanation of the verbs in the sentences (1c-1f) arises from constructions, while the basic senses of the verbs remains. Whether the verbs are typical caused-motion verbs like *throw* or *put*, or the ones that lack path argument, cause argument or theme argument, they gain caused-motion interpretation from the construction.

Goldberg's caused-motion argument structure construction is very attractive in that it licenses the non-subcategorized arguments while avoiding additional senses of a verb. This syntactic-semantic generalization of caused-motion has been embraced by many cognitive researchers. Kay (2002, 2005), Iwata (2005), Boas (2003), Langacker (2005), agree on such a caused-motion construction. Basing on Goldberg's research, they take further study into the construction.

However, Goldberg's constructional argument structure also faces some problems. Caused-motion argument structure construction is supposed to provide a caused-motion sense to non-caused-motion verbs with the fusion between constructional argument roles and verbal participant roles. Fusion, according to Goldberg (1995), elaborates the relation between verbs and the construction. However, fusion does not explicate why some verbs can fuse into the caused-motion construction while others are denied. In addition, not all verbs of the same class can fuse with the construction. So what encourages or prevents the use of verbs in the construction is not expressed by fusion.

Break verbs, encoding change of state, are not supposed to appear frequently in caused-motion construction. Goldberg (1995) posits that change of state is a metaphor of change of position. The appearance of *break* verbs in caused-motion construction indicates the productivity of the construction, in that it can attract verbs of quite different senses. On the other hand, there must be some semantic features that facilitate the appearance of *break* verbs. Furthermore, some appear more frequently.

II. *Break* Verbs

The corpus data in WebCorp (http://www.webcorp.org.uk/) show that "snap" and "smash" are more frequently used in caused-motion construction than other verbs in the class. The verbs "fracture" and "splinter" appear much less than other verbs. Most verbs show high collocation strength with certain prepositional types. The most distinctive is the use of "crack" with goal type prepositions. And even amazing is the repetition of "egg" as the direct object, amounting to 18 times in the total 21 caused-motion uses found. The caused-motion sense of these sentences is scene-specific. The crusts of *eggs* are cracked and the *egg yolk* and *egg white* fall out of *eggs* into the vessels or mixtures. The windower of the scene catches two discontinuous subevents---the initiator's cracking subevent and the mover's final position--- and establishes a causal relation between them.

The data also show that "crack", "chip" and "break" have relatively more uses with "out of", and the first two verbs, together with "smash", "crush" and "crash", are also more frequently found with goal type prepositions. The verbs "smash" and "crash" even appear more with trajectory type prepositions. The verb "snap" is the only one that can be used with the three types of prepositions.

Except "crash", the other *break* verbs have more occurrences with source type prepositions than those with goal type prepositions. The sense of breaking something appears nearly exclusively in the instances with source prepositions *from*, *out of* and *off*. But a few verbs, "snap", "smash", "chip", "crack" and "crush", mean similar to "cause to move", "hit" or "compress", but not similar to "break". In the following sentences, the affected undergoes change of location because of force exerted on it.

(2) a. you need to smash the stone from the shelf

b. possession of the ball will snap the football from the nearest hash mark

c. differential pressure just to crack the ball off the seat

d. who used to crush the ball off the tee/ability to crush the ball from the baseline

e. The puck carrier tries to chip the puck off the board into neutral zone.

Apparently, most *break* verbs can be used in caused-motion construction. Goldberg (1995) sets a semantic constraint on the use of *break* verbs in caused-motion construction. A definite effect on the theme arguments other than motion is implied in the following sentences because they change the shape as a result of the action denoted by these verbs.

(3) a. The butcher sliced the salami onto the wax paper.

b. Joey clumped his potatoes into the middle of his plate.

c. Joey grated the cheese onto a serving plate.

d. Sam shredded the papers into the garbage pail.

But Goldberg (1995) points out that these verbs of change of state are different from *strike* verbs, which also entail a definite effect on the theme argument, in that they denote the action which implies some predictable incidental motion. For example, when we slice the salami we may arrange for wax paper for the sliced salami to fall onto it; meanwhile, we would slice the salami in the direction of the wax paper. It is the path of this predictable incidental motion that can be specified by the directional phrase.

The act denoted by these verbs indicates conventional scenarios which allow them in caused-motion construction. The motion of (4b) is intended and thus a conventional motion. But it is not the case with (4a).

(4) a. * Sam unintentionally broke the eggs onto the floor.

b. Sam carefully broke the eggs into the bowl.

So Goldberg (1995) contends that "If the activity causing the change of state (of effect), when performed in the conventional way, effects some incidental motion and, moreover, is performed with the intention of causing the motion, then the path of motion may be specified"(p.172). With a caused-motion argument structure construction, Goldberg and her followers would insist that the senses of these verbs of change of state would remain unchanged and they inherit the caused-motion sense from the constructional argument structure, which licenses the path unsubcategorized in the lexical senses. But why the constructional argument structure licenses the use of "break" in (4a) but not that in (4b) involves the judgment by means of conventional scenario. That is, the acceptability of (4a) and the unacceptability of (4b) depend more on our world knowledge, but not only on lexical or constructional argument structure.

III. A Connectionist View

Conceptual frame advocated by Cheng (2006) represents a gestalt of encyclopedic knowledge or experience and aims to describe clauses by formalizing their conceptual semantics and relating the conceptual contents expressed by the clauses. The conceptual frame of a clause is equal to its schema, which is described by different conceptual structures. According to Cheng (2010), semantics should be related to the perception system if human beings can express verbally the event they see or perceive. Similarly, if human beings can act according to what they are told, then the semantics should also be related to the motor system. Conceptual frame, as a part of the whole conceptual semantic system, should be realized into syntactic structure on the one hand, and on the other hand provide necessary conceptual information for cognitive operation (such as questions, answers, semantic reasoning, etc.) (Cheng 2006). Semantics serves as the interface between sensory-motor structures and morphosyntactic structures (Cheng 2010).

The conceptual frame of a caused-motion instance includes two conceptual structures: an action conceptual structure

describing the action denoted by verbs, and a causative location conceptual structure depicting the schema of the sentence. As Figure 1 shows, the throwing action is similar to the caused-motion schema and thus the components of the action conceptual structure conflate with those of the causation conceptual structure. In other words, the throwing action is connected directly to the caused-motion schema so that the verb is conventionally used in caused-motion construction.

He threw the ball into the hole.
$Actor_{he}$ + Act_{throw} + $Acted_{ball}$ + Goal $Location_{into\ the\ hole}$
$Causer_{he}$ + Cause + $Object_{ball}$ + Goal Location $_{into\ the\ hole}$

Figure 1　Direct Connection

Break verbs are not conventionally used in caused-motion construction; however, indirect connection may be built only if their action conceptual structure and causation conceptual structure can be mediated by certain conceptual contents. The examples above demonstrate that it is necessary that action denoted by verbs of change of state should entail motion; otherwise, it cannot be connected to caused-motion event. That is to say, whether verbs of change of state can express a caused-motion sense depends on the conceptualizer's attention. If it extends to the motion subevent as a result of change of state, the action involving change of state would be more likely to be construed into a caused-motion semantic structure.

As Figure 2 shows, there are three extended conceptual structures between action and caused-motion event. The first describes the change of state of Acted "walnuts"; the second is a creation conceptual structure, indicating that the breaking action creates "nutlets". Anyway, we aim to get nutlets by means of breaking walnuts. The third conceptual structure depicts the change of location of the created. They mediate between action conceptual structure and causation conceptual structure in the conceptual process to connect them. The breaking action brings about change of state of Acted, which in turn leads to the occurrence of Created, which undergoes change of location. The connection between action and event is achieved by the three conceptual structures encoding cause and effect.

He broke the walnuts into the bowl.
$Actor_{he}$ + Act_{break} + $Acted_{walnuts}$
$Object_{walnuts}$ + $Identification_{broken}$
$Creator_{he}$ + $Create_{break}$ + $Created_{nutlets}$
$Object_{nutlets}$ + Location $_{into\ the\ bowl}$
$Causer_{he}$ + $Cause_{break}$ + Object $_{walnuts}$ + $Location_{into\ the\ bowl}$

Figure 2　　Indirect Connection

That is to say, the use of *break* in caused-motion construction needs the construal of extensions. The extended sense is not encoded in the *break* event but inferred from the specific scene of breaking walnuts. In contrast, motion is hardly construed in the case of breaking the window, even though glasses may fall out of the window onto the floor. The indirect connection between the breaking action and caused-motion schema involves world knowledge. This explains the creative uses of most *break* verbs in caused-motion construction.

According to the connectionist view, verbs can creatively occur in certain syntactic structures if connection can be built between action denoted by verbs and events expressed by syntactic structures. The connectionist view within conceptual frame can not only explain why some verbs are conventionally used in certain constructions, but also why some can be creatively used while others are denied from participation into the constructions. Only when there is a connection between verbs and constructions can we say verbs would fuse into constructions.

IV.　SEMANTIC FEATURES

As verbs of change of state, *break* verbs have the sense quite different from that of caused-motion construction. The occurrences of caused-motion construction found in the corpus data of these verbs just stress the productivity of the construction. *Break* verbs do have a relatively low token frequency with the construction; however, members of *break* verbs still present differences when they are used in the construction, because they have subtle differences in lexical senses. The different semantic features make *break* verbs are connected to caused-motion construction to different degrees.

A.　Motion

Although *break* verbs necessarily entails change of state, it does not mean that these verbs are not related to motion. Regardless, the change of state is brought about force exertion, which is an essential feature to lead to motion. In fact, some *break* verbs encode motion in their events.

The verb "crash" is found more often with trajectory type and goal type prepositions. Among the 54 occurrences with these two types of prepositions, 42 instances express a literal caused-motion sense. The verb in these instances means "cause something to move noisily, destructively, or violent" or "cause something (like a car) to strike against something with great force, causing damage or destruction"[1]. The two sentences in (5) express these two senses. The sense of

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[1] The senses of verbs of change of state all come from MSN Encarta (http://encarta.msn.com/).

"breaking into pieces violently and noisily" is not found in the instances.

(5) a. that she intends to crash the car through the living room.

b. to spill the wine and crash the glasses onto the floor

That is to say, "crash" is used in caused-motion construction because its sense is similar to it. The motion sense has been entrenched in its lexical meaning. The parameters of a crashing event, such as noise, violence, speed, etc., accompany the motion against an entity. Or put it another way, they are part of the motion.

Besides "crash", "snap" and "smash" appear in caused-motion construction with the sense of "causing to move". The 61 instances of all the 71 occurrences of "snap" with trajectory type and goal type prepositions have the sense of "cause something to move quickly and sharply". This sense also appears in the uses with source type prepositions, one with "from" and 13 with "out of".

(6) a. power of the wrist to snap the ball across the table tennis table / who must snap the ball through the air to his signal-caller.

b. and snap the tank toward the vacuum so it is snapped securely / wedge in the opening to snap the spring onto the tab

c. possession of the ball will snap the football from the nearest hash mark/person releases enough power to snap the ropes out of the other's hands/

The breaking sense only occurs when "snap" is used with source type prepositions.

(7) a. And I snap the doors from the hinges.

b. late spring frosts that virtually snap the buds off the vines and steamy

With similar semantic features to "throw", such as, force and motion, "snap", among *break* verbs, is the most often used in location variant with the three types of prepositions. A larger number of caused-motion instances also occur to "smash" when it is used with trajectory type and goal type prepositions. But the senses of "smash" in the instances range from moving, hitting to breaking.

(8) a. he is going to smash the guitar onto the tree/he would smash the mirror onto the ground

b. stepped inside John Nutter to smash the ball into the wall/and then smash the ball through the rim

c. and smash the breading onto the egg and flour mix/and smash the peppers through the sieve

The sentences in (8a) involve the sense of "cause something to move violently so as to break something". Thus the *guitar* and the *mirror* would break into pieces because their motion in contact with the *tree* and the *ground*, respectively. The sentences in (8b) can be explained as similar to a *hit* event. Under the hitting force, the *ball* moved into the goal or traversed a path.

In the sentences of (8a) and (8b), the change of state is gapped. The sentences of (8c), in contrast, result from the profile of the change in the identificational domain. The motion takes place after a change of state. It is contrary to the sentences of (8a) and (8b), in which a change of state arises from a motion on a path.

B.   Not Fully Apart

The verb "crack" implies the degree of something being broken: not fully apart. Its appearance in caused-motion construction reveals strong collocation strength. The patient "egg" occurs 11 times in its 11 occurrences with "into" and 8 times in its 11 occurrences with "onto". All the instances express both change of state of eggs and change of position of egg wash.

(9) a. Once you crack the egg onto the sidewalk/Why crack the egg onto the bowl first? / you can actually crack the egg onto the pan directly

b. Crack the eggs into the bowl!/crack the eggs into the skillet/I crack the eggs into the same bowl

Fracture has the same feature of *not fully apart* and it is even less used in caused-motion construction. It results from a subtler distinction in the lexical sense. That is, "fracture", similar to "splinter", has special requirements for the broken pieces. The former implies the broken bones while the latter usually involves the sharp broken pieces. The special requirement limits their uses and it might have caused the least appearances of these two verbs in caused-motion construction. Anyway, it is hard to imagine our fractured bones would move some place once broken. (10a) and (10b), as a result, only express the change of state of the affected. The prepositional phrases only indicate the location where fracturing and splintering take place. In (10c), however, the appearance of a goal type prepositional phrase is indicative of a caused motion to a goal following the change of state of the cork.

(10) a. attempts to fracture the glass along the furrow line have been unsuccessful.

b. splinter the wood along the door jamb further adding flying debris

c. Be careful not to splinter the cork into the bottle.

C.   Being Apart

Verbs "tear", "rip" and "chip" predicate breaking one piece or some pieces off something. That might account for the large occurrences of "tear" and "rip" with source type prepositions and all of them involve a source body as location. A more typical caused-motion sense occurs in their instances with goal type prepositions, in which the special manner of breaking brings about motion.

The verb "chip" has the sense of "breaking one or more small pieces from something", but special requirement is imposed on *something---something hard or brittle*. This requirement makes the use of "chip" similar to cutting or

chopping something. It is also listed as *cut* verbs.

(11)eventually a roofer can chip the ice out of the gutters/cut open the gums and chip the tooth out of the bone/I had to chip the coralline out of the pump heads.

(12) chip the shells off the rocks/to chip the bump off the side of her big toe

And this sense does not occur in all the goal instances. The verb in (13) and (14) expresses "hitting something". 14 "onto" instances in fact contain one collocation: "*chip the ball onto the green*". 7 of 9 "into" occurrences involve *ball* as the theme in motion.

(13) The goal is to chip the ball onto the green / An iron used to chip the ball onto the green / you were able to chip the ball onto the green

You can just chip the ball into the hole. / allowing the Briton to chip the ball into the empty court/cheekily chip the ball into the empty part of the goal.

The entities chipped are always hard or brittle. It means that chipping needs exertion of greater force than *tear* event and *rip* event. This parameter is the compulsory condition of caused-motion schema and thus "chip" inclines to gain a new sense related to exertion of force.

D. Breaking into Pieces

The sense of "breaking into pieces" also appears in caused-motion construction, especially when trajectory type and goal type positions are used. 9 caused-motion uses of "smash" with the sense of breaking appear in 21 "onto" instances, and 9 appear in 18 "through" instances (see sentences in (8)).

But the other verbs involving the core feature of "breaking into pieces" are less found to express a caused-motion case. This is related to different manners of breaking something into pieces. *Split*, similarly entailing the sense of breaking something into pieces, is seldom found to express a caused-motion sense. Among its 28 instances with trajectory type prepositions and 26 instances with goal type prepositions, there are only two caused-motion instances.

(15) you may want to split the photos onto the guests tables/we split the rest onto the 2 tortilla and enjoyed it

The reason might be related to the manner of breaking embodied in the sense of "split". That is, "split" involves breaking something by separating or dividing it lengthwise into two or more parts. The *through*-phrases in (16a) point to the place where the splitting action is accomplished while the *into*- and *onto*-phrases in (16b) indicate separated parts, namely, the created object deriving from the action.

(14) a. you should at least split the logs through the heart line. / To split the thighs through the bone, / taking care not to split the wood through the part left for the handle

  b. We split the proof onto the following four steps/where abuse is involved to split the partners onto the good side;/Therefore we can split the sum into the two parts./informally split the party into the Aquino and the Angara wings/Let us split the telescope into the following 3 subsections

Other verbs encoding breaking into pieces, like "break", "tear", "rip", "splatter" and "splinter" have few instances with trajectory and goal type prepositions, considering an extension of location conceptual structure is necessary to connect these verbs to caused-motion construction. That is, the action of breaking something into pieces must involve a subsequent motion. It depends more on what is affected in specific context.

Even in their occurrences with source type prepositions, only the following are found to express the sense of breaking into pieces. The others, as discussed above, express separation of part from body.

(17) a. so as not to shatter the grain out of the husks/shatter the seeds from the stalks

  b. You want to basically crush the juice out of the limes/drinkers who crush the juice from the plant

V. CONCLUSION

This paper, basing on the corpus data of *break* verbs in caused-motion construction, demonstrates that *break* verbs can occur in the construction by means of construing motion from the basic action conceptual structure. From a connectionist view within the framework of conceptual frame, the paper suggests when indirect connection arises between the breaking action and caused-motion schema, verbs are connected to the construction.

The paper further analyzes the semantic features of *break* verbs and indicates that some features may facilitate the connection between verbs and the construction while others have less influence. The verbs with the semantic features [+motion] and [+not fully apart] are more connected to caused-motion construction, since they are more semantically similar. In comparison, the verbs with the features of [being apart] and [+breaking into pieces] have less connection to the construction.

The connectionist view holds that verbs are connected to constructions where they appear conventionally, because of their semantic similarity. *Break* verbs have a different sense from caused-motion construction; as a result, their occurrence in the construction involves world knowledge, which decides whether change of position can be extended from the breaking action. The verbs that have semantic features similar to the construction are more likely to occur in the construction.

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Overall Motivation and the Promotion of EFL Learners' Oral Proficiency

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Abstract—**Over the past few decades, there has been an increasing concern for examining the human personality to find answers to language learning problems. As a result, good numbers of studies have focused on the crucial role that affective variables can play in the process of learning a second language. Among these variables, motivational factors are frequently recognized as potentially influential in successful L2 learning, especially in contexts or countries where there is no or little chance for learners to be in contact with the target language native speakers. Therefore, a consequent question is whether or not and to what extent motivation plays any role in developing learners' speaking proficiency in such particular contexts. More specifically, the present study investigates the degree of correlation between motivation and speaking proficiency in the Iranian EFL context. The result of the investigation conducted with Iranian lower intermediate English learners revealed that speaking abilities and motivation are positively and significantly correlated.**

Index Terms—**affective factors, motivation, attitude, L2 proficiency**

I. INTRODUCTION

The history of motivation studies in second language learning goes back to Gardner and Lambert (1972) well-distinguished research program. They note that motivation to learn a second language is grounded in positive attitudes toward the second language community and in a desire to communicate with valued members of that community and become similar to them. Gardner is also responsible for the development of a battery of motivation testing instrument known as the Attitudinal/Motivational test battery; AMTB (Gardner, 1985). This model has stimulated a large number of empirical studies and has resulted in attempts to synthesize the findings of such studies into a model which is called the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1988, 2001).

In the socio-educational model, motivation to learn the second language is viewed as a driving force which requires three elements: effort, desire and enthusiasm. First, the motivated individual expends effort to learn the language. That is, there is a persistent and consistent attempt to learn the material by doing homework, by seeking out opportunities to learn more, by doing extra work, etc. Second, the motivated individual wants to achieve the goal. Such an individual will express the desire to succeed, and will strive to achieve success. Third, the motivated individual will enjoy the task of learning the language (Gardner, 2001). In this model, the elements of effort, desire and positive affect or enthusiasm are also key clues to distinguish more motivated individuals from less motivated ones. Each element, by itself, is seen as insufficient to reflect motivation. Some students may display effort, even though they have no strong desire to succeed, and may not find the experience particularly enjoyable. Others may want to learn the language, but may have other things which detract them from their effort. "The point is that the truly motivated individual displays effort, desire and affect" (Gardner, 2001). According to socio-educational model of second language acquisition, achievement in second language acquisition is an attribute of the following associated set of measures of individual differences.

Integrativeness: Favorable attitudes toward the target group, interest in foreign languages,

Attitudes toward the Learning Situation: affective reactions to any aspect of the class, the materials, the curriculum, the teacher, etc,

Motivation: Motivational intensity, desire to learn the Language, attitudes toward learning the language,

Language Anxiety: Language class anxiety and language use anxiety which can have deleterious effects on learning,

Instrumentality: Instrumental orientation; where the language is being studied for practical or utilitarian purposes.

In the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, integrativeness represents group-focused affective reactions. It reflects openness to other cultures in general, and an interest in the target culture in particular. Individuals who are high in integrativeness do not focus on their own ethno-linguistic community as a major part of their identity, but instead are willing and able to take on features of another language group as part of their own behavioral repertoire. Attitudes toward the learning situations refer to affective reactions to any aspect of the class and could be assessed in terms of the atmosphere in the class, the quality and the availability of materials, the curriculum, the teacher, etc.

Motivation, according to Gardner, is a multifaceted concept of which fundamentals are best identified by three measures that assess effort and persistence, the desire to learn the language, and affective reactions to learning the language. Language anxiety refers to the feeling of anxiety and concern in using the language in the classroom and other contexts and is believed to result from previous experiences in language classes and/or deficiencies in language knowledge and skill. The notion of instrumentality refers to conditions where the language is studied for practical or utilitarian purposes. Like integrativeness, there could be many causes for such feelings varying from the cultural setting to idiosyncratic experiences of the individual.

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RELATED LITERATURE

In Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, Gardner (2001) elaborates on integrative and instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation is hypothesized to be a complex of attitudinal, goal-directed, and motivational attributes. The integratively motivated individual is one who is motivated to learn the second language, has a desire or willingness to identify with the other language community, and tends to evaluate the learning situation positively. Instrumental motivation is generally characterized by the desire to obtain something practical or concrete from the study of a second language (Hudson, 2000). With instrumental motivation, the purpose of language acquisition is more utilitarian, such as meeting the requirements for school or university graduation, applying for a job, reading technical materials or achieving higher social status. Instrumental motivation is often a characteristic of foreign language learning or second language acquisition, where little or no social integration of the learner into the target language community occurs. One area where instrumental motivation can prove to be successful is in the situations like Iran where the learner is provided with no direct opportunity to use the target language and therefore, no or rare chance to interact with members of the target group.

A note to the literature of motivation studies confirms the crucial role of the instrumental motivation. Lukmani (1972) found that an instrumental orientation was more important than an integrative orientation in non-Westernized female learners of L2 English in Bombay. Svanes (1987) also noted that European and American students were considered integratively motivated to learn Norwegian in a university in Norway, whereas the Middle Eastern, African and Asian students were considered instrumentally motivated. Thus, Svanes came to the conclusion that the type of motivation is related to the background of the students. Ellis (1997) confirms that in some of the early research conducted by Gardner and Lambert, integrative motivation was viewed as being of more importance in a formal learning environment than instrumental motivation. Nevertheless, she claims that at present the importance of instrumental motivation is also stressed.

Brown (2000) points out that integrative and instrumental motivation are not necessarily mutually exclusive. To him, Learners rarely select one form of motivation when learning a second language, but rather a combination of both orientations. He cites the example of international students residing in the United States, learning English for academic purposes while at the same time wishing to become integrated with the people and culture of the country. Similarly, Belmechri and Hummel (1998) maintain that integrative and instrumental orientations are not two opposite ends in a continuum. Rather they are positively related and both are affectively-loaded goals which can sustain learning. They both may in return be enhanced by better proficiency and higher achievement in the target language (Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Dӧrnyei, 1994, 2001). Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) also claim that both types of motivation contribute to linguistic proficiency. Gardner (2005b) asserts that there is no reason to expect integrativeness and instrumentality to be independent of one another. Working with the teaching of French in primary school, Burstall (1975) found that in spite of a close link between pupils' attitude and achievement, motivational characteristics of individual pupil appeared to be neither exclusively integrative nor instrumental.

From the aforementioned ideas, it can be concluded that L2 learning does not necessitate choosing either integrative or instrumental motivation, which means that both types are important. "A learner might learn an L2 well with an integrative motivation or with an instrumental one, or indeed with both" (Cook, 1991). It deserves notice that all researches do not seem to support a similar role for motivational factors. Lyczak, Fu and Ho (1976) did not find any significant correlation between achievement and motivational variables. Likewise, in a study conducted by (Abdel-Hafez, 1994) in Jordan, no significant correlation between the students' attitudes and motivation and their levels of achievement in the English courses was found. Moreover contrary to a good number of scholars who think that both integrative and instrumental motivation are essential elements of success, Taylor, Meynard and Rheault (1977) and Crookes and Schmidt (1991) assert that it is the integrative motivation which sustains long-term success in learning a second language.

From another stand point, achieving English language proficiency in general and oral proficiency in particular is an unquestionable goal for ELT programs in non-native circumstances. Therefore, with reference to the background presented so far, the probable relationship between motivation and oral proficiency in Iran still worth further study. As a result the present research is a new attempt for the identification of the extent of relationship between motivation and oral proficiency among Iranian English majors.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

English is taught as a foreign or an international language in Iran where there is no or little chance for the learners to be in contact with the target language native speakers. Therefore, a consequent question is whether motivation still plays any significant role in developing learners' speaking proficiency in this particular context. More specifically, the present study seeks an answer to the following question.

Is there any relationship between the Iranian EFL/EIL learners' level of motivation and their speaking performance in English?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The research was conducted with 59 freshman students of English at Delta academy of foreign languages, Tehran, Iran. The population included 34 male and 25 female Persian native speakers who were learning English at the lower intermediate level. 28 subjects were studying the course *Cambridge Interchange Intro* and the other 31 *Cambridge Interchange 1.* The students came from different academic backgrounds and had already received English language instruction at least for six years right from the second year of junior high school, known as guidance school in Iran.

B. The Instrument

In order to measure the subjects' motivation level, Mihaljevic Djigunovic (1998) model was adopted. This model is designed based on Gardner's Attitudinal/Motivational Test Battery (AMTB) and includes 38 Likert-type five-point scales items, measuring different types of motivation as well as two demotivators. The first demotivator is teaching-setting demotivator which is to find out whether the learner is demotivated for learning English because s/he dislikes the method of teaching used in the course, the teaching materials were not stimulating, or because of some qualities attached to the teacher (e.g. the teacher's English was not good enough, the teacher was partial in assigning grades and the like). The second demotivator, the learning difficulties demotivator, implied that the learner did not like learning English because he found it too difficult and complicated to learn or that he lost ground and could not cope with the learning material because of deficient knowledge base.

Since the students came from different academic and socio-economic backgrounds and due to the difference in their level of proficiency in English, and to ensure their understanding of the items, the questionnaire was administered in the participants mother tongue i.e. Persian. The original English version of the questionnaire is provided in the Appendix.

C. Procedure

The motivation questionnaire was administered in the first week of the Spring semester, starting from April 2011. During the completion process, one researcher was present to monitor the administration or help the respondents with understanding of the items, if necessary. At the end of the semester students' scores on the speaking courses were obtained from their instructors and the data were then statistically analyzed.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table I presents the overall motivation mean for the sample. The subjects reported an average motivation of 2.61, and 0.21 standard deviation. From the reported Standard Deviation, it is clear that the sample was relatively homogeneous and the students showed a limited range of variation in their motivation. It also deserves notice that the mean reported for the motivation of the subjects was slightly about midpoint.

TABLE I.
STUDENTS' OVERALL MOTIVATION LEVEL

	Mm	SDm
Overall Motivation	2.61	0.21

M_m=motivations mean
SD_m= Standard Deviation of motivation scores

At the end of the term, students' scores on speaking assessment were collected and the same statistical operation was computed. The results represented in Table II reveal an average of 15.9 on speaking assessment of the sample. The table also shows a standard deviation of 1.34 for speaking assessment. With reference to the SD observed, it is clear that participants showed a greater variation in their speaking scores. Additionally, the mean reported for the participants speaking score in 0-20 scale indicates for a medium to high level of proficiency.

TABLE II.
STUDENTS' SPEAKING PROFIECIENCY SCORES

	Mp	SDp
Speaking Proficiency	15.9	1.34

Mp=proficiency mean
SDp=proficiency Standard Deviation

To compute the degree of relationship between motivation and speaking proficiency, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed between the two sets of variables.

TABLE III.
CORRELATION COEFFICIENT (R) BETWEEN MOTIVAITON AND SPEAKING PROFIENCY

	R
Correlation Coefficient	0.64

With reference to critical values for Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, Learners motivation was found to have a significant correlation with their speaking proficiency at the level of $p<.01$. However, as Brown and Rodgers (2002) indicate, such results are accurately interpreted only when all their underlying assumptions are met. A complete list of their intended assumptions is as follows.

1. Scales Assumption: both sets of numbers must be in continuous scales.

2. Independence Assumption: the pairs of numbers within a data set must be independent of one another.

3. Normality Assumption: both distributions must be normal.

4. Linearity Assumption: the two sets of numbers, if plotted on a scatter plot should be more or less in a line.

A critical note to the data gathered makes it clear that they are in continuous or interval scale, and the two sets are independent of one another, i.e. scores in either pair might not influence the generation of the other scores. Thus, the first and the second assumptions have been met. The third assumption requires a variation of at least two standard deviations from the Mean. That is, $Mean \pm 2SD$ must be within the range of minimum and maximum scores. Further examination of the data revealed that this assumption was also met. The computations for such purpose are brought in the table that follows.

TABLE IV.
COMPUTAITONS TO CHECK THE NORMALITY ASSUMPTION

Set of motivation scores	$\min_m \leq M_m - 2SD_m \Rightarrow 1.87 \leq 2.61 - 2 \times 0.21$
	$Max_m \geq M_m + 2SD_m \Rightarrow 3.03 \geq 2.61 + 2 \times 0.21$
Set of speaking proficiency scores	$\min_p \leq M_p - 2SD_p \Rightarrow 13 \leq 15.9 - 2 \times 1.34$
	$Max_p \geq M_p + 2SD_p \Rightarrow 19 \geq 15.9 + 2 \times 1.34$

Mm= motivations mean,
SDm= Standard Deviation of motivation scores
minm= minimum score of motivation
Maxm= maximum score of motivation
Mp= proficiency mean,
SDp= Standard Deviation of proficiency scores
minp= minimum score of proficiency scores
Maxp= maximum score of proficiency scores

The fourth and the last assumption is the linearity assumption. This means that unless any two sets of data are linear in relation, one cannot simply claim for their correlation. In order to have a preview of the existing correlations between the two variables, a scatter plot was drawn, the result of which is presented in Figure 1.

It can be understood from the figure that the diamonds are more or less in a straight line, and that two sets of numbers are approximately linear in relationship. Therefore the findings solidly support the correlation assumption. Thus it is right to say that the results indicate for the existence of a direct positive relationship between motivation and speaking proficiency level of Iranian EFL learners.
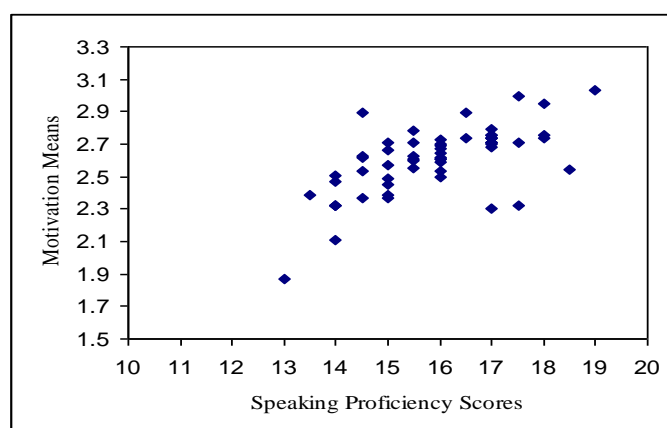
Figure 1. Scatter plot of the scores

VI. Conclusion

As it was mentioned earlier, the aim of this research project was to investigate the probable relationship existing between motivation and the speaking proficiency of English students at Delta academy of foreign languages, Tehran, Iran. The findings seem strong enough to let us claim that in EFL environment where instrumental motivation is dominantly at work, student's performance in speaking English is directly and positively correlated with their level of motivation. Therefore, the teachers are recommended to be sensitive to learners' motivation in general and their instrumental motivation in particular.

They may help students by encouraging the development of instrumental motivation. Learners' encouragement may be done through foregrounding the advantages of knowing a foreign language or elaboration on frequent uses of the language. Conducting a need analysis and estimating learner's reasons, purposes and justifications for learning English can be a different solution. Needless to say that, in so doing, teachers are expected to provide learners with more opportunities to fulfill their stated instrumental objectives.

Learners' instrumental motives can also be duly attained by helping them prepare for examination and stressing the role their English score play in their academic achievement. More focus on practical skills is also suggested for their functional and utilitarian characteristics and for the role they play in developing learners' self-esteem. Teachers may also try to raise students' integrative motivation by drawing their interest toward the target language, its literature and the culture of the people who speak it. In general, any effort to promote motivation in students and observation of learners' reactions to those efforts will be a step in the direction to find the most motivating activities for every particular class.

Appendix The Motivation Questionnaire

1. English enables me to communicate with many people.
2. Knowing English, I can read foreign magazines.
3. English will help me in my future education.
4. I often use English to talk to foreigners.
5. English will be useful to me in my future profession.
6. English enables us to become part of the world.
7. I use English in everyday life to understand pop music, films etc.
8. Thanks to English I can broaden my cultural horizon.
9. With English I can travel all over the world.
10. Knowing English, I could read literary works in the original.
11. Sometimes I use my English to translate instructions on foreign-made machines (e.g. household appliances).
12. Thanks to English, I can learn more about the life of the English, Americans, Australians, etc.
13. English is a very interesting language.
14. English is a very beautiful language.
15. I like English words.
16. English sounds very nice.
17. I enjoy pronouncing English words.
18. English is a stupid language.
19. I would like to be like the English, Americans, Australians, etc.
20. I would like to marry someone from USA, Britain, etc.
21. I'd like to know English in order to be able to live in the USA, Britain, etc.
22. English will be useful to me when I visit my relatives/friends in the USA, Britain, Australia, etc. one day.
23. Our teacher teaches English in a very interesting way.
24. I don't like the teaching methods our teacher employs.
25. Our teacher assigns grades unjustly.
26. I'd learn English if the course was more interesting.
27. My teacher of English motivates me to learn.
28. Our teacher is not motivated to teach.
29. The teaching materials we use are very motivating.
30. I don't like learning English because I have a bad teacher.
31. Our teacher pays too much attention to good pupils.
32. During English classes I'm always in panic because I know I will not understand the teacher when she addresses me.
33. My pre-knowledge of English is so low that I could catch up with the others only if I started from the very beginning (and that I can't do, of course).
34. After getting a bad mark I have no more wish to learn.
35. English is too difficult for me.
36. My parents force me to learn English.

37. I'd rather learn another foreign language.
38. I prefer to learn something more useful than English.

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On Chinese-English Translation of Culture-loaded Tourism Publicities: A Perspective of Cultural Manipulation Theory

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Abstract—In recent years, there is a heated study of the translation of tourism materials from Chinese into English from a cultural perspective. A growing number of translation scholars begin to study the cultural communication and cultural interaction in the process of translating culture-loaded tourism publicities from Chinese into English. Learning under such a background and enlightened by the innovative thinking of the school of Translation Studies, the author makes a tentative study of the Chinese-English translation of culture-loaded tourism publicities by employing Lefevere's and Bassnett's cultural manipulation theory. Lefevere and Bassnett, the two most representative figures of the school of Translation Studies, view the study of translation as the study of cultural interaction, and the nature or the purpose of translation is to enable the source language culture and the target language culture to communicate and interact with each other. Cultural manipulation theory provides a different and new perspective for translation studies especially concerning translations which involve cultural communication and cultural interaction. This paper analyzes the cultural manipulative phenomena in the translation of cultural-loaded tourism publicities from Chinese into English intending to discuss whether or not the manipulations facilitate the communication and interaction between Chinese culture and foreign cultures. Through sample analyses, the author also summarizes some workable manipulative methods based on the cultural manipulation theory and on the previous studies in this field.

Index Terms—culture-loaded tourism publicities, cultural communication, cultural interaction, manipulation, translation

I. INTRODUCTION

China has made remarkable economic achievements due to the globalization that has been on during the past few decades. China maintains a much closer link to the other countries of the world in the modern era, which means that the cultural communication between China and the other parts of the world has become much more frequent. Translation, especially translation for cultural transmission, plays an important role in the communication among different cultures. As the scholars from the school of Translation Studies (typically Lefevere and Bassnett) put it, the study of translation is the study of culture interaction. Inspired by this point of view, the author of the paper makes a study of the issues of the cultural interaction and constructing cultures in the process of translating culture-loaded tourism publicities from Chinese into English by employing Lefevere's and Bassnett's cultural manipulation theory.

It is known that Lefevere's and Bassnett's cultural manipulation theory is based on their studies of translations of literary works, and that most scholars who have conducted researches on the theory and practice of the school of Translation Studies tend to choose literary translation as their research objects. As many scholars argue, the theory of the school of Translation Studies has some limitations, one of which is that it is mainly concerned about literary translation. Therefore, it might be safe to say that the innovative point of the paper lies in the fact that, in order to study the phenomena of cultural manipulation in translation practice, the author of the paper chooses the translation of culture-loaded tourism publicities instead of translation of literary works as the object of this study.

The emphasis of this study has been put on the analysis of the cultural manipulative phenomena existing in the selected samples in the process of translating the Chinese texts into English. By analyzing the cultural manipulative phenomena, the author of the paper tries to illuminate whether or not the manipulations facilitate the communication and interaction between the Chinese culture and foreign cultures so that the purpose of translation, under the cultural manipulation theory, can be fulfilled. Meanwhile, through the sample analyses, the author of the paper testifies the feasibility of employing the theory in the practice of the translation of culture-loaded tourism publicities from Chinese into English. Based on the sample analyses, the paper finally summarizes some workable manipulative methods that would facilitate the communication and interaction between the Chinese culture and foreign cultures according to Bassnett's and Lefevere's cultural manipulation theory, including Addition, Omission, Explanatory note and Rewriting, which translators may turn to for use in the process of translation.

II. CULTURAL MANIPULATION THEORY

A. Dramatic Change in the Field of Translation Studies

The traditional translation theories view translation merely as linguistic transference of meaning from one language to another. They put too much value on fidelity and faithfulness of the translated text to the source text. However, there are a growing number of scholars, especially those from the school of Translation Studies including Even-Zohar, Gideon Toury, Mary Snell-Hornby, Jose Lambert, Theo Hermans, Andre Lefevere, Susan Bassnett and so on, who think that translation is no longer purely linguistic transference. Instead, they take many extra-linguistic factors into translation studies, such as history, culture and then some. Therefore, what has changed is that many scholars have begun to realize the following fact: there is no absolute equivalence in translation and there are different types of faithfulness, not the only one type of equivalence on the linguistic level as the traditional translation theories stated, that may be adequate as viewed in different situations. Thus, the school of Translation Studies liberates translators from the constraints of the traditional thinking on translation studies. Translators are no longer bound to the norms of 'faithfulness' and 'equivalence' on the linguistic level only.

B. The Previous Studies of the 'Cultural Turn'

In the 1970s, Even-Zohar and Gideon Toury put forward their polysystem theory and stated that there is necessarily cultural interaction among different cultures in the process of literary translation, because literary translation is part of the culture systems. The polysystem theory first took literary translation into culture systems, which made great contributions to the development of translation studies. From then on, the studies of translation gradually shifted the focus from the studies on the linguistic level to cultural studies. Many important scholars contributed a lot to this shift. Lambert and Robyns pointed out that translation is "less than an interlinguistic process and more as an intercultural activity" (Genzler, 1993, p.186). Mary Snell-Hornby also argued that culture rather than the text should be the translation unit, and cultural studies should be incorporated into translation studies (Genzler, 1993, p.188). Bassnett and Lefevere were the first to suggest that translation studies should take the 'cultural turn'. In the 1990s, the publication of the collection of essays entitled *Translation, History and Culture*, co-edited by Bassnett and Lefevere, officially represented the 'cultural turn' in translation. After that, there are more and more scholars beginning to study the 'cultural turn' in translation studies. This is also true among Chinese scholars. For example, Han and Chen (2010) have carried out a study of the development of western translation theories in China in the last decade. They point out that, under the background of the 'cultural turn' in the western translation studies, the Chinese scholars' researches on the western translation theories have also begun to show a trend of 'cultural turn'.

The cultural turn has provided a new perspective for translation scholars and broadened the vision of the field. The scholars who conduct researches in this field should then take into account the cultural elements in their studies.

C. The Use of Bassnett's and Lefevere's Cultural Manipulation Theory in Translation Studies

Bassnett and Lefevere are two pioneering scholars who have introduced the cultural manipulation theory. After the 'cultural turn', they further argue that the study of translation is in nature the study of cultural interaction and translation is in nature manipulation at different levels, which is the core of cultural manipulation theory. Enlightened by this theory, many scholars begin their studies from the perspective of cultural transmission and cultural interaction. Zhang (2002) studied the interaction between culture and translation from the perspective of mistranslation, he argues that mistranslation is in nature a kind of cultural phenomenon which enables translation and culture to interact with each other. Wang (2005) argued that translation is cultural transforming. As she stated in an article entitled *The Cultural Transforming in Translation*, "Translation has gone beyond the studies on the linguistic levels and focused more on culture. The definition of translation shall be 'the interpretation of transferring from words to culture.'" (Wang, 2005, p.112).

It seems that, as many scholars argue, translation is inseparably connected with culture. This is particularly true of the tourism materials translation. Jia (2002) holds the cultural manipulation school's point that translation is in nature cultural interaction. He argues that translators should focus their attention on rendering the cultural message while manipulating the translation of tourist materials, so that translation can become the approach and medium of cultural communication between China and western countries. Qiu (2008) wrote an article entitled *On Strategies for Translating Chinese Tourism Texts into English: A Manipulative Perspective*, in which he probes into the common mistakes in the publicity-oriented tourism texts using the manipulation theory. In the light of Lefevere's definition that translation is rewriting, Qiu puts forward some manipulation rules in order to improve the current situation of the translation, hoping to offer a convincing theoretical justification for the translation practice. Hu and Jia (2010) view China's foreign publicity translation as rewriting under manipulation. In their article entitled *China's External-oriented Propaganda Translation: A Rewriting Manipulated by Ideology*, they illustrate the inevitability of 'rewriting' in China's external-oriented propaganda translation based on Lefevere's manipulation theory, emphasizing the positive roles played by 'rewriting' in the interaction of Sino-western cultures. They also point out that 'rewriting' may as well be an effective way to achieve the social function of China's foreign publicity translation.

In view of the discussion above, this paper intends to study the translation of culture-loaded tourism materials from Chinese into English from the perspective of cultural manipulation theory.

III.   SAMPLE ANALYSES

A.   Manipulation of the Samples with Culture-deficient Information

In his discussion of the different translations of the *Lysistrata* of Aristophanes, Lefevere (2004b) demonstrates "the 'simple' fact that the interpretations quite literally become the play for those who are unable to read the original or, in other words, that the translation projects a certain image of the play in the service of a certain ideology (p.42)." And he further points out that "This fact is most apparent in the passages various translators insert in their translations, passages that are most emphatically not in the original (ibid)." In other words, the translators have added some information which does not exist in the source text to their translations, and their translations have successfully provided the target readers with access to the source text and projected the certain image of the original as well. Bassnett (2004) also argues that the translator can at times enrich or clarify the source language texts during the translation process (p.36). By referring to Lefevere's expression of "insert passages in their translations" or Bassnett's "enrich or clarify the source language texts", we may call the technique used here 'Addition', a manipulative method which can be used when translating the texts aiming to facilitate communication and interaction between the source culture and the target culture especially when the source text is culture-deficient. We can see such kind of manipulation from Sample One.

Sample One.

The Chinese text: 紫禁城是中国五个多世纪以来的最高权力中心，它以园林景观和容纳了家具及工艺品的近万间的庞大建筑群，成为明清时代中国文明无价的历史见证。(Chen, Jiang, & Lu, 2008, p.7)

The English version: *Seat of supreme power for over five centuries (1416-1911), the Forbidden City in Beijing, with its landscaped gardens and many buildings (whose nearly 10, 000 rooms contain furniture and works of art), constitutes a priceless testimony to Chinese civilization during the Ming and Qing dynasties. The Imperial palace of the Qing Dynasty in Shenyang consists of 114 buildings constructed between 1625 and 1783. It contains an important library and testifies to the foundation of the last dynasty that ruled China, before it expanded its power to the center of the country and moved the capital to Beijing. This palace then became auxiliary to the Imperial Palaces in Beijing. This remarkable architectural edifice offers important historical testimony to the history of the Qing Dynasty and to the cultural traditions of the Manchu and other tribes in the north of China.* (Chen, Jiang, & Lu, 2008, p.7)

In Sample One, the following series of words, "*The Imperial palace of the Qing Dynasty in Shenyang consists of 114 buildings constructed between 1625 and 1783. ... This remarkable architectural edifice offers important historical testimony to the history of the Qing dynasty and to the cultural traditions of the Manchu and other tribes in the north of China.*" which consists of 92 words, has been added to the English version as compared with the Chinese text. That is, there is some information in the translated version which cannot be found in the source text. If we go a step further, we may find that the added information is closely related to the topic of the source text and, more importantly, is culture-specific. The added series of words helps stress the fact that the Imperial Palace in Shenyang serves as the testimony to the foundation of China's last dynasty. Therefore, Shenyang Imperial Palace with its culture is of great significance to the dynasty, and the information included here is quite important for the tourists who want to know something about the history and culture of China. Besides, the added information presents the development of the Imperial Palaces from Shenyang to Beijing. And the translator emphasizes in the last sentence of the translation the fact that the Imperial Palaces testifies to the history and cultural traditions of China and its people when it was under the reign of the emperors of the Qing dynasty. As a whole, we can see from the translation that the translator keeps away from the traditional translation principle of 'fidelity' and adds some cultural-oriented or historical information in the translation to the readers from English speaking countries, which facilitates the interaction between different cultures.

As may be observed, by means of Addition, the translation has demonstrated the historical and cultural elements, and illustrated the structure and functions of the Forbidden City when China was under the reign of the emperors of the Ming and Qing dynasties. It is clear that in this translation such factors as history and culture and the like which are related to but go beyond the text have been taken into account. What the translator has done in the translation is positively consistent with Bassnett's and Lefevere's pioneering thinking on translation. As Bassnett and Lefevere (2001) argue, the purpose of some translation, especially the translation of culture or culture-loaded texts which are considered as the cultural capital of a given culture, is the circulation of cultural capital. And the Forbidden City as well as the unique cultures it is laden with can be considered as the cultural capital of China, or even of the world, because it was inscribed on the World Heritage List by World Heritage Committee of United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization in 1987. Therefore, when doing the translation of the tourism materials of the Forbidden City, translators should not only concern themselves with the conversion of the two languages, but also take into consideration historical or cultural elements so that the purpose of the circulation of cultural capital and the interaction between cultures can be fulfilled partly by translation.

As has been shown in the analysis of Sample One, translators may use the manipulation rule of Addition in order to facilitate cultural interaction. That is to say, if culture-deficient exists, some culture-loaded information related to the scenic spots may be added to the target language texts for the sake of demonstrating the Chinese cultural elements and enabling them to interact with foreign cultures partly through the translation.

B.   Manipulation of the Samples with Over-loaded or Tenebrous Information

Apart from addition, there is omission, among other things, which various translators turn to for use as a manipulative method when doing translation. Lefevere calls this kind of manipulative method as 'ideological omissions' (Lefevere, 2004b, p.64). In his book entitled *Translation, Rewriting and the Manipulation of Literary Fame*, Lefevere probes into the different translations of *Anne Frank's Diary*, in which he discusses how translators employ the translation technique of ideological omissions. In the following discussion, instead of calling the manipulation method 'ideological omission', the author of the thesis would like to handle it as 'Omission' and to set aside the factors such as ideology, poetics and then some which are hardly noticeable because they are not something floating on the surface of water, but lying behind the texts, for most of the time.

Sample Two.

The Chinese text:皇极殿是宁寿宫区的正殿，是清乾隆皇帝为自己修建的太上皇的金殿。初建于清康熙年，取名宁寿宫。乾隆四十一年（1776 年）仿乾清宫规制改建，改名皇极殿，作为皇帝弘历归政后当太上皇时临朝受贺之殿。"皇极"出自《尚书》"皇建其有极"，意为天子为天下建立最高准则。 [1]

The English version: *The Hall of Imperial Supremacy (Huangji dian) is the main hall in the area of Palace of Tranquil Longevity (Ningshou gong), which the Qianlong Emperor (1736-1795) built for spending his years after his retirement. Now it was converted into the Treasure Gallery, exhibiting palace paraphernalia and the accessories of emperors and empresses. In the east corridor rooms to the south of the Gate of Concentrated Luck (Ningqi men), the Gallery of Stone Drums, the oldest surviving drum-shaped inscribed stones dating to the Qin dynasty, is installed.* [2]

In the translation of this sample, some information of the source text is deleted or altered to a large extent. For example, the sentences which read"初建于清康熙年，取名宁寿宫。乾隆四十一年（1776 年）仿乾清宫规制改建，改名皇极殿，作为皇帝弘历归政后当太上皇时临朝受贺之殿。 (It means 'It was first built in the times when China was under the emperor of Kangxi in the Qing Dynasty with the name of Ningshou gong, literally means the Palace of Tranquil Longevity. Then, it was renamed as Huangji dian in 1776 when China was under the reign of the emperor Qianlong after being reconstructed modeling the Qianqing Gong, serving as the residence and administrative place for the emperor after his retirement.')" are omitted and altered. And the sentence which reads "'皇极'出自《尚书》'皇建其有极'，意为天子为天下建立最高准则。(This sentence specifies the origin of the Hall's name by quoting the words from a Chinese classic work, of which the translation may go like this: 'Huangji' means the supreme rules set up by a monarch for his country, which is originated from a Chinese classic work entitled 'Shangshu'.)" is totally deleted. Instead, the information is altered as follows:

"Now it was converted into the Treasure Gallery, exhibiting palace paraphernalia and the accessories of emperors and empresses. In the east corridor rooms to the south of the Gate of Concentrated Luck (Ningqi men), the Gallery of Stone Drums, the oldest surviving drum-shaped inscribed stones dating to the Qin dynasty, is installed."

It is not difficult to find out that the omitted and altered information is mainly about the introduction of the Hall's previous names and how its current name comes into being. In particular, the source text quotes a classical Chinese work to amplify the origin of the Hall's name and its connotation, which makes the introduction of the scenic spot appealing to the native Chinese readers. However, this is not the case when it comes to English speaking readers. The translator seems to have focused on the introduction of the current functions and features of the palace. To be more specific, translator elaborates on the fact that the Hall is now used as an exhibiting palace in which there are many cultural treasures exhibited, including the precious drum-shaped inscribed stones, paraphernalia and the accessories of emperors and empresses. By translating the tourism material in such a way, the translator may bring about a rendering loaded with some cultural elements such as the culture-specific and ancient articles and the like which helps the demonstration of the Chinese culture and, moreover, appears more attractive to the target language readers and function well in the target language systems when introducing the scenic spot. Nevertheless, by omitting or altering the source information, there is also some important information missed. For example, by deleting the sentence "乾隆四十一年（1776 年）仿乾清宫规制改建，改名皇极殿 (it was renamed as Huangji dian in 1776 when China was under the reign of Emperor Qianlong after being reconstructed modeling the Qianqing Gong)", the significant information such as when and how the current hall as well as its name comes into being, which to some extent might be considered as a failing for cultural demonstration and cultural communication. Therefore, when employing the manipulative method of Omission in the process of translation, one should pay special attention to the essential information, both cultural and non-cultural. On the whole, it might be safe to say that the translation demonstrates the Chinese culture in the process of translating the tourism materials in a more proper way by omitting or altering certain information of the source text.

C.   Manipulation of the Samples with Culture-specific Information

Another translation technique which would presumably benefit the cultural construction and cultural interaction is the so-called "explanatory note". Lefevere (2004b) claims that "faithfulness" is just one translational strategy, not the only strategy possible, or even allowable, and translators will use the "explanatory note" to ensure that the reader reads the translation – interprets the text – in the "right" way (p.50). He argues that "translated texts as such can teach us much about the interaction of cultures and the manipulation of texts" (Lefevere, 2004b, p.50-51). It is necessary to point

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[1] Official Website of the Palace Museum (Chinese Version) http://www.dpm.org.cn/shtml/62/@/109497.html (Accessed 7/3/2011)
[2] Official Website of the Palace Museum (English Version) http://www.dpm.org.cn/shtml/307/@/109586.html (Accessed7/3/2011)

out that the "explanatory note" here refers to some information contained in the target language texts, which is different from footnote. As to the manipulation method of explanatory note or explanation, Qiu (2008) argues in his article entitled *On Strategies for Translating Chinese Tourism Texts into English: A Manipulative Perspective* that the source texts at times contain some vital cultural information which need to be explained or clarified when they are translated from Chinese into English. Pan (2007) has also discussed the translation method of explanation during the translation of the cultural information contained in tourism materials. He claims that explanation refers to the information in addition to the translation which is the literal interpretation of the words, expressions or sentences of the source texts. Maybe we can understand this manipulative method from the coming sample discussion.

Sample Three.

The Chinese text: 琉璃厂街是以经营古旧书、古玩和文房四宝著称的文化商业街，位于宣武区和平门以南，全长 500 米。琉璃厂街因在元、明时期设窑烧制琉璃瓦而得名，已有 700 多年历史。(Fang Huawen, Chen Zhaojuan, Zuo Wenjing, 2010: 10)

The English version: *Liulichang is a 500-meter-long cultural street displaying and selling ancient books, antiques and four treasures of study, i.e. the writing brush, ink stick, ink slab and paper. It is located in Xuanwu District, facing the Heping Gate in the north. Liulichang (literally, colored glaze workshop) got its present name in that there used to be glazed-tile kilns in this area in the dynasties of Yuan and Ming. Its history dated back to 700 years ago.* (Fang Huawen, Chen Zhaojuan, Zuo Wenjing, 2010: 11, 13)

In Sample Three, when translating the noun phrase "文房四宝 (literally, four treasures of study)", the translator explains it with the following sentence: "… i.e. the writing brush, ink stick, ink slab and paper". For most of the native Chinese, when it comes to "文房四宝 (four treasures of study)", they may know they refer to "笔 (writing brush)，墨 (ink stick)，纸 (paper) and 砚 (ink slab)". However, it's possible that the majority of English-speaking readers are in the dark about what "four treasures of study" refers to, because it is the Chinese culture-specific expression that originated in the period when China was under the reign of the Southern and Northern Dynasties (from 420 A.D. to 589 A.D.). Therefore, on the one hand, the 'explanatory note', to quote the term by Lefevere, ensures the target language readers a better understanding of the source text and, on the other hand, it demonstrates the cultural information specifically and promotes the communication between the Chinese culture and foreign cultures.

D.   Manipulation of the Samples with Culturally Poor Structure

The last manipulative method is Rewriting. Lefevere (2004b) argues that translation is rewriting which can project the image of an author and/or a (series of) work(s) in another culture, lifting that author and/or those works beyond the boundaries of their culture of origin. Many Chinese scholars also advocate rewriting when translating culture-oriented tourism publicities from Chinese into English, among whom may be found such scholars as Qiu Hemin, Pan Ningyu, Guo Haiyan and so forth. We will not discuss too much about the previous studies here but move on directly to the sample analysis.

Sample Four.

The Chinese text: 苏州园林甲天下，已被列入世界文化遗产名录，在中国四大名园中，苏州就占有两席（拙政园、留园）。"吴中第一名胜"虎丘具有 2500 对年的历史形成的深厚的文化积淀，成为游客来苏州旅游的必游之地。而唐朝诗人张继的一首《枫桥夜泊》，使古今游客都要来枫桥，听听寒山寺的钟声。再加上山水之胜，自然、人文景观交相辉映，以及文人墨客题咏吟唱，使苏州成为名副其实的"人间天堂"。(Fang Huawen, Chen Zhaojuan, Zuo Wenjing, 2010: 56)

The English version: *A renowned historical and cultural city in China, Suzhou has long been known as the "Heaven on Earth", endowed with picturesque sceneries and rich in cultural and natural attractions. Suzhou Gardens, with worldwide reputation, have been inscribed on the World Heritage List. Two out of China's Top Four Gardens are located in Suzhou, namely, the Lingering Garden and the Humble Administrator's Garden. The Tiger Hill, known as ancient Suzhou's top tourist attraction, boasts a history of over 2.500 years and a profound cultural heritage, making it a must destination for tourists to Suzhou. The Hanshan Monastery is another admiration of sightseers for its sonorous bell rings, which was recorded in a famous poem, entitled Night Anchoring at Maple Bridge, composed by the famous Tang Poet Zhang Ji.* (Fang Huawen, Chen Zhaojuan, Zuo Wenjing, 2010: 57)

In Sample Four, the translator also rewrites the source text to some extent. The last sentence of the source text, namely,"再加上山水之胜，自然、人文景观交相辉映，以及文人墨客题咏吟唱，使苏州成为名副其实的'人间天堂'(Added by the wonderful mountains and rivers, with natural sceneries, artificial sceneries and cultural relic vying with each other for beauty; besides, famous writers and poets have written articles or poems chanting the praises of Suzhou, all of which fall in line with the fact that it is the real 'Heaven on Earth'.)" is simplified except for the expression of "Heaven on Earth". By rewriting the elegant and culture-specific expressions such as "人文景观交相辉映 (with artificial sceneries and cultural relic vying with each other for beauty)" and "文人墨客题咏吟唱 (famous writers and poets have written articles or poems chanting the praises of Suzhou)" into some easy-to-understand expressions like "picturesque sceneries" and "rich in cultural and natural attractions", the translation appears much more readable and understandable to the target language readers. Moreover, the last sentence of the source text is placed at the beginning of the translation, by which the translator attempts to emphasize the worldwide reputation of Suzhou.

The translation which reads *"A renowned historical and cultural city in China, Suzhou has long been known as the 'Heaven on Earth', endowed with picturesque sceneries and rich in cultural and natural attractions"* is also trying to highlight the fact that Suzhou is renowned for its historical and cultural elements apart from its spectacular scenery. In accordance with the cultural manipulation theory of the school of Translation Studies, the technique the translator has used here can be presumably subsumed under cultural manipulation which promotes the demonstrating of a certain culture and facilitates cultural interactions between different cultures.

From the analysis of this sample, we may find that, by means of Rewriting, some irrelevant or tenebrous information of the source texts is weakened or even ignored during translation, while, some culture-loaded information related to the scenic spot is highlighted, or at whiles, the original information is even replaced by culture-loaded information. This makes the focus of a translation shift to demonstrating or transferring culture-oriented information from translating the source text with the principle of 'fidelity' as traditional translation theories assert.

IV. CONCLUSION

The author of this thesis attempts to use the cultural manipulation theory of the school of Translation Studies to discuss the translation of culture-loaded tourism publicities from Chinese into English. It can be seen from the study that the phenomenon of cultural manipulation in the translation of culture-loaded tourism publicities is quite common and frequent. This may in part lead to the fact that, in the new century, China sees a heated study of the translation of tourism materials from Chinese into English from the perspective of cultural communication and cultural interaction. After the 'cultural turn' in translation studies, the innovative thinking on translation of the school of Translation Studies has aroused scholars' great interest in the field. We may say that there is a trend of studying the translation of culture-loaded tourism publicities from Chinese into English from the new perspective provided by the school of Translation Studies.

Besides, it is safe to draw the conclusion that it is feasible to use cultural manipulation theory to evaluate the translation of culture-loaded tourism publicities from Chinese into English. From the sample analyses we may notice that there are various types of cultural manipulation in the translation of culture-loaded tourism publicities from Chinese into English, which exactly testifies the feasibility of applying the theory into such translation. When trying to evaluate the translation in the light of cultural manipulation theory, we should not go on the wrong track by judging whether it is 'good' or 'bad' using the only standard of traditional thinking on translation, that is, whether or not the translation is 'faithful' or 'equivalent' to the source text. Rather, we should be aware that there are different types of 'faithfulness' and translators may be required to be faithful in some situations and free in others. Therefore, in the light of cultural manipulation theory, we should put our focus on evaluating whether the translation has demonstrated in the culture systems of the target language area the cultural capital of a certain culture properly, and whether the translation has fulfilled the purpose of translation, namely, cultural communication and cultural interaction.

Finally, based on the analyses of the selected samples as well as on the previous studies of the translation of culture-loaded tourism publicities from Chinese into English using the theories of the school of Translation Studies, we may summarize several types of workable manipulation methods when translating culture-loaded tourism publicities from Chinese into English, including Addition, Omission, use of Explanatory note, and Rewriting. However, translators should be careful when trying to use them. Because, if they are not used properly, some over-loaded information might be added to the translation, or some cultural elements of the source texts might be left out, which would cause a failure to cultural communication and cultural interaction.

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Iranian EFL Learners' Perception and Performance of Communication Strategies in Different Mediums of Communication

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Abstract—**Although language learners spend years developing their competences, they sometimes experience the frustration of not being able to communicate. They have problems in communication mostly due to their insufficient knowledge, but they rely on their ability to communicate within restrictions, using common communication strategies. This descriptive study was set to find out learners' attitudes towards communication strategies and examined areas they vary by medium (oral and written performances), and compared them with their performances. To this end, 100 EFL learners, majoring in English, were selected and asked to fill out a 24 item questionnaire, developed based on Dornyei's taxonomy eliciting their attitudes towards the use of communication strategies in their oral and written performances; later on 60 EFL learners' oral and written performances were analyzed and compared to perceptions. Descriptive statistics showed that the learners' perceptions and performances of communication strategies vary by medium, and some strategies are, generally, used more frequently than others. Moreover, it was revealed that in some cases learners' perceptions and performance are in line with each other, while in some others they are distinct.**

Index Terms—**interlanguage, oral performance, written performance, communication strategies**

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is defined as "the system of human communication which consists of the structured arrangement of sounds into larger units" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 283), hence the ability to communicate is the optimal goal for all language learners, because one knows a language when he understands that language and be understood by the speakers of that language. However, there are always some deficiencies in communication and speakers should try to compensate for the gaps to prevent communication breakdowns; communication strategies (CSs) are useful tools to keep the communication channel open.

The notion of CSs was first introduced by Selinker (1972) in his seminal article entitled *interlanguag* to talk about some errors in learners' interlangauge. He argued that errors are made due to learners' will to communicate; in fact they want to express themselves by means of their insufficient knowledge of language. A working definition for CSs was suggested by Corder (1981, p103) as "systematic technique employed by the speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty." This definition opened the doors of research to explore CSs closely and systematically, which led to proposing different taxonomies. According to Kongsom (2009), some noteworthy and frequently cited taxonomies are those provided by Varadi (1973); Tarone (1978); Faerch and Kasper (1983); Nijmegen project (1989); Bialystok (1990); and Dornyei (1995).

To the present time a great deal of research has been done to investigate the use of CSs. Ellis (1984) mentioned that CSs can be considered as a good notion for evaluating L2 communicative performance. He emphasized teachers can understand a lot about the learners' knowledge by examining the CSs they employ. Faerch and Kasper (1983) and Bialystok (1990) regarded the use of CSs as cognitive processes in producing sentences when the speakers encounter language deficiencies. Furthermore, Bialystok said that looking at CSs just in surface structure is too simplistic, and to study CSs comprehensively cognitive and psycholinguistic matters must be considered as well (cited in Kongsom, 2009).

Zheng (2004) found that CSs are inevitable in oral communication for language learners, since these strategies keep speakers flexible, and confident, they also make communication more effective. Puffer (2006) mentioned speaking in L2, specially in real life tasks, is very demanding for language learners because they have to think about choice of words, discourse, grammatical points, etc; therefore, they may encounter gaps in their communication; moreover, while writing in second language, language learners encounter difficulties in goal setting, generating and organizing the material to convey the message (Silva, 1993); therefore, there is a need for use of CSs to meet the goal of communication in both oral and written performances.

Research on attitude has been popular in last 50 years, due to increasing interest in relating language to thinking (Saidat, 2010). The importance of beliefs and attitudes has been of great interest for many scholars from different disciplines, in which human behavior and learning are the primary concerns like cognitive psychology, educational

psychology and social psychology (Gabillon, 2005). Gardners' socioeducational model of language learning (1985) incorporated learners' cultural beliefs, integretiveness, motivation and attitudes into learning a language(cited in Williams & Burden 1997). This has encouraged researchers to investigate this phenomenon in studies on language learning

Barkhuizen (1998) believed that teachers have to discover learners' feelings and beliefs about their language learning experiences and consequently to review and sometimes even change their teaching activities. Questionnaires are often used as instruments in attitude studies. The questions in such questionnaires are considered as a valuable source in giving a general and comprehensive picture of how people think about that issue.

Baker (1992) opted that in general sense, an attitude is a hypothetical construct aiming at explaining the direction and persistence of human behavior. He also mentioned three major reasons for investigating learners' attitudes "its close connection to individual construct systems, its value as an indicator of viewpoints in the community, and its centrality in psychological theory and research assets to attitude as a central topic."(P.10)

Wei (2011) found out that learners' attitudes has some influence on the use of CSs; EFL learners tend to employ reduction strategies most often and seldom opt for achievement strategies, although they tend to believe the important role of achievement strategies in communication.

Generally it can be concluded that investigating the use of CSs by language learner reveals a lot about the learners' interlanguage; therefore, the present study is set to investigate learners' attitudes towards the use of CSs in their oral and written communication and compare them with their performances; in fact in this study the researcher attempted to answer the following question:

What are Iranian EFL learners' perceptions about CSs, and how are they different from their performances in different mediums of communication?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

as in this study EFL university students' perception and performances were under investigation, 100 Iranian EFL BA level university students, both male and female who shared Persian as their mother tongue, were randomly selected and asked to fill out the questionnaire, and later in the second phase of the study 60 EFL students were asked to accomplish an oral and a written task.

B. Instruments

To collect data related to learners' perceptions of CS a questionnaire conducted by Kongsom (2009) was adopted. This 24- item questionnaire was designed based on Dornyei's taxonomy (1995) of CSs. Since each two questions investigate learners' attitudes towards one strategy in oral and written performances, the provided answers are more reliable as they were cross checked. Although participants were informed of the format of the questionnaire, to make sure that no misunderstanding arises, the questionnaire was translated in to participants' mother tongue, Persian. Two visual aids in the form of posters were also used for oral and written data elicitation.

C. Procedure

In order to meet the goals of the study two sets of data were needed to be collected, one related to the learners' perceptions and the other to the learners' real performances of CSs in oral and written mediums of communication. First participants were asked to fill out the questionnaire and later they were invited to sessions of data elicitation. Data collection procedure for the second set of data was carried out in two main oral and written phases. In the oral phase, in order to divide the task into manageable sections, participants were divided into groups of five for taking part in group discussion sessions. Their performances were sound recorded, and transcribed for further analysis. All the paralinguistic strategies were jotted down at the moment by the researcher. For the written phase, participants were asked to write about a topic at the moment. Bialystok (1990, cited in Bou-Franch, 1994) believes CS taxonomies mostly differ in terminology; however, in the present study Dornyei's taxonomy was used to analyze the data as it is more comprehensive than the previous ones. This taxonomy is presented in table 1.

TABLE 1.
DORNYEI'S TAXONOMY OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Dornyei's taxonomy of CSs	
Avoidance or Reduction Strategies	
1. Message abandonment	leaving a message unfinished because of language difficulties.
2. Topic avoidance	avoiding topic areas or concepts which pose language difficulties
Achievement or Compensatory Strategies	
3. Circumlocution	describing or exemplifying the target object or action (e.g., the thing you open bottles with for corkscrew).
4. Approximation	using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible (e.g., ship for sail boat).
5. Use of all-purpose words	extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking (e.g., the overuse of thing, stuff, make, do, as well as using words like thingie, what-do-you-call-it).
6. Word-coinage	creating a nonexisting L2 word based on a supposed rule (e.g., vegetarianist for vegetarian).
7. Use of nonlinguistic means	mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation.
8. Literal translation	translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1 to L2.
9. Foreignizing	using a L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonologically (i.e., with L2 pronunciation) and/or morphologically (e.g., adding to it a L2 suffix).
10. Code switching	using a L1 word with L1 pronunciation or a L3 word with L3 pronunciation in L2.
11. Appeal for help	turning to the conversation partner for help either directly (e.g.,What do you call . . . ?) or indirectly (e.g., rising intonation, pause, eye contact, puzzled expression).
Stalling or Time-gaining Strategies	
12. Use of fillers/hesitation devices	using filling words or gambits to fill pauses and to gain time to think (e.g., well, now let me see, as a matter of fact) Dornyei (1995)

(Dornyei, 1995, p.58)

III. RESULTS

In the following, learners' perceptions and performances of each CS in oral and written mediums of communication are discussed in details.

1. Message Abandonment

Learners' attitudes towards this strategy was investigated in Questions 14 and 15, answering to which showed that negative attitude prevailed positive and neutral ones in both oral and written mediums.

TABLE 2.
MESSAGE ABANDONMENT

Message Abandonment					Positive	Neutral	Negative
group	oral	14			6.00	18.00	76.00
		15			11.00	23.00	66.00
		Total	N		2	2	2
	written	14			5.00	22.00	73.00
		15			7.00	22.00	71.00
		Total	N		2	2	2
	Total		N		4	4	4

In their oral performances, participants used it 50 times which shows that their perceptions and performances were quite different. In written performances, however, this strategy was only for 2 times which indicates that in written performances, by contrast to oral, students' perception and performance are remarkably similar.

2. Topic Avoidance

Questions 10 and 22 investigated participants' attitudes towards topic avoidance; as the frequencies summarized in table3. reveals the fact that participants adopted positive a attitude in oral, while a negative attitude towards this strategy in written communication.

TABLE 3.
TOPIC AVOIDANCE

Topic Avoidance				Positive	Neutral	Negative
group	oral	10		42.00	31.00	27.00
		22		30.00	35.00	35.00
		Total	N	2	2	2
	written	10		35.00	18.00	32.00
		22		28.00	14.00	44.00
		Total	N	2	2	2
	Total		N	4	4	4

In their performances they used this CS in oral performances frequently, 366 times, which was in line with their perception, but 208 time in their written performances which was against their perceptions; therefore, it can be concluded that they were not aware of the frequent use of this CS in their written performances but in oral.

3. Circumlocution

Questions 1 and 20 were set to investigate participants' attitudes towards circumlocution. As the frequencies in table 4. suggest participants adopted a strongly positive attitude towards this strategy.

TABLE 4.
CICUMLOCUTION

Circumlocution				Positive	Neutral	Negative
group	oral	1		56.00	29.00	15.00
		20		79.00	15.00	6.00
		Total	N	2	2	2
	written	1		30.00	35.00	35.00
		20		62.00	26.00	12.00
		Total	N	2	2	2
	Total		N	4	4	4

With regards to the performances, however, they did not use this strategy as frequently as they perceived, 18 times in oral and 14 times in written. It can be concluded that students did not use the strategy as much as they perceived.

4. Approximation

Answers to questions 2 and 21 (Table 5) indicate that positive attitude was prevailing to negative and neutral attitudes towards approximation in oral and written mediums of communication.

TABLE 5.
APPROXIMATION

Approximation				Positive	Neutral	Negative
group	oral	2		51.00	29.00	20.00
		21		79.00	15.00	6.00
		Total	N	2	2	2
	written	2		41.00	33.00	26.00
		21		60.00	24.00	10.00
		Total	N	2	2	2
	Total		N	4	4	4

In both oral and written performances participants used this strategy frequently too, 176 and 137 times respectively, which shows that their perceptions and performances of the use of this CS are well coordinated.

5. Use of All Purpose Words

Questions 16 and 3 were designed to investigate learners' perceptions of the use of all purpose words in communication. As shown in table 6. Learners adopted a negative attitude towards this strategy in both oral and written mediums of communication.

TABLE 6.
USE OF ALL PURPOSE WORDS

Use of All-purpose Words

group				Positive	Neutral	Negative
group	oral	3		56.00	25.00	19.00
		16		13.00	31.00	54.00
		Total	N	2	2	2
	written	3		44.00	27.00	29.00
		16		8.00	28.00	64.00
		Total	N	2	2	2
	Total		N	4	4	4

However, participants did not perform as they perceived in oral performances; they used this strategy 57 times which reveals that this CS was effective in preventing communication breakdowns. In written performances, on the other hand, they used this strategy 10 times which shows that their negative attitude was not completely manifested in their written performances.

6. Word Coinage

As reported in Table7. with regards to word coinage, students insisted that they never do it in their communication, and negative attitudes towards this strategy strongly prevails positive and neutral attitudes.

TABLE 7.
WORD COINAGE

Word Coinage

group				Positive	Neutral	Negative
group	oral	4		111.00	15.00	74.00
		23		10.00	17.00	73.00
		Total	N	2	2	2
	written	4		7.00	12.00	81.00
		23		5.00	22.00	73.00
		Total	N	2	2	2
	Total		N	4	4	4

However this strategy was observed 10 times in the performances, 5 times in each medium. It can be concluded that students negative attitudes towards this CS, to some extent, was manifested in their performances and they used it whenever there were no other ways to save the communication.

7. Use of Nonlinguistic Means

With regard to this strategy, it was observed that negative attitudes prevails positive and neutral attitudes. The answers to questions 5 and 12 are summarized in table 8.

TABLE8.
USE OF NONLIGUISTIC MEANS

Use of Nonlinguistic Mean

group				Positive	Neutral	Negative
group	oral	5		34.00	23.00	43.00
		12		35.00	32.00	33.00
		Total	N	2	2	2
	Total		N	2	2	2

However, in their performances they used it 52 times which shows that their perception and performance were completely distinct.

8. Literal Translation

Participants perceived literal translation as a useless one and strongly insisted to show negative attitudes towards this CS, the frequencies related to questions 6 and 17 presented in table9. support this fact.

TABLE 9.
LITERAL TRANSLATION

Literal Translation					Positive	Neutral	Negative
group	oral	6			20.00	38.00	41.00
		17			9.00	44.00	47.00
		Total	N		2	2	2
	written	6			18.00	28.00	54.00
		17			9.00	34.00	57.00
		Total	N		2	2	2
	Total		N		4	4	4

The performances, however, were completely different from perceptions. Learners used this strategy constantly in both oral and written performances, 250 and 202 times respectively. It is concluded that learners' perception and performance were quite distinct.

9. Foreignizing

Questions 7 and 24 were set to investigate learners' attitudes towards foreignizing. As the figures in table 10. suggest negative attitudes highly prevails positive and neutral attitudes towards this CS.

TABLE10.
FOREIGNIZING

Foreignizing					Positive	Neutral	Negative
group	oral	7			7.00	5.00	88.00
		24			6.00	7.00	87.00
		Total	N		2	2	2
	Total		N		2	2	2

Participants' perception is met in their real performances, since they used this strategy just for 2 times.

10. Code Switching

The frequencies presented in table 11, regarding the answers to questions 8 and 25, show that participants strongly disagree with the use of this CS as a useful one and adopted a negative attitude towards it.

TABLE 11.
CODE SWITCHING

Code Switching					Positive	Neutral	Negative
group	oral	8			24.00	19.00	57.00
		18			9.00	35.00	56.00
		Total	N		2	2	2
	written	8			12.00	15.00	73.00
		18			11.00	18.00	71.00
		Total	N		2	2	2
	Total		N		4	4	4

In their performances, however, they used this CS 34 times in oral and 11 times in written performances, which shows that their performances are different from their perception.

11. Appeal for Help

Generally participants adopted a positive attitude towards this strategy both in oral and written performances. The frequencies related to questions 9 and 19 are presented in table 12.

TABLE 12.
APPEAL FOR HELP

Appeal For Help

				Positive	Neutral	Negative
group	oral	9		53.00	30.00	17.00
		19		49.00	35.00	16.00
		Total	N	2	2	2
	written	9		42.00	42.00	16.00
		19		40.00	38.00	22.00
		Total	N	2	2	2
	Total		N	4	4	4

Participants used this CS 31 times in their performances which shows that they performed as they perceived. It should be noted that since taking this strategy in to account in written performances was not manageable, students were not allowed to ask any questions during the process of written performance and this CS was only examined in their oral performances.

12. Time Gaining

Learners' attitudes towards this CS were investigated in questions 11 and 13, in which they adopted a positive attitude towards it (table 13).

TABLE 13.
TIME GAINING

Time Gaining

				Positive	Neutral	Negative
group	oral	11		50.00	37.00	13.00
		13		42.00	41.00	17.00
		Total	N	2	2	2
	Total		N	2	2	2

Participants used this strategy 326 times in their oral performances which shows that their perception and performance are coordinated. since adopting this strategy was impossible to be coded in their written performances, the oral performances were only examined

Generally speaking, negative attitude was prevailing to positive and neutral attitudes; however, learners used CSs frequently in their performances. It indicates that their perceptions and performances are not in line in the use of CSs. Comparing answers in two sections of the questionnaire, i.e. oral and written mediums, the researchers found that learners thought CSs are more helpful in oral performances rather than written ones, which was coordinated with their real performances as CSs were used more frequently in oral performances rather than written ones.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Although the optimal goal of all language learners is to communicate effectively, after years of study the problem still exists and they have some problems in their communications, both in oral and written performances. The problem exists even among university students who have chosen English as their field of study. The reason of such failure is beyond the scope of this study, however, what has been investigated here is how learners think they can overcome these inabilities in communication, and to what extent their perceptions and real performances coordinate; in fact, in this study the researcher was after finding out if students are aware of their use of CSs. As mentioned previously some reported attitudes were not in line with performances which can be discussed through various perspectives.

Generally speaking students showed negative attitudes towards the use of CSs; however, they used them frequently in their performances. This can be discussed from different linguistic, sociolinguitic, and psycholonguistic perspectives. The first and the most important matter is that students are not aware of their frequent use of CSs which shows they are not aware of their language deficiencies or they may just resist accepting their deficiencies.

Although negative attitude prevailed positive and neutral attitudes, participants claimed that CSs are more helpful in oral performances rather than written ones. Faerch and Kasper (1980) held that CSs can be defined based on two main criteria: problem orientedness and consciousness. Considering the former CSs are used when learners come across some problems in communication unable to solve, while the latter implies that the learners are already aware of the problems in the course of communication so they will try to solve the problem; therefore, CSs can be defined as conscious plans to be used for solving communication problems. Hence, based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that learners are either aware of the fact that keeping oral communication channel open is more difficult than written, and they are generally aware of the basic differences between oral and written mediums of communication, or

learners admitted that they have more problems in oral communication rather than written, in fact they believed that they encounter deficiencies in oral performances more than written ones.

Findings of this study are of great significance for language teachers and material designers. Using CSs, students will not feel any need to improve their knowledge of language, because they can keep communication channel open by the help of these strategies. Additionally, they may help learners remain in a conversation and so provide the learners with more input, more opportunities for checking and validating their hypotheses, and consequently, more chances to develop their interlanguage system (Mariani, 2010); therefore, if teachers find out more about the strategies, they will find more about the problem areas to be catered for in the classroom. On the other hands teachers can teach students how to use these CSs without producing erroneous sentences. Material designers, still, will find the study useful in the process of material preparation. They can find problem areas to put more emphasis on, and also provide opportunities for students to learn how to use strategies effectively in their communication.

Any research has some limitations and the present study is no exception. There were no classification based on proficiency levels, and also there were no interviews to find out more about learners perception or think aloud sessions to find what was really happened in the learners' minds during the course of performance. Taking such variables in to considerations will surely provide a more comprehensive view to CSs.

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Translation and Culture: Translating Idioms between English and Chinese from a Cultural Perspective

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Abstract—**Translation is not only an interlingual communication, but a cross-cultural transfer, which involves a comparative study of the SL culture and TL culture. In translating cultural specificities, especially idioms, two criteria are proposed, *informativeness* and *effectiveness*, by which three translation methods are thus suggested: 1) literal translation; 2) literal translation with footnotes or explanatory phrases; 3) equivalent or corresponding TL idioms. A skillful use of those methods, subject to different contexts and purposes, serves to promote cultural exchange between English and Chinese. This contribution, in turn, aims to usher in further in-depth study of relations between culture and translation.**

Index Terms—**culture, translation, idioms, informativeness, effectiveness**

I. Language, Culture and Translation

Translation has traditionally been perceived as an interlingual communication, whereas some translation theorists, like Hans J. Vermeer, are vigorously against the conception of translation as simply a matter of language but view translation primarily as a cross-cultural transfer or intercultural communication (Bassnett & Lefevere, 1990).

The probe into this type of intercultural communication is first beset by a major problem caused by the disagreement over the ambiguous and intriguing concept of *culture*. The definitions of *culture* amount to over 200, each from its own perspective. The classic definition is presented by Edward Burnett Tylor (1920), father of cultural anthropology:

Culture, or civilization, taken in its broad, ethnographic sense, is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society. (p.1)

It is an all-inclusive definition, one of his most widely recognized contributions to anthropology and the study of religion.

Some definitions of *culture* have a direct bearing on translation. Ward H. Goodenough, an American ethnologist, maintains that culture is the forms of things that people have in mind, their models for perceiving, relating, and otherwise interpreting them (Nord, 1997). It has served as a general starting point for functionalist approaches to translation, first introduced into the study of cross-cultural communication and slightly modified by Göhring. On the basis of Göhring's perception, Vermeer accentuates the following features of culture:

a) dynamic qualities, focusing on human action and behavior;

b) comprehensiveness, regarding culture as a complex system determining any human action or behavior, including language; and

c) the possibility of it being used as a starting point for a descriptive and explicative or prescriptive approach to culture-specificity. (ibid)

Views of culture may differ, but some common grounds can still be found: translation theorists or linguists all agree upon the close link between language and culture. Vermeer sees language as an intrinsic part of culture, whose view is shared by Mary Snell-Hornby particularly when culture is defined as "a totality of knowledge, proficiency and perception" (Nord, 1997, p.23). John Lyons (1968), an English linguist, too, considers the language of a particular society as an integral part of its culture, who holds that the lexical distinctions drawn by each language will tend to reflect the culturally-important features of objects, institutions and activities in the society in which the language operates. Equally aware of the inseparability of language and culture, Nida (1993) believes that since culture is generalized as "the totality of beliefs and practices of a society", nothing is more strategically significant than the language through which its beliefs are expressed and conveyed and by which most interaction of its members happens (p.105). Slightly different is how Peter Newmark (1988) perceives language and culture, who does not, operationally, think of language as a component of features of culture, but refers culture to the way of life and its manifestations characteristic of a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression. No matter whether those theorists regard language as part of culture or not, they all acknowledge that language and culture are closely connected or interdependent. It is, therefore, not surprising that language and culture are sometimes spoken of as "languaculture" —a single entity (Nord, 1997, p.25).

Since language and culture are interrelated, and translation is conceived of as an interlingual communication as well as a process of cultural transfer, translators are almost always required to be both bilingually and biculturally competent. For truly expert translating, biculturalism matters even more than bilingualism, as words only have meanings in terms of the culture in which they operate, and the understanding of the source-language text is influenced and conditioned by the culture. On the other hand, the translator, as a special type of reader and an insider of his own culture, cannot always be a passkey to opening all the cultural locks. He cannot completely transcend the boundaries of his own cultural heritage into the world of the other. He himself, sometimes, may be too locked into his own cultural way of thinking to be able to share other cultures. Hence, the degree of difficulty and the quality of translation have more to do with culture than with language itself.

II. A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF CULTURES INVOLVED IN TRANSLATION

The translator's knowledge of the cultures concerned is based, consciously or unconsciously, on a comparative study of them. In other words, translating means comparing cultures. This comparison indicates that the translator interprets source-culture phenomena in the light of his own culture-specific knowledge of that culture, from either the inside or the outside, dependent upon the direction of translation, whether from or into the translator's native language-and-culture. The concepts of one's own culture will thus be used as the touchstones for the perception of otherness. Comparing cultures embraces both cultural similarities and differences.

As anthropologists note, cultural similarities, like the recognition of reciprocity and equity in inter-personal relation, the response to human kindness and love, the desire for meaning in life, which unite different peoples in a common humanity, far outweigh cultural differences that divide people into distinct groups. Thanks to the similarities in mental process, somatic responses, range of cultural experience and capacity of adjustment to the behavior patterns of others, a high degree of effective communication is possible among all people. Most important is the fact that all people tend to reason in much the same way. In a discourse, for instance, the ordering of elements may vary considerably, but the underlying logic of consequential relations is amazingly similar. Despite the existence of differences, one is able to imagine how other people organize their thoughts and reason, and how the people of another language-culture may rightly differ in their behavior and values. Those elements that can help the translator cross the cultural frontiers are what Wilss terms "universals" (Gentzler, 1993, p.58). It is just those cultural universals that provide a basis for mutual understanding, which, in turn, makes translation and cultural exchange at all possible.

However, one cannot face fairly the translator's problems without reckoning with the many and sometimes striking differences between cultures, since cultural diversities or cultural conflicts are, after all, the major reasons for the breakdown of cross-cultural communication. Cultural differences have a direct bearing on the problems of understanding and expression encountered in translation. Everything observed as being different from our own culture is specific to the other culture, whereas cultural difference, whether between language-pairs that are culturally closely related or those with only distant cultural connections, is one of degree and not of kind (Bassnett & Lefevere, 1990). The divide between Chinese culture and western culture ranks quite high with the greatest number of cultural factors subject to variation and the least commonality.

Exploring cultural differences requires a valid and more general classification of culture as the specific cultural phenomena are too numerous to be accounted for. However, the ways to categorize are no less varied than the definitions of culture. In a broad sense, culture is subdivided into *paraculture* (the norms, rules and conventions valid for an entire society), *diaculture* (norms, rules and conventions valid for a particular group within the society, such as a club, a firm, or a regional entity) and *idioculture* (the culture of an individual person as opposed to other individuals) (Nord, 1997). In a restricted sense, Newmark and Nida classify it into five groups: ecology, material, social, religious and linguistic culture. This paper prefers to group culture into historical, geographical, customary and religious perspectives. An example from the perspective of historical culture is cited in the following to show the cultural differences between Chinese and English:

Historical culture evolves with a particular historical development. It is the product of social heritage and differs with histories. Some idioms with reference to a particular historical figure pose a challenge to translation. For instance, if the Chinese idiom "东施效颦" is rendered literally into English, unaware of the cultural connotations, as "Dong Shi imitates a frown" or "Dong Shi imitates Xi Shi", westerners will definitely feel at a loss about who Dong Shi and Xi Shi are, or what this phrase means. This idiom comes from a Chinese historical story, in which Xi Shi (西施) was a beauty during the end of Spring and Autumn Period in the ancient State of Yue, who often frowned exhibiting sexualized frailty and suffering, whereas Dong Shi (东施), the exact opposite of Xi Shi in being extremely ugly, emphasized her own ugliness while imitating Xi Shi's frown. The idiom has taken on a meaning to signify one's vain attempt imitating another only to emphasize one's own weaknesses. With the specific cultural connotation considered, "东施效颦" is better rendered as "Ugly Dong Shi blindly imitates beautiful Xi Shi's frown with ludicrous effect" to make it meaningful.

III. METHODS OF TRANSLATING CULTURAL SPECIFICITIES

In light of the vast and striking differences between Chinese and western cultures, the difficulty encountered in

translating can be fairly understood, especially in translating texts with distinctive cultural features or culture-specific conventions. In translating such texts, usually there are two opposite approaches: to translate literally in a bid to convey the maximum cultural messages or to adapt to the target-culture in order to evoke the greatest effect. Practically, neither is all-powerful under any circumstance. Literal translation, if used in improper situations, will throw the reader into an abyss of bewilderment and, as a result, fail the purpose of translation. The nationalization of a foreign culture in the interest of the reader, on the other hand, provides only momentary gratification at the cost of concealing cultural differences and disparities and eliminating cultural consciousness caused by different cultural backgrounds. Further, they either overestimate or underestimate the reader's acceptability.

As an intercultural communication, translation aims at translating culture, bridging the two worlds of source-language (SL) author and the target language (TL) reader, and the two cultural domains. To translate is to seek the highest possible degree of cultural exchange through the translator's tough work of comparing, introducing, absorbing, etc. Based on this revelation, two translation criteria should therefore be noted: *informativeness* and *effectiveness*, which make up the degree of cultural exchange. To put it plainly, the more cultural messages of a SL text are transferred to the TL text, the more informative the cultural exchange, particularly where there are vast differences, and the more tactfully the cultural messages are expressed, the more effective the cultural exchange. It is favourable to attain an equilibrium between the two, but sometimes this task is hard indeed. When there is a conflict, *informativeness* usually takes priority, with a moderate degree of *effectiveness*, to convey as much cultural information as possible and fulfill the purpose of cultural exchange. This approach will be applied to the translation of idioms between English and Chinese.

IV. TRANSLATING IDIOMS

Idioms are combinations of words whose meanings cannot be deduced from the meanings of the individual parts. They are heavily culturally-loaded phrases or sentences, usually highly specialized in meaning and closely tied to distinctive cultural features and attitudes. Idioms belong to figurative language, in which cultural differences are often mirrored and from which translation problems often arise. Here the term "idiom" is used in its broad sense, encompassing phrase, clause and sentence idioms (proverbs and sayings). In translating idioms, by the criteria of informativeness and effectiveness, three methods are recommended:
  a) literal translation
  b) literal translation with footnotes or explanatory phrases
  c) equivalent or corresponding TL idioms
Note that those methods of translating idioms should be used in proper situations, subject to certain restrictions respectively, and that different ways of translation are rarely cases of "right" versus "wrong", but of appropriateness. In the following, those methods are explained and exemplified, with their restrictions specified, in an effort to strike a balance between informativeness and effectiveness in idiom translation.

A. Literal Translation

Some translation theorists like Nida have stated that figurative expressions, including idioms, can rarely be translated literally, but for the sake of cultural transfer and informativeness, literal translation can be applied on the condition that effectiveness is achieved to certain degree. For instance, "*A cat has nine lives*" is appropriately rendered into Chinese as "猫有九条命", the literal translation of which not only conveys the same figurative meaning that one has a good chance of surviving harsh conditions, but also retains the original image of "cat" (猫) as well. Though the English idiom is rooted in western culture, it is well understood and accepted by Chinese readers. Therefore, as long as the translated idioms pose few problems to TL readers, literal translation is a good way to promote cultural exchange. This method is often used in the following situations to maintain its advantages:
  1. *when the SL idiom's figurative meaning is conveyed by the form and self-evident*
  (1)   (SL) 不入**虎穴**焉得**虎子**?
              (TL) How can one obtain **tiger cubs** without entering the **tiger's lair**?
  (2)   (SL) **Blood** is thicker than **water**.
              (TL) 血浓于水
In example (1), the literal translation conveys the figurative meaning of "how can one gain without taking any risk", since it is evident that it takes great risk to enter the tiger's lair. Besides, the images of *tiger cubs* (虎子)and the *tiger's lair* (虎穴) are understood and accepted in both cultures. In example (2), the meaning of the literally translated Chinese idiom "血浓于水" is self-evident that the bonds of family and common ancestry are stronger than those bonds between unrelated people (such as friendship). Similarly, the images of *blood* (血) and *water* (水) are retained in the target culture, evoking the same effect.
  2. *when the SL idiom is used in either its literal sense or figurative sense, or both, to make a pun or achieve some other special purposes*
  (3)   (SL) "Oh! Tell us about her, Auntie," cried Imogen, "I can't just remember her.
              She is **the skeleton in the family cupboard**, isn't she? ..."

"She wasn't much *a skeleton* as I remember her," murmured Euphemia,
"extremely well covered."

(TL)"哦！请给我们讲讲她的事儿吧，好姑妈，"伊莫金喊道："我简直不记得她了，她是我们家**衣柜里的骷髅，见不得人**，是吗？……"

"我记得她并不像是**骷髅**，"尤菲米娅低声说，"肌肉顶丰满呢。"

Example (3) illustrates a special usage of the idiom "*a skeleton in the cupboard*", whose figurative sense of "a shame in the family" (见不得人) is used by the first speaker while whose literal sense of "a very thin person" (骷髅) is used by the second speaker. Thus, a literal translation is adopted, keeping the image of a "skeleton" (骷髅), to make the communication meaningful and effective.

Literal translation of idioms has great advantages in terms of cultural exchange by keeping the images, but there are still many cases in which simple literal translation may cause misunderstanding or incomprehensibility, and as a result, reduce the effectiveness of communication. In such cases, the translator should resort to other methods.

B.   Literal Translation with Footnotes or Explanatory Phrases

In order to convey the most possible cultural information of the SL idiom effectively, the image and the figurative meaning should both be transferred to the TL text. When literal translation fails to fulfill this task, some supplementary measures are employed, such as footnotes or explanatory phrases. The explanation can be added in the form of a supplementary part following a dash, a coordinate part, the logical predicate of the literal translation or even another sentence. It usually functions in the following ways:

1. *to decipher the figurative meaning of the SL idiom*
(4)   (SL) Achilles' heel
           (TL) 阿基里斯的脚后跟——**唯一弱点**

In example (4), if translated literally alone, the idiom "*Achilles' heel*"(阿基里斯的脚后跟) makes no sense to Chinese readers though the image of *Achilles*, a great warrior in the Trojan War, is retained. To remedy this deficiency, the explanatory phrase "唯一弱点" (the only deadly weakness) is added to make clear its figurative meaning while keeping the cultural image.

2. *to explain the cultural background or characteristics of the image used in the SL idiom*
(5)   (SL) 三个臭皮匠，合成一个**诸葛亮**。
           (TL) Three cobblers with their wits combined would equal ***Zhuge Liang the mastermind***.

Case (5) outlines the cultural characteristics of the image in the SL idiom ***Zhuge Liang*** (诸葛亮), who was a chancellor of the state of Shu Han during the Three Kingdoms period of Chinese history and is often recognized as the wisest individual in China. Thus, his name *Zhuge Liang* is followed by an appositive "the mastermind" to render this information explicit.

3. *to translate the omitted part and implied sense, or to indicate the undertone*

Some SL idioms are often shortened into simplified forms without changing their figurative meanings at all, e.g. *Jack of all trades*, which is the shortened form of *Jack of all trades and master of none*. To the TL reader, the literal translation of most shortened forms of the SL idioms cannot carry as many cultural messages as they do to the SL reader.
(6)   (SL) It is the old story of ***the stitch in time***.
           (TL) 还是那句老话：**及时缝一针，可以省九针**。

In case (6), "*the stitch in time*" is the shortened form of "*a stitch in time saves nine*", which means if you sort out a problem immediately it may save a lot of extra work later. To make the literal translation meaningful and the image intact, the omitted part "saves nine" (可以省九针) is supplemented in the translation.

This method serves to strength the advantages of literal translation while increasing its effectiveness. However, footnotes or explanatory phrases may seem quite wordy and cause some pragmatic problems, like the lack of space. In light of the disadvantages, replacing the SL idiom with an equivalent or corresponding TL idiom can be a simpler option.

C.   Equivalent or Corresponding TL Idioms

Using an equivalent or corresponding TL idiom to replace the SL idiom can render explicit the figurative meaning and transfer effectively the cultural messages, but this method should be used on the premise that the SL idiom and the corresponding TL idiom are really equivalent in meaning, style, colouring, etc. But sometimes this approach risks sacrificing the original cultural images. Employing an equivalent TL idiom has another benefit that both the SL and TL idioms enjoy an approximately equivalent level of idiomatic speech, so that one does not seem more scholarly or more stilted than the other. It is advisable that this method be applied in the following situations:

1. *with the same figurative meaning and a similar image*
(7)   (SL) to add **fuel** to the **flame**
           (TL) **火**上加**油**
(8)   (SL) to **fish** in **troubled waters**

(TL) 混水摸鱼
(9)　　(SL) a **drop** in the **ocean**
　　(TL) 沧海一粟

Examples (7) to (9) have the same figurative meanings and the same or similar images, for instance, *flame* (火) and *fuel* (油) in (7), *troubled waters* (混水) and *fish* (鱼) in (8), *ocean* (沧海) and *drop* (粟) in (9). They are equivalent in style and colouring, and highly effective in transferring most of the cultural messages carried by the SL idioms.

2. *with the same figurative meaning but without any images in both SL and the TL idioms, or with images in the TL idiom but not loaded with strong national colouring*
(10)　　(SL) at one's wit's end
　　　　(TL) 智穷才尽
(11)　　(SL) 少年老成
　　　　(TL) to have an old **head** on young **shoulders**

Case (10) enjoys the same figurative meaning with no images in both SL and the TL idioms while case (11) has the images of "head" and "shoulders" in the TL idiom, which are not present in the SL idiom.

3. *with the same figurative meaning but different images*
(12)　　(SL) 血流如注
　　　　(TL) to bleed like a **pig**
(13)　　(SL) 一贫如洗
　　　　(TL) as poor as a **church mouse**

In those examples above, the images differ, with *pig* for "注"(spout) in (12) and *a church mouse* for "洗" (washed) in (13). As this method invariably results in a loss of cultural information, it is recommended only when a literal translation cannot provide a comprehensible TL text and the addition of footnotes or explanatory phrases may create a too wordy text.

This method of employing an equivalent or corresponding TL idiom should be used with great care on the premise that both SL and TL idioms have the same figurative meaning. But some seeming equivalents are actually different. They are termed "false friends", which refer to "SL and TL items which have the same or very similar form but different meanings, and which consequently give rise to difficulties in translation (and indeed interlingual communication in general)" (Shuttleworth & Cowie, 2004, pp.57-58). For instance, the English idiom "hair stands on end" and the Chinese "equivalent" "怒发冲冠" are similar in form but they are in fact false friends since the former indicates "fear" or "terror" while the latter suggests "anger". In idiom translation, once we encounter a happy equivalent with a similar form we should be on our guard. Similar examples are:

English idioms	meaning	False friends in Chinese	meaning
(14) *pull one's leg*	to joke	拉后腿	to hold someone back
(15) *eat one's words*	to admit one's mistake	食言	to break one's promise
(16) *a walking skeleton*	a skinny person	行尸走肉	a boring or unenterprising person

In addition, we should be cautious of some corresponding idioms that differ in cultural background and national colouring. If "班门弄斧" is replaced by a corresponding idiom "teach one's grandmother to suck eggs", it gives rise to a cultural loss, as the Chinese idiom embodies an important cultural message that Lu Ban (班) was a well-known Chinese carpenter, engineer and inventor during the Spring and Autumn Period. Therefore, to preserve the cultural information, it is desirable to render it as "showing off one's proficiency with the axe before Lu Ban the master carpenter". In short, the validity to naturalize translation is appraised on the condition of not hampering the "foreignness" of the source text to avoid cultural distortion or even loss.

D.　Other Methods

In addition to the methods discussed, a combination of them in dealing with a single problem is suggested as well, similar to the method of "couplets" proposed by Newmark (1988, p.91). It is like "two or more bites at one cherry". Mention should also be made of free translation, which should be treated as the last resort because it often greatly reduces the informativeness of the cultural messages although it is necessary in some cases for the effectiveness of communication. To sum up, in translating idioms as well as other culture-bound terms and phenomena, those methods should not be rigidly followed but subject to different contexts and purposes. A skillful use of them serves to promote cultural exchange and widen the readers' vision, which, in turn, paves the way for further cultural exchange.

V.　CONCLUSION

The study of the effects that culture has on translation may help to disclose the aspects of translation that the literarily-based and linguistically-based translation theories have failed to do. Without a systematic study of translation and culture, any so-claimed theoretical system of translation studies is incomplete. This contribution focuses on the handling of idioms and will shed light on the translation of other cultural specificities. It is intended to usher in further

in-depth study of relations between culture and translation.

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A Study of EFL Teachers' Locus of Control and Self-regulation and the Moderating Role of Self-efficacy

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Abstract—The present study investigated the relationship between EFL teachers' locus of control and self-regulation and the moderating role of self-efficacy. To empirically investigate the theorized relationship between self-regulation and locus of control, 63 English teachers were selected according to a convenience sampling from different language institutes in Mashhad. The participants were asked to complete the *' Teacher Self-Regulation Scale'* as well as the *'Teacher Locus of Control Scale'*. The data supported the theoretical expectation of a linkage between self-regulation and locus of control. The results indicated a significant relationship between teachers' self-regulation and internal locus of control. It was found that about 48% of the variation in teacher self-regulation can be explained by taking their internal LOC into account. Subsequent data analyses indicated that among the components of self-regulation, *'mastery goal orientation'*, and *'intrinsic interest'* have the highest correlations with teacher locus of control. The findings also illustrated that teacher self-efficacy had no significant impact on the relationship between self-regulation and locus of control. This suggests that regardless of the teacher self-efficacy level, a teacher self-regulation is related to his/her internal locus of control. The results derived from the present study should encourage teacher educators to take advantage of this relationship by providing EFL teachers with programs and experiences for developing effective paths for enhancing teacher self-regulatory skills as well as their internal tendencies and perceptions.

Index Terms—EFL teachers, locus of control, self-efficacy, self-regulation

I. INTRODUCTION

The issue of individuals' control over fate and life events has long been the topic of debate. The controversy pivoted around the notions of fate or free will, whether life events that affect individuals are in their control or out of their hands. In a related vein, in recent decades educational researchers and theorists have displayed increased interest in attributional and related cognitive theories of control. One of the pertinent notions is the locus of control perceptions (LOC) derived from Rotter's (1966) social learning theory which contended that individual differences existed as to perceived responsibility for one's own actions and the individual's sense of personal control and reinforcement. LOC is characteristically measured on an internal-external continuum. To the extent that a person's LOC is external, s/he will tend to perceive reinforcements as being the result of other people, luck, and circumstances beyond personal control. Internal LOC is associated with individual's perception of having more control over life circumstances as well as more personal responsibility for outcomes.

Substantial body of research in educational psychology has been conducted in examining the association of LOC with academic achievement. What has emerged from almost all these studies revealed that students with internal LOC exert more effort, responsibility and persistence toward their learning goals (Findley & Cooper, 1983).

The tenets pertained to LOC in explaining behavior and achievement tend to generalize to teachers. Teacher LOC refers to teachers' perceptions of personal control or responsibility for student achievement. Previous research has consistently demonstrated that teaching effectiveness is positively linked to teachers' internal tendencies (e.g. Shermen & Giles, 1981; Findley & Cooper, 1983). Rose and Medway (1981) indicated that internal teachers tended to produce higher achieving students by engaging students in more appropriate on-task behavior resulted from executing a more controlled learning context. It also appears that internal LOC is associated with other intrinsic and motivational factors, including self-efficacy (Greenwood, Olejnik, & Parkey, 1990; Gaziel, 2008); self-esteem and higher self-evaluations (Burns, 1979); motivation (Anderson, Hattie & Hamilton, 2005); and attitude (Smith, 1997). Despite the bulk of research examining the linkage of teachers' internal LOC with skills and factors conducive to effectiveness, there are hardly any documented studies investigating the relationship between teachers' LOC and an intrinsically derived construct which is critical in professional development, i.e., self-regulation.

The present study sets out to explore the relationship of Iranian EFL teachers' LOC with their self-regulation. It also seeks to examine whether teacher self-efficacy moderates the relationship between LOC and self-regulation.

II. Review of the Related Literature on LOC

Locus of control (LOC) is a well-known cognitive-behavioral psychological attribute describing a person's characteristic way of perceiving the world and indicating the extent of control individuals perceive they have over the expectancies of reinforcement or outcomes in their lives (Rotter, 1966). Rotter defined locus of control as a generalized expectancy of internal (self-initiated change orientation) versus external control (change attributed to a source or power outside of the person) over behavior outcomes. In other words, individuals with internal LOC orientation believe that the ability to influence outcomes resides within themselves and is the direct result of their efforts, personality strength, and intensions. On the other hand, those with external LOC orientation attribute outcomes to forces beyond their control (Rotter, 1966). These individuals tend to appraise life events by looking for another individual or circumstance to hold accountable for undesirable outcomes (Joe, 1971).

The construct of LOC and its influence on human behavior has been increasingly integrated into educational studies. A plethora of studies substantiated the contention that internal LOC is essentially associated with positive characteristics and achievement. Findley and Cooper (1983) conducting a comprehensive literature research on nearly 100 studies verified the link between LOC and academic achievement. Williams and Burden (1997) pointed out that students with high internal LOC exhibit strong tendencies to seek information, are active and assertive, and are inclined toward exploratory learning. Conversely, students with external LOC are passive, compliant, non-exploratory, and inattentive (p. 102). Furthermore, they tend to be less motivated to attain learning goals since they believe unsuccessful performance is their fate and out of their hands (Bender, 1995). Other studies demonstrated the association of internal LOC with reflective thinking (Norton, 1997), stress control (Abouserie, 1994), self-efficacy and self-worth (Harsch, 2008), and problem-focused copying strategies (Butler-Sweeney, 2007). LOC has also been found to have an impact on students' responses to outside influence or control. Baron and Ganz (1972) indicated individuals with external LOC were more responsive than those with internal LOC to positive verbal feedback (cited in Moore, 2006). Pines (1973) found that externally controlled people seemed to be more attentive to and affected by the interpersonal characteristics of the person giving the positive feedback than were internally controlled people (cited in Moore, 2006).

Likewise, investigating the possible relations of teacher LOC with factors and abilities associated with effective teaching has become a paramount inquiry for educational scholars and researchers. Brookover and Lezotte (1979) defined teacher LOC as teachers' perceptions of personal control over or responsibility for student performance; whether they see students' achievement as a consequence of their own actions and under their personal control or not. Studies targeted at the relationship between teacher LOC and students' achievement have inclusively indicated that teachers with internal LOC appear to have classes of higher achieving students than external teachers (e.g. Murray & Staebler, 1974; Rose & Medway, 1981). Czubaj (1996) classified LOC as one major construct of motivation, and concluded that internal LOC tended to reduce teacher stress and enhance motivation. It has also been shown that internal LOC is associated with reflectivity. Norton (1997) noted that teacher with internal LOC orientations are more reflective teachers in that they are more responsive to the educational and affective needs of every individual student, and constantly review and appraise the instructional goals and aims. Bulus' (2011) study revealed that prospective teachers' high level of internal LOC plays a role in mastery goal orientation (goals to improve competence in teaching and master the teaching task) and academic achievement.

Cheng (1994) identified LOC as a powerful indicator of teachers' job attitudes. According to him,

Teachers with a belief in internal control tend to have a more positive job attitude in terms of organizational commitment, intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, social satisfaction, influence satisfaction, role clarity, and feeling of job challenge. They also tend to have more positive perceptions of the school organization in terms of principal's leadership, organizational structure, teachers' social norms, and organizational culture and effectiveness. (cited in Lorenz, 2000, p.19)

III. Review of the Related Literature on Self-regulation

Self-regulation is defined as "self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals" (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 14). According to Pintrich (1999), self-regulation comprises three general classes of strategies: (a) cognitive learning strategies, (b) metacognitive or self-regulatory strategies to control cognition, and (c) resource management strategies. Cognitive and metacognitive strategies include rehearsal, elaboration, and organizational strategies as well as critical thinking and self-regulation. Basic rehearsal strategies involve reciting or repeating items in a list. Activation of information in working memory entails application of these strategies which appear to influence attention and encoding processes. Elaboration strategies including paraphrasing, summarizing, and analogy-making, play crucial role in storing information in long-term memory by creating internal connections between items. Via organizational strategies, learners select appropriate information and impose structure on the learned materials. Critical thinking involves a variety of skills such as identifying the source of information, reflecting on whether that information is consistent with their prior knowledge, and making critical evaluations (Linn,

2000). Self-regulation strategies refer to awareness, knowledge and control of cognition and include planning, monitoring, and regulating.

Theories and practices associated with self-regulation have been applied to educational settings and school learning, leading to the development of self-regulated learning theory. Self-regulation of learning is a process that requires students to get proactively involved in their personal, behavioral, motivational, and cognitive learning endeavors in order to accomplish important and valuable academic goals (Zimmerman, 1998). Self-regulated learning theory contends that self-regulation develops across four levels: observational, imitative, self-controlled, and self-regulated levels (Zimmerman, 2000). Observational and imitative levels, relying on external social factors, concentrate on modeling and social guidance, respectively. The last two levels derive from internal skills. At the self-controlled level, learners create internal standards for acceptable performance and become self-reinforcing via positive self-talk and feedback. At the self-regulatory level, individuals develop self-efficacy beliefs, as well as higher-order cognitive strategies, that enable them to self-regulate their learning.

Empirical studies indicated a significant relationship between academic success and the use of regulatory skills and an understanding of how to use these skills (Cross & Paris, 1988; Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001). In a similar vein, Zimmerman (1990) noted that self-regulated learners proactively seek out opportunities to learn and self-initiate activities designed to promote learning outcomes. Since research has indicated students' use of self-regulatory behaviors to be critical for academic achievement, it is plausible that the teachers' use of self-regulatory behaviors would positively influence teacher practices. According to Delfino, Dettori, and Persico (2010) learning to be self-regulated is crucial for teachers in order to deal with the complexity of the teaching role, which encompasses individual and social aspects. From personal perspective, teachers should equip themselves with self-regulation skills in order to not only follow various goals and tasks, but also sustain and foster their motivation, commitment and effectiveness. From social perspective, self-regulation assists teachers to construct instructional strategies based on students' specific goals, and "to adjust to the ever more frequent curricular revisions required by the fast pace of technological and cultural change" (Delfino, Dettori, & Persico, 2010, p. 300). To create opportunities for insightful instruction, teachers not only need a solid base of content area knowledge along with classroom management skills, but also have to scrutinize their beliefs, motivation, and self-regulatory factors associated with teaching and learning (Dembo, 2001). Indeed, as Randi (2004) maintained from social cognitive perspective, effective teachers are self-regulated agents who can activate their beliefs to take appropriate actions leading to successful accomplishment of their professional tasks. Viewing from another perspective, it seems plausible to presume teachers who lack self-regulatory skills will find it difficult or even impossible to construct the self-regulation of their students.

In the domain of L2 education, it has been reported that teachers who are more self-regulated can better manifest teaching effectiveness (Monshi toussi, Boori & Ghanizadeh, 2011). In other words, teachers' self-regulatory skills tend to have a positive role in successful accomplishment of their professional tasks. In a similar vein, teachers' self-regulation has been found to be associated with their sense of self-efficacy beliefs. Ghonsooly and Ghanizadeh (2011) revealed that the more EFL teachers equip themselves with self-regulatory skills, the more capable they judge themselves in their teaching practice.

IV. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The major purpose of the present study is to empirically examine the hypothesized association between teachers' LOC and their self-regulation. The study also seeks to investigate the moderating effect of teacher self-efficacy on the relationship of LOC and self-regulation. To this end, the following research questions were posed and investigated in the present study:

1) Is there any relationship between teacher LOC and their self-regulation?
2) Among the components of self-regulation which one(s) have/has the highest correlation with teacher LOC?
3) What percent of variability in teacher LOC can be explained by taking self-regulation into account?
4) As a moderator factor, does teacher self-efficacy play any significant role in the relationship between teachers' internal LOC and self-regulation?

V. METHOD

A. Participants

A sample of convenience was used for this study. The population sample consisted of 63 Iranian EFL teachers who were teaching English in private institutes in Mashhsd, a city in north-east of Iran between July and October 2010. There were no requirements other than that the participants be currently teaching an English course during the summer semester of 2010. There were 43 females and 20 males; their age varied from 21 to 42 years old (M = 26.31, SD = 4.05) and their teaching experience varied from 1 to 19 years (M = 4.16, SD= 3.86).

B. Instruments

1. Teacher Self-Regulation Scale (TSRS)

To assess teacher self-regulation, the researcher utilized the 'Teacher Self-Regulation Scale (TSRS)', designed and validated by Yesim, Sungur & Uzuntiryaki (2009). It was developed based on Zimmerman's self –regulation model and semi-structured interviews with pre-service and in-service teachers; and consists of 40 items on a 6 point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. One item was also included as a filler item which was not used in further analyses. Confirmatory factor analysis yielded the following nine factors. (See Table 1)

TABLE 1.
NINE FACTORS OF TSRS ALONG WITH THE CORRESPONDING DESCRIPTIONS.

Factor	Description
1. *Goal setting*	Process of establishing objectives to guide actions during instruction
2. *Intrinsic interest*	Beliefs concerning personal interest in the profession
3. *Performance goal orientation*	Goals to do better than others as a teacher and to have others believe in one's competence
4. *Mastery goal orientation*	Goals to improve competence in teaching and master the teaching task against self-set standards
5. *Self-instruction*	Process of monitoring one's own performance in teaching and making instructional changes when necessary
6. *Emotional control*	Strategies for controlling and regulating affect, mood, and emotions
7. *Self-evaluation*	Process of evaluating current teaching performance by comparing it with previously established goals and past performance
8. *Self-reaction*	Affective responses following a teaching performance
9. *Help-seeking*	Getting help from others to resolve problems encountered in teaching process

Scores on the 40 items were averaged to form an overall indicator of the teachers' self-regulation, defined by Yesim, Sungur & Uzuntiryaki (2009) "as teachers' own self-regulated strategies, which they use during lessons" (p. 354). In this study, the total reliability of the scale, estimated via Cronbach's alpha, was 0.79.

2. Teacher Locus of Control Scale (TLC)

To determine teacher LOC, the study utilized the 'Rose and Medway's (1981) *Teacher Locus of Control* (*TLC*) scale'. It is a 28-item forced-choice scale which requires teachers to assign responsibility for student successes or failures by choosing between two competing explanations for the situations described. Half the items on the *TLC* describe situations of student success while the other half describe student failure. For each success situation, one explanation attributes the positive outcome internally to the teacher (I+) while the other assigns responsibility outside the teacher, usually to the students. Similarly, for each failure situation, one explanation gives an internal teacher attribution (I-) while the other blames external factors (Rose & Medway, 1981).

3. Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (OSTES)

To determine teacher's self-efficacy, the study employed the *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale* designed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, due to its comprehensiveness, integrity, and ease of administration. Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, also called *Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale* (OSTES), includes two versions: long form (including 24 items) and short form (including 12 items). In the current study the long form was applied which includes three subscales: *1) efficacy in student engagement, 2) efficacy in instructional strategies*, *and 3) efficacy in classroom management*. Each subscale loads equally on eight items, and every item is measured on a 9-point scale anchored with the notations: "nothing, very little, some influence, quite a bit, a great deal." This scale seeks to capture the multi-faceted nature of teachers' efficacy beliefs in a concise manner, without becoming too specific or too general.

The total reliability and the reliability of each individual factor – reported by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) – are depicted in table 2 (See Table 2).

TABLE 2.
RELIABILITY REPORTS OF OSTES

	Mean	SD	Alpha
OSTES	7.1	.94	.94
F 1	7.3	1.1	.87
F 2	7.3	1.1	.91
F 3	6.7	1.1	.90

In this study, the total reliability of the questionnaire was calculated via Cronbach's alpha which was found to be 0.78.

C. Data Collection

The teachers in the aforementioned institutes were distributed TSRS, TLC, and OSTES questionnaires which they completed and delivered back to the researcher. The questionnaires were coded numerically and they were asked not to write their names. The participants were assured that their identities and responses would be kept confidential.

D. Data Analysis

To ensure the normality of the distribution, descriptive statistics was employed. To determine the relationship between LOC and self-regulation, a Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to the data. To find out which components of self-regulation might have more predictive power in predicting LOC, a multiple regression analysis was run. To determine the role of self-efficacy as a moderating factor in the relationship between internal LOC and self-regulation among EFL teachers, a standard multiple regression analysis was run.

VI. RESULTS

Table 3 summarizes the descriptive results of the instruments- the *Teacher Self-Regulation Scale* (TSRS), the *Teacher Locus of Control* Scale (*TLC*), and the *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale* (OSTES) - utilized in this study. (See Table 3)

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TSRS, TLC, AND OSTES

		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Deviation
TSRS		63	120	240	179	24.41
TLC	Internal	63	6	21	12.79	3.61
	External	63	4	19	12.19	3.62
OSTES		63	120	205	161	20.01

To investigate the relationship between EFL teachers' internal and external LOC and their self-regulation, a Pearson product-moment correlation was applied. The results of correlation revealed that there is a significant correlation between internal LOC and self-regulation ($r = 0.69$, $p < 0.05$). (See Table 4)

TABLE 4.
THE RESULTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL LOC AND SELF-REGULATION

	Total self-regulation
Internal LOC	0.69*
External LOC	-0.69*

* Correlation is significant at the level of 0.05

It was also found that there is a significant relationship between internal LOC and the subscales of self-regulation scores as follow: internal LOC and F1 ($r = 0.42^*$, $p < .05$), F2 ($r = 0.61^*$, $p < .05$), F3 ($r = 0.47^*$, $p < .05$), F4 ($r = 0.55^*$, $p < .05$), F5 ($r = 0.53^*$, $p < .05$), F6 ($r = 0.52^*$, $p < .05$), F7 ($r = 0.44^*$, $p < .05$), F8($r = 0.49^*$, $p < .05$), F9 ($r = 0.38^*$, $p < .05$),

To analyze the data further, regression analysis was conducted. The results indicated that teacher internal LOC is a positive predictor of the dependant variable (self-regulation). (See Table 5)

TABLE 5.
THE RESULTS OF REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR LOC AND SELF-REGULATION

	Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-5.658	2.466		-2.294	.025
	Self-regulation	.103	.014	.695	7.549	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Internal LOC

Table 5 illustrates the model summary statistics. The results revealed that the model containing the internal LOC can predict 48 percent of the teacher self-regulation. The R value is 0.69 which indicates the correlation coefficient between self-regulation and internal LOC. Its square value is 0.48. It indicates that about 48% of the variation in teacher self-regulation can be explained by taking their internal LOC into account. (See Table 6)

TABLE 6.
R SQUARE TABLE FOR INTERNAL LOC AS THE PREDICTOR OF SELF-REGULATION

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.695[a]	.483	.475	2.61743

a. Predictors: (Constant), self-regulation

To determine the role of self-efficacy as a moderator in the relationship between LOC and self-regulation among teachers, a standard multiple regression analysis was run. In so doing, three models were considered. In the first model self-regulation, in the second model self-regulation and self-efficacy and in the third model self-regulation, self-efficacy and the interaction between these two factors were regarded as independent variables. Table 7 is the ANOVA table of regression. The extent of F-values and the quantities of the associated p-values ($p<0.05$) suggest the considered models are significant.

TABLE 7:
THE ANOVA TABLE OF REGRESSION

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	390.411	1	390.411	56.987	.000[a]
	Residual	417.907	61	6.851		
	Total	808.317	62			
2	Regression	396.018	2	198.009	28.815	.000[b]
	Residual	412.300	60	6.872		
	Total	808.317	62			
3	Regression	404.476	3	134.825	19.698	.000[c]
	Residual	403.842	59	6.845		
	Total	808.317	62			

a. Predictors: (Constant), self-regulation
b. Predictors: (Constant), self-regulation, self-efficacy
c. Predictors: (Constant), self-regulation, self-efficacy, self-regulation x self-efficacy
d. Dependent Variable: Internal LOC

Table 8 illustrates that, among different variables involved in the models, only the p-values of self-regulation are less than 0.05; therefore, the existence of this factor is necessary in the models.

TABLE 8.
THE RESULTS OF REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR SELF-EFFICACY AS A MODERATOR

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-5.658	2.466		-2.294	.025
	Self-regulation	.103	.014	.695	7.549	.000
2	(Constant)	-5.000	2.575		-1.941	.057
	Self-regulation	.117	.021	.793	5.574	.000
	Self-efficacy	-.019	.021	-.128	-.903	.370
3	(Constant)	10.498	14.177		.741	.462
	Self-regulation	.028	.083	.189	.337	.737
	Self-efficacy	-.115	.088	-.760	-1.298	.199
	Self-regulation x self-efficacy	.001	.000	1.164	1.112	.271

a. Dependent Variable: Internal LOC

As demonstrated in table 9, we see that R Square Change is 0.007 when the moderator variable is added (model 2). This change is not significant ($F = 0.81$, $p = 0.37$). When interaction variable is added (model 3) to the predictor and moderator variables, R Square Change is 0.10. This change in not significant either ($F = 1.23$, $p = 0.27$). This indicates that our presumed moderator (self-efficacy) does not moderate the effect of the predictor (self-regulation) on the dependent variable (internal LOC).

TABLE 9.
R SQUARE TABLE FOR SELF-REGULATION AND SELF-EFFICACY AS THE PREDICTORS OF TEACHERS' INTERNAL LOC

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.695[a]	.483	.475	2.61743	.483	56.987	1	61	.000
2	.700[b]	.490	.473	2.62138	.007	.816	1	60	.370
3	.707[c]	.500	.475	2.61625	.010	1.236	1	59	.271

a. Predictors: (Constant), self-regulation
b. Predictors: (Constant), self-regulation, self-efficacy
c. Predictors: (Constant), self-regulation, self-efficacy, self-regulation x self-efficacy

VII. DISCUSSION

The present study examined the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' self-regulation and locus of control. As the results indicated there is a positive relationship between the two variables in question. In other words, teachers who possess higher levels of self-regulatory skills tend to attribute success and failure in their profession to internal factors. The statistical significance of this finding supports the key theoretical assumptions of the association between self-

regulation and internal locus of control as contended by educational scholars. For instance, Zimmerman (1990) maintained that self-regulated learners view acquisition as a controllable process and accept greater responsibility for their achievement outcomes. Skinner and Greene (2008) argued that control beliefs have two main functions in shaping control processes: (1) when preparing to take on an activity, expectations of control have a *regulatory* function in that they shape how people approach and engage in the task; and (2) following an action-outcome episode, they have an *interpretative* function, in that they help translate the meaning of the experience for future control.

The findings of the present study can also be interpreted from the common sense perspective. As stated earlier, teachers who believe that they are competent to effectively influence student achievement and performance are considered to have internal control, whereas teachers who believe that the environment has more influence on student learning than their own teaching abilities are considered to have external control. Here it seems plausible to presume teachers who routinely exert effort to devise appropriate instructional materials and motivate students to do better are required to regularly monitor and regulate their actions and thoughts, in comparison with teachers who believe student achievement is attributable to external factors which are not under their control.

As indicated earlier, among the components of self-regulation, *intrinsic interest* and *mastery-goal orientation* were found to have the highest correlations with internal LOC. With the significant correlation to *intrinsic interest*, it would appear that teachers who have personal interest in their profession exhibit more internally driven locus of control for student performance. This can plausibly be interpreted from commonsense perspective, given that both of these constructs are intrinsically oriented. This finding is also consistent with the notion that individuals engage in attributional inference to judge their intrinsic motivation (Lindzey, Gilbert & Fiske, 1998). Deci and Ryan (2000) argued that the extent individuals perceive the events as being the result of their actions and under their control is partly associated with their intrinsic motivation, or sense of choosing to engage in that activity. In a similar vein, Elliot and Dweck (2005) noted that those with an internal locus will often use intrinsic motivation, which is person centered and comes from within an individual.

The relationship between internal LOC and *mastery goal orientation*– goals to improve competence in teaching and master the teaching task against self-set standards – implies that teachers' concern over the mastery of teaching practices tend to promote their perception of having more control over student achievement. This finding corroborates previous studies verifying association between LOC and goal orientation. For instance, Pintrich & De Groot, (1990) indicated that students with mastery goal orientation try to acquire knowledge to learn and increase their competence for self development and believe that effort is the cause of success or failure. These individuals were also found to take more responsibility for their success or failure (Seifert, 1995). In the domain of teachers, Bulus (2011) repoeted that prospective teachers' high level of internal LOC plays a role in their mastery goal orientation and students' academic achievement.

The last research question aimed at investigating the role of self-efficacy as a moderating factor in the relationship between teachers' internal LOC and self-regulation. The findings illustrated the presumed moderator had not a significant impact on the relationship between teachers' internal LOC and self-regulation. This suggests that regardless of self-efficacy, the teacher internal LOC is related to his/her level of self-regulation. Hence, it can be argued that self-regulation is a significant predictor of internal LOC even after controlling for the effect of self-efficacy.

The above-mentioned conclusions derived from the present study should encourage teacher educators, administrators, and policy makers to take advantage of the relationship between LOC and self-regulation by providing EFL teachers with preparation programs and experiences that help them self-regulate their teaching practices. In so doing there is opportunity to promote teachers' internal LOC, as well. This in turn is expected to result in effective learning and teaching, since, as stated earlier, teacher internal LOC is a key determinant of student achievement and motivation. These programs are recommended to pinpoint effective paths for developing intrinsic interest and mastery goal orientation among all teachers irrespective of their level of self-efficacy.

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On the Factors Influencing L1 Transfer

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Abstract—**For decades, the phenomenon of language transfer has been a focus of second language acquisition. The study of language transfer has experienced three stages. It has long been noted that the linguistic differences between L1 and L2 will affect the acquisition of L2, both positively and negatively. This paper aims at sorting out factors that are facilitating to L1 transfer. Seven categories of factors have been examined: Linguistic factors, Psycholinguistic factors, Sociolinguistic factors, Socio-psychological factors, Individual difference, Developmental factors, and Frequency of input. Giving the complexity of transfer phenomenon, though the above-mentioned factors are discussed separately, the need to investigate their co-influence on L1 transfer is suggested.**

Index Terms—**L1 transfer, factors, facilitating**

I. INTRODUCTION: HISTORIC REVIEW AND CURRENT UNDERSTANDING OF LANGUAGE TRANSFER

For decades, the phenomenon of language transfer has been a focus of second language acquisition. Historically, the study of language transfer has experienced three stages: the first stage is from 1950s to 1960s, when the study of language transfer was strongly influenced by behaviorism. At that time, the strong version of contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) asserted that through careful comparison of the native language (NL) and target language (TL), the difficulties in TL acquisition could be predicted. The strong version of CAH was proved to be unable to fulfill what it had claimed to do, however; thus, with the growing disfavor of behaviorism, CAH received strong criticisms, especially from mentalists during the late 1960s. And from then on, the study of language transfer entered into the second stage up to 1970s. During that period, under the influence of Chomsky's UG (universal grammar) theory, and with the revolutionary studies conducted by Dulay and Burt, the role of language transfer in the process of L2 (second language) acquisition was considered to be trivial. The third period of language transfer study, from 1980s up to date, is marked by the introduction of multidisciplinary perspectives into the field of SLA (second language acquisition) research; consequently our understanding toward the language transfer phenomenon has been deepened.

Now, as pointed out by Selinker (1992), the consensus view of language transfer is that it is not an "all or nothing" phenomenon. Actually, transfer has been regarded as a very broad concept of cross-linguistic influence not confined within the scope of L1 and L2. Odlin (1989) has proposed a working definition of transfer: Transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired.

Similarly, Selinker (1992) has concluded that: Language transfer is best thought of as a cover term for a whole class of behaviors, processes and constraints, each of which has to do with CLI (cross linguistic influence), the influence and use of prior linguistic knowledge, usually but not exclusively NL (native language) knowledge. This knowledge intersects with input from the TL (target language) and with universal properties of various sorts in a selective way to help build IL (interlanguage).

Such an understanding of language transfer presupposes that the analysis language transfer needs to be approached from different perspectives.

II. WHAT RESULTS IN L1 TRANSFER?

A. Linguistic Factors

1. Language distance

It has long been noted that the linguistic difference between L1 and L2 will bring difficulties in the acquisition of L2. Lado (1957) has proposed the CAH (contrastive analysis hypothesis) in which the predicted positive transfer and negative transfer in L2 learning process are solely based on the structural relationship between the languages in comparison. Yet numerous facts indicating that the difficulties predicted by the CAH do not prove to be difficulties at all has aroused strong criticism on CAH. Today, we have formed an objective view toward the difference between two languages, as Ellis (1994) has noted, 'language distance can affect L2 learning both positively and negatively'. (p.338) Scholars have detected the different manifestations of the result of L1 transfer, with some of them are conspicuous and some of them hard to be identified. For instance, Ringbom (1978) and Sjoholm (1976) have concluded that the acquisition of lexis appears to be facilitated if the L1 and L2 are related languages. Another example came form Schachter (1974), who has found that Chinese and Japanese learners of L2 English made fewer errors in their use of

relative clauses than Persian or Arabic learners because they produced far fewer clauses overall–L1 transfer is manifested in terms of (communication or learning) strategies adopted by L2 learners. All these evidence indicate that a native-target language comparison is nonetheless an important preliminary step to understand language transfer.

2. Language universal: markedness

Ellis (1994) suggests that the transferability of different features depends on their degree of markedness. Markedness, according to Ellis, refers to the idea that some linguistic structures are "special" or "less natural" or "less basic" than others. There are basically two approaches to the definition of markedness. One is derived from Chomsky's UG (universal theory), the other is originated from the study of typology initiated by Greenberg.

Chomsky distinguishes core rules of a language from that are peripheral. According to him, core rules are those that can be arrived at through the application of general, abstract principles of language structures, which he believes to be innate; peripheral rules are those not governed by universal principles, they are unique in a specific language. While the core rules are unmarked, the peripheral rules are marked.

Empirical studies of L2 acquisition based on the definition of markedness within the UG framework have generated divergent results. Ellis attributes such separating results to the lack of consensus about the details of the theory, and suggests that it is premature to reach any conclusion as to whether markedness, as defined by the theory of UG, is a relevant factor in L2 acquisition.

Another definition of markedness, which has been widely used by scholars to explain L1 transfer phenomenon, comes from the study of language typology. According to Ellis (1994) the broad claim of the definition is that those features that are universal to present in most language are unmarked, while those that are specific to a particular language or found only in a few languages are marked. Such an understanding of markedness indicates that markedness is better to be understood as a relative concept-there may be few absolute universals (universals that are exemplified in all languages), but universal tendencies may be more common.

The markedness theory is certainly useful for our understanding of L1 transfer phenomenon. Yet it is not an omnipotent theory free of deficiency. One of the problems of the theory, as pointed out by Ellis is the vagueness of the concept which sometimes makes it difficult to determine which features are marked in relation to others. Ellis goes on to suggest that the concept could be more precise if it is defined with reference to 'native speakers' own perception of the structure'. In deed, as indicated by Kasper and Faerch (1987), with the purpose of reconstructing transfer procedures as they operate in learners' minds, psychological and social-psychological dimensions should be taken into consideration. The following two sections are devoted to this regard.

B. Psycholinguistic Factors

While commenting on CAH, Long and Sato (1984) have pointed out that the scholars of CAH have attempted to yield meaningful insight into a psycholinguistic process, i.e. L2 learning based solely on an analysis of linguistic product.

Discussing the deficiency of the CAH is not the focus of this paper, however; yet the comment indicates that the language transfer is more of a psychological problem than of a linguistic one. As Ellis has suggested, current definitions of the term "transfer" allow psycholinguistic L1 effects, thus any discussion of L1 transfer without addressing the psychological aspect if it is incomplete. Here we will focus on the two psycholinguistic factors: Prototypicality and Psychotypology

Kellerman is among the first to address the psychological aspect of L1 transfer phenomenon. In a series of studies, he demonstrated that native speakers' intuition about semantic space can be used to predict transferability. He proposed a term "prototypicality" to refer to the perceptions that learners have regarding the structure of their own languages: A feature is marked if it is perceived as infrequent, irregular, semantically or structurally opaque, or in any other ways exceptional. Such perceptions will in turn lead them to treat some structures as transferable and others as non-transferable. Based on this, a hierarchy of psychological "markedness" is possible. Actually, as indicated by Kasper and Faerch (1987), the degree of markedness of an L1 feature is an important factor in determining whether this feature is considered transferable.

Though the conclusion of Kellerman seems to be persuasive, the weakness of this approach is obvious, as pointed out by Ellis (1994: 327), following this approach, "we do not know to what extent learners' judgments about what can be done accurately reflect what they actually do when using the L2". That is to say, "translatability" does not necessarily equal to "transferability".

Later, Kellerman (1978) proposed the concept of psychotypology, claiming that learners' perception of the distance between their native language and the target language could be a crucial factor in determining whether they transfer or not. Kellerman (1979) argues that learners' psychotypology is not fixed; rather, it is revised as they obtain more information about the target language.

C. Sociolinguistic Factors

In so far we have discussed linguistic and psycholinguistic factor that are conducive or prohibitive to the phenomenon of language transfer, a discussion could never be sufficient so long as the fact that transfer manifests in communicative interaction, is ignored.

It has been argued that IL is characterized by viability, and that such viability is systematic, corresponding to

contextually determined variability in the native language. If that is true, then the question followed would be how different IL varieties are activated in different contexts. Tarone suggests that L2 learners' performance constitutes a continuum in accordance with different contexts, with the "vernacular" at one head of the continuum and the "careful" style at the other. Her study, along with that of Dickerson's, indicate that learners' performance tend converge to TL norms when the "careful" style is adopted and their performance tend to deviate from TL norms when the "vernacular" style is adopted.

Researches conducted by Odlin (1989) and Tarone (1982) suggest that L1 transfer is connected with different contexts, thus relating to different IL varieties; however, their conclusions seems to be incompatible with each other as to suggest under what contexts, to which extent, transfer would occur. Odlin (1989) has argued that native transfer is less likely in focused contexts, where there is concern to maintain the standardness of languages, than in unfocused contexts. For example, he suggests that negative transfer is more likely to occur off class than on class. While he approaches the sociolinguistic factor on transfer from a macro-sociolinguistic perspective, i.e. how external environments exert different demands on language learners in terms of "standardness", Tarone (1982) takes a micro-sociolinguistic perspective, i.e. how learners adapt their performance to fulfill different communication tasks in accordance with different external environments. She argues that L1 transfer is likely to be more evident in learners' careful style than in their vernacular style, because they are more likely to make use of all their potential resources, including L1 knowledge.

Obviously, Odlin's position is in contradiction to that of Tarone's. Ellis has pointed out the danger of discussing the influence that sociolinguistic factors have on language transfer in terms of solely micro or solely macro perspective. Instead, he suggests that it is necessary to take into account of both internal and external norms that learners need to conform in various contexts. While Ellis's comment is a pertinent one, it does not seem to be a very practical one – the relative weight perceived by individuals may differ from one person to another, and also from one context to another; further, it may also involves other factors such as social-psychological consideration (which will be discussed below), or personality orientation, thus making the analysis of L1 transfer fairly complex. Investigation to the interplay (of different factors) determining L1 transfer is thus in need.

D.   Social-psychological Factors

We believe that the term social-psychological is different from the term social-linguistic, although the two are clearly related to each other. We believe social-psychological factors in many cases are value-laden; therefore they operate at a deeper level than do socio-linguistic factors.

The manifestations of the influences of socio-psychological factors on L2 speakers' behavior are strategic in nature. In this sense, it could be said that some of the socio-psychological factors are strategic factors, which incorporate both learning and communication aspects; yet clearly, from the discussion above, social-psychological factors are more than strategic factors.

Kasper and Faerch (1987) has proposed three social-psychological factors which lead L2 speakers not to produce as correct a variety of their IL as (cognitively and linguistically) possible in a given situation. In fact the social-psychological factors proposed by Kasper and Faerch is better to be understood as a enlarged and deepened discussion of what Tarone has labeled as micro-sociolinguistic perspective. The three factors are: group solidarity, foreigner role, and marking origin.

The first type of factor is group solidity; a strong sense of group solidity in L2 speech community would lead L2 speakers to retain in their IL features of their social / ethnic identity---group solidity result in divergent behavior because of a desire to distance oneself from one's interlocutor. The second type of factor is foreigner role. While the maintenance of group solidarity is meant to protect L2 speakers' own values from being questioned in the TL community, the assumption of the foreigner role is meant to protect themselves from being judged on the basis of native-speaker norms and expectations, and therefore creating a positive learning environment for L2 acquisition, and L2 communication as well.

The third type of factors is marking origin. As indicated by Kasper and Faerch, this is 'a rather special case of L1 transfer within a socio-psychological perspective', because it 'occurs when 'commodities' (in a broadest possible sense of the term) originating in one culture are being transposed to a different culture'.

It is interesting to note from the above discussion that L2 speakers influenced by socio-psychological factors tend to transfer in a conscious manner, while under the influence of other factors discussed before such as language universal and psychotypology, L2 speakers are inclined to transfer in a subconscious manner.

E.   Individual Difference in Terms of Personality

The preceding discussion of L1 transfer is carried out at the collective level rather than at the individual level, that is, we have focused on the behavior of a group of, instead of single, L2 speakers. Many scholars have noticed individual difference in L2 acquisition, however. Odlin have reminded us of the fact that the manifestation of transfer can vary from one learner to the next, even if some kinds of transfer is likely in the second language performance of most learners. Thus, any discussion of L1 transfer will not be sufficient without giving any consideration to individual variation.

We find individual difference such a broad concept that a total account of it is beyond the scope of the paper. Relating

to L1 transfer, we will focus on personality only. Odlin acknowledges that some, if not all, personality difference tend to increase or decrease the likelihood of transfer. He summarizes, based on studies of Schachter, Kleinmann, and Guiora (1972), that anxiety and empathy are two personality characteristics that seem to interact with transfer. As for anxiety, those who are more susceptible to anxiety tend to avoid unfamiliar structures of the TL, thus, they may resort more to their NL than their counterparts who are less susceptible to anxiety.

While the difference in the susceptibility of anxiety could explain whether individual L2 speakers would use a specific TL structure, the varied degree of empathy among L2 learners may account for the varying degrees of success that individuals have in approximating native-like proficiency. Guiora's (1972) study of the L2 pronunciation has suggested that 'individual differences in the ability to approximate native-like pronunciation should reflect individual differences in the flexibility of psychic processes, or more specifically, in the empathetic capacity'.

It is highly likely, following Kellerman's characterization, that if learners are more aware of their own cultures and linguistic norms, they would allow or retain more transfer from their native language to their IL than learners who have less awareness of their own cultural and linguistic norms, and vice versa. It is thus possible the less an individual learner can feel emotionally 'inside' the target language speech community, the more likely he/she would manifests L1 transfer.

F. Developmental Factors

Coder (1978) considers the acquisition of L2 as a restructuring process with L2 features gradually replaces that of L1. It follows that negative transfer is more evident at the beginning stage, and such a position is supported by the studies of Major (1986) and Wenk (1986) concerning L2 phonology acquisition. However, as Ellis (1994) has noted, not all errors in early interlanguage are traceable to transfer – many are intralingual and resemble those found in L1 acquisition. Also, some error traceable to L1 influence, only come out at later stages of development. Further, it is not necessary that transfer errors which appear at an early stage of development are subsequently eliminated.

Whereas some researchers have suggested that transfer is more associated with early stages of L2 acquisition, others have argued that learners may need to reach a certain stage of development before transfer of some L1 properties become possible. Ellis (1997) has found it clearly evident in the way learners acquire speech acts like requests, apologies, and refusals. Learners do not initially transfer their L1 speech-act strategies but, instead, rely on a few simple formulas. Later, however, as learners' L2 proficiency develops, they may try to find ways of performing speech acts that accord with L1 forms.

There is growing evidence suggesting that the L1 and developmental factor work together in determining the course of interlanguage or, as Zobl (1980) has noted, transfer is selective along the developmental axis. Ellis (1994) indicates the selectivity is evident in three ways

1. the effect of the L1 only become evident when the learner has reached a stage of development that makes transfer possible

2. development may be retarded when a universal transitional structure arising naturally in early interlanguage corresponds to an L1 structur

3. development may be accelerated when an early transitional structure is not reinforced by the corresponding L2 structure

It is clear that transfer interacts with natural principle of L2 acquisition, sometimes occurring early on and sometimes later, it can both retard and accelerate natural development.

G. Frequency of Input

Since the research conducted by Hatch and Wagner-Gough (1976), it has been noticed that the frequency of L2 input is related to its acquisition. Thus we have a so called frequency hypothesis which states that the order of L2 acquisition is determined by the frequency with different linguistic items occur in the input. As noted by Ellis (1994) the frequency hypothesis is meant to deal with the relationship between input and accuracy, and the justification of the hypothesis is based on the assumption that the order of accuracy equals to that of acquisition.

While the underlying assumption of the frequency has been subjected to question on one hand, results of researches conducted under the theoretical framework have also indicated divergent results. As Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) has noted 'there exist preliminary data supporting a frequency effect'. Ellis (1994) holds the similar view and further suggests that 'it is possible that frequency may be more important at some stages of acquisition (for example, elementary) than others, but no clear conclusion is possible on the basis of these (divergent) studies'. (p. 271)

It is not the purpose of this paper to discuss the deficiency of the frequency hypothesis, in the sense that the hypothesis is not meant to address the problem of L1 transfer. Yet another newly developed theory, which is fundamentally different from the frequency hypothesis, the PDP (Parallel Distributed Processing) model, or the connectionist theory, based on probabilistic patterns, has offered us a new perspective to understand the role of input frequency of in L2 learning.

Scholars of the connectionist theory posit that the brains of human beings are endowed with the inclination of searching and establishing connections between different things. The nerve fibers inside the brain are connected with each other to form a network; the connections between the nerve fibers will gradually be strengthened if it receives incessant activation, weakened if little activation is assigned to that connection. The learning process is the one in which the weight of the connections between the network is gradually altered; learning process is not the one that abstract

rules are gradually established.

According to the connectionist theory, language learners will notice the regularities in the TL input, that is, they will notice that some elements or phenomena occur more frequently than others. After this, language learners will be able to abstract probabilistic patterns from TL input. The probabilistic patterns will gradually be strengthened for repeated activation; thereby language acquisition is made possible. With such an idea, it seems to be true that the so called rules or principles of a language are actually operating on the basis of probability. The more frequent a feature occurs in TL input, the easier it is to be acquired.

Following the connectionist theory, it seems to be safe to conclude that L1 constitutes one of the major difficulties of L2 acquisition. Further, L1 transfer could thus be viewed as a consequence of the activation of L1 probabilistic patterns triggered by L2 input.

III. THE ROLE OF L1 IN L2 ACQUISITION

When discussing the role of L1 in L2 acquisition, we are interested in how L1 knowledge interacts with input in shaping the learner's IL system and how both L1 and IL knowledge are drawn on in L2 production. Ellis has pointed out the necessity of distinguishing two types of transfer, namely, communication transfer and learning transfer, as they represent different approaches in studying L1 transfer phenomenon.

Scholars such as Corder (1983) attempt to explain L1 transfer in terms of solely communication, they deny the idea that learners directly transfer into their interlanguage system L1 elements. Corder used the term 'borrowing' to label L1 transfer, indicating the later is mainly a communication strategy. He believes that 'nothing is being transferred from anywhere to anywhere'. However, such a view of transfer is problematic, as indicated by Ellis in the sense that particular transfer errors occur in whole populations sharing the same L1, it seems to be inappropriate to suggest that all these learners engaged persistently in borrowing and as a result learnt the L1 structure; further, it is also unclear how communication transfer can explain the fossilization of certain L1 influenced structures in learners' IL of the kind that Kellerman have identified in advanced Dutch learners of English .

Therefore, it is not apropos to study transfer from the communicative perspective only. The need to recognize a more direct role of L1 in L2 acquisition is proposed by Schachter, who offered 'a new account of transfer', suggesting the regularity of the occurrence of learning transfer, as well as the need to understand the leaning transfer from a cognitive perspective rather than from a behaviorist perspective. She regards transfer as the set of constraints that one's previous knowledge imposes on the domains from which to select hypotheses about the new data. She uses the term 'universe' to refer to 'the set of constraints' and suggested that a learner's universe is dynamic in nature, i.e. it expands or contracts with the accumulation of learner's experience with L2. Because learner's L1 knowledge is part of his 'previous knowledge', it thus constitutes a very important source of knowledge from which a learner could draw upon in forming (and testing) new hypotheses about L2 along its development course.

Thus, the role of L1 in L2 acquisition should be approached from the viewpoint of both communication and learning. Ellis has offered a framework for explaining first language transfer in second language learning and communication.

Within the model, Ellis has proposed the following points:

1. The L1 system is utilized by both comprehension and production mechanisms, in both cases, there are constraints that govern when transfer takes place.

2. The interlanguage system is also utilized in the process of comprehending and receiving messages.

3. The L1 system is utilized in the hypothesis construction responsible for interlanguage development. Again, constraints exist on when transfer takes place.

4. Comprehensible input, including that input which has been make comprehensible with the help of L1 knowledge, serves as a major source of information for hypothesis construction.

5. L2 output, including that output which has been made comprehensible with the help of L1 knowledge, may be used for hypothesis construction.

IV. CONCLUSION: WHERE WE ARE AND WHERE WE ARE GOING

This paper has examined factors that tend to result in L1 transfer in terms of 7 aspects: Linguistic factors, Psycholinguistic factors, Sociolinguistic factors, Socio-psychological factors, Individual difference, Developmental factors, and Frequency of input.

It should be noticed, however, that factors conductive to L1 transfer are more than what this paper have mentioned, for example, there are studies indicate that gender difference could be a factor resulting in the different extend to which male and female L2 learner would transfer.

More importantly, it should be pointed out that though this paper examined 7 categories of factors separately as if they operate independently; in actuality, however, L1 transfer is a consequence of the co-influence of all of those factors mentioned above, or even more. How these factors interact with each other to shape L2 learners' L1 transfer behavior would be an interesting yet challenging subject of research in the study of language transfer phenomenon.

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Levels and Sources of Language Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation among Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—**Anxiety, as an important affective variable, has been found to be a significant factor adversely affecting language learning (Aydin 2008). Many studies have explored sources and causes of anxiety among learners (Young, 1991; Tanveer, 2007; Aydin 2008; Williams& Andrade, 2008). However, to date little, if any, studies have examined levels and sources of anxiety and its relationship with fear of negative evaluation. To this end, the present study has been conducted in Iranian context. Data were gathered through administering two scales. Foreign language anxiety classroom scale (FLACS) and fear of negative evaluation (FNE) scale were administered to a sample of 61 EFL learners. To analyze data, descriptive statistics and inferential statistics, i.e. independent sample t-test, were run. Descriptive analysis indicated that participants suffer from language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. The result of independent sample t-test showed there was no significant difference between males and females in the levels of anxiety. The computation of means and standard deviations of statements in questionnaires revealed that the prime sources of language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation are fear of failing class and fear of leaving unfavorable impression on others, respectively. Furthermore, Pearson correlation analysis indicated there is a significant correlation between foreign language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. The present study will examine the causes of anxiety of students through the various types of anxiety that the students encounter in relation to learning English in a foreign land. Specifically, the research will look into foreign language classroom anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, as well as to determine the relationship between the two.**

Index Terms—**foreign language anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, sources and causes**

I. INTRODUCTION

The definition of anxiety is difficult as it can range from an amalgam of overt behavioral characteristics that can be studied scientifically to introspecting feelings that are inaccessible (Lader, 1975). Therefore, anxiety can be described in a large scope. Anxiety as an affective state is defined as an uncomfortable emotional state in which one perceive danger, feels powerless, and experiences tensions in the face an expected danger (Blau, 1955). "Psychologists describe anxiety as a state of apprehension a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object' (Tanveer, 2007). And Young (1991) defined it in this way: it is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon and can be defined as a subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the automatic nervous system.

Anxiety can be classified into three types. Trait anxiety is viewed as an aspect of personality. State anxiety is an apprehension experienced at a particular moment in times as a response to a definite situation (Spielberger, 1983). Finally, the last of the three types, situation- specific anxiety is related to apprehension unique to specific situations and events (Ellis, 1994). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) describe the concept as the apprehension experienced when a specific situation requires the use of a second language in which the individual is not fully proficient. Anxiety has been found to interfere with many types of learning but when it is associated with learning a second or foreign language it is termed as second or foreign language anxiety. With the shift of research focus from teachers to learners in second language acquisition and learning, affective factors such as attitude, motivation and anxiety were thought to account for successful language learning outcomes. Anxiety, considered as one of the most important factors, has been studied since the 1970s. Macintyre and Gardener (1994) in a study they conducted involving 97 students learning French, found that those students with language anxiety find it more difficult to express their own views and tend to underestimate their own abilities. Phillhine ESL Journal, Vol. 7, July 2011. 2011 Time Taylor International ISSN 1718-229896. They also discovered that in the process of three stages of language acquisition, that is, input, processing and output, anxiety and learning achievement are negatively correlated (Macintyre & Gardener, 1994 as cited in Pappamihiel, 2002). Pappamihiel (2002) conducted a study on language anxiety among 178 middle-school Mexican immigrant students attending school in the US. Participants were subjected to the English Language Anxiety Scale to identify how levels of anxiety correlated with specific factors such as years of stay in the US, levels of academic achievement, listening and speaking skills, reading and writing skills and gender. Results show that interaction with Mexican students raised levels of anxiety and that such strategies such as avoidance were used to reduce anxiety. In relation to Pappamihiel's study. Na

in 2007, surveyed 115 Chinese high school students and found that these learners have high anxiety in learning the English language. Specifically she discovered that males have higher anxiety in learning English than their female counterparts. Moreover, she also found out that high anxiety plays a debilitative role in high school students language learning. This type of language anxiety causes the learner to "flee" from the learning task to avoid further anxiety (Na, 2007). Moreover, Ohata (2005) examined the nature of language anxiety from the perspective of five Japanese learners of English studying in the US. With the use of self-reflective accounts of the emotional difficulties experienced by these language learners, she found that characteristics of language anxiety are influenced by Japanese cultural norms or expectations they have acquired through numerous socialization processes in Japan. It seems that their cultural practices such as hesitating to express one's own ideas or not being assertive, caused them anxieties in their interaction with others. Williams and Andrade (2008) conducted a survey among 243 Japanese students in 31 English conversation classes at four universities in Japan. They found that language anxiety was often associated with the output and processing stages of the language learning process. Furthermore, they also discovered that students attributed their anxieties are caused by their teachers and classmates.

Foreign language anxiety has three varieties. *Communication* apprehension occurs in cases where learners lack mature communications skills although they have mature ideas and thoughts. It refers to a fear of getting into real communication with others. On the other hand, *test* anxiety is an apprehension towards academic evaluation. It could be defined as a fear of falling in tests and an unpleasant experience held either consciously or unconsciously by learners in many situations. This type of anxiety concerns apprehensions towards academic evaluation which is based on a fear of failure (Horwitz and Young, 1991). Finally, *fear of negative evaluation* which is the avoidance of evaluative situations.

Watson and Friend (1969, cited in Westra, 2005) defined fear of negative evaluation as apprehension about others` evaluations, distress over their negative evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively.

Many studies have been conducted to investigate the effect of anxiety on learning. The results of studies previously conducted regarding foreign language anxiety show that learners` beliefs about learning a foreign language, teachers` beliefs about teaching a foreign language, and classroom procedures and testing are among the main sources of anxiety (Young, 1991). Some research has been done to examine the relationship between language anxiety and language achievement, showing that language anxiety is a significant variable affecting learners` achievement (Dalkilic, 2001). In another study (Koralp, 2005) examined the anxiety levels of students and the relationship among different types of anxiety. It was discovered that there is a positive correlation between text anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.

However, a few studies have concerned with the sources of language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. For example, according to Horwitz et al. (1986), fear of negative evaluation is triggered by the teacher as a fluent speaker and the classmates. In this regard, Young (1991) argued that the reason why learners do not participate in the classroom activities is the fear of making verbal error.

 Investigation on the correlation between foreign language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation is an issue that has attracted little attention in language learning research (Kitano, 2001). The number of studies conducted in this regard is too limited. For instance, Aydin (2008) investigate the sources and levels of fear of negative evaluation as well as language anxiety among Turkish students. He found that there was a significant correlation between language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.   As said, related studies are limited and more work is needed to make strong claims. So, the present study also aims to investigate the levels and sources of language anxiety on the part of EFL learners and examine the relationship between language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation among EFL learners in another context. This study also aims to investigate whether there is any difference between female and male students in terms of levels of anxiety.

The results of the previously conducted studies regarding foreign language anxiety indicate that personal and impersonal anxieties, learners' beliefs about learning a foreign language, teachers' beliefs about teaching a foreign language, classroom procedures and testing are among the main sources of anxiety (Young, 1991). Furthermore, a review of the related literature reveals that the level of language course, language skills, motivation, proficiency, teachers, tests, and culture (Bailey, 1983; Ellis and Rathbone, 1987; Young, 1990; Price, 1991; Sparks and Ganschow, 1991; Oxford, 1992) are other factors arousing anxiety. However, it should be noted that prior studies focused on the identification of foreign language anxiety. For instance, Horwitz (1986) developed the Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (FLAS) to measure communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. The results of the this study suggest that language anxiety is distinct from other types of anxiety.

The findings of the previous studies also indicate that there exists a significant correlation between foreign language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, an issue that has attracted little attention in language learning research (Kitano, 2001). According to Horwitz et al. (1986), fear of negative evaluation is triggered by the teacher as a fluent speaker and the classmates. Young (1991) argued that the reason why learners do not participate in the classroom activities is the fear of committing a verbal error. Similarly, Price's study (1991) indicated that learners are afraid of making pronunciation errors in classroom. Finally, speaking in front of their peers is another source of anxiety in learning a foreign language (Koch and Terrell, 1991).

A review of available literature indicates that related studies conducted in Turkey are too limited. In the process of analysis, first and foremost, the reliability coefficient of IAS in Cronbach's Alpha Model, a model of internal

consistency based on the average interitem correlation, was computed and compared to the coefficients found in previous studies. The reliability coefficients indicated that the scales of the FLA and FNE administered to measure the levels of language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation display a high level of reliability. Speaking more specifically, the reliability coefficients were found to be 0.91 for FLAS and 0.93 for the scale of FNE. The scale developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) proved to be reliable with the coefficient of .93 in Alpha model and the test-retest coefficient of .83.

The first research question concerned the levels and sources of language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation of foreign language learners. Hence, the findings about the levels and sources are presented in Table 1 and 2 in descending order. These values indicate that EFL learners suffered from language anxiety due to certain anxiety-provoking factors. First, the findings reveal that learners experienced language anxiety when they were not prepared for the lesson. Second, communication apprehension felt towards teachers, peers and native speakers was suggested as a factor provoking anxiety. Third, for most of the students, teachers' questions and corrections in the classroom environment were among the factors intensifying their anxiety. As the values indicate, among other sources arousing anxiety were fear of speaking during classes, concerns about making mistakes, fear of failing classes, test anxiety, and negative attitudes towards English courses. The values presented in Table 2 demonstrate that learners also suffered from fear of negative evaluation. First of all, foreign language learners had the fear of negative judgments by and leaving unfavorable impressions on others. Besides, others' negative thoughts and fear of making verbal or spelling mistakes, fear of shortcomings noted and the faults found by others and the fear of disapproval by others are other sources causing fear of negative evaluation. To summarize the findings, as the mean values were found to be 2.61 for language anxiety and 2.89 for fear of negative evaluation, it could be concluded that foreign language learners suffered both from language

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participates

The sample of the study consisted of 61(22males, 39females) students studying English literature at Ilam University. The group covered freshmen (5 males, 13females), sophomores (8 males, 11 females), and seniors (9males, 15 females). Their average age was 22. They had all studied English during high school education. A Descriptive statistical analysis was used in analyzing the data that was collected.

B. Instrument

Instruments used to collect data consisted of a foreign language classroom anxiety scale adapted from FLCAS developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) and a scale for fear of negative evaluation (FNE) developed by Leary (1983). The first part of questionnaire includes biodata questions. The items in both the FLCAS and the scale of FNE were answered within a scale ranging from one to five.

FLCAS is based on the analysis of potential sources of anxiety in a language classroom. It integrates three related anxieties (communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation) as suggested by Horwitz et al. (1986). This scale includes 33 items, of which 8 items are related to communication anxiety, 9 items to fear of negative evaluation, and 5 items to test anxiety, and remaining 11 items are put in a group named anxiety of English class. Descriptive analysis was performed to calculate mean and standard deviation of each item and each type of anxiety to obtain the general situation of students` anxiety in classroom. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) designed by Horwitz et la. (1986) was used to obtain data for this study. Horwitz and his colleagues made a unique contribution to the identification of the scope of foreign language anxiety by developing this systematic instrument. Horwitz et la. suggest that significant foreign language anxiety is experienced by many learners in response to at least some aspects of foreign language learning. This concept has been examined and used by several studies on language anxiety (Aida, 1994; Cheng, 1998; Liu, 2006; Saito, Garza & Horwitz, 1999; Yan, 1998)

C. Data Collection and Data Analysis

Procedure includes the administration of instruments and statistical analysis. FLCAS and the scale of FNE were administered by author. The collected data were analyzed using SPSS 16.0 software. To find the levels and sources of the language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, the means and standard deviations were computed. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the relationship between language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.

III. RESULTS AND FINDINGS

The results of this study were to three folds: First determining the state of anxiety and general level of different kinds of anxiety. Second, finding sources of foreign language classroom anxiety and fear of negative evaluation; third, finding correlation between these two variables. Descriptive analyses, presented in Table 1, indicated that participants had the feeling of anxiety. Based on Horwitz et al. ` interpretation, students who have average around 3 are considered slightly anxious.

TABLE 1:
THE MEAN OF PARTICIPANTS` SCORES

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Participants` Scores	61	1.67	4.24	3.0468	.55285
Valid N (listwise)	61				

Moreover, through the computation of means and standard deviations of each kind of anxiety, it was found that students` fear of negative evaluation, the mean of which reached 3.2011, was higher than other kinds of anxiety. Table 2 shows means and standard deviations of students in terms of each kind of anxiety.

TABLE 2:
GENERAL LEVEL OF ANXIETY OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Anxiety Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Communication Apprehension	2.9518	.62552
Fear of Negative Evaluation	3.2011	.84951
Test Anxiety	2.8459	.59149
Anxiety of English Class	2.9649	.49994
English Class Anxiety	3.0468	.55285

In order to compare males and females` levels of anxiety, another calculation was performed. As can be seen from Table 3, females` means in all kinds of anxiety is higher than males, which shows that females may experience more anxiety than males in English classes. However, the result of independent sample t-test indicated there was no significant difference between males and females in anxiety (Table 4).

TABLE 3:
MALES AND FEMALES` ENGLISH CLASS ANXIETY

Anxiety Variable	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation
Communication Apprehension	Female	3.0995	.64184
	Male	2.9518	.62552
Fear of Negative Evaluation	Female	3.3311	.91803
	Male	2.9958	.69147
Test Anxiety	Female	2.8769	.57237
	Male	2.7909	.63389
Anxiety of English Class	Female	2.9985	.50218
	Male	2.9045	.50156
English Class Anxiety	Female	3.0765	.658605
	Male	2.91075	.61311

TABLE 4:
RESULT OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST MEASURE

t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
-.793	59	.431

In order to find the levels and sources of foreign language class anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, the means and standard deviation of statements in FLACA scale and FNE scale were calculated. Findings related to the levels and sources are presented in Table 5 and 6.

TABLE 5:
LEVELS AND SOURCES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASS ANXIETY

Sources of Language Anxiety	Mean	St. Deviation
Fear of failing classes	3.5902	1.22987
Not being prepared for questions teacher ask	3.5738	1.14687
Fear of forgetting vocabulary and structures	3.4098	1.29585
Fear of speaking without preparation	3.3770	1.33121
Communication apprehension with teachers	3.3607	1.25210
Fear of being laughed by other students	3.0820	1.35763
Being overwhelmed by the number of rules to learn	3.0656	0.99781
Fear of making mistake	3.0492	1.30928
Comprehension apprehension with native speakers	3.0328	1.23784
Test anxiety	2.8525	1.19493
Fear of being called in class	2.3387	1.05494

These values show that the anxiety EFL learners experience in classroom may originate from certain sources. Firstly, the findings reveal that the prime factor which arouses anxiety among learners is fear of failing classes. Secondly, when students are not prepared for questions teachers ask they experience anxiety. Thirdly, fear of forgetting vocabulary and structures or forgetting what they know is proposed as a source provoking anxiety. As findings indicate, among other

sources arousing anxiety was fear of speaking without preparation during the class, communication apprehension with teachers, fear of being laughed by peers, fear of making mistake, test anxiety, and fear of being called in class.

TABLE 6:
LEVELS AND SOURCES OF FEAR OF NEGATIVE EVALUATION

Sources of Fear of Negative Evaluation	Mean	St. Deviation
Fear of leaving unfavorable impression on others	3.4754	1.42134
Negative judgment by others	3.3115	1.36065
Fear of saying or doing the wrong things	3.1639	3.0169
Fear of negative thoughts of others	3.0169	1.44328
Fear of being noted the shortcoming by others	2.9344	1.43603
Fear of being found fault by others	2.9076	1.43417
Fear of disapproval by others	2.8033	1.30153

The values presented in Table 6 indicate that learners also suffered from fear of negative evaluation. The first source of fear of negative evaluation is suggested as fear of leaving unfavorable impression on others. Besides, negative judgment by others, fear of saying or doing wrong thing, fear of negative thoughts of and being noted the shortcoming by others, and fear of being found fault by and disapproval by others are other sources causing fear of negative evaluation. In general, the values demonstrate that learners both suffer from language anxiety in class and fear of negative evaluation.

Pearson correlation was calculated to determine the relationship between language anxiety and correlation between fear of negative evaluation and language anxiety.

TABLE 5:
CORRELATION BETWEEN ANXIETY AND FEAR OF NEGATIVE EVALUATION.

Correlations

		anxiety	FNE
anxiety	Pearson Correlation	1	.450[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	61	61
FNE	Pearson Correlation	.450[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	61	61

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

The value found from this calculation indicates that there exists significant relationship between foreign language class anxiety and fear of negative evaluation (r= .450).

IV. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

This study aimed to investigate sources and levels of foreign language classroom anxiety and fear of negative evaluation as well as to determine the relationship between the two. Results of calculations showed that subjects suffer from both foreign language classroom anxiety (mean= 3.04) and fear of negative evaluation. According to the mean and standard deviation scores, females are more anxious than males in terms of each kind of language anxiety. But, the results of independent sample t-test showed that there was no significant difference between males and females (p=.431>0.05). It was found that fear of negative evaluation, whose mean reached 3.2011, was a serious source of language anxiety. The obtained mean scores of freshmen, sophomore, and senior students showed that senior students (M= 3.33) experienced more anxiety than freshmen (2.97) and sophomores (2.69).

Findings of computation of mean and standard deviation of statements of FLCA and FNE scales demonstrated that the main sources of language anxiety were fear of failing class, unpreparedness of teachers` questions, fear of forgetting vocabulary and structures. And main sources provoking fear of negative evaluation was leaving unfavorable impressions on others, negative judgment by others, and fear of doing and saying wrong things. Calculating values demonstrated that the fear of negative evaluation is a strong source of foreign language class anxiety.

According to the results of previous research, communication apprehension is a significant source of anxiety (Koch and Terrell, 1991; Price, 1991, cited in Aydin 2008). Although Young (1991) stated that teachers` beliefs about teaching a foreign language is one of the factors provoking anxiety, based on the results of this study there are additional factors such as not being prepared for questions the teacher ask ,communication apprehension with teachers, and teachers` correction, which play an important role in determining the level of anxiety. Furthermore, the findings of this study demonstrate that anxiety can prevent learners from applying correct vocabulary and structures while speaking. The findings are almost in line with results that Aydin found among Turkish students. The result of correlation analyses showed that there is a correlation between foreign language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.

Regarding the effect anxiety can play in learning a language, Krashen (1985) maintained that anxiety inhibits the learners` ability to process incoming language and short-circuits the process of acquisition. Furthermore, Crookal and

Oxford (1991, cited in Wőrde 2003) reported that serious language anxiety may cause problems with self-esteem, self-confidence, and risk- taking ability and ultimately hamper in proficiency in second language.

Given the role anxiety plays in learning, teachers and administrators should take it serious and attempt to reduce the effects of it on the process of students` learning. According to Horwitz and his colleagues (1986), educators have two options when dealing with anxious students: 1) they can help them to cope with the existing anxiety provoking situations; or 2) they can make the learning context less stressful.

Studies that have worked on this issue all suggest that instructors play a significant role in the amount of anxiety each student's experience in class (Price 1991; Young 1990; cited in Wőrde 2003). Wőrde, in his study in which he interviewed many students, reported those teachers who provide a supportive and understanding environment, who employ nonthreating teaching methods and who use appealing and relevant topics may enhance the foreign language learning. His interviews also indicated an atmosphere of cordiality, communality, and friendship among students themselves seems to reduce learners` anxiety. In this respect, Samimy and Rardin (1994) also reported that group solidarity may intensify language learning.

Given the paramount role instructors play in reducing amount of anxiety among learners, they are recommended to employ various psychological strategies in classroom.

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The Interaction between Metaphor and Metonymy in Emotion Category

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Abstract—Based on the contemporary theory of metaphor and metonymy, the present dissertation makes an attempt to explore the models of interaction between metaphor and metonymy conceptualization and understanding of the concept of emotion, especially the five basic emotions: happiness/joy, anger, sadness, fear and love. The author find that the interaction between metaphor and metonymy in emotion category exists and is frequent. On the other hand, the metonymy-based metaphor is the model that the metaphor and metonymy interact with each other in emotion category.

Index Terms—metaphor, metonymy, model of interaction, metonymy-based metaphor, emotion

I. INTRODUCTION

Emotion is one of the most central and pervasive aspects of human experience. Since cognition can influence and be influenced by emotions, the study of human emotion constitutes one of the essential components in our probe into human cognition. Emotions and their conceptions cannot be adequately studied without reference to language of emotions. The most readily available non-phenomenal access we have to emotions is through language, and linguistic analysis has long been an essential source of information about emotion concepts. Cognitive semantics believes that the conventionalized language used to talk about the emotions can be an important tool in discovering the structure and contents of emotion concepts. The contemporary theory of metaphor regards metaphors as playing an important role in the folk and scientific conceptualization of emotion. Extensive studies have been made by Lakoff on the function of metaphor in the conceptualization of emotion. A central claim of these studies is that human emotions, which are abstract in nature, are to a great extent conceptualized and expressed by metaphor grounded in bodily experiences

As for the interaction between metaphor and metonymy, many linguists made contribution: Taylor discusses the internal variation between pre-metonymic and metonymic expressions; Louis Goossens proposes the concept metaphtonymy; Riemer, as well as Barcelona, is more interested in the ambiguities, overlappings and uncertainties of metaphor and metonymy status; Radden offers a broad canvas of all types of metonymic bases of metaphor; Dirk Geeraerts concentrates on idioms and compounds, which he subsumes under the label composite expressions, etc.

Based on the previous studies and the collection of basic emotions, this thesis employs concrete models and perspectives to focus on how to understand emotion words through these models, and the whole study will be full of concrete samples to explain the cognitive process of interpreting the emotion words. Besides, this thesis attempts to give answer to the following two questions: "In emotion expressions, are there metaphor and metonymy?" and "How do metaphor and metonymy interact in emotion category?"

II. A COGNITIVE APPROACH TO METAPHOR AND METONYMY

Metaphor is the cognitive mechanism whereby one experiential domain (Langacker, 1987) is partially mapped onto a different experiential domain, the second domain being partially understood in terms of the first one. The domain that is mapped is called the source or donor domain, and the domain onto which it is mapped, is called the target or recipient domain. Both domains have to belong to different superordinate domains. This is basically the cognitive concept of metaphor propounded by George Lakoff, Mark Johnson and Mark Turner (Johnson 1987, Lakoff &Johnson 1980, Lakoff 1987, 1990, 1993, Lakoff &Turner 1989, Turner 1987, 1991), as well as by Gibbs (1994), Sweetser (1991), and by other cognitive linguists who have been investigating the field in the past years.

Metonymy has not received as much attention as metaphor in cognitive linguistics, although it is probably even more basic than metaphor in language and cognition (Taylor, 1995). Metonymy is a cognitive mechanism whereby one experiential domain included in the same common experiential domain. Metonymy is a case of what Croft calls domain highlighting, whereas metaphor is a case of what he calls domain mapping. In metonymy the target domain is "highlighted," i.e. mentally activated, often with a limited discourse purpose (Lakoff 1987: 78-80), because it is this domain that is partially conceptualized by mapping onto it the source domain included in the same common domain.

The difference between the two is that while metaphor involves a mapping across different cognitive models, metonymy is a mapping within one model. One category within a model is taken as standing for another category within the same model. The main function of a metonymic expression, then, is to activate one cognitive category by

referring to another category within the same model, and by doing that, to highlight the first category or the submodel to which it belongs.

III.   METAPHOR-METONYMY INTERACTION IN EMOTION CATEGORY

A.   Basic Emotion Categories

Within the category of descriptive emotion words, the terms can be seen as "more or less basic." Speakers of a given language appear to feel that some of the emotion words are more basic than others. More basic ones include in English *anger, sadness, fear, joy,* and *love*. Less basic ones include *annoyance, wrath, rage*, and *indignation* for anger and *terror, fright,* and *horror* for fear.

Basicness can mean two things. One is that these words occupy a middle level in a vertical hierarchy of concepts (Rosch, 1975, 1978). In this sense, anger is more basic than, for example, annoyance or emotion. Anger, being a basic-level emotion category, lies between the superordinate-level category emotion and the subordinate-level category of annoyance. This is depicted in Figure1.

The other sense of "basicness" is that a particular emotion category can be judged to be more "prototypical" of emotion than another at the same horizontal level (Rosch, 1975, 1978). This horizontal level coincides with the basic level of the vertical organization of concepts. For instance, *anger* is more basic in this sense than *hope* or *pride*, which in the previous sense, are on the same level. (See Figure 2)

Superordinate level:	emotion
Middle (basic) level:	anger
Subordinate level:	annoyance
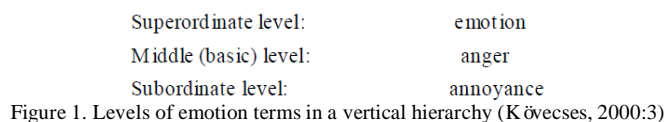
Figure 1. Levels of emotion terms in a vertical hierarchy (Kövecses, 2000:3)

Emotion

Basic level	hope pride anger fear sadness lust surprise

Annoyance
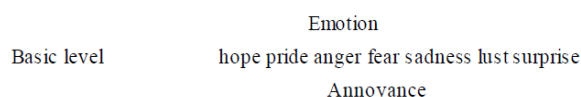
Figure2. Prototypical vs. nonprototypical emotion terms on the horizontal level of conceptual organization. (Kövecses 2000:4)

These organizations of emotion terms have been extensively studied in the past decade, e.g., Smith and Tkel-Sbal (1995) investigate the possibility that emotion terms are prototypically organized in the Micronesian language of Palau, and Smith (1995) attempts to do the same for Turkish, Fehr and Russell (1984), Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson, and O'Connor (1987) make contributions to it too. Cross-cultural research along these lines is just beginning. Using a methodology borrowed from Fehr and Russell (1984), Frijda, Markan, Sato, and Wiers (1995) arrive at five general and possibly universal categories of emotion in 11 languages. These basic emotion categories include happiness, sadness, anger, fear, and love. According to John-Laird and Oatley (1989), certain emotion terms are basic and unanalysable in the sense that they cannot be broken down into attributes or other even more basic emotions. This means that basic emotion categories like JOY or ANGER will normally be used as points of reference to describe non-basic ones like EUPHORIA, EXUBERANCE, FURY or RAGE and not vice versa. Consequently, a good way to identify basic emotions is to look at the emotion vocabulary of a language and to try to describe its emotion words in terms of attributes. This would filter out all analyzable emotion terms, so the residue of this process would be regarded as unanalysable basic emotions, which was very similar to other recent proposals and comprised all the basic emotions assembled as: SADNESS, ANGER, DISGUST/HATE, FEAR, JOY/HAPPINESS, and DESIRE/LOVE. This paper will discuss them as well.

B.   Interaction between Metaphor and Metonymy in Basic Emotion Category

1.   Emotions and Physiological Metonymies

The link between emotions and physiological symptoms reflects certain metonymic mappings, especially the cause-effect relationship observed in metonymies like THE TONGUE STANDS FOR SPEECH or THE HAND STANDS FOR WRITING. These similarities make it understandable why Kövecses and Lakoff (1987) have postulated a general metonymic principle: THE PHYSIOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF AN EMOTION STAND FOR THE EMOTION. Figure 1 gives an idea of the kinds of bodily symptoms that are related to emotions in linguistic expressions in English. The examples collected are taken from dictionaries and from informants' statements in the psychological tests. Kövecses (1990a), whose main source is *Roget's Treasure*, for collections of informants' statements on physiological effects. (Davitz, 1969; Shaver et al., 1987) As a result they reflect the folk theory of the physiological effects of emotions, but not necessarily objective scientific observations.

Going through Figure1, it can be singled out those three aspects between them illustrate both the potential and the limitations of physiology metonymies.

First, there are indeed bodily symptoms which seem to be helpful for a description of the conceptual structure of emotions because they are peculiar to one particular emotion: drop in temperature, sweat, dryness in the mouth, and blood leaves face for FEAR, erect posture for PRIDE, drooping posture for SADNESS, jumping up and down for JOY. Obviously these physiological phenomena help to conceptualize the emotions in question, especially where they are

contrasted with opposites as in the case of erect vs drooping posture. Other examples are the drop of body temperature for FEAR, which is juxtaposed with its increase for ANGER, JOY, LOVE, or the paleness of the face again for FEAR, which contrasts with a red or even scarlet face and neck area for ANGER.

Then, as the example FEAR shows, an emotion category can attract conflicting metonymies, and this raises the question: Which of them is more reliable and representative? Can FEAR be connected with paralysis of the body or with flight? It might be people's preference depending on the situation, perhaps on the individual person, or it could also be a matter of sequence, with a state of paralysis functioning as preface to flight. In any case this could mean that both metonymies may play a part in the conceptualization of FEAR.

The last, and maybe the most serious problem is that many metonymies apply not just to one or a few closely related emotions but to a range of quite different emotions. ANGER, JOY and LOVE can cause an increase in body temperature, though with ANGER this would be irritating heat, while with JOY it takes the form of comfortable warmth, and with LOVE both forms are possible; all three emotions may flush one's face. ANGER and JOY, also SADNESS and FEAR can result in tears, and accelerated heartbeat and palpitations can be due to ANGER, FEAR, DISGUST and again LOVE, and general physical agitation seems to underlie all the major emotions listed in Figure 3. This means that though they may be helpful, metonymies cannot provide the conceptual structure of emotions all by themselves. To achieve this goal, metonymies have to be supported by the conceptual potential supplied by metaphors.

Physiological effect (source)	Emotion (target)	Example
Increase in body temperature	ANGER, JOY, LOVE	Don't get hot under the collar.
Drop in body temperature	FEAR	I was chilled to the bone.
Redness in face and neck area	ANGER, JOY	She was flushed with anger.
Blood leaves face	FEAR	She turned as pale as a sheet.
Crying and tears	ANGER, SADNESS, FEAR, JOY	Tears welled up in her. She cried with joy.
Sweat	FEAR	There were sweat beads on his forehead, his hands ware damp.
Dryness of mouth	FEAR	His mouth was dry.
Increased pulse rate and blood pressure, palpitations	ANGER, DISGUST, FEAT, LOVE	His heart pounded. He almost burst a blood vessel.
Lapse of heartbeat	FEAR	You made my heart miss a beat.
Erect posture, chest out	PRIDE	He swelled with pride.
Drooping posture	SADNESS	My heart sank.
Inability to move	FEAR	She was paralyzed with fear
Flight	FEAR	He ran for his life.
Jumping up and down	JOY	He was jumping for joy.
Hugging	JOY, LOVE	I could hug you all.
General physical agitation	ANGER, DISGUST, FEAR, JOY, LOVE	She was quivering/excited/keyed up/over stimulated.

Figure 3. A selection of physiological metonymies for emotion (based on various publications by Kövecses, Davitz 1969 and Shaver et al. 1987)

2. Sample Analysis of the Interaction in Basic Emotion Category
a. Sample Analysis in ANGER

Anger is an emotional state that may range from minor irritation to intense rage. The physical effects of anger include increased heart rate, blood pressure, and levels of adrenaline and noradrenaline.

The external expression of anger can be found in facial expressions, body language, physiological responses, and at times in public acts of aggression. Animals and humans for example make loud sounds, attempt to look physically larger, bare their teeth, and stare. Anger is a behavioral pattern designed to warn aggressors to stop their threatening behavior. Rarely does a physical altercation occur without the prior expression of anger by at least one of the participants. While most of those who experience anger explain its arousal as a result of "what has happened to them," psychologists point out that an angry person can be very well mistaken because anger causes a loss in self-monitoring capacity and objective observability. In the world of humans, the unique use of codified symbols and sounds -written and spoken language, pain or the threat of pain can be perceived from written and verbal sources. Humans may not perceive an immediate physical threat, but pain can be felt psychologically. Due to humans' capacity to imagine the distant future, the threat of pain can also arise purely from the imagination, and not be based on anything happening in the immediate present. In humans, anger often arises when another human being is perceived to violate expected behavioral norms related to social survival. These violations break social or interpersonal boundaries, or may be ethical or legal violations.

Metonymic-based metaphor is a frequent type in the figurative expressions. A great many of metaphors have been found to have a metonymic basis. The classic case of this interaction is the link between the metonymy based on body heat, and heat metaphor, as described by Kövecses and Lakoff (1987).

The conventional expressions used to talk about anger seem so diverse that finding any coherent system would seem impossible. Here are some sample sentences found in Roget's University Thesaurus, most of which have something to do with anger. They seem too diverse to reflect any coherent cognitive model.

a. He lost his cool.

b. She was looking daggers at me.

c. E almost burst a blood vessel.

d. He was foaming at the mouth.

e. You're beginning to get to me.

f. You make my blood boil.

b. Physiological Effect of ANGER

Physiological responses to anger include an increase in the heart rate, preparing the person to move, and increase of the blood flow to the hands, preparing them to strike. Perspiration increases, particularly when the anger is intense. A common metaphor for the physiological aspect of anger is that of a hot fluid in a container. According to Novaco (2000), "Autonomic arousal is primarily engaged through adrenomedullary and adrenocortical hormonal activity. The secretion by the andrenal medulla of the catecholamines, epinephrine, and norepinephrine, and by the andrenal cortex of glucocorticoids provides a sympathetic system effect that mobilizes the body for immediate action (e.g. the release of glucose, stored in the liver and muscles as glycogen). In anger, the catecholamine activation is more strongly norepinephrine than epinephrine (the reverse being the case for fear). The adrenocortical effects, which have longer duration than the adrenomedullary ones, are modiated by secretions of the pituitary gland, which also influences testosterone levels. The pituitary-adrenocortical and pituitary-gonadal systems are thought to affect readiness or potentiation for anger responding."

The analysis is with the folk theory of the physiological effects of anger. The physiological effects of anger are increased body heat, increased internal pressure, like blood pressure and muscular pressure, agitation and interference with accurate perception; as anger increases, its physiological effects increase; there is a limit beyond which the physiological effects of anger impair normal functioning. This folk theory is used to tell when someone is angry on the basis of their appearance-as well as to signal anger or hide it. In doing this, a general metonymic principle must be made use of: THE PHYSIOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF AN EMOTION STAND FOR THE EMOTION.

By using this principle, the folk theory given above yields a system of metonymies for anger (Lakoff, 1987:382-383):

Body heat

a. Don't get hot under the collar.

b. Billy's a hothead.

c. They were having a heated argument.

d. When the cop gave her a ticket, she got all hot and bothered and started cursing.

Internal pressure

a. Don't get a hernia!

b. When I found out, I almost burst a blood vessel.

c. He almost had a hemorrhage.

Increased body heat and blood pressure is assumed to cause redness in the face and neck area and such redness can also metonymically indicate anger.

Redness in face and neck area

a. She was scarlet with rage.

b. He got red with anger.

c. He was flushed with anger.

Agitation

a. She was shaking with anger.

b. I was hopping mad.

c. He was quivering with rage.

d. He's all worked up.

e. There's no need to get so excited about it!

f. She's all wrought up.

g. You look upset.

Interference with accurate perception

a. She was blind with rage.

b. I was beginning to see red.

c. I was so mad I couldn't see straight.

Each of these expressions indicates the presence of anger by its supposed physiological effects.

c. Interaction between Metaphor and Metonymy in ANGER

The folk theory of physiological effects, especially the part that emphasizes HEAT, forms the basis of the most general metaphor for anger: ANGER IS HEAT (Lakoff, 1987). But this rather abstract principle is made much more accessible if it can be imagined in the forms of a fire and a hot fluid. There are two versions of this metaphor, one where the heat is applied to fluids and the other where it is applied to solids. When it is applied to fluids, ANGER IS THE HEAT OF A FLUID IN A CONTAINER can be reached. The specific motivation for this consists of the HEAT, INTERNAL PRESSURE, and AGITATION parts of the folk theory. When ANGER IS HEAT is applied to solids, that is the version ANGER IS FIRE, which is motivated by the HEAT and REDNESS aspects of the folk theory of

physiological effects. This is illustrated in Figure 4.

Metonymy: INCREASE IN BODY TEMPERATURE STANDS FOR ANGER

Metaphor: ANGER IS HEAT

ANGER IS FIRE

You've added fuel to the fire.

After the argument he was smoldering for days.

He was consumed by his anger

ANGER IS THE HEAT OF A FLUID IN A CONTAINER

He was seething with anger.

Anger made his blood boil.

AS ANGER INCREASES…

FLUID RISES IN THE CONTAINER

His anger welled up inside him.

PRESSURE INCREASED IN THE CONTAINER

She was bursting with anger.

STEAM IS GENERATED IN THE CONTAINER

She got all teamed up/was fuming.

STEAM IS LET OUT UNDER CONTROL

He gave vent to his anger.

AS PRESSURE GETS TOO INTENSE…

THE CONTAINER EXPLODES

He just exploded/erupted

INSIDE OF CONTAINER COMES OUT

I blew up my top.

She flipped her lid.

PARTS GO UP INTO THE AIR

She hit the ceiling.

Figure 4

Seen from this table, it is quite clear that the first of these two metaphorical applications ANGER IS FIRE is less developed than the second one ANGER IS THE HEST OF A FLUID IN A CONTAINER. Although FIRE is an important basic level event category combining a number of action and object categories, the various stages of kindling, maintaining and extinguishing a fire and the fuels involved in an ordinary fire do not seem to provide a very rich category structure which could be mapped onto the ANGER category. In contrast, the second HEAT metaphor, ANGER IS THE HEAT OF A FLUID IN A CONTAINER, has a much richer conceptual background. One reason is that many more source categories are involved, especially highly suggestive basic level categories like BOIL, RISE, STEAM, FUME, BURST, EXPLODE, for which most informants would be able to call up substantial attribute lists. More important still, this metaphor relies on one of the most basic spatial experiences, the be-in-something relation, which was introduced above as the image schema underlying the CONTAINER metaphor. Finally, the HEAT OF A FLUID metaphor is combined with another powerful metaphor, THE BODY IS A CONTAINER FOR EMOTINS, and this is linked up with the very basic and vital category BODY.

The result of this powerful metaphorical potential is the large number of derived metaphor listed in Figure 4. In the case of ANGER, the roles of metaphor and metonymy playing are equally important. The physiological effects mentioned above are counterbalanced by the heat metaphors and a series of other metaphors, such as:

ANGER IS AN ACTIVE ENEMY

I'm struggling with my anger.

He was battling with his anger.

She fought back her anger.

ANGER IS A DANGEROUS AGGRESSIVE ANIM

He has a ferocious temper.

It's dangerous to arouse his anger.

His anger grew.

3. Sample Analysis in FEAR

Fear is an emotional response to threats and danger. It is a basic survival mechanism occurring in response to a

specific stimulus, such as pain or the threat of pain.

Similar to the emotion category ANGER, there are a great number of conventional expressions about fear.

fear follows you home

face the fear

a. Physiological Effect of FEAR

In fear, one may go through various emotional stages. A good example of this is the *cornered rat*, which will try to run away until it is finally cornered by its predator, at which point it will become belligerent and fight back with heavy aggression until it either escapes, or is captured.

The same goes for most animals. Humans can become very intimidated by fear, causing them to go along with another's wishes without regard to their own input. They can also become equally violent and even deadly; it is an instinctive reaction caused by rising adrenaline levels, rather than a consciously thought-out decision. This is why, in many related cases, the death penalty cannot be made in a court of law.

The facial expression of fear includes the following components:

• One's eyes widen (out of anticipation for what will happen next).

• The pupils dilate (to take in more light).

• The upper lip rises.

• The brows draw together.

• Lips stretch horizontally.

The physiological effects of FEAR are drop in body temperature, blood leaves face, sweat, dryness of mouth, increased pulse rate and blood pressure, lapses of heartbeat, inability to move, flight, etc.

Also by using the principle that the physiological effects of an emotion stand for the emotion, the folk theory given above yields a system of metonymies for fear.

Drop in body temperature

I was chilled to the bone.

Blood leaves face

She turned pale/white as a sheet.

Sweat

There were sweat beads on his forehead.

His hands were damp.

Dryness of mouth

His mouth was dry.

Lapses of heartbeat

You made my heart miss a beat.

Inability to move

She was paralyzed with fear.

Flight

He ran for his life.

Increased pulse rate and blood pressure, palpitations

His heart pounded.

All these expressions are the illustrations of the physiological effect of FEAR. The category FEAR, which commands a large number of metonymies, does not seem to attract many conceptual metaphors. But beside metonymy, doesn't metaphor do any contribution to FEAR?

b. The Interaction between Metaphor and Metonymy in FEAR

The category FEAR, which commands a large number of metonymies, does not seem to attract many conceptual metaphors. However, are the expressions all pure metonymies in this category? Of course not. At least, FEAR IS A NATURAL FORCE, FEAR IS A VICIOUS OPPONENT OR TORMENTER and FEAR IS A TRICKSTER are the exceptions.

FEAR IS A NATURAL FORCE: fear overwhelms you engulfs you and sweeps over you

FEAR IS A VICIOUS OPPONENT OR TORMENTER: fear preys, fear creeps up on you

FEAR IS A TRICKSTER: fear may deceive you

First, FEAR IS A NATURAL FORCE is taken for example:

SOURCE   **METAPHOR**   TARGET

People are unable to move, drop in body temperature, etc Source	FEAR IS A NATURAL FORCE ↓ Fear overwhelms / engulfs / sweeps on somebody
Metonymy ↓	
Inability to move, drop in body temperature,etc. Target stands for fear.	Fear makes people under pressure, surrounded, in which people are unable to move, drop in body temperature, etc.
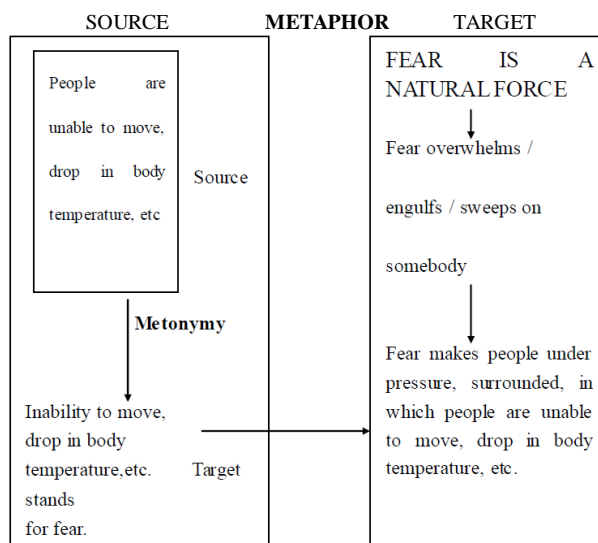
Figure 5

Seen from figure 5, source domain and target domain of the metonymy INABILITY TO MOVE STANDS FOR FEAR are included in the source domain of the metaphor FEAR IS A NATURAL FORCE. That is to say the metaphor FEAR IS A NATURAL FORCE is based on INABILITY TO MOVE STANDS FOR FEAR. It can be found that in this expression, the roles metaphor and metonymy plays are equal important.

The analysis of FEAR IS A VICIOUS OPPONENT OR TORMENTER and FEAR IS A TRICKSTER is illustrated as follows:

SOURCE   **METAPHOR**   TARGET

Lapses of heartbeat, increased pulse rate and blood pressure, palpitations, Source	FEAR IS A VICIOUS OPPONENT OR TORMENTER ↓ Fear preys on you, fear creeps up on you
Metonymy ↓ Lapses of heartbeat, increased pulse rate and blood pressure, Target palpitations, etc, stands for fear.	Fear hunt or catch somebody like animals. In such a situation, people often have increased pulse rate and blood pressure, sweat, and lapse of heartbeat, etc.

Figure 6

SOURCE   **METAPHOR**   TARGET

Lapses of heartbeat,increased pulse rate and bloodpressure,palpitations, etc Source	FEAR IS A TRICKSTER ↓ Fear may deceive you.
METONYMY ↓ Increased pulse rate and blood pressure and Target palpitations stands for fear.	When people are deceived, they will have increased pulse rate, blood pressure, and palpitation

Figure 7

4.   Sample Analysis in JOY/HAPPINESS

Happiness is an emotion associated with feelings ranging from contentment and satisfaction to bliss and intense joy. A variety of philosophical, religious, psychological and biological approaches have been taken to defining happiness and identifying its sources. Philosophers and religious thinkers have often defined happiness in terms of living a good life, or flourishing, rather than simply as an emotion. *Happiness* in this older sense was used to translate the Greek Eudaimonia, and is still used in virtue ethics. In everyday speech today, however, terms such as *well-being* or *quality of life* are usually used to signify the classical meaning, and *happiness* is reserved for the felt experience or experiences that philosophers historically called *pleasure*. Joy is an emotion of great happiness.

a. Physiological Effect of JOY/HAPPINESS

In addition to the above happiness metaphors, Kӧvecses (1991)also exemplifies the existence of conventionalized expressions metonymic of the emotion of happiness. As is the case with anger, these metonymic expressions are based on some behavioral reactions to happiness, such as jumping, dancing, smiling, and bright eyed, etc. Thus, in English there are:

Jumping
a. He jumped for joy.
b. He was leaping with joy.
Dancing
c. We were dancing with joy.
d. They kicked up their heels.
e. She had a ball.
Smiling
f. She was smiling with happiness.
g. They were all smiles.
h. He grinned from ear to ear.
i. He was all teeth.
Reactions in eyes
j. Amusement gleamed in his eyes.
k. His eyes glinted when he saw the money.
l. His eyes were shining.
m. Her eyes were sparkling like diamonds.
Increase in body temperature
n. His body went hot when he heard the good news.
Redness in face and neck area
o. She was flushed with joy.
Crying and tears
p. She cries with joy.
Hugging
q. I could hug you all.

b.   Interaction between Metaphor and Metonymy in JOY/HAPPINESS

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980) and Kӧvecses (1991), a major conceptual metaphor for the notion of happiness/joy in English is orientational: HAPPY IS UP. Under this conceptual metaphor some conventionalized expressions are:

a. I'm feeling up.
b. That boosted my spirits.
c. My spirits rose.
d. Thinking about her always gives me a lift.
e. We had to cheer him up.
f. They were in high spirits.

Closely related to the HAPPY IS UP metaphor is another conceptual metaphor of upward orientation: BEING HAPPY IS BEING OFF THE GROUD (Kӧvecses, 1991). Instances of this type include:

a. I was flying high.
b. She was on cloud nine.
c. I'm six feet off the ground.
d. We were in the clouds.
e. I was just soaring with happiness.
f. After the exam, I was walking on air for days.
g. They were riding high.
h. I was floating.

These expressions are in effect grounded in our bodily experience. They arise from the fact that as humans have upright bodies. The erect posture typically goes with positive emotional as well as physical states, whereas the opposite

is true with a drooping posture.

The metaphors mentioned above are metonymic-based. Take the sentence *I'm six feet off the ground* for example, which is illustrated in Figure8:
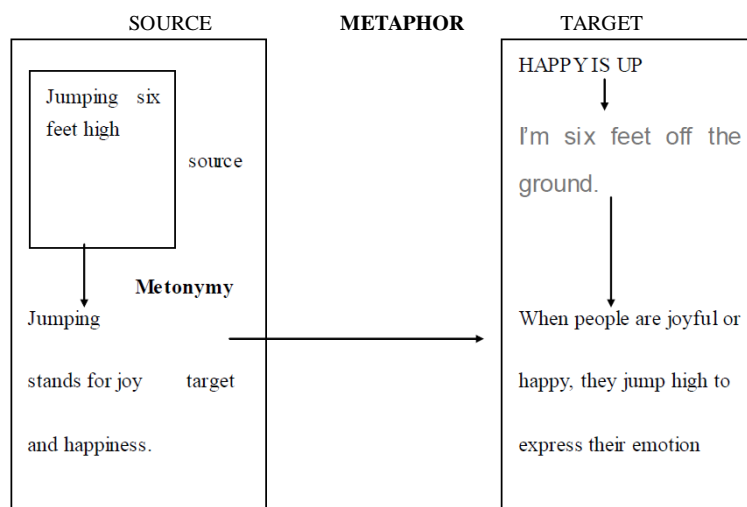
Figure 8

Kövecses (1991) suggests that another major metaphorical concept of happiness in English is HAPPINESS IS LIGHT, under which the metaphorical expressions are, for instance:

a. When she heard the news, she lit up.
b. Noting to worry about, brighten up.
c. He radiates joy.
d. She has a sunny smile.
e. You are the sunshine in my life.
f. He was gleaming.
g. She was shinning with joy.

Again, these expressions are motivated by the experiential basis underlying them. When one becomes happy, his or her complexion and eyes turns brighter. The brightness is then an assumed expressive response observed in happiness. The light appears to derive from the internal energy characteristic of a happy person. This kind of interaction between metaphor and physiological metonymy is as follows:
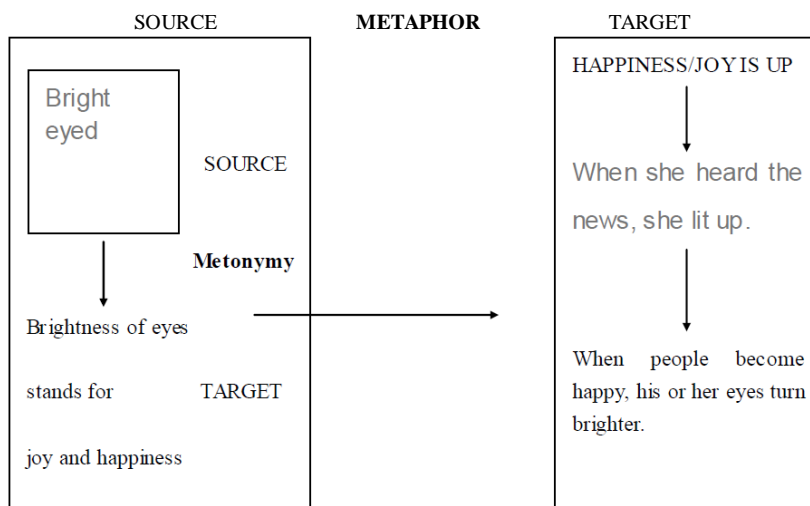
Figure 9

A third major metaphor conceptualizing happiness is the CONTAINER type, namely HAPPINESS OR JOY IS A FLUID IN A CONTAINER, which in fact is a specific-level instantiation of the more general metaphor THE EMOTION ARE FLUID IN A CONTAINER. The conventionalized linguistic expressions encoding this conceptual metaphor in English include:

a. We were full of joy.
b. The sight filled them with joy.
c. Joy welled up inside her.

d. I brimmed over with joy when I saw her.
e. She couldn't contain her joy any longer.
f. He was overflowing with joy.
g. He was bursting with joy.
h. My heart is filled with joy.

The container is the body in a-g and the heart in h. Apparently, the CONTAINER metaphor here is very different from the one with anger. As K övecses (1991) points out, the emotion of anger is conceived of as the hot fluid inside a closed container, but with happiness the temperature of the fluid inspecific. It can be assumed that it is warm rather than too hot or too cold. K övecses (1991) also observes that the container for happiness exists in two varieties. In one the container is open and the emotion-fluid "overflows" when its quantity exceeds the capacity of the container, as in d-f. In the other the container is closed and "bursting" with increasing amount of emotion-fluid inside, as in g. This indicates that the person is unable to control his or her emotion. What distinguishes this container from the anger one, however, is that it will not explode since there is no excessive internal pressure caused by too much heat. Generally, happiness as a positive emotion provided people with more vitality rather than destructive force.

As for the conceptual metaphor HAPPINESS/JOY IS A FLUID IN CONTAINER, there are also the physiological metonymies existing. The sentence *She couldn't contain her tears any longer when she saw her mother* will be in analysis, which is shown in Figure 10:
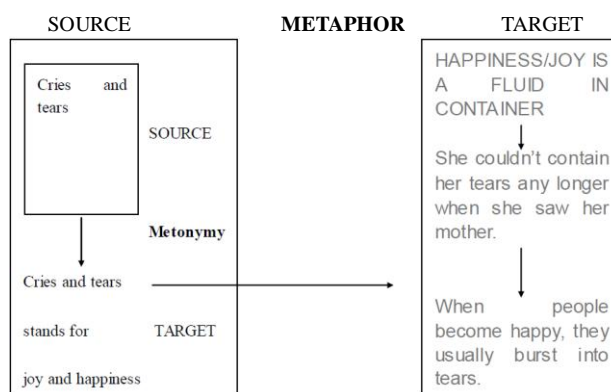
Figure 10

5.   Sample Analysis in LOVE

Love is any of a number of emotions and experiences related to a sense of strong affection. The word *love* can refer to a variety of different feelings, states, and attitudes, ranging from generic pleasure ("I loved that meal") to intense interpersonal attraction ("I love my girlfriend"). This diversity of meanings, combined with the complexity of the feelings involved, makes *love* unusually difficult to be consistently defined, even compared with other emotional states.

As an abstract concept, *love* usually refers to a deep, ineffable feeling of tenderly caring for another person. Even this limited conception of love, however, encompasses a wealth of different feelings, from the passionate desire and intimacy of romantic love to the nonsexual emotional closeness of familial and Platonic love to the profound oneness or devotion of religious love. Love in its various forms acts as a major facilitator of interpersonal relationships and, owing to its central psychological importance, is one of the most common themes in the creative arts.

a.   The Physiological Effect of LOVE

Some conventional metonymies in English are used to describe *love*. Here are some examples:
Physical closeness:
a. I want to be with you all my life.
b. He follows her everywhere.
c. They walked along the Danube holding hands.
d. I want to hold you in my arms forever.
Body heat:
a. I felt hot all over when I saw her.
b. You really have the hots for her, don't you?
c. It was a torrid relationship.
Impeded-perception
a. He saw nothing but her.
b. I only have eyes for her.
Increased heart-rate
a. She had palpitations.
b. He's a heartthrob.
c. His heart was throbbing with love.

Hugging

a. I could hug you all.

b. Interaction between Metaphor and Metonymy in LOVE

With regard to the number of conceptual metaphors, LOVE surpasses all other emotions. Many of these metaphors are shared with JOY. In addition, there is, quite naturally, a range of metaphors which is based on the metonymic relationship with sexual desire, such as LOVE IS A NUTRIENT, LOVE IS APPETIZING FOOD, and there are flattering comparisons with magic and deity, as LOVE IS MAGIC, THE OBJECT OF LOVE IS A GODDESS, with the poetic sources still particularly noticeable. What is unusual in comparison with JOY is that LOVE is not only structured by positive metaphors, but also seems to attract a full range of negative conceptual metaphors, among them LOVE IS WAR, LOVE IS HUNTING, LOVE IS A DESIRE. This also applies to the CONTAINER metaphors, where LOVE is characterized not only as a fluid overflowing from the container, but alternatively by the explosion of the container, which is also typical of the ANGER category.

Are there metaphors listed above metonymy based? The answer is given below. In the metaphor LOVE IS FIRE, its physiological base is body heat. For example, *His heart is on fire*. When somebody falls in love, he or she will get excited, which should fasten their blood flowing, so that he or she might feel hot. And if something is put on fire, it must get hotter.
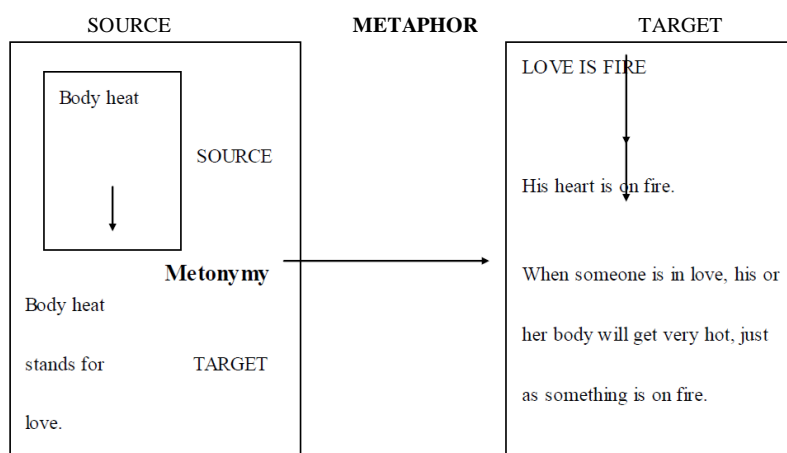
Figure 11

As for the metaphor LOVE IS A MAGIC, there is also metonymy included. Usually, magic shows are mysterious and exciting. People often feel the heart beat quickly when watching them. At the same time, it is common for people to have palpitations as they see their lovers. This kind of interaction is illustrated in Figure 12.
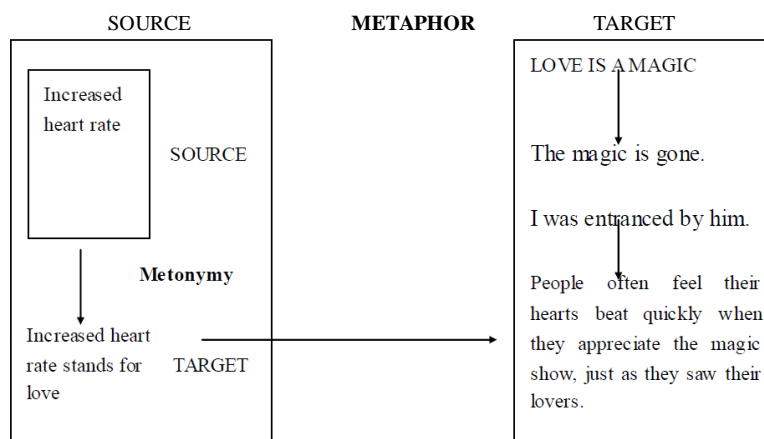
Figure 12

The last example is about one of the most often used metaphor LOVE IS A JOURNEY, which is based on the metonymy PHYSICAL CLOSENESS STANDS FOR LOVE. Physical closeness is quite ordinary to lovers. On the contrary, if there is always something setting them apart, they may have trouble in their relationships. Also going ahead hand in hand means the two people are in good relationship, but being separated means the bad condition. The relation between LOVE IS A JOURNEY and PHYSICAL CLOSENESS STANDS FOR LOVE can be understood better in Figure 13.
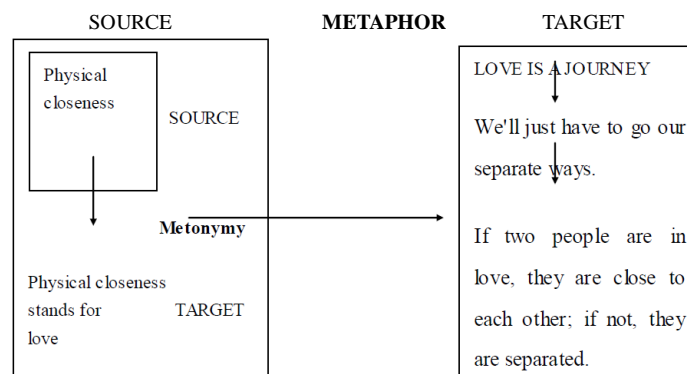
Figure 13

Although the number of metonymy in LOVE is relatively small, the large number of metaphors in this category depends on these metonymies to some extend. Some metaphors such as LOVE IS FIRE and LOVE IS A MAGIC, etc, can not be structured with out them.

6.   Sample Analysis in SADNESS

The emotion "sadness" shares a myriad of synonymies like melancholy, gloom, grief, lament, sorrow, dejection, depression, downcast, dismay, disconsolation, pensiveness etc.. The following definition of "sadness" is taken from *Webster's Third New International Dictionary*.

Sadness is an emotional attitude characterized by an unpleasant feeling tone and expressing itself in sighing, weeping, as well as passivity and diminished tone of the voluntary muscles. It is the most general word used here.

Sadness is an emotion characterized by feelings of disadvantage, loss, and helplessness. When sad, people often become quiet, less energetic, and withdrawn. Sadness is considered to be the opposite of happiness, and is similar to the emotions of sorrow, grief, misery, and melancholy. A philosopher called Baruch Spinoza defined sadness as the "transfer of a person from a large perfection to a smaller one." Sadness can be viewed as a temporary lowering of mood (colloquially called "feeling blue"), whereas clinical depression is characterized by a persistent and intense lowered mood, as well as disruption to one's ability to function in day to day matters. Sadness can lead to disappointment with life, which is a very critical position.

a.   Physiological Effect of SADNESS

Compared with the emotion category LOVE, the number of metonymies in SADNESS is even smaller. However, it is also governed by the general metonymic principle: THE EFFECT OF EMOTION STAND FOR THIS EMOTION.

Crying and tears
She cried with sadness.
Her eyes were full of tears when she heard the news.
Drooping posture
My heart sank.
I feel low.

Like all the other metonymies, the metonymies on sadness single out those prominent properties directly related to sadness to present the stand-for relationship. And this phenomenon is believed to happen to other emotions. However differences are supposed to exist between emotion metonymies and other metonymies. First, those prominent properties in emotion metonymy are not so prominent to deserve a prototypical position as those in other metonymies. What is meant here is that the notion of "prototype effect" is over much for metonymies on sadness or other emotions, because those features related to sadness, like darkening complexion, reduction of body shape, are more salient to be perceived. Second, those features in sadness metonymies serve as the cause that triggers the emotion or the direct results come from the emotion, which is not necessarily, the case for other metonymies.

b.   Interaction between Metaphor and Metonymy in Sadness

Even though the physiological effect of sadness is not so much, conceptual metaphors on sadness is a complex system. In order to make a systematic study of those sadness metaphors, I sorted them into categories according to the underlying conceptual structure.

SADNESS IS SUBSTANCE IN A CONTAINER
a. Age is full of care.
b. But when the melancholy fit shall fall
Sudden from heaven like a weeping cloud,
That fosters the droop-headed flowers all,
And hides the green hill in an April shroud;
Then glut thy sorrow on a morning rose,
SADNESS IS A CONTAINER
a. Was the worst pang that sorrow ever bore, Save one, one only, when I stood forlorn.
b. And he, repulsed.—a short tale to make,--Fell into a sadness, then into a fast.

c. Sweet though in sadness.

Body in this sense is viewed as a container. If body capacity is large enough to hold sadness inside, it is all right to say "full of care"; if not, and the amount exceeds, and then it has to be "glut". The way sadness exceeds the capacity of body is different from anger. Anger is more likely to be packed in a closer container in high temperature and with a quick expansion, finally ends with a "burst" or "explosion" as a result of excessive internal pressure. But *sadness* tends to be more placidly accumulated and then overflows steadily. In SADNESS IS A CONTAINER, *sadness* is represented by bounded space, and experiencing this kind of emotional state is represented by entering into a location.

Though the number of metaphor and metonymy is far from balanced in SADNESS, the fact that some metaphors are based on metonymy is true as well. Some sample analyses are illustrated as follows.

The metaphor SADNESS IS SUBSTANCE IN A CONTAINER, for example, *Her eyes were a swimming pool when she was seeing the moving story,* is combined with the metaphor TEARS AND CRIES STAND FOR SADNESS. It can be noticed first that SADNESS IS SUBSTANCE IN A CONTAINER is from the general metaphor in emotion category HUMAN BODY IS A CONTAINER and EMOTION IS A SUBSTANCE IN A CONTAINER. In this metaphor, one's eyes are metaphorized as the swimming pool, which is full of water. As for the metonymic basis, when one is very sad, his or her eyes are prone to be full of tears, which is governed by the general metonymy principle: THE EFFECT OF EMOTION STAND FOR THIS EMOTION. So the metonymy-based metaphor can be understood as Figure 14.
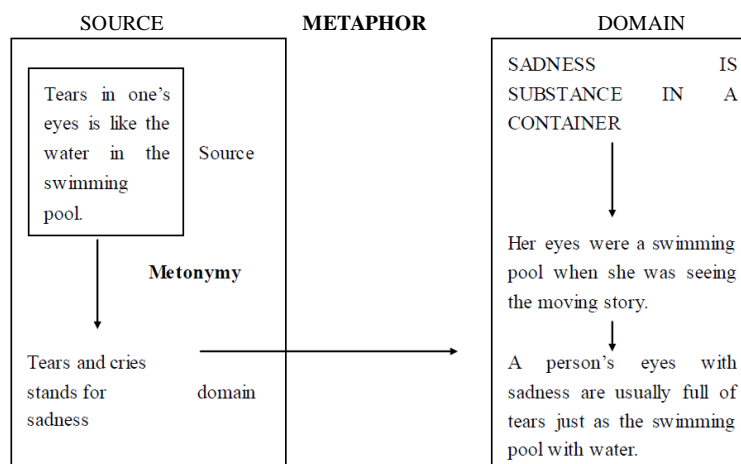
Figure 14

Also in the metaphor SADNESS IS ANIMATE BEING, sadness is seen as a weak patient. When someone is ill, he or she must be in low spirit and his or her body in a dropping posture. Similarly, a sad person cannot be happy up and his or her body must be in a dropping posture as well. So it can be concluded that SADNESS IS A WEAK PATIENT has the metonymic basis DROPPING POSTURE STANDS FOR SADNESS.
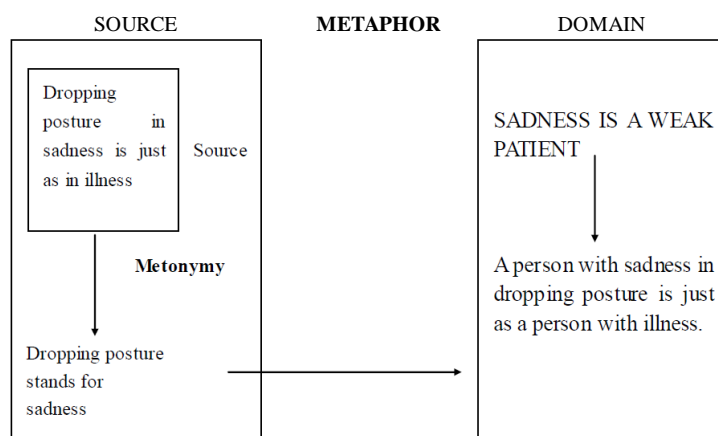
Figure 15

And the metaphor SADNESS IS A BURDEN can also be understood as SADNESS IS A WEAK PATIENT. Because a heavy burden may make a person who takes it feel so tied that his or her body and mind is in a low level relatively.

IV. CONCLUSION

One field in which a co-occurrence of metaphors and metonymies is particularly frequent is the field of emotion category. Researches reveal that in English the basic emotions include anger, sadness, fear, joy/ happiness, and love.

Starting from the above standpoint, this dissertation conducts a study on the interaction between metaphor and metonymy in emotion category in English.

In the first place, the study of metaphor and metonymy in emotion category shows that metaphor, as well as metonymy, is the primary device for understanding the abstract concepts.

Secondly, a lot of metaphors are triggered off by the physiological metonymies in emotion category, which shows that metaphor and metonymy are not absolutely separated but interact with each other.

With all the findings, the present study still has a few limitations. On the one hand, as is illustrated above, the models of interaction is various. No one set of patterns has been appreciated by all the linguists and no one can be applied to all the fields. The pattern chosen in this dissertation is just for easily expressed the interaction in emotion category. Whether other patterns can be used in emotion terms calls for further study. On the other hand, this paper is limited to the metonymy-based metaphor; the interaction from metaphor to metonymy will be the next object of the study.

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The Effect of Strategic Planning Time and Task Complexity on L2 Written Accuracy

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Abstract—Over the past two decades, there has been a plethora of research attempting to find out the role of "task" in second and foreign language teaching and learning. A growing body of research in the past two decades has been devoted to the investigation of various aspects of task-based language teaching. A review of the studies conducted on various aspects of tasks reveled that there is a gap in the literature on the joint effects of task complexity and different types of planning time on L2 learners' oral and written performance. Therefore, the present study set out to investigate the effects of strategic pre-task planning and task complexity on L2 learners' written performance in terms of accuracy. To this end, 50 English language learners, both male and female, were chosen from an English language institute in Iran. A reliable valid task with simple and complex versions was used to collect written data from the participants. T-test was employed as the statistical means of analysis to compare the means of accuracy. The findings of the study revealed that pre-task strategic planning time in both simple and complex task led to more accuracy. The results of the study might carry significant implications for syllabus and task designers, language teachers in EFL/ESL contexts, and second language acquisition researchers.

Index Terms—task-based language teaching and learning, accuracy, planning time, strategic planning, task complexity

I. INTRODUCTION

Since 1990s, tasks have been the focus of attention as a unit of analysis both in language teaching and learning as well as syllabus design (Bygate, 2001; Gilabert, 2005, 2007; Ortega, 1995, 2005; Rahimpour, 2007, 2008; Robinson, 2005; Long, 2007). Task-based language teaching takes task as its unit of analysis and emphasizes the creation of meaning without any prior prescription of language forms. Therefore, learners are free to use any strategies or forms to perform the task and achieve the task goal (Willis and Willis, 2001).Research into task-based language teaching is mainly conducted because of dealing with the problem of determining the relevant grading and sequencing criteria for designing and classifying tasks for task-based syllabi (Long and Crookes, 1992; Robinson, 2003, 2006) and has mostly focused on investigating the effects of task design and task characteristics on task performance (Foster and Skehan, 1996; Skehan and Foster, 1997, 1999; Tavakoli and Foster, 2008; Tavakoli and Skehan, 2005). Tasked- based approaches to second language teaching focus on the ability of a learner to perform target-like without any explicit teaching of grammatical rules. According to Rahimpour (2010) TBLT is a response to a better understanding of language learning process.

In learning the second or foreign language, the learners may have some difficulties and these difficulties in learning the language might be reflected in the form of variations in the learners' oral or written performance. These variations in the performance of second or foreign language could be resulted from several factors. Tasks and their different features can have distinctive effects on L2 learners' both oral and written performance in terms of three linguistic domains of accuracy, fluency, and complexity. Task features are task structure, task condition, planning time, task complexity, and the generic features of the task. Among the task features which are hypothesized to be influential on the performance of L2 learners are planning time and its types, as well as task complexity. Planning time in task performance involves two main types pre-task planning and within-task planning. These two types of planning are simply distinguished in terms of when planning takes place. As the titles show in the first type, planning happens before the performance of task. In the second type, planning happens while the task is being performed. Also, pre-task planning itself is divided into two types namely rehearsal and strategic planning (Ellis, 2005).

There have been many studies on the effect different task characteristics on L2 learners' oral and written performance (Ellis, 2005; Skehan and Foster, 1999; Rahimpour, 2008; Salimi and Yousefi, 2009; Dadashpour, 2011; Shafaei, 2012, Salimi et al, 2012; Salimi and Dadashpour, 2012a, 2012b). However, there have been few studies to investigate the effects of pre-task planning time and task complexity on L2 learners' oral/written performance. Thus, the present study set out to investigate the effects of strategic pre-task planning and task complexity on L2 learners' written performance in terms of accuracy.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Task-based Language Teaching

Task-based language teaching and learning has become an important area of research in second language research. Many scholars and researcher have investigated different aspects of TBLT (Ellis 2003, 2005, 2009; Foster and Skehan 1996, 1999; Long 1985, 2007; Long and Crooks 1992; Nunan 1989; Robinson 1995, 2001, 2007; Robinson and Gilabert 2007; Rahimpour, 2008, 2010; Skehan and Foster1999; Salimi and Dadashpour 2010, 2012; Mehrang and Rahimpour 2010; Tavakoli and Foster, 2008; Salimi et al, 2012). Task-based language teaching challenges the mainstream views about language teaching in that it is based on the fact that language learning will develop most successfully and effectively if teaching aims simply to create context and condition in which learners' natural language learning ability can be nurtured (Ellis, 2005).

According to Ellis (2009) TBLT is an approach for teaching second or foreign language that seeks to engage learners in interactionally authentic language use language by getting learners to perform a series of tasks. This approach aims to enable learners to acquire a new language system as well as to proceduralize their existing knowledge. In other words, this approach tries to force L2 learners to use their own linguistic resources to learn a new language.

B. Planning Time

Planning is an inseparable part of all spoken and written language use. That is, all speakers and writers need to decide what to say and write and how to do it (Ellis, 2005, p. 3). Planning time has been investigated in various studies on both first and second language production (Wigglesworth, 1997) and is assumed to be "an important feature of language production" (Sangarun, 2001, p. 6). Such studies have originated in L1 research aiming at developing cognitive models of oral production with planning as one of their components (Crookes, 1989). L1 research suggests that a number of features of L1 planned discourse would promote L2 development (Givon, 1979; Ochs, 1979).

In general, planning is considered as a goal-oriented mental activity that people are engaged in to achieve a particular objective (Newell and Simon, 1972). It involves the allocation of attentional resources and the regulation of cognitive processes (Yuan, 2001). Das, Kar, and Parilla (1996) define planning as follows "[planning] is oriented to the future, and may include the creation and selection of problems, as well as the anticipation of a sequence of actions to solve them (p.54)."

Planning has been associated with interlanguage development. Ellis (1987) was the first to propose that planning allows the learner to access the linguistic forms that have not yet been fully automated. Later, Crookes (1989) proposed that planning stretches IL and engages L2 acquisition processes. Moreover, Skehan (1996) proposed that planning, particularly L2 task planning frees up attentional resources and redirects them toward a focus on form.

C. Types of Task Planning

Ellis (2005, p. 3) distinguishes between two principal types of task planning. The distinction is in terms of when planning takes place. The first type of planning is pre-task planning which refers to planning that takes place before performing the task. It involves what Schmidt (2001) calls 'prepatory attention' that helps in performing actions with greater accuracy and speed. The second type is within-task planning which refers to planning that takes place while performing the task. Each of these two types is divided into two other types.

Pre-task planning is divided into rehearsal and strategic planning. In rehearsal, learners are given the opportunity to "perform the task before the 'main performance" (Ellis, 2005, p. 3). That is, the performance of the task for the first time is regarded as a preparation for the main and final performance. On the other hand, strategic planning which is the focus of the present study entails learners' preparation of the content of the task they will perform. In this type of planning, they "have access to the actual task materials" (Ellis, 2005, p. 3).

Within-task planning is also divided into pressured and unpressured planning. In pressured within-task planning, learners are usually not provided with enough time to plan on-line, while in unpressured within-task planning they are given enough time to plan on-line.

D. Planning Time Studies

Many studies have been conducted to investigate different types of planning time and their effects on L2 learners' oral and written task performance in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity (Foster and Skehan, 1996; Ortega, 1999; Yuan and Ellis, 2003; Sangarun, 2005; Tavakoli and Skehan, 2005; Mehrang and Rahimpour, 2010). Yuan and Ellis (2003) studied the effect of pre-task and on-line planning on learners' monologic oral production. The results indicated that pre-task planning enhanced grammatical complexity, lexical variation and fluency while on-line planning

positively influenced accuracy and grammatical complexity. However, the pre-task planning led to more fluent and lexically varied language than the on-line planning and the language produced by the two planning group (pre-task planning and on-line planning) was equally grammatically complex. Additionally, the on-line planning led to more accurate language than pre-task planning. Mehrang and Rahimpour (2010) studied the effects of task structure and planning time on oral performance of EFL learners in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity of 64 upper-intermediate learners of English as a foreign language. Results indicated that planning time had no effects on the accuracy and fluency of the learner performance. However, it led to more complex performances when participants performed the unstructured, complex task.

E. Task Complexity and Its Justification

Rahimpour (2002) lists three theoretical frameworks for task complexity. According to him, the theoretical framework for the proposed task complexity is based on research into first language acquisition (e.g., Brown and Bellugi, 1964), research findings from second language development (Meisel, 1987), and functional linguistic theory (Givon, 1989).

Robinson (2001) defines task complexity as:

Task complexity is the result of the attentoional, memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task to the language learner. These differences in information processing demands, resulting from design characteristics, are relatively fixed and invariant (p.29).

Robinson (2001) attributes the complexity of the task into three factors including inherent characteristics of the task itself which is related to the nature of input, the task conditions, and the processing operations involved in completing the tasks and the outcome that is required. These factors according to Robinson (2001) come under the heading of task complexity. The complexity of a task is the valid criteria to be taken into account in designing a task and syllabus. The design of a syllabus requires that the content be sequenced in a way so as to facilitate maximum learning (Ellis, 2003, 2008; Nunan, 1989; Robinson, 2001; 2007). In effect, this requires determining the complexity of individual tasks so that tasks can be matched to learners' level of development, this argument is in line with teachability and learnability hypothesis proposed by Pienemann (1985).

F. Models of Task Complexity

Different models of task complexity have been proposed by different researchers (Anderson and Lynch, 1988; Brindley, 1987; Brown and Yule, 1983; Candlin, 1987; Long, 1985; Prabhu, 1987; Rahimpour, 1997, 1999, 2002; Robinson 2001, 2007).

Among these models the present study was based on Robinson's Triadic Framework of Task Complexity or Cognition Hypothesis (2001, 2007). This framework distinguishes three task components: task complexity, task conditions, and task difficulty. Robinson (2001) pointed out that the development of theoretically motivated, empirically substantiable, and pedagogically feasible sequencing criteria has long been acknowledged as a major goal of research aimed at operationalizing task-based approaches to syllabus design. To this end, he proposed distinctions between cognitively defined task complexity, learner perceptions of task difficulty, and the interactive conditions under which tasks are performed. Robinson (2001, p.29) strongly argued that Task Complexity is the result of the attentional, memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task on the language learner. These differences in information processing demands, resulting from design characteristics, are relatively fixed and invariant. Task complexity will aid to explain within learner variance when performing any two tasks. It is, also, argued that the cognitively simpler tasks will involve a lower error rate, and/or be completed faster.

G. Task Complexity Studies

Some studies have been conducted to investigate task complexity and its effects on L2 learners' oral and written task performance in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity (Robinson, 2001, 2007; Gilabert, 2005; Ishikawa, 2006; Kuiken and Vedder, 2007, 2008; Rahimpour, 2007; Kim, 2009; Hosseini and Rahimpour, 2010, Salimi et al, 2011; Salimi and Dadashpour, 2010, 2012). Robinson (2001) found that complex tasks elicited less fluent, but more accurate and complex production than the simple tasks. Rahimpour (2007) studied the effect of task complexity on L2 learners' oral performance. The results showed that there-and-then task (complex task) led to more accuracy while here-and-now task (simple task) led to more complexity. In terms of fluency, here-and-now task led to more fluency than there-and-then task. Hosseini and Rahimpour (2010) investigated the effects of task complexity on L2 learners' written performance on narrative pictorial tasks of here-and- now and there-and- then. The results of the study demonstrated that cognitively more demanding task (there-and- then) were more fluent, but no significant effects on written narratives were observed on measures of accuracy and complexity. Salimi et al (2011) investigated the effect of task complexity on L2 learners' written performance. They found out that task complexity did not have a significant effect on accuracy. Regarding fluency of written production, they reported that task complexity had a significant effect on fluency of the learners. For complexity of written production, they found that L2 learners' written complexity was significantly affected by task complexity. That is, Complex task led to the production of more complex language in terms of syntactic mode.

After reviewing the results of the previous studies conducted on planning time and task complexity, it was revealed that planning time, especially strategic planning time, and task complexity and their joint effects on L2 learners' oral/written performance have rarely been explored in the literature and there is a gap in the literature on this topic. Therefore, the present study set out to investigate the effects of strategic pre-task planning and task complexity on L2 learners' written performance in terms of accuracy.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESES

On the basis of the above literature review, the present study aimed at investigating the following research question and research hypotheses:

RQ1: What are the effects of task complexity and strategic planning time on L2 learners' written performance in terms of accuracy?

H0: There isn't any significant difference between task complexity and planning time and L2 learners' written performance in terms of accuracy.

H1: Strategic planning group while performing a simple task will produce more accurate written production than unplanned group.

H2: Strategic planning time group while performing complex task will produce more accurate written production than unplanned group.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the study were 50 English language learners with intermediate level of proficiency. They were both male and female attending a conversation course in a language institute in Iran. They aged between 17 and 30. The participants were from Turkish language background and had taken classes in which speaking and listening activities were common. To ensure about their homogeneity and their proficiency level, a pre-test was administered to the students of the intermediate level. The participants of this study were selected randomly on the basis of their performance on the pre-test. Then, they were randomly assigned into two groups namely planned and unplanned groups.

B. Data Collection Instrument

In order to collect the data for this study, two versions of the same decision-making valid task (one simple and the other complex task) were taken from Gilabert (2007) and Salimi and Dadashpour (2012). A simplified 'fire chief' task used in cognitive psychology was utilized. In this task, learners are presented with a building where a fire has broken out and where a number of people need to be rescued. The problem in the complex version required learners not just one decision, but a long series, in which early decisions condition later ones. In both versions of the task, the learners were instructed to specify the actions they would take, determine the sequences of their actions, and justify their choice for actions and specific sequence. In the simple task, there are similar types of people (i.e. people with no particular roles) in the building who were faced with similar degrees of danger; the fire being relatively static, the smoke blowing away from the building. In the complex one, learners have to deal with specific types of people (e.g. a pregnant woman, an elderly man, an injured person, a hero).

C. Procedure

The data for this study was collected in two phases. First, the participants were asked to perform on the simple version of the decision-making task. In this phase, the planned group was asked to perform on the task with 10 minutes for strategic planning. Then, they were asked to perform on the task and write an essay. The participants of the other group, i.e. unplanned group, were asked to perform on the same task but they were not given any time for planning. After performing on the simple version of the task, the participants of both groups were asked to perform on the complex version of the decision-making task. Of course, it should be noted that the participants performed on the complex version of the task after two weeks. This interval of two weeks was due to eliminating the memory effects. In this phase, the participants of planned group, like the simple task, were given 10 minutes for strategic planning. Then, they were given the complex version of the task and were asked to perform on it. That is, they were asked to write an essay. Then, the unplanned group's participants were asked to perform on the complex version of decision making task; however, they were not given any time for strategic planning and were asked to write an essay. All the participants of both groups were given 40 minutes to perform the task.

D. Accuracy Measure

The number error-free T-units per T-units (Arent, 2003; Rahimpour, 2008). T-unit is defined as "the main clauses plus subordinate clauses attached to or embedded in them" and error-free T-units are those T-units that contain no grammatical, lexical, or spelling errors.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Table 1 clearly presents the means differences of accuracy of the written performance in simple task with and without strategic planning.

TABLE 1
COMPARISON OF THE MEANS OF ACCURACY OF WRITTEN PERFORMANCE IN PLANNED AND UNPLANNED SIMPLE TASK

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Means
Planned Accuracy Simple	25	0.5828	0.16930	0.03386
Unplanned Accuracy Simple	25	0.3908	0.11492	0.02298

According to this table, the learners produced more accurate (0.58) language with strategic planning in simple task than without strategic planning (0.39).

Figure 1 shows the means differences of accuracy with and without strategic planning in simple task.
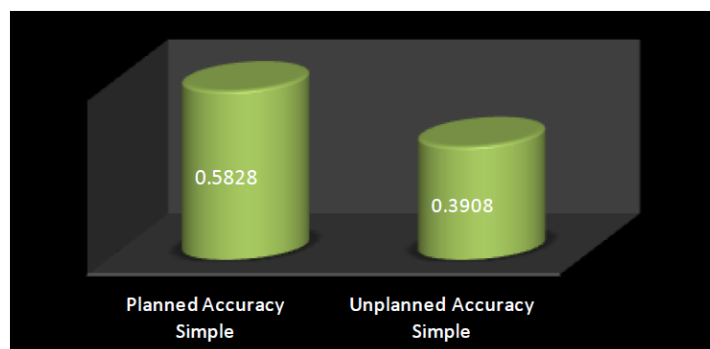
Figure 1. Comparison of the Means of Accuracy of Written Performance in Planned and Unplanned Simple Task

Table 2 shows the results of Independent Samples T-test for the means of accuracy of written performance of both groups in simple task.

TABLE.2
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE MEANS OF ACCURACY OF WRITTEN PERFORMANCE IN PLANNED AND UNPLANNED SIMPLE TASK

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
								Lower	Upper	
Independent Samples Test			4.692	48	.000	.19200	.04092	.10972	4.692	
Equal variances not assumed	4.353	0.042	4.692	42.244	.000	.19200	.04092	.10943	4.692	

Table 2 shows the results of statistical analysis of applying Independent Samples T-test to test the first hypothesis. The results of SPSS at df = 48 and α = .05, suggested that there was a significant difference between strategic planning and L2 learners' accuracy in simple task. As a result, the first hypothesis claiming "*strategic planning group while performing a simple task will produce more accurate written production than unplanned group*" is confirmed.

Table 3 shows the means differences of accuracy of written performance of the participants in complex task with and without strategic planning.

TABLE 3
COMPARISON OF THE MEANS OF ACCURACY OF WRITTEN PERFORMANCE IN PLANNED AND UNPLANNED COMPLEX TASK

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Means
Planned Accuracy Complex	25	0.4412	0.10651	0.02130
Unplanned Accuracy Complex	25	0.3488	0.07672	0.01534

The data presented in table 3 shows that the participants of planned group produced more accurate (0.44) language than unplanned group in complex task (0.34).

Figure 2 also shows the means differences of accuracy for planned and unplanned groups in complex task.
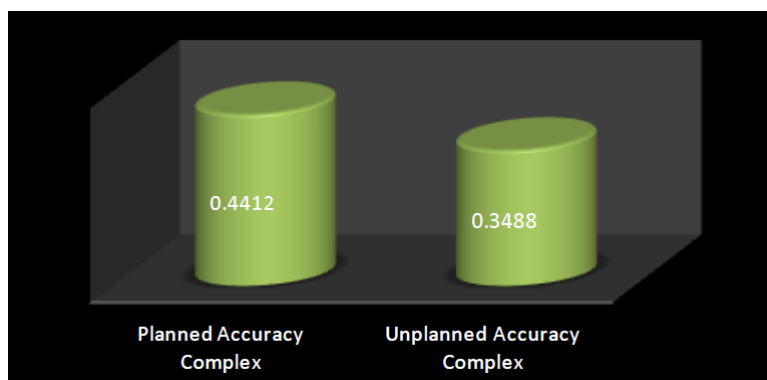
Figure 2. Comparison of the Means of Accuracy of Written Performance in Planned and Unplanned Complex Task

Table 4 shows the results of Independent Samples T-test for the means of accuracy of written performance of both groups in complex task.

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE MEANS OF ACCURACY OF WRITTEN PERFORMANCE IN PLANNED AND UNPLANNED COMPLEX TASK

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Independent Samples Test			3.520	48	0.001	0.09240	0.02625	.03962	0.14518
Equal variances not assumed	2.391	0.129	3.520	43.622	0.001	0.09240	0.02625	.03948	0.14532

Table 4 shows the results of statistical analysis of applying Independent Samples T-test to test the fourth hypothesis. The results of SPSS at df = 48 and α = .05, revealed that there was a slight difference between strategic planning and L2 learners' accuracy in complex task. Thus, the second hypothesis claiming *"strategic planning time group while performing complex task will produce more accurate written production than unplanned group"* is confirmed.

VI. DISCUSSION

Regarding the effects of strategic planning time and task complexity on L2 learners' written production in terms of accuracy in simple task, it was revealed that strategic planning in simple task led to more accuracy. That is, the participants who performed simple task with strategic pre-task planning produced more accurate language than the participants who performed simple task without strategic pre-task planning. Thus, our first hypothesis is confirmed. The findings of the study in terms of accuracy are in agreement with the findings of studies like Foster and Skehan (1996), Ortega (1999), Tavakoli and Skehan (2005), and Ishikawa (2006). However, the findings of the present study in terms of accuracy ran against the findings of the studies like Gilabert (2005), Mehrang and Rahimpour (2010), Hosseini and Rahimpour (2010), and Salimi and Dadashpour (2012). These findings in terms of accuracy can be interpreted in Levelt's (1989) terms, this result in a lighter processing load for the Conceptualizer and more "space" for the Formulator to work within. The Formulator can give more attention to grammatical accuracy, and performance is subsequently more accurate.

Regarding the effects of strategic planning and task complexity on L2 learners' written production in terms of accuracy in complex task, the findings of the study and the results of data analysis provided in table 4 and figure 2, it was revealed there was a slight difference between strategic planning and written accuracy of learners in complex task. The findings of the study in terms of accuracy are in agreement with the findings of studies like Foster and Skehan (1996), Foster (1997), Ortega (1999), Tavakoli and Skehan (2005), and Ishikawa (2006). However, the findings of the present study in terms of accuracy ran against the findings of the studies like Gilabert (2005), Mehrang and Rahimpour (2010), Hosseini & Rahimpour (2010), and Salimi and Dadashpour (2012). The higher rate of accuracy can be interpreted in terms of Long's view (1985) that a difficult task will lead learners to stretch their interlanguage resources. The accuracy can also be interpreted in terms of Givon's (1989) pragmatic and syntactic modes demanding learners to use greater syntactic resources and abilities which will lead to an increase in grammatical accuracy. The accuracy can also be attributed to the decreased cognitive load of attention paid by the learners to the difficult task than paid to the easy task under planned condition. The results of the study regarding the effects of planning time on both simple and complex task proved the positive effects of provision of planning time on L2 learners' written task performance.

VII. Pedagogical Implications

This study carries some implications for second language acquisition (SLA) researchers, language teachers, and syllabus designers. It also provides insights on designing and implementation of tasks in L2 classroom settings. As mentioned earlier, one of the major issues regarding task-based language teaching and learning is to find out how learners allocate attention between the competing goals of fluency, accuracy and complexity and therefore, establish a balance between these performance areas. So, the findings make it possible for a teacher or more importantly for a syllabus designer to design sequences of instructional activities that alternate attention to each of the areas so that the goal of balanced development can be obtained. Also, the findings of this study can contribute to task-based teaching methodology since planning is considered as one of the task implementation factors that can be manipulated by giving chance or not providing time for planning, offering different types of planning to the learners in task performance, and providing learners with various lengths of planning time and planning effects can be observed in the performance of language learners (Ellis, 2009). These findings may also add to the present literature in SLA theory, language testing, syllabus design, and material development.

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Genre Analysis of American Presidential Inaugural Speech*

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Abstract—**English public speaking is an important social-cultural phenomenon of the west; as a specific form of discourse sharing the characteristics of both oral and written discourse. American Presidential Inaugural Address (APIA) has always been arousing scholars' great concern in the field of applied linguistics. It is delivered to the people at home and abroad when the newly elected presidents take office to make his government policy known to the public and persuade the public to accept and support his policy with worldwide influence and long-lasting significance. However, most studies on APS are mainly made from the perspective of translation, stylistics, rhetoric, and so on. Seldom effort is made within genre analysis which focuses both on the linguistic realization of a text and the communicative functions the text serves. With the moves as the possible generic structure for this particular genre, the communicative purposes of the genre are revealed.**

Index Terms—**American presidential inaugural speech, genre analysis, move, strategy**

I. INTRODUCTION

The term "genre" is derived from the Latin word for "kind" or "class". It traditionally serves to indicate different kinds of literary and artistic works. In recent years, language educators and linguists have extended it to identify classes of language use and communication in all areas of life. Since 1970s, the focus in stylistics, text linguistics and syntactical features or formats of discourse has been transformed into a deeper and multi-layered explanation of the macro-structures and communicative functions of discourse, and thus genre analysis emerges and becomes an important branch of discourse analysis. There are two major schools in the field of linguistics concerning the concept "genre", the Swalesian School with the representatives of John M. Swales and Vijak K. Bhatia, and the Australian School with the representative of Jim R. Martin.

English political speaking, as a social-cultural product in the west, represents the western way of thinking and speaking. American Presidential Inaugural Addresses (APIAs) is commonly recognized as the representative of English political speaking. It is assumed that the research of APIAs from the perspective of genre analysis can promote the understanding of how writers or speakers select strategies to achieve their communicative purpose within the constraints imposed by the genre to which discourse belongs. This study aims to reveal how to be a good English political speaker and how to be an effective communicator in English.

II. GENRE ANALYSIS

A. Genre

Etymologically, the term "genre" originates from the Latin word "genus" and the earliest attention to it can be dated back to the ancient Greek and Roman period. In the past, the concept of "genre" was always confined to the field of literature, which was mainly divided into three types: lyric, epic, and drama. However, the extension to "genre" has expanded dramatically since its introduction into the field of applied linguistics in the 1970's. Such types of literature as novel, essay, biography and non-fiction are classified into the category of genre.

John M. Swales (1990) describes genre as a recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purposes identified and mutually understood by the members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs. Most often it is highly structured and conventionalized with constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their intent, positioning, form and functional value. These constraints, however, are often exploited by the expert members of the discourse community to achieve private intentions with the framework of socially recognized purposes.

Bhatia (1993) expands Swales' term by bringing in the psychological, particularly cognitive, level of genre construction. Bhatia argues that although there are a number of other factors, like content, form, intended audience, medium or channel, which influence the nature and construction of a genre, it is primarily characterized by the communicative purpose that it is intended to fulfill. The shared set of communicative purposes shapes the genre and

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gives it an internal structure. Any major change in the communicative purposes is likely to give a different genre; however, minor changes or modifications help distinguish sub-genres. Bhatia finds that specialists of any professional or academic community are generally credited with the knowledge of not only the communicative goals of their community but also the structure of the genres in which they regularly participate as part of their daily work.

B. Genre Analysis

As mentioned above, the concept of "genre" is introduced into the field of applied linguistics in the 1970's. But the status of genre analysis is formally established in the 1980's when some applied linguists shift their attention from the surface description of language to the social and cultural explanation in the linguistic community. Genre analysis offers an analytic method that allows observation to be made on the repeated communicative functions found in genres and the linguistic exponents of these functions. As an admittedly new development of discourse analysis, genre analysis establishes itself after going through four stages, that is, register analysis, grammatical-rhetorical analysis, interactional analysis and genre analysis. As far as grammatical-rhetorical analysis is concerned, Trimble is an outstanding contributor. He shows his concern for non-literary texts and pays more attention to the study of general grammatical features of tense and article choices in scientific writings. As for interactional analysis, it focuses on the study of the social and linguistic meanings created during interaction and it evolves into "applied discourse analysis", "speech function analysis" etc. eventually. It is generally considered that genre analysis is the development of the three analytic approaches mentioned above. Compared with the other three analytic approaches, genre analysis emphasizes the psychological process of the text construction. Through the presentation and analysis of the regular organization together with other linguistic features of a text, genre analysis offers a deeper explanation of relationship between the form and the function. There are some important concepts within genre analysis.

1. Move

A move can be thought of as part of a text, written or spoken, which achieves a particular purpose within the text. As Swales claims, is the basic unit for analysis of the target text. Mirador (2000) gave a conceptual formulated definition based on the genre analysis of written feedback from tutors to students as follows:

Move is the logic maneuver adopted by the communicators in written or spoken discourse. Such maneuver is evident in the unified functional meaning of a sentence or group of sentences in a written or spoken text. The sentence or group of sentences has a single unifying purpose in relation to the context in which it occurs.

Hence, the move contributes, in some way, to fulfilling the overall purpose of the genre.

2. Strategy & Step

In the process of analyzing a genre, "strategy" and "step" are another two terms most frequently used besides "move". According to Bhatia, "strategy" refers to the way the writer or speaker adopted to execute or concrete the move. He also says "In order to realize a particular communicative intention at the level of a move, an individual writer may use different rhetorical strategies". "Step" used by Swales in his CARS model has nearly the same function. The author argues that the two terms are units subordinate to "move", and that the two terms have nearly the same connotations. With the recent academic development, the term "strategy" is most frequently used by researchers and scholars both at home and abroad.

III. APS AS AN IMPORTANT PART OF ENGLISH POLITICAL SPEAKING

English political speaking (EPS) is one that the speaker, on behalf of a certain class, society, or party, usually makes in English to an audience on some important matters and relationships home and abroad.

The political speaking generally has three purposes: to convince people to take action as the speaker expects, to change radically their attitudes or beliefs or to weaken their current attitudes or beliefs. These are also the basic functions of the political public speaking.

A. Characteristics of English Political Speaking

The basic characteristic of EPS is of strong political tendency with rigid logic and arousing force. As an effective political speech, it must contain at least the following characteristics: about ethics, aesthetics, sociology, psychology, logic, literature and linguistics. In more details, it means that the speech language should fulfill at least these functions: to present the sound and correct political opinion, to attract the audience and make them into serious thinking, to move and persuade them to accept the speaker's viewpoints, to encourage the audience to do what the speaker wants them to do.

Therefore, the requirements for English political speaking are much more strict and solemn. Just as a famous orator comments: The public speech has a structure of paper, truth of news item, language of a fiction, passion in a poem, material of a prose, and the humor of a comic dialogue.

However, what the paper wants to focus on is the characteristics of a political speaking, which can be properly achieved by means of some stylistic features. First, the political viewpoint is quite firm and clear. In a speech, the speaker must tell his audience what he wants to express today and what his political opinion is about this matter. Second, the political speaking must be endowed with overwhelming power of logic that is eloquent and with no chink in the armor. And third, the political speaking should burst forth the intense inspiring force.

B.   American Presidential Inaugural Address (APIA) as Typical Example of APS

The inaugural address is the speech delivered by the president-elect on the inauguration day. In the speech, for the first time, the newly elected president will officially announce that he will take up the responsibility as the highest executive of the country in the next four years. Inaugurals mark the end of the election campaign and at the same time the beginning of a new administration. Although the inaugural address is not required by the constitution, it is made every four years by all the presidents before they take the office. It has already become a tradition set by the first president--George Washington. As a rule, the new administrator's philosophy of politics and the outline of his policy will be pronounced in his inaugural address. The inauguration is held as a celebration witnessed by many audiences. Inaugurals are of great significance because of what they reveal about the fundamental political values, particular political principles, and enactment of a presidential persona. Their political meanings thus become clear. Inaugural addresses attempt to persuade the citizens of the nation that the newly elected president is fit for the political role and that he is entitled to achieve his programmatic objectives. The addresses, then, cast much light on the legitimacy of political power and the worldviews of Presidents. Their political intention is to call for support and loyalty to a political regime from both other power-holders in the political system and the public at large during their administration. But the inaugural addresses by nature are epideictic prescribed by the inauguration itself.

According to Campbell and Jamieson, the inauguration is "a ritual of transition in which the covenant between the citizenry and their leaders is renewed". It is a series of symbolic acts undertaken since ancient ages by virtually all cultures in moments of change in leadership. Inauguration links present and even future closely with the past, which basically is believed to be an individual's and a culture's source of orientation. This cultural transition is usually celebrated ceremonially by assembled members of societies. Through the inauguration the hope for future prosperity is articulated, which is founded upon the qualities of the leader being given office and traditional values being reasserted. Thus the inauguration ceremony may be defined as a ritual whereby an institutional role is called up and embodied by the person filling it. In this ceremony, a leader assumes and expresses power.

IV.   GENRE ANALYSIS OF AMERICAN PRESIDENTIAL INAUGURAL ADDRESSES

Based on the framework constructed in the preceding chapters, this chapter focuses on the genre analysis of APIAs. To locate the features of presidential inaugurals in structure, this paper takes all the inaugural addresses into the corpus. It includes altogether thirty-five addresses ranging from the first speech of President Washington to the latest of President Obama. Each presidential inaugural address has been carefully studied by the author. Despite the variation in tones, themes and forms, the regularities in the internal structure have been sought and analyzed.

A.   Identification

As the communicative purpose is the criterion to distinguish a genre, the communicative intention can be considered as the defining feature for moves. Whenever a linguistic unit indicates a communicative intention subservient to the general communicative purpose of the discourse a move can be identified. The combination of these communicative intentions makes the communicative purpose of the particular genre.

Since submoves are non-discriminative, a linguistic unit that indicates the same communicative intention, or only part of the whole, or a unit that is just a different strategy to accomplish the same intention, can only be identified as submoves or steps.

Otherwise, it can be a new move. In the case of move-structure of article introduction summarized by Swales, the writer may decide to establish the research field either by:
(a)   asserting centrality of the topic or
(b)   stating current knowledge or
(c)   ascribing key

depending upon the constraints like the nature of the topic/field, the background knowledge of the intended readership, reader-writer relationship etc. These strategies are essentially non-discriminative type and belong to submoves.

To identify moves and submoves, linguistic clues such as explicit lexical items, phrases, grammatical specifiers of content relations, discourse conjuncts should also be resorted to.

B.   Move-structure Analysis

1. Move I — Salutation

Except for thirteen speeches, all of the presidential inaugural addresses begin with a salutation. As other speeches, the salutation of inaugurals formally announces the commencement of this event and routinely direct the attention of the audience to the content of the address.

The salutation of presidential inaugurals normally takes two forms: addressing the audience as a whole and respectively. In the former case, salutations appear like: "Fellow-citizens", "My Fellow-citizens", "My countrymen", "Fellow-citizens of the United States", "Fellow-countrymen" etc. Almost all presidents of the early times, through 19 century to the early 20 century, abide by this custom. In such salutations all the American people are addressed equally and wholly. While in the latter case, many titles are mentioned. Some examples are listed as follows:

Chief Justice Rehnquist Carter, President Clinton, distinguished guests and my fellow citizens: (Bush, 2001).

Mr. Vice President, Mr. Speaker, Mr. Chief Justice, Senator Cook, Mrs. Eisenhower, and my fellow citizens of this great and good country we share together:(Nixon, 1973).

2.   Move II — Announcing entering upon office

The new presidents usually make announcement at the very beginning of their speech. But there are some who declare that they accept the office near the close. President Roosevelt claimed to take office after he had put forth his political principle. He said:

In taking again the oath of office as President of the United States, I assume the solemn obligation of leading the American people forward along the road over which they have chosen to advance.

This is a typical announcement of taking office, especially by presidents of early times, in which the presidents emphasized that they were "called upon by American people" or "the country" to execute the responsibility and they were "elected by people".

3.   Move III — Articulating sentiments on the occasion

On the inaugural ceremony most of the new presidents will utter their sentiments on the occasion when they formally assume the responsibility as the chief executive of the country. In most cases, the new president will express his acknowledgements to American people for their trust and also to the predecessors for what they have done to this country. Clinton voiced his gratitude in this way:

On behalf of our nation, I salute my predecessor, President Bush, for his half-century of service to America. (Clinton, 1993)

Together with thanks, the magnitude of responsibility as president is also verbalized. President Taylor claimed:

When I reflect that the acceptance of the office which their partiality has bestowed imposed the discharge of the most arduous duties and involves the weightier obligations, I am conscious that the position which I have been called to fill, though sufficient to satisfy the loftiest ambition, is surrounded by fearful responsibilities. (Taylor, 1849)

4.   Move IV — Making pledges

This move intends to fulfill the expectations of audience for promise. The new president carries out this speech act to help the pubic with confidence in the new leader and his government. The following is Jackson's pledges:

It shall be displayed to the extent of my humble abilities in continued efforts so as to administrate the Government as to preserve their liberty and promote their happiness. (Jackson, 1833)

5.   Move V — Arousing patriotism in citizens

The function of this move is to bear the audience with love for the country and confidence in the future, with which the new president successfully unites all the Americans as a whole. A good way is to review the American history. An instance of this is given below:

It is now three days more than a hundred years since the adoption of the first written constitution of the United States--the Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union. The new Republic was then beset with danger on every hand. It had not conquered a place in the family of nations. The decisive battle of the war for independence, whose centennial anniversary will soon be gratefully celebrated at Yorktown, had against the settled opinions of mankind; for the world did not then believe that the supreme authority of government could be safely entrusted to the guardianship of the people themselves.(Garfield, 1881)

6.   Move VI — Announcing political principles to guide the new administration

This move is indispensable for setting forth political principles and that is also the main expectations of the audience from the speech.

Generally, the political principles that will control the government include two parts: those basic principles on which stand the American political institutions and the main policies that will shape the coming administration. The basic principles that all presidents swear to follow comprise American Constitution, union, freedom and democracy as Garfield had stated:

Under this constitution the boundaries of freedom have been enlarged, the foundations of order and peace have been strengthened, and the growth of our people in all the better elements of national life has indicated the wisdom of the founders and given new hope to their descendents. Under this Constitution our people long ago made themselves safe against danger from without and secured for their mariners and flag equality of rights on all the seas. Under this Constitution twenty-five states have been added to the Union, with constitution and laws, framed and enforced by their own citizens, to secure the manifold blessings of local self-government. (Garfield, 1881)

The second strategy adopted is to point out problems. In this method, the governing principles are put forth as the solutions to the problems. For an instance, Roosevelt put forward policies to solve the problems during the Depression:

Our greatest primary task is to put people to work...

Hand in hand with this we must frankly recognize the overbalance of population in our industrial centers and, by engaging on a national scale in a redistribution and endeavor to provide a better use of the land for those best fitted for the land....

Finally, in our progress toward a resumption of work we require two safeguards against a return of the evils of the old order; there must be a strict supervision of all banking and credits and investments; there must be...(Roosevelt, 1933)

7. Move VII — Appealing to the audience

The audience can never be ignored. There is always a general appeal for aids or assistance or some specific appeal for sacrifice and dedication as displayed in the following:

Convinced that I owe my election to the inherent love for the constitution and the union which still animates the hearts of the American people, let me earnestly ask their powerful support in sustaining all just measures calculated to perpetrate these.. (Buchanan, 1857)

And so, my fellow Americans, ask not what your country can do for you--ask what you can do for your country. (Kennedy, 1961)

8. Move VIII — Resorting to religious power

Every president will refer to God many times in his inaugural address as God is the common religious belief for-nearly all Americans. The function of this move is to unite the American people. Generally presidents supplicate the help of God by two means: invoking God for guidance and seeking divine blessings. Examples are listed to explicate the two cases:

In assuming responsibilities so vast, I fervently invoke the aid of that Almighty Ruler of the Universe in whose hands are the destinies of nations and of men to guard this Heaven--favored land against the mischief which without his guidance might arise from an unwise public policy. (Polk, 1845)

God bless you all, and God bless America. (Bush, 2001)

V. CONCLUSIONS

Genre analysis not only reveals the available form-function relationship of a text or discourse but also contributes significantly to language learners' understanding. Through examining the communicative purposes, rhetoric situations, functions and generic traditions of inaugural address, presidential speech can be regarded as a genre. Since any genre will have its own particular cognitive structure to follow, the schematic structure of presidential speech is investigated into. After summarizing the well-known inaugural speeches, eight moves as the possible generic structure for this particular genre are explained respectively. These eight moves are rehearsed, analyzed and exemplified. Each communicative intention of these moves is in obedient to the overall communicative purposes of the genre. The various devices to accomplish these moves are enumerated. What's more, the linguistic characteristics that usually signal the moves are revealed. To sum up, through the attempt, we can see that genre analysis is a practical means of studying spoken and written discourse for applied ends.

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The Rationale for Introducing "Global Issues" in English Textbook Development

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Abstract—Today, global issues (GI), known as a well-established branch of language teaching field in general and English language teaching in particular, has gained increasing interest among the teaching community. In Sampedro and Hillyard' s (2004) terms, global issues can no longer be dismissed as the "out there", but they are very much "in here" too and can no longer be safely ignored. Matsuda (2006) also points out since at present learners want to become effective users of English in the international context, some awareness of global cultures and issues needs to be fostered. Pass all doubt, in a globalizing world, when every corner of the planet is being affected by the phenomenon of globalization as an inevitable reality of the modern society, the need to understand other cultures, societies as well as the challenges and problems which we are faced with seems increasingly important. Certainly, one of the primary aims of language learning and especially English language which is known as a global and international language is facilitating the communication among the cultures and peoples. Since GI is a new approach to foreign language teaching and aims to enable learners to efficiently acquire and use a foreign language while empowering them with the knowledge, skills and commitment required by world citizens for the solution of global problems, using this approach can effectively integrate a global perspective into classroom instruction through a focus on international themes (see Cates 2000, Dyer and Bushell, 1996). In fact, this paper not only aims at introducing the reasons for introducing global issues as an important theme to English textbook development, but also attempts to highlight the applications of GI for English language classrooms with a specific reference to the Iranian society as an EFL context.

Index Terms—global issues, textbook development, English language teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

As criticisms spread on English language teaching, materials, as the heart of educational setting also have gone under a critical appraisal. Many applied linguists question the content of mainstream materials in ELT world (Rashidi, and Safari, 2011). Findings show that the majority of coursebooks used for English instruction are politically and socially harmless for an international audience. Most publishers advise coursebook writers to follow a set of guidelines to make sure that controversial topics are kept out of their books.

As a result, most coursebooks deal with neutral, apparently harmless topics (such as food, shopping, or travel) instead of dealing with real issues such as the thinning of the ozone layer, nuclear waste disposal, the spread of AIDS, ecological disaster and etc., while recent years have seen an explosion of interest in global issues and global education by the international English teaching profession. This can be documented in the journals and conference programs of international English teaching organizations such as TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) and IATEFL (the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language).

On the other side, Brinton, et. al. (1989) and Mohan (1986) emphasize on language as a means of learning about the world and recommend the use of motivating themes and authentic materials in classroom teaching. So, the implication here is that we can't call our English teaching successful if our students, however fluent, are ignorant of world problems, have no social conscience or use their communication skills for international crime, exploitation, oppression or environmental destruction.

Due to the importance of this new approach, global issues , in the field of EFL, and the necessity of paying attention to the global issues in language teaching for making students more aware of the world problems from one side and the rapid growth of English textbooks from the Inner Circle countries without considering the needs and culture of learners in Outer Circle countries and Expanding Circle countries from the other side (see, Davari, et. al., 2012), this research attempts to express the reasons for introducing global issues as an important theme to English textbook development and highlighting its applications for English language classrooms.

II. GLOBAL ISSUES

Global issues have been referred to as 'issues of global significance' (Anderson, 1996), or as 'problems in the world' (Mark, 1993). According to Pike and Selby (1988, p. 22), a global issue is 'a contemporary phenomenon affecting the lives of people and/or the health of the planet in a harmful or potentially harmful way'.

As the traditional forms of language teaching is being replaced with more communicative trends and grammar-based, rule-governed approaches yielded to contextual language instruction, it becomes possible for learners to interact, share ideas, develop language and social skills as well as gain social and language awareness. This relatively recent movement towards socially responsible teaching has encouraged language educators to use global issues as a context to develop language and social skills.

It is emphasized that global issues should be incorporated in ELT. In Sampedro and Hillyard's (2004) terms, global issues can no longer be dismissed as the "out there", but they are very much "in here" too and can no longer be safely ignored.

Global issues can be included in teaching content even when students are just starting to learn the sounds of the foreign language. One example is the Japanese junior high school EFL text Cosmos English Course (Oura et al. 1989), which teaches the sounds of English by using the example word "peace" to teach the English sound /p/. Grammar can also be taught with a global perspective through a change of content. Some innovative teachers have designed exercises to teach students the conditional "if…then" while promoting environmental awareness. These efforts revolve around pattern practice based on model sentences such as "If we all recycled paper, we'd save more trees".

It is possible to integrate four language skills, reading, writing, listening, and speaking, with global issues content. One British English instructor, for example, has based a complete English four-skill lesson on the international human rights organization, Amnesty International (Sandilands, 1989).

As language teachers, we live in critical times. Our world faces serious global issues of terrorism, ethnic conflict, social inequality, and environmental destruction. Cates (1990) concerns with the fact that our planet faces serious "global issues" or world problems and in this relation, Kniep (1987, p. 184) points out: "Hardly a day goes by without an announcement of terrorist activities, the newest lake poisoned by acid rain, the latest energy crisis, the suffering of displaced people in refugee camps or the repression through violent means of people seeking their human rights" So we need to prepare our students to cope with these problems. It is our responsibility as language teachers to take an action in a world of war, poverty, prejudice, and pollution.

"Global education", as a new approach to language teaching, attempts to find solutions to the problems. It aims to enable students to effectively acquire a foreign language while empowering them with the knowledge, skills, and commitment required by world citizens to solve global problems (Cates, 1990). Global education has been also defined as "education which promotes the knowledge, attitudes and skills relevant to living responsibly in a multicultural and interdependent world" (Fisher and Hicks 1985).

As Kniep (1985) states, global education consists of efforts to bring about changes in the content, methods and social context of education in order to better prepare students for citizenship in a global age. Matsuda (2006) points out since at present learners want to become effective users of English in the international context, some awareness of global cultures and issues needs to be fostered. In her words, such topics as world peace, environmental conservation and other relevant topics in the field of global education provide appropriate content for readings, class discussions and course assignments.

A trend related to the growing interest in global education concerns the efforts by English teaching associations to reach out to global issue experts and organizations for ideas, stimulation and resources (Cates, 2000). Recently, Common European Framework (CEF) which provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe, suggests ''thinking globally and acting locally'' in the perspective of preparing the students for a changing world.

CEF mainly aims to promote the national and international institutions engaged in the development of methods of teaching and evaluation in the field of modern language learning and in the production and use of materials. In this way, all aspects of language learning, teaching and research can be covered by basic characteristics of global education.

III. Current Textbooks

According to Bardovi-Harling (1996), teaching materials are perceived as a prestige source of input and play an important part in curriculum design of a foreign language class, because learners especially in EFL contexts do not receive much input outside the classroom.

Most of ELT materials are a compilation of information and activities with the purpose of improving English communicative abilities regardless of the social issues while the major mission of ELT materials should be to contribute students read their world while read their word (Rashidi, and Safari, 2011).

As Hillyard (2005) points out, the topics of most current textbooks are with themes such as the family, sport, hobbies, travel, pop culture, festivals from remote countries, which bear no impact on students' lives and this point is supported by Leather' (2003) word that textbooks produced for an international audience are bland and , to put it simply, boring.

According to Banegas (2010), such coursebooks are criticized not only for avoiding provoking topics, but also for presenting a romantic view of countries such as Britain or the USA. In his words, in an attempt to avoid some controversial and real issues, material writers opt for selecting themes that are rooted in the British or American culture.

Akbari (2008) states that one of the reasons of producing such textbooks is to make sure they do not lose their market potential and in this process most of the topics of interest for a critical pedagogy are removed. In his terms, most of the topics one encounters in commercially prepared textbooks deal with harmless issues such as travel, shopping, holidays

and food recipes, leaving little room for social transformation and political awareness rising. Hillyard (2005) points out that when we study the topics of such textbooks, there is little controversial material.

A problem of commercially produced coursebooks is their disregard for the localness of learning and learning needs. Most such books make use of a language which is considered to be aspirational (Gray 2001), where most of the language introduced deals with the needs and concerns of middle and upper classes; in most of the dialogues of such books the interlocutors talk about issues which are far removed from the lives of many learners.

IV. TEXTBOOK DEVELOPMENT AND GLOBAL ISSUES

Hutchinson and Torres (1994) suggest that the textbook is an almost universal element of teaching. While millions of copies are sold every year, and numerous aid projects have been set up to produce them in different countries, no teaching-learning situation, it seems, is complete until it has its relevant textbook. So the textbook is an important means of satisfying the range of needs that emerge from the classroom and its wider context.

On the other hand, while ELT materials play a very important role in many language classrooms, in recent years there has been a lot of debate throughout the ELT profession on the actual role of materials in teaching English as a Second/Foreign Language (TESL/TEFL). A growing number of educators are proposing world problems or "global issues" as subject matter in ELT materials which can both meet the need for more meaningful content, and address the lack of educational relevance of much of the general English education in schools around the world. In the following, some points which are considered important in using global issues in textbook development are introduced.

The first point concerns the content of the textbooks. We can't call our English teaching successful if our students, however fluent, are ignorant of world problems, have no social conscience or use their communication skills for international crime, exploitation, oppression or environmental destruction. In this respect, different educators claim that the foreign language classroom is the right place for global education while materials with related content are used (Starkey, 1988, 2000; Maley, 1992, cited in Cates 2000; Mark, 1993; Dyer and Bushell 1996; Cates, 2000; Jacobs and Goatly, 2000).

Secondly, the source of the themes of the materials should be derived from the learners' life situations, needs and interests. In this relation, the best way to achieve a global perspective in the foreign language classroom is through a learner-centered syllabus based on the students' needs. It is essential to note that the term 'interest' has a different sense. Here, interests may initially not attract students' attention. The criterion for the selection of themes in critical pedagogy is the problematic reality in the learners' lives (Crawford, 1978).

Making students encouraged to use their English to clarify and express their values, to think and speak critically about world issues is the third point that should be considered. In this relation, Horstein (1990), & Stempleski (1993) believe that values-oriented education seems best implemented by learner-centered pedagogy that encourages students to take responsibility for their learning, to learn cooperatively in pairs and small groups, and to make connections between the classroom lesson and their own lives.

The fourth point is that there should be a kind of change in different fields of language learning and teaching. Recently, there is a movement in Europe in providing a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. The institution suggests ''thinking globally and acting locally'' in the perspective of preparing the students for a changing world (Çavdar, 2006). In this way, both global issues and cultural aspects of source languages in the development of methods of teaching and evaluation in the field of modern language learning and in the production and use of materials are considered.

The foreign language classroom and a meeting point between at least two languages and cultures is the fifth point worth mentioning because this is already a step towards a global perspective. Prodromou (1988) and Alptekin (1993) suggest that it is not really possible to teach a language without embedding it in its cultural base. In this regard, Gary (2002) argues, learners will improve their language skills by using their textbooks as useful instruments for provoking discussion, cultural debate, and a two-way flow of information. Moreover, recent authors have criticized textbooks for their inherent social and cultural biases. With the spread of English around the world, there is no longer the need for students to assimilate into Anglo-American culture. Bringing source culture, i.e. learners' own culture, into materials content is valuable since focusing on local cultures contributes to learners to reflect on the positive and negative features of their own culture and consequently explore ways to make changes in the society if change is required (Akbari, 2008).

V. GLOBAL ISSUES IN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Language classroom is a place where the goals of language teaching and learning can be seen, so the process of language education, teaching methods, textbooks and some other factors take roles in making a class successful in preparing learners to become not only fluent in language skills, but familiar with the world problems. But it is a question how to bring real world in the classroom! Due to the flexibility of language, EFL instructors around the world integrate global issues and global education into their teaching in a variety of ways that involve language- teaching content, methods, materials, course design, teacher training, and extracurricular activities(Cates, 2000)

On the other side, critical pedagogy in ELT as an approach to language education places sociopolitical considerations high on the classroom agenda and incorporates a set of principles and practices. Thus, the aim is "not only to change the nature of schooling, but also the wider society" (Pennycook, 1990, p. 24).

The relation between global issues and language teaching is highly considered by an organization such as UNESCO. It recommends international cooperation through classroom cooperation using language-teaching approaches responsive to students' interests and needs.

As Cates (2000, p. 241) states, a global education approach in foreign language teaching involves 'integrating a global perspective into classroom instruction through a focus on international themes, lessons built around global issues, classroom activities linking students to the wider world and concepts such as social responsibility and world citizenship'.

Global education is as much a matter of how we teach as of what we teach (Cates, 2000). For many teachers, this involves a shift from passive to active learning, from teacher- to student-centered classes, from language as structure to language for communication about the world. This shift in teaching method often stimulates instructors to experiment with new approaches such as experiential learning. This can lead to trying out class simulations and role-plays that get students out of their seats and actively involved in exploring global issues in the foreign language. Some teachers try to bring the world into the classroom by inviting native guest speakers to promote communicative English skills as well as interest in world cultures and global issues.

In sum, paying attention to the content of materials in class, socially and culturally, choosing active teaching methods with the emphasis on student – oriented class, using language-teaching approaches responsive to students' needs and focusing on international themes are among the best recommendations that help integrate global issues into classroom.

VI. Conclusion

Today, on the one hand, global issues, known as a well-established branch of language teaching field in general and English language teaching in particular, has gained increasing interest among the teaching community. On the other hand, we live in a world that faces serious global issues such as terrorism, racism, pollution, ethnic conflict, poverty, etc. So, due to the importance of textbooks in any ELT context, it is necessary to consider all aspects of global issues not only in materials development, but also in course design and methods of teaching.

Reviewing the current ELT textbooks taught in Iranian society, as the main reference of this study, reveals that most of the topics in these books are either Center-oriented or sanitized. Thus, avoiding such topics, enjoying this new approach, namely global issues, in ELT textbook development can be known as a panacea for the cultural and linguistic imperialism of such textbooks.

Pass all doubt, the Iranian society, as one which English is taught as a foreign language, and as a consequence, the textbooks play important role can enjoy this new approach in ELT textbook development as an efficient way to minimize the cultural impacts of Center-oriented ELT textbooks and also make the Iranian EFL learners aware with the latest global concerns and issues. In a more specific word, using this approach in ELT textbook development and ELT English classrooms may pave the way to provide a situation in which a shift from passive to active learning, from teacher- to student-centered classes, from language as structure to language for communication about the world is formed.

To sum up, in a globalizing world, learning a language especially English which is known as a global and international language is an inevitable reality, so providing textbooks based on global issues not only enables learners to efficiently acquire and use a foreign language, but also empowers them with the knowledge, skills and commitment required by world citizens for the solution of global problems. In fact, enjoying this approach, not only provides an opportunity for the learners to transform their lives, but it can create a situation in which the learners turn to effective users of global English in global contexts.

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Self-orientalization and Its Counteraction against the Cultural Purpose of Gu Hongming in His *Discourses and Sayings of Confucius*

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Abstract—Gu Hongming endowed his *Discourses and Sayings of Confucius*, the translation of Confucius' *Lun Yu*, with a mission of improving the image of Chinese culture. In order to achieve the purpose, the translator summoned a strategy of extreme domestication, fully catering to English language grids and Western value system. However, it is just the adaptation of such a strategy that makes the translation strongly self-orientalized, which clears up the intended purpose of the translation, depriving it of the power of achieving its intended cultural mission.

Index Terms—cultural identity, extreme domestication, self-orientalization, cultural mission

I. INTRODUCTION

The translation of Confucius' *Lun Yu*, one of the essential classic works of Chinese ancient philosophy and culture, has been the focus of translation studies since 19th century. Until today, there are over 50 versions of different languages published, the most well-known of which, Gu Hongming's version, has been arousing many arguments. His version was published by Killy and Walsh Limited in 1898 when China, economically and politically marginalized, lost confidence in cultural communication. Dominated politically, economically and culturally by the West, Chinese culture lost the power of self-presentation and unfortunately became an object controlled by the West culture. In the presentation of West culture, Chinese culture is an unprogressive and childish culture at a standstill (Hegel, 2001), while Chinese nation is an immoral and degenerated one, without any redeeming quality (Zhou, 1999). Obviously, Gu Hongming, highly provoked by the negation and contempt from the West, started his translation of *Discourses and Sayings of Confucius* (regarded as the representative work of Chinese culture) and struggled to recreate image of China deliberately belittled in Western discourse hegemony. That is, Gu Hongming expected that his translation was to create image of China and make westerners realize the true value of Chinese culture so as to alter their negative attitude to China. Gu adopted a strategy to achieve his cultural expectation, but whether the strategy successfully achieved his expectation would be doubted. By the analysis of Gu's translation strategy and its objective effect, this paper will reveal the fundamental contradiction between self-orientalization in Gu's version and his cultural expectation and translation strategy, which finally clears up his intended purpose of the translation.

II. CONTRADICTION BETWEEN THE PURPOSE AND THE MEANS OF SELF-ORIENTALIZATION

Since the West started and established the industrial culture of strong economic power, it has constructed a world order around the core of Western value system and imposed the order on other regions of the world economically, politically and culturally. In the order, the West turned to be the dominator and producer of discourse in creating cultural image while controlling the power of discourse in non-west regions so that it dominates the process of discourse production to establish a discourse system around binary opposition between the West and the East. In the system, the West is the world centre of civilization, freedom and forwardness while the East is "the marginalized part of inferior quality, weird, unchanged and passive" (Zhou, 2004, p11), and the synonym of barbarism, backwardness and autocracy. Hence, enforced to accept the political, economic and cultural order dominated by the West, the non-western economically-marginalized regions have to express themselves with a reference to the value system of the West. In a word, the development of modern culture in the East is characterized by the mental and identity domination of the West.

The West domination in cultural development of the East has been one of the researches of Orientalism started in the later half of 20th century. Dirlik in his *Post-revolution Atmosphere* mentioned the concept of self-orientalization many times and stated that self-orientalization is a "conspiracy" established by European orientalists and Asian intellectuals together (Dirlik, 1999, p279). The conspiracy here is actually self-orientalism in the East. Zhou Ning has had a systematic generalization and conclusion of self-orientalization in the following three aspects. First, self-orientalization means that the East is enforced to confess the world order of West centralism and the binary opposition between the West and the East, that is, forwardness and backwardness, freedom and autocracy, civilization and barbarism. It further identifies superiority of the West and inferiority of the East and surrenders to the cultural hegemony of the West.

Second, self-orientalization is a process of self-criticism and cultural reformation. That is deorientalization , which contains two extremes: one is to completely decry eastern tradition and turn to be thoroughly westernized, and the other is to promote eastern tradition in the world order dominated by the West. It is noticeable that both the two extremes contain both agreement with and resistance to the West. Third, deorientalization establishes not only a relationship between the East and the West, but also a relationship among eastern countries. The process of deorientalization also contains mutual-orientalization within the East itself, that is, which country is more oriental or which country is more western. On the basis of that, self-realization of countries of the East is formed (Zhou, 2006). It is concluded from the above statements that, in the world order dominated by the West, the East actually makes a self-presentation in a discourse system established by the West with the reference to the West. This proves that both "complete westernization" or "promotion of eastern tradition in the west world" cannot help the eastern countries establish their self-presentation and self-identity.

The two extremes of self-negation and cultural reformation mentioned above also show the two major modes of how Eastern countries create and develop cultural identity in the discourse system dominated by the West: deorientalization and promotion of the eastern tradition. The former is to decry their own culture and tradition in order to integrate the East into the West while the latter is to promote their own value in the world order controlled by the West to fight against the judgment and denial from the West in order to construct their own cultural identity. The two modes which seem contradictory are actually the means to reconstruct self-identity in the cultural system of binary opposition of the West and the East.

However, the two means of constructing cultural identity, characterized by self-orienalization, are contradictory to each other. That is the contradiction between the means and the purpose. Deorientalization cannot construct unique self-identity with the integration of the East into the West but become an extensive part of the West with a loss of eastern tradition. Promotion of the eastern tradition is seeking for the advancement of the East over the West or the similarities between the East and the West, depriving the power of promoting the uniqueness of eastern culture, so it also cannot establish a true self-identity. Therefore, the contradiction here will inevitably result in the failure of self-identity construction of the East.

III.   GU'S TRANSLATION STRATEGY IN HIS *DISCOURSES AND SAYINGS OF CONFUCIUS* AND ITS EFFECTS

The scholars of German skopos theorie like Hans Vermeer believe that translation as an act contains certain purpose (Vermeer, 2000; Nord, 1997/2001), so a translator's act of translation including the formulation of translation strategy must be controlled by his or her purpose. Hence, a research on translation strategy with an analysis of the effects of a version will help us acquire the translator's cultural purpose and assess whether the translation has achieved his purpose.

This paper will first analyze the linguistic strategies adopted in Gu's version. Here linguistic strategies refer to the translator's means of processing linguistic features and text styles of the source text. The translator will decide whether the version maintains linguistic features and styles of the source text or keeps close to the linguistic grids of the target language. Linguistic features of a text include many aspects like sentence pattern, person, mood as well as cohesion and coherence (Lian, 1993); style of a text includes words, sentence pattern, context and coherence etc. (Leech & Short, 2001). Limited by the content, the paper cannot have a comprehensive research on the whole version but it will take the seventh section of Chapter 3 and the first section of Chapter 19 for example to make a contrastive study on sentence pattern between the source and the target since sentence pattern is an aspect of both linguistic features and text style.

Eg1:子曰："君子无所争。必也射乎！揖让而升，下而饮。其争也君子。"(*Lun Yu*: Chapter 7 of Part III)

Gu's Version: Confucius remarked, "A gentleman never competes in anything he does, ---except in archery. But even then, when he wins he courteously makes his bow before he advances to make his place among the winners; and, when he has lost he walks down and drinks his cup of forfeit. Thus, even in this case of competition, he shows himself to be a gentleman."(Gu, 1898, p.16)

Eg 2: 棘子成曰：君子质而已矣，何以文为？子贡曰：惜乎，夫子之说君子也，驷不及舌。文犹质也，质犹文也，虎豹之鞟，犹犬羊之鞟。(*Lun Yu*: Chapter 8 of Part XII)

Gu's Version: An officer of a certain state on one occasion remarked to a disciple of Confucius, saying: "A wise and good man wants only the substance; why should he trouble about the style?"

"I am sorry to hear you make such a statement," replied Confucius' disciple, "What you would say is true; but, stated in that way, it is impossible for men not to misunderstand your meaning. To be sure, the style comes out of the substance, but the substance also comes out of the style. For the substance of a tiger or a leopard is the same as the substance is the same as the substance in the skin of a dog or a sheep."(Gu, 1898, p.99)

Eg3: "子张曰：士见危致命，见得思义，祭思敬，丧思哀，其可已矣。"(*Lun Yu*: Chapter 1 of Part XVIV)

Gu's Version: A disciple of Confucius remarked, "A gentleman in presence of danger should be ready to give up his life; in view of personal advantage, he should think of what is right; in worship, he should be devout and serious; in mourning, he should show heartfelt grief: the above is about the sum of the duties of a gentleman."(Gu, 1898, p.169)

Example 1 contains 4 single sentences among which the first three share the same subject "君子", while its English version is consist of three single sentences. That is, the first two single Chinese sentences are transferred to an English

single sentence with an adverbial prepositional structure. The third Chinese sentence containing two juxtaposed V-V structure is translated into two juxtaposed compounding sentences and the fourth sentence of a subject-adjective structure into a juxtaposed single sentence with a time phrase in English. Meanwhile, Gu used the pronoun *he* (*his*, *himself*) 11 times so the frequent employment of pronouns makes his version more close to a standardized English sentence. In addition, two rituals mentioned in the source text, "揖让而升" and "下而饮", are not faithfully maintained in the version; the former is partly translated and the latter is mistranslated into "drinking a cup of alcohol if failed". The same strategy can be apparently found in the translation of Example 3.

In Example 2, "质" in the source text refers to a good nature or quality; "文" refers to "external talents (rituals or manners)", which means a person's outer manifestation; and "鞟" means furred animal skin. The three words are respectively translated into "substance", "style" and "skin". However, "substance" in English is not equal to "personal quality", and "style" related to a person is generally not used to mean "external talents" while "skin" doesn't contain the meaning of "furred". It can see that Gu's version simplified the meaning of the three words of the source text which seems unclearly expressed.

The above contrastive analysis proves that Gu Hongming's *Discourses and Sayings of Confucius* is consist of many compounding sentences of subordinate constructions with typical hypotactic features. A frequent employment of pronouns and connective words makes the version cohesive. Most of the words in the version are common and popular to make the version fluent and easy-reading. Conclusively, the strategy makes the version a standardized English text.

Secondly, the paper will study the cultural strategy employed in translation. Here, a cultural strategy means how a translator treats cultural elements in translation, e.g. concepts, tradition and customs or ways of acts which appear in source text to represent source culture.

The cultural strategies in Gu's *Discourses and Sayings of Confucius* are reflected by four acts. One is to get rid of proper nouns in the source text to reduce English readers' unfamiliarity with them(Gu, 1898, preface, p.Vii-Viii). The most typical example is that Confucius' disciples' names are not translated except Zilu's and Yanhui's and other people's names are omitted or noted with very few maintained. In addition, only a few place-names are transliterated and most also omitted. Specifically, when some important people are mentioned, a correspondence to similar figures in western culture will be introduced. For example, the note for Yan Hui is "the St. John of the Confucius gospel, ---a pure, heroic, ideal character, the disciple whom the Master loved" and Zilu is compared to "the St. Peter of the Confucian gospel；a brave, latrepid，impetuous，chivalrous character" while the note for Wu Wang (Emperor Wu) is "the warrior king or the conqueror: the Solomon of Chinese history". The second one is that Gu had a tendency to compare cultural phenomenon and historical stages in the source text to so-called "similar" phenomenon and stages in western culture so as to display the similarities between the West and the East. For example, the note for "齐国" and "鲁国" is "the France of the Chinese history" and "the England of Chinese history", and the note for 诗经*, "*Now called the Canon of Poetry, one of the so-called five classics, is *the Bible of China",* directly compares a philosophical work of Confucianism to *the Bible*. Third, many opinions in the source text are noted with "similar" ones stated by Goethe, Voltaire, Tennyson or Horace etc., who are the famous scholars, poets, philosophers or politicians in the West. It shows that the translator is seeking for the similarities between the two. Fourth, a few typical Chinese cultural concepts are transferred to popular concepts of the West. An example is that "入太庙，每事问" is translated into "When he attended the service at **the Great Cathedral** (ancestral temple of the reigning prince), he always enquired what he would do **at every stage of the service"** (here the bold letters are noticed by the author). Here, "太庙" as a representative element of Chinese culture is translated into "the Great Cathedral", "天命" into "the laws of God" and "圣人" into "holy men". Therefore, Gu's cultural strategies are also an extreme domestication to Western cultural system.

IV.   GU'S SELF-ORIENTALIZATION AND ITS CLEARING UP OF HIS PURPOSE

A translator's cultural purpose in his translation will unavoidably be reflected by how he looks at the source culture and target culture. The purpose will exert effects on his translation strategies and be found in the final version. Here, how a translator looks at culture is actually a mirror of his cultural purpose.

As a talent in academics, education and politics of China throughout the end of Qing Dynasty and the beginning of Republic of China (1912-1949), Gu has been studied academically and culturally by Chinese scholars since his birth and also been researched by some western scholars. Although he was seriously criticized by Chen Duxiu, Cai Yuanpei or Hu Shi in that he was conservative in doing everything to maintain Chinese traditional culture, he is finally honored to be "a speaker of eastern culture" (Yan, 1996, preface, p.4). According to his biography and other materials, his thoughts about culture are categorized into two points. One is that he has a thorough and comprehensive study on both western and eastern culture, while the other is that he was hypercritical of the western culture and approving of Chinese traditional culture concentrating Confucianism with strong feudalism, that is, he had a self-admiration of Chinese culture. More specifically, by his comprehensive knowledge about the two cultures, Gu was willing to criticize the shallowness and arrogance of the western civilization on the stand of Chinese culture in order to safeguard Chinese culture threatened by the West, although he couldn't realize the bad side of Chinese culture, some feudal thoughts, and he "provided the society with the rubbish of Chinese civilization" (Yan, 1996, preface, p.6). Generally speaking, Gu's cultural purpose is to spread Chinese culture with his cultural activities.

Gu's translation of *The Discourses and Sayings of Confucius* is a significant means to achieve his cultural purpose. In his preface, Gu clearly announced his intention to do the translation. He firstly put forward critical comments on Legge's version and stated that Legge, as an English scholar on Chinese culture, was poor in literature education, assessing competence and literary sensibility in his translation of *The Discourses and Sayings of Confucius*. He also pointed out that Legge's version "cannot display the wits and moralities of Chinese nation which sound weird for western readers" (Gu, 1898, preface p.VII). Gu emphasized that his version, no longer strange or weird, would be accepted by most common western readers so that "British people's prejudice against Chinese people would be removed" (Gu, 1898, preface, p.X). Undoubtedly, Gu's cultural purpose is running through his translation, which is to make Chinese civilization comprehensively understood by the West and to promote the international status of China as well as to recreate image of China.

However, his translation of *The Discourses and Sayings of Confucius*, as a means to achieve his cultural purpose, is actually a reflection of self-orientalization. Gu's translation strategy was intended to prove that Chinese culture is not inferior to western culture, that is, the thoughts, value system and thinking modes in the western cultural system can be found in Chinese culture. That means Chinese culture exists only in that it has the similar thoughts, value system and thinking modes of the western cultural system. In a word, the great similarity between Chinese culture and Western culture is why the former has the value to exist. So with various translation measures, Gu's translation is seeking for similarities between Chinese culture and Western culture to show the value of Chinese culture and achieve his intention of creating image of China.

Here, Gu's cultural strategy is actually a simple logic: the existence of Chinese culture is rooted in similarities between Chinese culture and Western culture. The logic is apparently wrong in that similarities between one culture and the referent culture cannot prove the culture has value unless the referent culture has value surpassing other cultures. There is a formula to demonstrate that logically wrong inference.

Major Premise: Western culture has superior value over other cultures.

Minor Premise: Chinese culture is apparently similar to Western culture.

Conclusion: Chinese culture has the value to exist.

That's to say, Gu's cultural strategy in his translation is to some extent an acknowledgement that Western culture is superior over Chinese culture, although he was not intended to admit that.

The logical defect mentioned above is actually the major one in Gu's *The Discourses and Sayings of Confucius*, that is, his intention to prove the existence value of eastern culture with an exploration to the similarities between eastern culture and western culture is an ignorance of the uniqueness of Chinese culture. Obviously, his strategy to certify the existence value of Chinese culture is totally toward a wrong direction in that the value is not rooted in the similarities but in the uniqueness neglected by Gu so that his version cannot achieve his cultural strategy. Generally, the purpose of translation is to transfer the uniqueness of source culture to target culture. If the strategy is unable to maintain uniqueness of source culture but tend to seek for the similarities between source culture and target culture, the true value of the source culture will be definitely lost and the cultural strategy will fall into void. In a word, Gu's strategy of self-orientalization in his translation is actually contradictory to his intention of transmitting Chinese culture. Dominated by western culture and value system, his translation has finally turned to be a "conspiracy" to control the power of discourse. What western readers read from Gu's translation is not the pith and unique value of Chinese Confucianism but the evidence that the value of western culture is superiorly popularized throughout the world.

V. Conclusion: Relationship between Cultural Intention and Translation Strategy in Translation of Classic Pieces

With a growing interest in translation of Chinese classic pieces, more scholars have focused on translators' cultural intention, which actually refers to a translator's cultural stand in his translation practice. More specifically, cultural stand includes the two trends: one is to achieve cultural exchange of spreading Chinese culture to other countries and the other one is to construct "image of China" to satisfy the demand of the West with the reference to Chinese culture. The former is a true reflection of Chinese culture so that a translator with the stand will adopt a translation strategy to make his version close to the source culture. The latter is just an exploitation of Chinese culture so that a translator with the stand will take a strategy to make his version close target culture and value system (Li, 2007).

However, the analysis on Gu's *The Discourses and Sayings of Confucius* has found a great contradiction between his stand and his translation. His stand is to spread the true value of Chinese culture to the world but his version is actually seeking for the existence value of Chinese culture in the value system of the West. Therefore, a translator's cultural stand is an important factor considered but his strategy is a more significant factor to guide the cultural trend of his version, which will reflect whether the version can really transmit the source culture. In other words, a translator, with his cultural stand confirmed, must adopt a relevant strategy to achieve the stand or his stand will definitely fail by his wrong strategy.

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The Role of Semantic Mapping as a While-reading Activity in Improving Reading Comprehension Ability of the Iranian University Students in General English (GE) Courses

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Abstract—Of the four important skills in any second language pedagogy, *reading comprehension* is of paramount importance for students in the Iranian universities. A decision was therefore made to check the students' skill and ability in reading comprehension on the basis of 'semantic mapping' task inYazd Shahid Sadoughi University of Medical Sciences. In this quasi-experimental study, six general-English classes in Shahid Sadoughi University were assigned randomly to 3 control and 3 experimental groups. Students were studying in Family Health, Environmental Health, and Nursing fields. A pretest and posttest was held and the students were compared both at the beginning and at the end of the study. Data were then analyzed through ANOVA and paired-test via SPSS software. The findings revealed no statistically significant relationship between the two techniques. However, 'semantic mapping' technique, in terms of the mean score, proved more effective for Nursing students (M=6.25) compared with the students of Environmental Health (M=2.60) and Family Health (M=4.62). The results of this study are in line with a similar study carried out with medical and dental students (2006) in which the semantic mapping group enjoyed significantly higher reading comprehension ability than the relevant control group at the end of the study. (Note that the Nursing students in Iranian universities have a better position compared with Health-group students but a lower position compared with Medical and Dental students) This study suggests that the higher proficiency level of the learners is the more they may benefit from semantic mapping technique as a while-reading activity.

Index Terms—reading comprehension, traditional, semantic mapping

I. INTRODUCTION

Over the past few decades, there has emerged a gradual but significant shift of attention from teacher-oriented to learner-oriented classes within the field of education. At the same time, attention has been exercised in SLA research from the products of language learning to the processes through which learning takes place (Oxford 1990).

In an effort to lead learners towards autonomous and independent language learners, research has abundantly focused on learner-centered approaches in second/foreign language teaching. This change in emphasis has resultantly brought about meaning-based activities which are of utmost importance in pedagogical environments (Brown 2000).

A. Fundamental Concepts in Reading Comprehension

Even though the minimum requirement for appreciation of reading is sharing the code between the writer and the reader, sharing certain *assumptions* about the world and the way it works is another prerequisite for reading comprehension the lack of which can contribute to comprehension failure. In other words, in addition to the linguistic knowledge necessary for reading "… more intangible things like attitudes, beliefs, values, and all the unspoken assumptions shared by the people brought about in the same society" also need to be considered vital in any reading activity (Nuttall 1996). And for the fact that not two persons always possess identical experiences, there may at times seem a mismatch between the two. We however construct more assumptions on the basis of the experiences of the world we have had as well as the organization of the knowledge provided by these experiences. This concept is best

represented by *schema theory* within which thus these two important features can be conceptualized, 1) being mental, and 2) being organized (Richards & Schmidt 2002), and evidently for readers who do not share the relevant schema, some problems may arise in comprehending any reading material.

Top-down (schematic) and *bottom-up* (linguistic) processing are also the concepts which have been discussed in the relevant literature on receptive skills for the past decades (Hedge 2000; Nuttall 1996; Richards & Schmidt 2002; Kaplan 2002; Brown 2000; Scrivener 2011, and many more). In bottom-up processing which is considered a 'lower-level' reading, the reader attempts to draw on some linguistic components such as vocabulary and structure to decode meaning whereas in top-down processing the reader is, by applying prior knowledge, engaged in a 'higher level' reading and extracts meaning by the information present in the input. And as Scrivener [ibid] contends, "many reading lessons move from 'big' to 'small', ie 'top-down' – from overview to details." To Johnson's (2001) identification, "[s]chemata play an important role in comprehension from an early stage in the process. Comprehension doesnot follow a totally bottom-up pathway…. Instead we take short-cuts." Anyway both these types of processing are important and necessary for understanding texts and it is said that by taking an *interactive* approach to reading, the reader involves in a dynamic relationship with text so as to make sense of it. As ways to speed reading, *skimming* (ie, reading for the gist of a passage or text) or *scanning* (ie, to locate a specific piece of information) are also the concepts both of which are regarded as top-down skills; in none of which the focus is on accessing details.

In addition to skimming and scanning as purposeful ways to reading, Pugh (1978) and Gardner(1979) draw on some other terminology to describe various reading styles (as cited in Hedge 2000). *Receptive reading*, involves for example enjoying a piece of writing, reading in a cook book how to bake a cake, or following an argument between two politicians in a newspaper. *Reflective reading* is undertaken when the reader attempts to check his or her understanding of a text by moments of pausing to see whether different parts of a text are consistent with each other, or to have a critical view of the material. And, *intensive reading* which involves both top-down and bottom-up processing for a careful and detailed appreciation of a piece of writing. And finally *extensive reading* or reading longer texts over time, which has been addressed by many researchers as a powerful way of improving reading ability as well as overall language proficiency. Scrivener (2011) has put it rightly saying" [t]he more someone reads, the more they pick up items of vocabulary and grammar from the text, often without realizing it, and this widening language knowledge seems to increase their overall linguistic confidence, which then influences and improves their skill in other language areas, too (though this is not probably true in cases where the material they read is self-chosen and is genuinely relevant and interesting to them."

B. Reading Comprehension Strategies

Language learning strategies have also been discussed widely in varying researches (see, e.g., Oxford 1990; Brown 2000; Hadley 2003; Cook 2001; Hedge 2000; Nuttall 1996; Lightbown & Spada 2003). Oxford (1990) defines language learning strategies as "approaches or techniques that learners use to enhance their progress in developing L2 skills". Cook (2001) defines learning strategies as "a choice that learner makes while learning or using the second language that affects learning". Moreover, Griffiths (2007) states language learning strategies as activities which are consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning. Brown (2001) also asserts that language-teaching methodology has undergone a dramatic increase in attention to "strategic investment" that learners can make in the process of their learning. Finally Grab (2002) maintains that metacognitive awareness and strategy learning are useful instructional practices if students are to become strategic readers. A practical application at classroom level and a selection of activities for teaching strategies to pupils has as well been discussed in Ellis and Silinclair's book *Learning to Learn English* (1989).

In recent years the term "interactive" has been used in literature to describe second language reading process. As Hedge (2000) suggests, the interactive process in reading comprehension shows "a dynamic relationship with text as the reader 'struggles' to make sense of it." In trying to extract meaning from the text, the reader is involved in a kind of process which Goodman (1967) called a "psycholinguistic guessing game" (as cited in Hedge, 2000) in which the learner involves in reading as a kind of dialog between the reader and the author (Widdowson 1978, as Cited in Hedge 2000). This is certainly a kind of a strategy that learners would draw on while reading difficult texts.

In regard with text comprehension, an integration of understanding lexical units, syntactic units, and discourse features which mainly involves inference processing is vital (Perfetti, 1994). The lexical and syntactic units, as Perfetti further maintains, are at a lower level of text representation because the engagement of processes is somewhat passive as compared to the discourse level which is more active. However there is evidence that strategy training or skill teaching can also help (Nuttall, 1996). A skill which is often used by the researchers in this process is called " text attack skills" through which the learners are asked to "underline, circle or draw lines from one word to another, use color to indicate differences in function or structure, block off certain sections, annotate in the margins, and so on" in the process of reading (Nuttall 1996). This is surely what some researchers have regarded as "while-reading" tasks (see e.g., Wallace 2001, as cited in Carter & Nunan 2001) and "during-reading" technique by others (see e.g., Brown 2001). While-reading task is therefore a nearly recent concept in the interactive approach to reading which has been put forth more clearly by Hedge (2000) in this way:

these [activities] generally aim to encourage learners to be active as they read. Students can be given activities which require them to do any of the following: follow the order of ideas in a text; react to the opinions expressed; understand

the information it contains; ask themselves questions; make notes; confirm expectations or prior knowledge; or predict the next part of the text by varying clues. To encourage these activities, teachers can use a range of exercise types, for example: ask students to tick a list of expectations or find answers to their own questions; suggest they tick and cross in the margin in reaction to the writer's opinions; give them questions to stop and think about; or provide a chart for them to fill in with points of information.

As teachers, it is surely incumbent on us to recognize our students' reading strategies (maybe through a check list or a Likert-type scale), as we often do in our university, so as to gain access to their Achilles' heel in an attempt to help them develop successful reading strategies. This viewpoint is somehow pertinent to what Widdowson (2003) observes in relation to one difference between classroom language and that which occurs outside in natural discourse. To him language of the classroom is "unilaterally determined and controlled." Otherwise it would become rather difficult to capture the effect the teacher expects of the class.

Another technique described by Hosenfeld et al (1981; cited in Hadley 2003) is to teach students to self-report while they are reading. Learners in this way are encouraged to 'think about' as they tackle a reading task. "As students report their thinking processes, the teacher has an opportunity to diagnose reading difficulties and identify specific reading strategies"

In a study conducted by Hudson (1988; cited in Nunan 1999) on 93 ESL students with different levels of proficiency in the United States, it was demonstrated that students at different levels of proficiency apply different reading strategies. This study found, for example, that lower-level proficiency students benefit more from pre-reading activities).

Drawing upon different skills to improve reading comprehension is a principle that researchers tend to focus on in the world of communicative approach to second/foreign   language learning and teaching (Schmitt 2002; Nuttall 1996; Hadley 2003, to name a few).

C. Reading Process vs. Reading Product

As with any other skill, reading comprehension also requires to be distinguished   when being processed from when it is taken as a product being the result of the process. To date, research has mostly been carried out to address the product of learners' reading activities and what they access to at the final stage of a reading performance. However the reading process during which many different things can take place has mostly been taken for granted. Only recently have researchers come to fully appreciate the significance of reading at process and what the learners do during reading so as to be able to detect how learners acquire a second language. Alderson (2000) delineates the concept of reading process in this way: "[t]he reader is presumably … thinking about what he is reading: what it means to him, how it relates to other things he has read, to things he knows, to what he expects to come next in texts….He is presumably thinking about how useful, entertaining, boring, crazy, the text is." And then he adds: "[u]nderstanding the process of reading is presumably important to an understanding of the nature of reading, but at the same time it is evidently a difficult thing to do. The process is normally silent, internal, and private." According to Rod Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), the two currently-used methods of 1) studying what the learners do in their production, and 2) asking them to report when learning, are considered vital ways of collecting samples of learners' language and thereby searching into the process reading; one technique used by the writers of this article is semantic mapping.

D. Semantic Mapping

Originally developed by Johnson and Pearson in 1976, semantic mapping technique was first applied to teach vocabulary to children in their L1. It consists of "creating a graphic arrangement of associated clusters around a key word, idea or concept" (Hadley 2003). To Brown (2001) the term defined as "grouping ideas into meaningful clusters" was represented as a kind of strategy in improving reading comprehension that can be worked through by the learners either individually or more productively as a group activity. As Carrel Pharis and Liberto (1998) assert, semantic mapping is a kind of strategy training which can be instructed to improve reading skills (cited in Schmitt, 2002).

Some studies have been carried out to explore the role of semantic mapping in improving reading comprehension skill. Harmer (2007) for example puts forth different type of activities for learners according to their capabilities. He suggests reordering lines or paragraphs as a bottom-up activity for lower-level students, and being engaged in discussion of the concepts in each text through pair- or group-work for higher-level learners. Also on the process of employing tasks to focus on meaning, Scrivener (2011) suggests answering questions about meaning, making use of information in the text to do something (making a sketch, filling out a form, finding which picture is being described, etc) discussing issues, summarizing arguments, and comparing viewpoints.

In an experimental study by Mirhassani and Akhlaghi (2009), the researchers found out this strategy as useful in ameliorating the condition of their subjects at the end of their study. Also in a pilot study which was carried out by the first researcher of this study in 2006, a positive relationship could be detected between reading comprehension improvement of Iranian intermediate-level learners (medical students) and semantic mapping as a while-reading activity.

This study is based on Brown's (2001) concept of semantic mapping task. This study thus intends to investigate the ability of the Iranian EFL lower-intermediate university students in drawing on semantic mapping technique for handling General English (GP) courses offered in Iranian universities as a means to amekiorate their reading comprehension skill.

E. Research Hypotheses

In line with an attempt to determine whether semantic mapping can have any effect on improving reading ability of the university students taking GE courses, these null hypotheses were formulated: 1) semantic maps produced by the readers do not improve reading comprehension ability in GE courses; 2) semantic mapping strategy has some relationship with the learners' gender; 3) semantic mapping strategy has some relationship with the learners' major.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In this research, 180 students of Yazd medical sciences university were selected out of 188 subjects and participated in the study (eight were set aside as outliers.). All the subjects had obtained pre-requisite requirement for entrance into GE courses. The age range of the subjects was 19-21. The subjects, including both males (417%) and females (58/3%) were homogeneous in terms of reading comprehension in their majors (Nursing students, 37.6%; Environmental Health, 31.5%; and Family Health, 30.9%).

B. Instrumentation

To determine the homogeneity of the groups in terms of their reading comprehension   ability, the Michigan Test of General English Proficiency was administered to all the subjects. The vocabulary section of the test was removed for it was not related to the purpose of the study; the other two parts, i.e. structure and reading comprehension were used. The posttest consisting of 6 passages with 30 comprehension questions was also administered to measure the subjects' knowledge of communicative strategies in written discourse. A debriefing interview was also held randomly to check the opinion of the learners on semantic mapping task.

C. Material

In this study, the student's textbook (English for the Students of Medicine I) constrained by the university curriculum for medical and paramedical GE courses was used for having the following advantages: a) difficulty level of the textbook was geared to the level of the students' prior knowledge; and, b) thanks to using their own textbook, the students most likely could not guess they were participating in a study.

III. DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

The present study had a pretest-posttest equivalent-groups design. In this quasi-experimental study, 180 students previously assigned into six classes through university regulations participated in the study. Three were taken as control groups (CGs) and three others as experimental groups (EGs) randomly. Although the subjects had met the requirements of taking GE course (they all had passed Pre-university English in the previous semester) a pretest was held as well to assure the homogeneity of the groups. Afterwards both groups (CGs & EGs) were assigned to a series of similar instructions except that the EGs were instructed to be involved in semantic mapping as a while-reading activity following reading each paragraph. The difference was that the subjects in the CGs, had, after studying each paragraph of the lessons in their textbook (15 lessons totally), a slight time to think over the gist and then present it orally whereas, the EGs, before presentation, took their time to group their ideas into meaningful clusters on a sheet of paper. Note that all the subjects in both groups worked in subgroups of 3 or 4 at their convenience.

On the whole, the study took as long as one semester of 3-hour-per-week instruction during which 14 reading comprehension lessons were covered. Finally a posttest was administered to all the six groups and the results were analyzed by paired-test and ANOVA via SPSS software.

IV. RESULTS

Overall the findings of the study indicated no statistical difference between the two procedures.

TABLE 1:
COMPARISON OF MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE DIFFERENCE IN READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY OF THE EGs AND CGs

Variable \ Time of comparison	Before			After			Dependent t-test result
	Group	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Comprehension	Experimental	7.88	3.68	12	3.57		0.0001
	Control	7.78	3.88	11.37	4.05		
Independent t-test Result	0.950			0.364			0.0001

As it is evident from table 1, the mean point of the two sets of groups before the intervention was around 7 (out of 20) thus indicating no statistical difference between the EGs and CGs at the outset.

Moreover, obtaining no statistical difference between the groups at the end of the study indicates no improving effect on reading comprehension ability of the learners through applying semantic mapping strategy.

TABLE 2:
COMPARISON OF MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE EGS AFTER THE INTERVENTION ON THE BASIS OF THE LEARNERS' MAJOR

Major Variable	Nursing		Environmental health		Family health		ANOVA
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Reading comprehension	6.25	3.46	2.60	3.91	4.62	3.49	0.0001

As the table indicates, semantic mapping task has been more effective with the students of Nursing (although not statistically significant).

TABLE 3:
COMPARISON OF MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE CGS AFTER THE INTERVENTION ON THE BASIS OF THEIR MAJOR

Major Variable	Nursing		Environmental health		Family health		ANOVA
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Reading comprehension	4.47	3.75	2.50	3.83	2.91	3.87	0.0001

The table indicates no statistical difference among different fields of study instructed through the traditional procedure.

TABLE 4:
COMPARISON OF MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE DIFFERENCE IN READING COMPARISON ABILITY OF THE EGS ON THE BASIS OF THEIR GENDER

Gender Variable	Male		Female		Dependent T-test
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Reading comprehension	2.94	3.73	4.20	3.93	0.154

As the table shows the instruction applied to EGs has had similar effect on both male and females.

TABLE 5:
COMPARISON OF MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE DIFFERENCE IN READING COMPARISON ABILITY OF THE CGS AND EGS ON THE BASIS OF THEIR GENDER

Gender Variable	Male		Female		Dependent T-test
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Reading comprehension	4.15	5.38	4.18	3.59	0.986

This table also shows that the teaching procedure used for the control groups is not a distinctive feature of comprehension for males and females.

V. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

In regard with the fact that for the Iranian EFL learners in the universities specially those whose major is not English language, reading comprehension ability is of utmost importance in academic milieu, this study was carried out. Although the research did not detect any significant relationship between the two procedures applied, the difference among the learners' mean scores (Nursing, 6.25; Environmental Health, 2.6; and family health, 4.62) indicates that students of Nursing with a higher attainment in their "University Entrance Examination" (UEE) may enjoy better with semantic mapping technique.

This is actually in line with what the first researcher of this study found in another research with Medical and Dental students (2006) in which the semantic mapping group enjoyed significantly higher reading comprehension ability than the relevant control group at the end of the study. This can likely be due to the higher English language proficiency of these students as they should also gain a higher stance in UEE compared with Nursing and Health-group students.

This study suggests that the higher proficiency level of the learners is the more they may benefit from semantic mapping technique as a while-reading activity. To put it differently, semantic mapping technique proves more useful with those learners who enjoy an apposite level of language proficiency. This is apparently due to the fact that the less skilled readers must rely highly on context clues (bottom-up processing) to compensate for their inefficient decoding. It follows that students of medicine who, compared with students of other disciplines, enjoy a higher skill and ability in L2 reading, can surely create a more coherent and better mental model which is assumed to be an important feature of discourse processing in understanding texts. This is also consistent with Language Threshold Hypothesis on the basis of which L2 language knowledge plays a significant role in successful fluent reading.

One reason why weaker learners fail to achieve a measureable success in comprehending texts in such situations may be their failure to attend to form. That is because semantic mapping activities are highly meaning-based, inefficient learners do not often notice the underlying structural features necessary for detailed processing of texts, specifically in time-limited contexts, i.e. they do not adequately focus on form to streamline an apposite processing (Ellis, 2008).

Learners also need to understand how texts work and what they have to do when they read, and if they, for example, identify that they fail in understanding a text, find out the reason and 'adopt a strategy' to resolve their problem. This ability that readers reflect on what goes on in their minds and is termed *metacognitive strategy* is identified as a vital factor in people's capacity to develop as readers (Nuttall 1996). And research has consistently shown that weaker

learners most often rely more on cognitive but less on metacognitive capacity; this can be regarded as another reason for our subjects' failure.

Interestingly enough, the results of the interview also revealed that the students were not much satisfied with the semantic maps they produced because of not being adequately certain of the appropriateness of their maps resulting from, as they mentioned, a perplexity feeling they had while mapping.

In addition to a focus-on-form and metacognitive approach, if the study could also include *pharmacology* and *midwifery* students (because in Iran these students should also gain a better UEE grade as well as a higher English proficiency following medical students), a more dependable conclusion would certainly be reached.

APPENDIX A

A Semantic Map Sample

1. Longevity
2. Control of preventable diseases

(WHO)
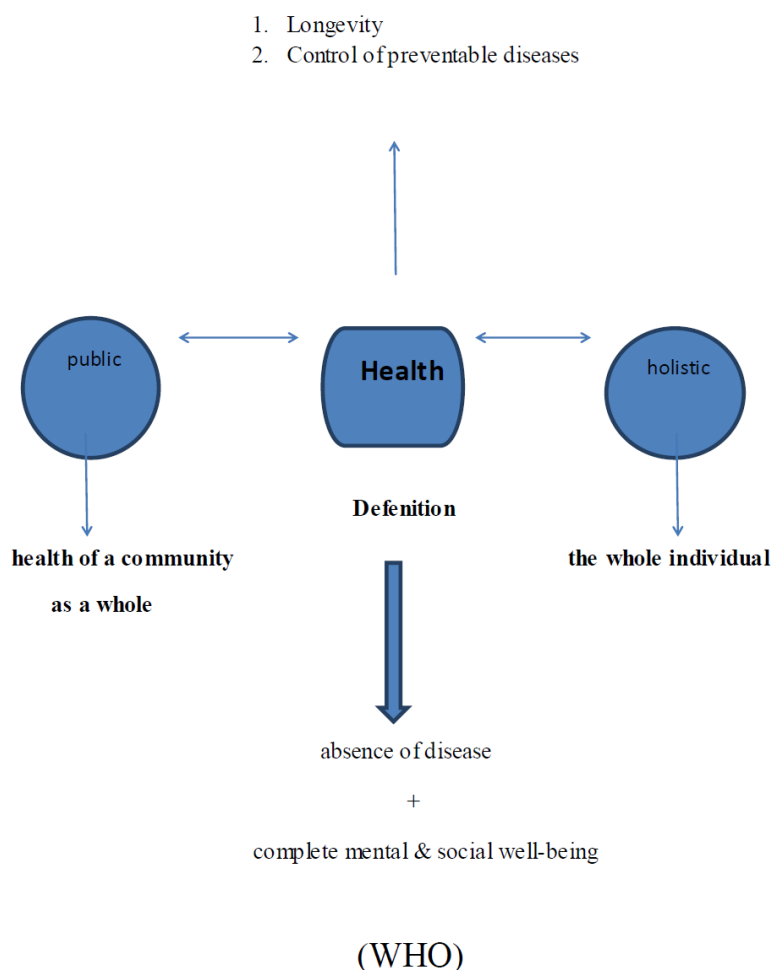
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The Application of Task-based Language Teaching to English Reading Classroom

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Abstract—**Task-based approach is a new approach in education practice. In task-based classroom, the chief focus is the performance of tasks. The task, rather than being a unit of grammar to be digested or a collection of lexical items to be remembered, is a means of learning the language by doing tasks. It requires exposure to comprehensive input and opportunities to interact in the language. The task has to be negotiated by the learners with the help of the teacher, whose job is to facilitate learning opportunities in class. The task probably needs the cooperation of learners. This paper is intended to explore TBLT in teaching reading on the basis of the notion of task-based language teaching (TBLT).**

Index Terms—**task, task-based language teaching, task-based approach, English reading classroom**

I. INTRODUCTION

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) has been strongly advocated and promoted by many world-leading linguists (Long 1985, Prabhu 1987, Nunan 1989, Willis 1996, Skehan 1998, Bygate &Ellis 2001) since early 1980s. Despite differences they may hold, they all emphasize that language teaching should interact with learning to create genuine use of the language, and that language proficiency can be achieved by doing tasks. And in 2001, the Ministry of Education issued the new National Curriculum Standards for English education and suggested adopting TBLT in English teaching in schools. That is "To sense, experience, practice and cooperate under the teacher's instruction aiming to reach the goal of tasks".

TBLT has been applied by English teachers of China gradually, especially in the reading classroom for being able to read is critical in contemporary life. Reading is an active process, during which the reader tries to understand the meaning of a given text. By sensing, experiencing, practicing and cooperating, learners can understand the meaning of the text more easily. However, the present situation of reading in China is not satisfactory, because many teachers are still using teacher-centered methods, which do not attach enough importance to the improvement of learners' communicative competence. And although task-based approach (TBA) has been tried by many English teachers, it remains a new thing to most teachers, especially to the teachers who adopt traditional teaching method. Therefore, it is high time to change this situation by adopting a TBLT approach to English reading classroom so that the satisfactory result can be achieved.

This paper attempts to illustrate that TBLT can be feasible and is an effective teaching approach for English reading classroom. It will also introduce the research of TBLT by distinguished linguists and some new view on how to apply TBLT to English reading classroom.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Definition of "Task"

Numerous linguists around the world have attempted to define the term "task" as it relates to task-based language teaching (TBLT) since the 1980s. If we look in the literature, we can find that task is variously defined. Long (1985) gives the definition in a broad sense:

A task is a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation, borrowing a library book, etc. In other words, by 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play and in between. (p.89)

This is a non-pedagogical definition in that it describes the sorts of things individuals do outside the classroom, and some of these tasks do not necessarily involve the use of language.

Richards, Platt & Weber (1986) offered a more pedagogically oriented definition: "task is an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding the language" (p.289). For example, drawing a map while listening to a tape, listening to an instruction and performing a command, may be referred to as tasks.

This definition implies that tasks involve communicative language use in which the user's attention is focused on meaning rather than linguistics structure. David Nunan's definition of task reflects the characteristic. He stressed meaning for the first time: "Task is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating,

producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than on form" (Nunan, 1989, p.10).

Peter Skehan (1998) in his book *A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning* lays a solid foundation for defining a task from a pedagogical perspective by reflecting a broad consensus among researchers and educators. He suggests five defining criteria: A task is an activity in which a) meaning is primary b) there is some communication problem to solve c) there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities d) task completion has some priority e) the assessment of the task is in terms of outcomes.

The latest development in TBLT is the work done by Martin Bygate. In his *Researching Pedagogic Tasks (Applied Linguistics and Language Study)*, Martin Bygate (2001) points out that a task is an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective, and that the central challenge for language teaching is to develop learner' communicative language ability through pedagogic intervention with tasks accomplished.

Richards, Platt and Weber's definition, Nunan's definition and Bygate's definition of task are all pedagogical. Richards, Platt and Weber's is not so comprehensive as the latter ones. Both of the latter ones emphasize on meaning, and Nunan's focuses on the actions of doing a task, while Bygate's stresses the communication. Skehan's criteria cover all the aspects of a task.

Combining Nunan's and Bygate's definition with Skehan's criteria, I give my definition of "task": Pedagogically, a task is a classroom activity which involves learners with the help of the teacher in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language with a communicative goal. According to this definition, I define the "task" in English reading classroom as a reading classroom activity which involves learners with the help of the teacher in comprehending the reading material, manipulating the language usage in the material, producing their own language output based on the comprehension of the usage, or interacting with each other about their opinion related to the material in English with a communicative goal.

B.   Task Components

According to Nunan (1989), the definition of a language-learning task requires specification of six components: goals, input, activities, teacher role, learner role and settings.

1. Goals

Goals are the vague general intentions behind any given learning task.

Goals provide a point of contact between the task and the broader curriculum. As to it, a teacher may be asked that why he/she got learners to engage in Task X. The answer will general take the form of some sort of goal statement. Possible answers might be:

"I wanted to develop their confidence in speaking."

"I wanted to develop their personal writing skills."

"I wanted to encourage them to negotiate information between each other to develop their interactional skills."

"I wanted to develop their reading comprehension skills."

Goals may relate to a range of general outcomes (communicative, affective or cognitive) or may directly describe teacher or learner behavior. And goals are not always explicitly stated, although they can usually be inferred from an examination of a task. In addition there is rarely a simple one-to-one relationship between goals and tasks. In some cases a complex task involving a range of activities might be simultaneously moving learners towards several goals. In the teaching of reading, goals may be to get the learners to learn the topic, or find the detailed information or get the main idea of the reading material, etc.

2. Input

Input refers to the data that form the point of departure for the task. In fact, input for communicative tasks can be derived from a wide range of sources. Hover (1986) suggests a list of sources, to name just a few, letters, newspaper extracts, memo note, shopping lists, recipe, weather forecast, etc.

Quite a few pedagogues advocate using authentic materials as the sources of tasks. "Authentic" here is any material that has not been specifically produced for the purposes of language teaching. Proponents of authentic materials point out that classroom texts and dialogues do not adequately prepare learners for coping with the language they read in the real world outside the classroom. They argue that if we want learners to comprehend written texts in the real world, then the learners need opportunities for engaging in these real-world texts in class.

Hover's list of sources of input is quite authentic, which accords with Skehan's criteria: task has some connections with real-world activities. The aim to learn a language is to use it in the real world, so using authentic materials in the reading task is quite necessary.

3. Activities

Activities specify what learners will actually do with the input which forms the point of departure for the learning task. Nunan (1989) proposes three general ways of characterizing activities: rehearsal for the real world, skills use, and fluency/accuracy.

We shall now look at some proposals relating the development of reading skills.

Grellet (1981) provides the following typology for reading comprehension activities:

Activities in reading techniques are designed to develop basic reading skills and strategies. Learners are encouraged to increase their reading speed, and to develop flexible reading strategies (in particular, scanning for specific

information, and skimming for an overview of the text).

The activities focus the learner on how writers convey their aim through the function and organization of the text. Learners are taught to identify the function of the text by utilizing linguistic and non-linguistic clues. They are also taught to identify the essential organization of the text, whether it is through the expansion of a main idea, and/or whether it is organized in terms of chronological sequence, description, analogy and contrast, classification, argument and logic. Finally, learners are sensitized to the mechanics of schematization. They are shown how altering the order of elements in a sentence can alter the meaning.

Activities which focus on meaning are designed to get learners to process the content of the text through the various types of non-linguistic and linguistic responses they might make to the text. The activities have two different aims:

1). To make students active in the reading process by presenting them with decision-making activities (e.g. drawing a diagram with the information given in the text, solving the problem, completing a table which reorganizes the information).

2). To devise activities which are as natural as possible, i.e. as close as possible to what one would naturally do with the text (e.g. answering a letter using the information given in that letter, completing a document, comparing several texts, etc.)

Activities focusing on assessing the text are designed to get readers to go beneath the surface of the text, as it were, in order to judge it and evaluate it. Here readers are required to differentiate fact from opinion and to identify the writer's attitudes, intentions and biases.

Grellet's typology is comprehensive. It analyzes the reading process in terms of the cognitive demands made on the reader. Some of the elements relate to reading techniques, for example skimming and scanning, which are essential skills to comprehend the given text. Some relate to rhetorical functions, such as chronological sequence and classification, which are the basis to learn the organization of the text. Some relate to cognitive operations such as understanding relations within the sentence, which are helpful to understand the detailed information and the structure. Others relate to classroom tasks such as jigsaw reading and reorganizing information using grids, which can help to read more actively. The teacher should teach students to read from these aspects so as to reach the aim of reading effectively.

4. Teacher's and learners' roles

"Role" refers to the part that learners and teachers are expected to play in the carrying out learning tasks as well as the social and interpersonal relationships between the participants (Nunan, 1989).

Learner roles are closely related to the functions and status of the teacher (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Giving the learners a different role, such as greater initiative in the classroom, requires the teacher to adopt a different role. The teacher is no longer a passive recipient and implementer of other people's syllabus and methods but an active creator of his or her own materials, classroom activities and so on.

According to Breen and Candlin (1980), the teacher has three main roles in the communicative classroom. The first is to act as facilitator of the communicative process, the second is to act as a participant, and the third is to act as an observer and learner.

As to me, the teacher should first be the facilitator of the reading material and the designer of the task. Second, the teacher should be the observer and guide. Learners may be confused about what they should do and how they can read during the task, so the teacher should monitor the reading process of learners so as to give the timely guidance, and observe carefully at the performance of learners so as to praise them or give them the suggestion of improvement. Finally, the teacher should be a listener and learner. Learners are usually creative, so the teacher should listen to their opinions, exchange his/her idea with them and maybe he/she could learn from them, which is called that teaching benefits teachers as well as learners.

Reading, in many other people's view, is a boring work. However, in my point of view, it is an active process, during which the reader tries to understand the meaning of a given text. With the guidance of the teacher, learners can understand the meaning more effectively and actively.

5. Settings

"Settings" refers to the classroom arrangements specified or implied in the task, and it also requires consideration of whether the task is to be carried out wholly or partly outside the classroom. Settings will be an important factor influencing roles and relationships. Whether the task is on individual, pair, group, or the whole class basis decides the relationship between learners or between the teacher and learners. As I mentioned in 2.2.4, reading as an active process, it needs the needs the thinking of the individual or it needs the negotiation and cooperation of learners, so the task can be arranged in individual, pair, group, or even the whole class according to the needs.

C.   Types of Task

1. Willis' classification

As classified by Willis, there are six main types of task adapted for use with almost any topic from the aspect of the actual use of language.

Listing:

Listing may seem unimaginative, but in practice, listing tasks tend to get a lot to talk as learners explain their ideas. The types involved brainstorming, in which learners draw on their own knowledge and experience either as a class or in pairs/groups; act-finding, in which learners find things out by asking each other or other people and referring to books,

etc.

Ordering and sorting:

Ordering and sorting tasks involve four main types: sequencing items, actions or events in a logical or chronological order; ranking items, according to personal values or specified criteria; categorizing items in given groups or grouping them under given headings; classifying items in different ways, where the categories themselves are not given.

Comparing:

Broadly, comparing tasks involve comparing information of a similar nature but from different sources or versions in order to identify common points and/or differences.

The processes involved matching to identify specific points and relate them to each other; finding similarities and things in common; finding differences.

Problem solving:

Problem-solving tasks make demands upon people's intellectual and reasoning powers, and though challenging, they are engaging and often satisfying to solve. The processes and time scale will vary enormously depending in the type and complexity of the problem. Real-life problems may involve expressing hypotheses, describing experiences, comparing alternatives and evaluating and agreeing a solution. Completion tasks are often based on short extracts from texts, where the learners predict the ending or piece together clues to guess it. The classification ends with case studies, which are more complex, entail an in-depth consideration of many criteria, and often involve additional fact-finding and investigating.

Sharing personal experiences:

Tasks of sharing personal experiences encourage learners to talk more freely about themselves and share their experiences with others. For example, after reading a selected material about one's childhood, learners can be encouraged to tell their own childhood. The resulting interaction is closer to casual social conversation in that it is not as directly goal-oriented as in other tasks. For that very reason, however, these open tasks may be more difficult to get going in the classroom.

Creative tasks:

These are often called projects and involve pairs or groups of learners in some kind of freer creative work. They also tend to have more stages than other tasks and can involve combinations of task types above. Out-of-class research is sometimes needed. Organizational skills and teamwork are important in getting the task done. The outcome can often be appreciated by a wider audience than the students who produced it.

2. Prabhu's classification

Prabhu identifies three kinds of cognitive task types: information-gap, opinion-gap and reasoning-gap tasks.

An information-gap activity involves the exchange of information among participants in order to complete a task. For example, an information-gap activity might involve a student describing a picture for another student to draw or students drawing each others' family trees after sharing information.

An opinion-gap activity requires that students give their personal preferences, feelings, or attitudes in order to complete a task. For instance, students might be given a social problem, such as high unemployment and be asked to come up with a series of possible solutions. Another task might be to compose a letter of advice to a friend who has sought their counsel about a dilemma.

A reasoning-gap activity requires students to derive some new information by inferring it from information they have been given. For example, students might be given a railroad timetable and asked to work out the best route to get from one particular city to another or they might be asked to solve a riddle. Prabhu (1987) feels that reasoning-gap tasks work best since information-gap tasks often require a single step transfer of information, rather than sustained negotiation, and opinion-gap tasks tend to be rather open-ended. Reasoning-gap tasks, on the other hand, encourage a more sustained engagement with meaning, thought they are still characterized by a somewhat predictable use of language.

3. Closed and open tasks

From the aspect of teaching methodology and the practice of learners, tasks can also be divided into closed tasks and open tasks. "Closed tasks are ones that are highly structured and have very specific goals. Open tasks are ones that more loosely structured, with a less specific goal" (Willis, 1996, p.28). As to reading, working in pairs to compare the difference of topic between two paragraphs is considered a closed task, because the instruction and the information are much tightened. Whereas for the open task, one typical example is to express one's own opinion about the topic of the chosen text, for this is quite up to the participants' own way of task-completion and much personal perspective is added, and there is no definite outcome for the task.

Besides these closed and open tasks, there are also some tasks coming midway between the two, such as problem-solving task or ranking tasks which have specific goals. But they could be approached from different ways. No matter what task is engaged in the learning process, the ultimate goal is to create an effective learning environment in the classroom to meet three essential conditions: the provision of exposure to the target language, the provision of opportunities for learners to use the target language for real communication and the provision of motivation for learners to engage in the learning process.

Willis' classification is more specific, Prabhu's more abstract, and the classification of closed and open tasks is the most general. In Willis' classification, the first three one, listing, ordering and sorting and comparing belong to closed

tasks, while problem solving, sharing personal experiences and creative tasks belong to open tasks. As to Prabhu's, information-gap activities belong to closed ones, opinion-gap activities belong to open ones, and reasoning-gap activities to the ones between the closed and the open ones. To classify tasks based on the characteristics, contents and the ways of doing of TBLT will help teacher adopt different teaching modes according to different learners, different reading tasks and different reading stages, and will also help promote English reading teaching and learning efficiency.

D. Task-based Approach (TBA) VS Traditional Teaching Methods

The traditional methods have dominated English language teaching in China for decades. The traditional methods focus on form and are featured as teacher-centered, such as language-point approach and sentence-text-analysis approach. After the birth of task-based approach (TBA), traditional methods began to show its deficiency.

First, TBA emphasizes on meaningful communication as well as form and the cooperation between learners and the teacher, as has reflected from the meaning of "task" (2.1) and Prabhu's classification (2.3.2). As a contrast, traditional methods focus on form and are featured as teacher-centered, as has mentioned above. Gray (1990) points out a brief comparison between traditional methodology (TM) and TBA: meaningful communication is limited in TM, while meaningful communication as key feature in TBA; the teacher is the decision-maker in TM, while the learner and the teacher as the joint decision-maker in TBA.

Second, just like Willis' classification, tasks are all closely related to the real life, such as problem solving and sharing personal experiences, while TM always focuses on mechanical grammar exercise. In my experience of being a student and an intern, the traditional classroom is deadly dull, which is full of drills and drudgery, while the task-based classroom is a much more exciting place, with students actively involved on tasks and topics, which are stimulating and motivating for learners. TM focuses on learning rules, grammar and word-formation, while TBA on language awareness (Gray, 1990).

As to reading, readers try to understand the meaning of the given text. Therefore, in this view, meaning is more important than form in reading. And the reason we read is to enhance our reading ability to read the various kinds of information in our daily life, and tasks are closely related to real life, so TBA can develop our reading skills more effectively.

III. A SHIFT FROM TRADITIONAL TEACHING METHODS TO TBLT

A. Current Situation of English Reading Classroom in China

As we all know, reading in English is an essential comprehensive language course. The aim is to enhance students' language proficiency and develop the all-round competence. In China, for a long time reading has been playing an important role in English classroom.

In order to find out relative information concerning reading activity, a questionnaire was designed. The subjects of this questionnaire were 50 students of Class 5 Grade 2 of Shanghai No.4 Middle School. After the papers were collected, the data were calculated and analyzed, and some problems of English reading classroom were found out.

The first question is about the reasons for students to do reading. This is a multiple-choice question. The aim is to see the students' purpose of reading, and how much interest they have in reading. The chosen items, the number of each item the students choose and the percentage are in the Table 1.

TABLE 1:

1) Why do you want to do reading?		
Chosen item	number	percentage
for more information	14	28%
for the pleasure of reading	6	12%
for examination purpose	16	32%
for possible future job	20	40%

Only 6 out of 50 students read for pleasure while 16 for examination purpose and 20 for the preparation of future job. The motivation of most students is to achieve a better school report so as to make a full preparation for the possible future jobs. As a result, little pleasure and delight can be attained from reading. This instrumental motivation may be overpowered by test and by emphasis in academic achievement rather than personal capability. This is mostly because the education system is still test-oriented, and it results that the reading class is not related to the real life, while, according to Skehan, one of the criteria of task is that there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities.

The second question is on the basis of the first question. The first one affects the result of the second one. The second one is about the students' requirement to reading materials which include interest in reading materials, information contained in materials, degree of difficulty, length of materials and the new vocabulary involved in materials. Each of them is divided into three degrees. The chosen items, the number of each item the students choose and the percentage are in the Table 2.

TABLE 2:

2) Your requirement to reading materials								
interest	great	46	**92%**	medium	3	6%	less	1	2%
information	rich	11	22%	medium	32	**64%**	less	7	14%
degree of difficulty	difficult	6	12%	medium	43	86%	easy	1	2%
length	long	3	6%	medium	32	64%	short	15	30%
new vocabulary	large	3	6%	medium	24	48%	less	23	46%

The data in boldface show that a majority of students prefer stories and articles which can arouse their great interests with appropriate amount of information inside. The students generally find themselves in a frustrating position to deal with a cloud of information without any advice or guidance from the teacher. The characteristic of task is much about the real life, and TBLT emphasizes on "Learning by doing" (Nunan, 1989), which is closed to the real life, and can arouse learners' interest. According to the underlined data, a number of students refuse the materials with enormous new vocabulary. They tend to choose reading materials with a comparative easier understanding and appropriate length.

The third question is about the activities students usually do in English reading class. It is a multiple-choice question. The aim is to see the way their teacher gives the reading lesson and the attitude of students having the reading lesson. The chosen items, the number of each item the students choose and the percentage are in the Table 3.

TABLE 3:

3) What do you usually do in English reading class?		
Chosen item	number	percentage
listening to the teacher and taking notes	33	66%
listening to others' statement or speech	12	24%
answering many questions raised by teacher	6	12%
various topic discussion	10	20%

In English reading classes, as many as 66% of the students are accustomed to listening to the teacher attentively followed by serious note-taking, which throw themselves into passively waiting the ready-made answers. Some students are lazy and unwilling to participate in the task in the group and completely depend on others. Though a number of the students are in favour of various discussions about the reading topic, they may show a slow and inactive reaction to the questions that the teacher puts forward without an appropriate guiding activity.

The fourth question is about the teacher's focus in reading classroom, i.e. whether the teacher's focus on grammar or meaning and whether on the interaction. The chosen items, the number of each item the students choose and the percentage are in the Table 4.

TABLE 4:

4) How does the teacher teach you reading?		
Chosen item	number	percentage
①focus on grammatical rules	32	64%
focus on meaning	18	36%
②considerable interaction in classes	16	32%
limited interaction in classes	34	68%

The fact that 64% teachers focus on grammatical rules and 68% teachers have limited interaction in classes shows that most English classes are teacher-dominated with the explanation of grammatical forms rather than meaningful communication. The interactions between the teacher and students and between the students themselves are quite limited, which produces an obstacle in stimulating and motivating for learners. However, TBLT puts much emphasis on interaction, as the definition of "task", learners should interact in the target language with a communicative goal.

To conclude, most students land themselves in a passive position in reading class. To some degree, traditional teaching methods which have dominated the English classes for a long time has prevented the students from developing their reading interest and competence. As a result, a vicious circle is produced. It should be taken into account that how to change the situation by transforming the teaching approach in a positive way.

The last question is an open question about the problems students found when they were reading. This paper gives some typical cases of the students' problem.

5) Problems found in reading

Student A: Each time I meet with some unknown words, I become puzzled at them and slow to get into the state, which prevents me from getting a better understanding to the paragraphs, especially when I make a wrong guess.

The biggest problem of many students such as Student A is unfamiliar with vocabularies which hinder them from coherent comprehension to reading. Although some words look familiar, they may fail to recall their meanings immediately.

Student B: I want to speed up my reading, but the problem is that whenever I try it, I achieve almost nothing valuable from reading because my capacity for understanding is not fast enough. When time is passing, I feel a great pressure and can hardly concentrate well again.

Some students such as student B describe that when they are trying to develop the speed by scanning in the beginning,

they can not equally grasp useful information fast enough.

Student C: Sometimes I can hardly connect those vocabulary and sentences into a meaning association pinpointing each paragraph and the whole passage. And I'm always slow in reacting with those logical thinking where I find my mind goes nowhere.

Many students such as student C report that it is sometimes hard to put all the words and sentences they have read into a meaning association. Therefore, they are slow to figure out the key points for each paragraph, especially unable to unfold the logical meaning in the context.

Student D: I am afraid of long sentences with complex structures. It's difficult to finger out their meanings without the teacher's instruction, but they often cover the key plots of the articles I'm reading.

Many other students such as student D have increased a fear for reading for lack of competence to deal with those complicated sentence structures where more than one clause might appear, which affects their comprehension to the whole passage.

Student E: There are often several meanings for some vocabulary, but I cannot recognize their extended meaning in the context provided. Maybe I need practice a lot in this aspect.

A number of students such as student E notice that they can catch the literal meaning but not the extended meaning of sentences. This is a utilization problem. As a result, they are unable to fill in the gaps with replaceable lexical items in a similar context.

Student F: When I do some reading, I find difficult to grasp the main idea of the passage. Let alone to refer or conclude something relative. What's worse, sometimes I go away from the writer's train of thought.

Some subjects such as student F are confused about the main idea of the passage or they can not even infer some relative information based on the original. Although they have successfully parsed some parts of the input, they still can not form a deeper thought and make correct choices on test papers.

Knowing the students problems in the course of reading will naturally place the teacher in a better position to guide learners in coping with or overcoming these difficulties. What the teacher should do is to improve teaching methods and open up a new prospect for teaching English reading. TBLT can make learners learn by doing tasks as what they do in real life. By this way, learners will have more interest in learning and are more easily to remember what they have learned.

B.   The Necessity of the Shift

The new *National Curriculum Standards for English Education* suggested implementing TBLT in English teaching so as to do things with words and foster students' comprehensive competence of using the language. In this situation, it is the job of teachers to motivate students to learn, and to give them the confidence to succeed. It is to some extent a pedagogical shift in foreign language learning and teaching, from a more traditional, teacher-oriented and knowledge-based approach to a more interactive, communication-oriented, student-centered and task-based approach.

In running a reading class, we must take the following into consideration: What are the students' needs and abilities? How extensive are the materials and activities? How can they inject extrinsic motivation into a highly intrinsic situation? Such kind of ideas produces effective learning. Effective factors, such as confidence, motivation, attitudes to learning and anxiety, are more important to the learning process than cognition, and a confident, motivated student will learn much more easily and ably than one suffering from low self-confidence, low motivation, high anxiety, and a negative attitude to learning.

As we all know, to learn a language well, the intrinsic motivation of learners is a crucial factor. However, how to arouse learners' interest depends on the way the teacher teaches them. Today's English reading classrooms are still teacher-dominated, and most teachers focus on grammatical rules. This kind of way of teaching will make learners in a passive position in reading classroom, and hinder them improving communication ability.

However, if TBA is applied to reading classroom, the situation will be totally different. According to Gray (1990), TBA focuses on language awareness, not on grammatical rules, and many linguists advocate using authentic materials as the sources of tasks. Thus, learners can be put into an English Environment of the real use and can be encouraged to think in English rather than translate what they read into Chinese. And TBA needs the communication between the teacher and learners, just like what mentioned above, "learner and teacher as joint decision-maker in TBA" (Gray, 1990, p.78). In this situation, learners will have a feeling that they are involved in the class, and they are responsible to how they should read. And the "learning by doing" (Nunan, 1986, p.26) principle makes learners to acquire the knowledge by doing tasks rather than reading silently by themselves or listening to the teacher and taking notes. In this way, learners can feel the fun in reading, and they will be more interested in English.

In a word, adopting TBA is a good way to remedy the disadvantages of TM and it is a more effective way to learn English.

IV.   DESIGNING READING CLASS ACCORDING TO TBLT

It is believed that the reason why most English teachers in China still adopt TM is that few task-based textbooks are published and even few are used in spite of TBLT is emphasized on greatly in task-based language teaching. Therefore, teachers have to design tasks for non-task-based materials to fit TBLT. Since TBLT is still a new mode for most of

Chinese teachers, they may be lacking skills in designing and selecting appropriate tasks.

This study has collected many theories about TBLT and formed new views about it. Here, some viewpoints about how to design tasks for non-task-based materials in a reading lesson plan will be illustrated.

The experimental material for this study was chosen from Oxford English (S2A), the English textbook for students in grade 2 in senior high school in Shanghai, named "A practical joke". It is a story about a Mr. Potts being fooled by his colleagues. The colleagues changed between his hat and a hat of the same color but a bit larger. Finally, Mr. Potts felt so confused that he went to see the doctor. The whole text is attached in Appendix 1 while lesson plan of the first class is attached in Appendix 2.

The experimental class time is designed to divide into three stages: pre-reading stage, while-reading stage and post-reading stage. Before the lesson, some preparations should be made. The first step is to read the material and find out what is the main idea of the reading material and what elements should students get from the material. According to Grellet, the essential organization of the text should be identified first, so as to decide how to teach. This text is about a story which organized in chronological sequence, so tasks related to sequence is better to be assigned. The next step is to analyze the various tasks provided in the unit and discover if any of them can be used, or be adapted to be used, as a central communicative task. Then, a TBL framework is constructed around the central communicative task in order to help students learn the main idea. If there are no provided tasks can be used, some more qualified tasks should be designed by teachers themselves. Once a task or series of tasks have been adopted, a TBL framework around the chosen tasks should be constructed.

A. Pre-reading Stage

This is the first and primary stage of the teaching procedure, the aim of which is to activate the background knowledge of the readers, arouse their interest to the text and set up a purpose for them to read on. It is intended to provide readers with opportunities to activate their own existing schematic knowledge and to use their imagination to make predictions. This stage can serve as the preparation stage. The tasks given at this stage will usually enable the learners to engage in active purposeful interaction which will fan their desire to read the text. Students may be motivated and prepare themselves better for the reading task and understand more about the passage when they get into detailed study of it.

Since the title of the text is "A practical joke", some pictures and examples may be used to help students to understand the definition of "practical joke" at the beginning of the class. This is the background of this text and it can pave the way for the while-reading stage. Then, in order to find out whether the students acquire the term, teacher may ask them to tell some practical jokes they know or have experienced. This is a kind of open task what Willis called "sharing personal experience". The aims and specific procedures can be seen in Appendix 2.

B. While-reading Stage

At this stage, the teacher can design and assign some tasks to make students read the text efficiently and have a profound understanding. Tasks are designed to train students' reading skills such as scanning, skimming, reading for thorough comprehension and critical reading.

As for the reading activities, there are many forms that can be recommended in class: read for specific information; read for gist or general ideas of the text; deduce the meanings of certain words from a given context; infer the writer's intended message from a given context; recognize author's purpose and attitude.

In the experimental teaching plan, students are required to skimming the first two paragraphs and scanning some detailed information of the text so as to learn the topic of the text. After that, they are required to read the text and find out what happened to Mr. Potts's hat. Then, they are directed to discuss what they find in groups, and each group draws a chart of the changes of the "hat". Then do Exercise E3 ---- "Look at these pictures and sentences which show events from the story, and put the events in the correct time order in which they happened." At last, groups report their work. This task is a ordering task in Willis's classification and the reason for this design is that tasks based on text could motivate learners to read for a particular purpose. The sequence of the changes of the "hat" is the main thread of the story, so it is made a central communicative task.

C. Post-reading Stage

Post-reading activities are principally designed for learners to practice communicative output. The tasks at this stage are designed to offer students communicative opportunities to use the language points to communicate and extend the content of the text to the real-life situation. There are many forms available for the activities of the stage, such as text rewriting, role-playing, suggestion making, discussion, report, etc. these activities involve speaking, listening and writing.

At this stage, group or pair work, in my point of view, can make the reading more communicative. The students are at the center of the activities. They are active readers and participants in the reading tasks. The teacher is supposed to be an organizer and a guide.

At this stage, group or pair work can make the reading class more communicative. The students are at the center of the activities. They are active readers and participants in the reading tasks. The teacher is supposed to be an organizer and a guide.

The ending of the text is that Mr. Potts went to see the doctor, and the doctor said to him, "Nonsense! There's no such kind of disease!" (more details can be found in Appendix 1). The text does not tell the reader what Mr. Potts said to the doctor, so a prediction task is designed. Students should speculate the scene of Mr. Potts' seeing the doctor, and do a role-play about it in pairs. One acts as Mr. Potts, who is required to guess Mr. Potts would describe his puzzle to the doctor according to the text. The other acts as the doctor, who is to think what kind of suggestion the doctor would give Mr. Potts (instruction can be found in Appendix 2).

This kind of prediction tasks belong to reasoning-gap ones classified by Prabhu, which are still characterized by a somewhat predictable use of language. It is also put forward by Willis (1996). She suggests a range of task designs that can be applied to texts. Prediction from the previous text is one of them.

In this task the students communicate and cooperate with each other. Each one is responsible for his/her own part and they must work together and check others' work if the paragraph is cohesive. They have to negotiate exchange and share the information and ideas to complete the task. In this way, their ability of using language can be improved. At the same time, the teacher should monitor from a distance to encourage all attempts at communication, not correcting.

Look back to the whole lesson, the aim of the experimental teaching plan is to have the students get the main idea of the text, develop their imagination on the basis of reason and develop their reading skills and further speaking ability. Tasks like sharing personal experiences, skimming and scanning, ordering and reporting in groups, speculating and role-playing in pairs are all used to achieve these goals effectively.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper concentrates on the practical aspect of using task-based language teaching ideas in the classroom and conducts a detailed research into the task-based approach. It has covered the following main points: the theories of TBLT; the comparison between TBLT and traditional teaching methods; a research in current situation of reading classroom and its findings; the necessity of the shift to TBLT; a reading lesson plan based on TBLT.

TBLT focuses on how to learn rather than what to learn. The task is a means of using the language in order to learn the language. It has meaning for students who have to solve communication problems, and that meaning, along with the authenticity in the use of real-life situations, becomes internalized as linguistic competence. At last, the process of understanding, performing and reflecting on the task produces a wealth of 'real' use of the target language, all of which foster language learning in cyclical, ongoing manner. Therefore, compared with traditional approaches, these positive results confirm the feasibility of implementing TBA.

Despite the promising aspects of TBA, specific problems may be found in the implementation, which present a diversity of challenges for researchers and English teachers. As a new orientation of communicative language teaching, TBLT requires long-term planning and serious organizational considerations. Nevertheless, the study is promising and it is hoped that there will be more and more teachers and scholars to make theoretical researches in a deep-going way and explore its applications, especially its applications to the improvement of English reading classroom in China.

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A Comparative Study of Refusal Strategies Used by Iranians and Australians

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Abstract—This study investigated the differences between Iranian students-Persian speakers who are learning English as a foreign language-(20 male and 20 female) and the native participants (20 male and 20 female) Australian students majoring in different fields, refusal strategies. A Discourse Completion Task (DCT) was used to elicit the relevant data. The results showed that Iranian EFL students tend to use limited strategies for refusing their interlocutors' requests. Moreover, refusal patterns of natives are very different from those of non-natives, though they do share some similarities.

Index Terms—refusal strategies, Discourse Completion Task (DCT), EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

It is not strange for us to be in a situation where both the speaker and hearer fail to communicate. The barrier here is cultural awareness. They are from different cultures; thus, they have different frames of understanding. Among many of these terrible situations, refusing tends to cause tension.

Refusing is one of the significant issues in intercultural communication. The act of refusing is hazardous and possibly a producer of tension in intercultural interactions. As intercultural exchanges increase, as a result of travel, globalization, and international interactions, the potential for intercultural miscommunication through misinterpreted refusals also grows.

It is very important to remember that while native speakers often ignore phonological, syntactic, and lexical errors, they are less likely to overlook pragmatic errors. Such errors are typically interpreted by native speakers as arrogance, intolerance, rudeness, and so forth. Such studies in this regard can shed some light on these aspects of language.

This study is worthwhile in that it investigates the influence of interlocutors' social status and gender on the provided refusal strategies. While there are a lot of studies in the literature of refusals that have investigated the effect of interlocutors' social rank on their responses, very few have paid proper attention to the role of the speakers' gender in selecting refusal strategies.

Moreover, this study examines Iranian refusal strategies. The findings of this study may help Iranian to get acquaintance with the similarities and differences between Iranian and native English speakers' refusals and discover the cases of positive and negative cross-cultural pragmatic transfer. On the other hand, the cases which are culture-specific should be given more attention and practice.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Saying no is difficult for non-native speakers of a language. How one says 'no' is more important in many societies than the answer itself. Therefore, sending and receiving a message of 'no' is a task that needs special skill. The speaker must know when to use the appropriate form and its function depending on his and his interlocutor's cultural-linguistic values. Requests for favors involve doing activities that require some time or effort on the part of the addressee. Reasons, excuses or explanations can be considered as some kinds of attempts to persuade the interlocutor to change his/her mind.

A. Speech Acts

Refusing is a speech act. In order to actualize their purposes in communication, people seem to perform intended action while talking. Austin (1962) claims that there is a close connection between speech acts and language functions. Accomplishing communicative actions in everyday life requires using necessary words under appropriate circumstances. In other words, when we say something, we are simultaneously accomplishing a communicative action, that is, we are employing words to perform actions in real world context. For example, when we say," Could you please pass the book to me?" we wish to achieve the goal of having the intended addressee help us to obtain the book.

Austin's (1962) main contribution to speech act theory is the axiom that by saying something, we actually do something. A speech act is a unit of speaking and performs different functions in communication. Austin (1962) believes that a single speech act actually contains three separate but related speech acts: locutionary acts, illocutionary acts, and perlocutionary acts. Whenever a speaker produces an utterance, they perform a locutionary act. This is simply

the act of producing a linguistically well-formed, and thus meaningful, expression. Moreover, we usually do not make utterances without having any purpose. Take the previous example ("Could you please pass the book to me?"). We not only utter that sentence but also ask the listener to give us a book. This kind of act via utterances which we produce with a communicative purpose in mind is generally known as illocutionary act. The illocutionary act is the function of the utterance that the speaker has in mind, i.e. the communicative purpose that is intended or achieved by the utterance. Another example is the statement "It's hot in here." This sentence can have the illocutionary force of a statement, an offer, an explanation, or a request. It might be uttered by someone who is experiencing heat in a crowded room to just comment on the weather. It can also be uttered by a person who intends to open the window so that everyone in the room can enjoy fresh air from outside.

Perlocutionary acts occur when we want a speech act to have an effect when we utter that statement. When saying" Could you please pass the book to me? "The speaker wishes the act of passing the book to be done: this is its perlocutionary force. The perlocutionary act refers to the hearer's recognition of and response to the illocutionary act (that is, the hearer may feel amused or annoyed, as a consequence of the speaker's utterance).Among the three acts, the perlocutionary act is regarded as the most important, as it is actually what the speaker wants to achieve through the action of uttering the sentence. Searle (1969) proposes a five-way classification of illocutionary acts, which includes:

1. Representatives: These speech acts constitute assertions carrying true or false values (e.g. statements).

2. Directives: In these speech acts, there is an effort on the part of the speaker to have the hearer do something (e.g. requests, advice).

3. Commissives: Speech acts of this kind create an obligation on the part of the speaker; that is; they commit the speaker to doing something (e.g. promises).

4. Expressives: These speech acts express an attitude or an inner state of the speaker which says nothing about the world (e.g. apologies, congratulations, compliments).

5. Declaratives: These are speech acts in which declarative statements are successfully performed and no psychological state is expressed (e.g. ex-communications).

These notions have contributed to the understanding of refusals of requests. They have played a noticeable role in forming the central and main concepts for the analysis of refusals in this research.

B. Conversational Principles

Several methods of communication have been used to keep the conversation developing gently. In any speech act, the conversants have to follow many principles, one of which is "cooperation". Conversation proceeds on the basis that participants are expected to deal respectfully with one another. In considering the suitability of participants' moves in conversation, Grice (1975) formulates a broad general principle, the Cooperative Principle stating some utterances such as: the conversational contribution should be made as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which it is engaged.

Grice (1975) enumerates the four following maxims, which characterize the cooperative principle:

1. Maxim of Quantity, or "to be brief", which means that you should make your contributions as informative as is required and no more. When we speak to someone, we feel obliged to give them enough details to enable them to understand us. At the same time, we should avoid giving too much information.

If something is said, there's a reason for it.

If something is left out, you're already supposed to know it.

2. Maxim of Quality, or "to be true", which requires you not to say what you believe to be false or for which you lack adequate evidence. Therefore, lying is an obvious violation of the cooperative principle.

If something known to be untrue is said, it is assumed to be intended to mislead, or to indicate ignorance.

Language can be made arbitrarily complex in this respect: consider irony or satire.

3. Maxim of Relation, or" to be relevant to the context and to what has been said previously", which requires people who usually change the subject unexpectedly to be considered impolite or uncooperative.

Of the many possible meanings of any language, you should select the one relevant to the shared goal.

4. Maxim of Manner, or "to be clear," which requires you to avoid ambiguity and obscurity. Speakers have to organize their utterances in an orderly manner, that is, to provide information in a way which can be assimilated by the listener.

Observing the four maxims helps sustain conversations. The speech act of refusing, like other speech acts, also requires the above-mentioned maxims to be considered in order to maintain a harmonious conversation. While people often utilize negotiation rather than direct refusal in their daily relationships, if the speaker is to convey the intended refusal without hurting the other's feelings, more subtle strategies may be required.

C. The Concept of Face

Formal restrictions on communication include not only ways of presenting "self" but also the ways in which we give face to others. Face can be considered as something that is emotionally expended and can be lost, maintained, or enhanced and must be always cared for in interaction (Brown and Levinson, 1987). In everyday discourse, we often submit to interlocutors by avoiding subtle and personal topics, we comfort our partners, and we avoid open disagreement. If we realize that our messages are not clear to the listeners, we highlight important items and mark

background information. When we do not understand other persons, we give nonverbal or non-threatening feedback to the situation. By doing so, we are taking both our "face" and that of our partner into account.

According to Goffman (1967), there may be several reasons why people want to save their face. They may have become attached to the value on which this face has been built, they may be enjoying the results and the power that their face has created, or they may be taking care of higher social goals for which they will need this face. Goffman (1967) also defines face work as the way in which people maintain their face. This is done by presenting a firm image to others. Also, one can gain or lose face by improving or damaging this image. The more desirable the image, the more highly regard will be paid. People also have to make sure that while trying to keep their own face, they do not in any way damage the other's face.

D. Face-threatening

In daily communication, people may pose a threat to another individual's self-image, or create a" face- threatening act" (FTA). Some FTA's threaten negative face and some others threaten positive face. These acts prevent the freedom of action (negative face) and the wish that one's wants are desired by others (positive face) _by either the speaker, or the addressee, or both. The former includes directives such as commands, requests, advice, invitations, etc. The latter, on the other hand, includes criticisms, insults, disagreements, and corrections. Some speech acts threaten the hearer's face; some others threaten the speaker's face. Some scholars assert that requests potentially threaten the addressee's face because they may restrict the addressee's freedom to act according to his/her will. Refusals, on the other hand, may threaten the addressee's positive face because they may suggest that what he/she says is not favored by the speaker. However, there are still some other scholars who believe that some speech acts like refusals may threaten both interlocutors' faces. In other words, they are dual face-threatening acts. In an attempt to avoid FTAs; interlocutors use specific strategies to minimize the threat according to a reasonable estimation of the face risk to participants.

E. Politeness Theory

Early work on politeness by Goffman (1967) describes politeness as the amount of regard people show to their partners through avoidance or presentation of formal performances. While Leech (1983) sees it as forms of behavior aimed at creating and maintaining harmonious interaction. He also considers the politeness principle as part of the principles for interpersonal communications. He presents six maxims for the politeness principle:
1. Tact Maxim: Minimize cost to others. Maximize benefit to others.
2. Generosity Maxim: Minimize benefit to self. Maximize cost to self.
3. Approbation Maxim: Minimize dispraise of others. Maximize dispraise of self.
4. Modesty Maxim: Minimize praise of self. Maximize praise of others.
5. Agreement Maxim: Minimize disagreement between self and others. Maximize agreement between self and others.
6. Sympathy Maxim: Minimize antipathy between self and others. Maximize sympathy between self and others.

F. Factors Affecting Directness and Indirectness in Human Interaction

There are many socio-cultural factors affecting the directness-indirectness of utterances. Nguyen (1998) proposes twelve factors that, in his point of view, may affect the choice of directness and indirectness in communication:
1. Age: the old tend to be more indirect than the young.
2. Sex: females prefer indirect expression.
3. Residence: the rural population tends to use more indirectness than the urban.
4. Mood: while angry, people tend to use more indirectness.
5. Occupation: those who study social sciences tend to use more indirectness than those who study natural sciences.
6. Personality: the extroverted tend to use more directness than the introverted.
7. Topic: while referring to a sensitive topic, a taboo, people usually prefer indirectness.
8. Place: when at home, people tend to use more directness than when they are elsewhere.
9. Communicative environment/setting: when in an informal climate, people tend to express themselves in a direct way.
10. Social distance: those who have closer relations tend to talk in a more direct way.
11. Time pressure: when in a hurry, people are likely to use direct expressions.
12. Position: when in a superior position, people tend to use more directness to their inferiors.
These factors help to determine the strategies used when speakers perform the act of refusing.

G. Pragmatic Transfer

The influence of the first language (L1) in cross-cultural communication (pragmatic transfer) is often evident when native linguistic means of speech act performance are transferred to inter-language communication. Transfer occurs in two ways:
1. Negative transfer or "interference," where the two languages do not share the same language system, resulting in the production of errors.
2. Positive transfer or "facilitation," where the two languages share the same language system and the target form is correctly transferred.

Pragmatic error or failure occurs where speech act strategies are inappropriately transferred from L1 to L2. Thus, cross- cultural studies focus on negative transfer because this is a source of misunderstanding and miscommunication.

Negative transfer is the result of overgeneralization, simplification, reduction of sociolinguistic or socio-pragmatic knowledge. The effect of negative transfer may be much more serious than an error at the syntactic or phonological level, because it can be interpreted as a representation of personality by the speaker. In other words, if a non-native speaker uses the target language correctly in terms of phonetics, vocabulary, and grammar, but manipulates it improperly in terms of social norms, a native interlocutor might think that he/she is not polite.

H. Refusals Categorization

Refusals are divided into two main groups, which is based on Beebe et al.'s (1990) classification and is as follows: direct refusals and indirect refusals. The direct refusals have very limited subdivisions in comparison to indirect ones. The direct refusals include non-performatives like "no" and performative verbs such as "I can't". The indirect refusals involve various types:

1. Statement of regret like "I'm sorry."
2. Wish like "I wish I could help you."
3. Excuse, reason, explanation like "I have an exam."
4. Statement of alternative.
5. Set condition for future or past acceptance like "If I had enough money"
6. Promise of future acceptance like "I'll do it next time."
7. Statement of principle "I never drink right after dinner."
8. Statement of philosophy like "One can't be too careful."
9. Attempt to dissuade interlocutor:
   9-1. Threat or statement of negative consequences to the requester like "If I knew you would judge me like this I never did that"
   9-2. Criticize the requester "It's a silly suggestion."
   9-3. Guilt trip (waiter to customers who want to sit for a while: "I can't make a living off people who just order tea"
10. Acceptance functioning as a refusal:
    10-1. Unspecific or indefinite reply "I don't know when I can give them to you"
    10-2. Lack of enthusiasm "I'm not interested in diets"
11. Avoidance:
    11-1. Non-verbal (silence, hesitation, doing nothing and physical departure)
    11-2. Verbal (topic switch, joke, repetition of past request, postponement and hedge); An example for postponement can be "I'll think about it." There are also some adjuncts to the refusals as follows:
12. Statement of positive opinion like "That's a good idea"
13. Statement of empathy "I know you are in a bad situation"
14. Pause fillers like "well" and "uhm"
15. gratitude/appreciation like "Thank you."

I. Sequence of Refusals

The usual sequence in refusal strategy application is in three phases:
1. Pre-refusal strategies: preparing the addressee for an upcoming refusal;
2. Main refusal (Head Act): bearing the main refusal;
3. Post-refusal strategies: functioning as emphasizer, mitigator or concluder of the main refusal.
For example, a refusal sequence of someone to his friend's request for going to Movie theater together would be:
Uhm, I'd really like to (pre-refusal);
But I can't (main refusal);
I'm sorry. I 'm busy today (post- refusal).
The number of moves in a refusal depends on the type of refusal (whether it is direct or indirect).
Compare these two examples:
1. A: May I leave a message? B: No, you may not.
2. A: Have another sandwich. B: Thanks. Everything was so tasty, I Couldn't eat any more.
In the first example, the refusal involves only one move, which is a contradictory move, but in the second example the hearer refuses the proposition using more than one move. Naturally, indirect refusals take more moves to accomplish the refusals.

J. Social Distance, Social Status, and Gender

Social distance is one of the parameters that affect politeness behaviors. The notion of social distance refers to the attention which should be paid to the roles which are played by people respecting one another in a specific situation as well as how well they know each other, which means the level of intimacy between interlocutors. Some scholars claim that politeness increases with social distance. On the other hand, their ideas are opposed by some others who believe that there is very little consistency regarding speech behavior among strangers and intimates because of the relative pre-

existing familiarity of their relationship, whereas the negotiation of relationships is more probable to happen among friends.

The role of social status in communication includes the ability to identify each other's social position. Some scholars claimed that people with high social status are more inclined to receive respectful and considerate behavior, including linguistic esteem and negative politeness. Thus those with lower social status are tending to avoid being rude and insulting those with higher status and show more respect to them.

Gender and speech behavior are also considered to be two interdependent, interrelated variables. In other words, speech behaviors depend on the gender relationship between interlocutors. Thus refusing people of either the same or the opposite gender requires different linguistic patterns.

In terms of pragmatics, requests and refusals are automatic sequences in the structure of the conversation which are called "adjacency pairs". "Adjacency pairs" is the term used for certain sequential speech moves that are closely connected .They can be depicted as automatic sequences including a first part and a second part produced by two successive speakers such that the second utterance is identified as related to the first as an expected follow-up. Having uttered the first part, the speaker immediately expects his/her conversational partner (interlocutor) to produce a second part of the same pair. The most common adjacency pairs are greeting-greeting, thanking-response, request refusal/acceptance, apology-acceptance, and question-answer. Managing adjacency pairs successfully is an important part of conversational competence. By producing an adjoining positioned second part, the second speaker can show that he/she can understand what the first speaker aims at and that he/she is ready to go along with that. The interlocutor can also assert their failure to understand, or disagreement. Otherwise, the first speaker him/herself may come to the conclusion that he/she misunderstands.

K. Significance of This Issue

The need for the scientific study of cross-cultural communication has been regarded as a main issue in the field of applied linguistics not only for the purposes of language learning and teaching, but also for enhancing cross-cultural understanding. Refusals are important because of their communicatively central place in every day communication. It is often difficult to reject requests. It is even harder to reject them in a foreign language without the risk of offending the interlocutor. This involves not only linguistic knowledge, but also pragmatic knowledge. One can have a wide range of vocabulary and a sound knowledge of grammar, but misunderstandings can still arise if they can not apply their pragmatic competence appropriately.

Based on the concepts discussed, the study on hand will put its emphasis on selected variables that control the way people deal with the act of refusing in their daily conversations. These include social distance (intimate, acquaintance, stranger); social status (low, high, equal); and gender (same gender, opposite gender). We begin working based on the literature on conversation and speech acts that these variables play main roles in the choice of strategies used by natives and Iranians.

III. METHOD

A. Aims and Objectives of the Research

As it has been mentioned before, there is a gap in our understanding of how Iranians apply the use of refusal patterns and how cultural influence affects their use of refusal speech acts in contact with native speakers of English. We investigate the strategies for refusal by the two. We also examine the influence of the interlocutor's social status, social distance and gender on refusal strategies by both groups.

B. Participants

As many as 40 Iranian students-Persian speakers who are learning English as a foreign language-(20 male and 20 female) participated in this study. They were selected through a speaking test. Moreover, the native participants were 40 (20 male and 20 female) Australian students majoring in different fields at the University of Queensland whose data were taken from a research done by Thi Minh Phuong in 2006.

C. Instrumentation and Procedures

The study uses a questionnaire in the form of Discourse Completion Task (DCT) for data collection. The questionnaire consists of 18 refusal situations that varied in terms of social status with three levels: low (L), high (H), and equal (E); social distance with three levels: intimate (I), acquaintance (A), and stranger (S); and gender relationship with two levels: same (S) and opposite (O). All of the questions in the questionnaire were coded, based on the combination of the three variables: social status, social distance, and gender.

All the questionnaires were administered in Islamic Azad University of Shiraz as was done in Phuong research in 2006.

D. Data Analysis

EFL students' refusal data were collected using a Discourse Completion Task (DCT). Using semantic formulae regarding the length and content of the responses, as units of analysis, they were compared with similar data elicited from native speakers of English responding in English.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The study at hand aimed to answer the following question:
To what extent do the refusal strategies used by these two groups differ?

A. Prerequisite of the Study

1. Interlocutors' status, social distance and gender have a great effect on refusals of request strategies used by native speakers and Iranian students.
2. Native speakers and Iranian students utilize different strategies for refusals of request.

B. Results

The differences of the frequency of each Speech Act Refusal (SAR) in each situation between natives and Iranian EFL students are shown in the following table.

TABLE 1:
FREQUENCY AND DIFFERENCES OF REFUSALS ACCORDING TO VARIOUS SITUATIONS

Situations	Natives	Iranian	Differences
HIO	70	44	26
LAS	75	47	28
HIS	28	44	-16
ESS	68	44	24
EIO	85	47	38
HAS	84	39	45
HSO	90	43	47
EIS	62	41	21
HSS	79	45	34
EAO	85	41	44
LSO	46	48	-2
EAS	76	46	30
ESO	74	47	27
LIO	68	45	23
HAO	81	41	40
LAO	93	45	48
LSS	88	39	49
LIS	77	39	38

As indicated by the data presented in the Table, natives outperformed Iranian EFL students in almost all situations except two.

Comparing the differences between the two groups shows that there are two striking features: natives and non-natives shared nearly the same number in some situations like LSO and the biggest difference between the groups was found in (LSS) with 88 SARs for natives and 39 SARs for non-natives.

V. CONCLUSION

We are now in the position to draw together the different patterns of refusal applied by the two groups based on the variables and SARs codes.

All in all, from the analysis of the data we can come to several broad conclusions: First, according to the results observed, Iranian EFL students tend to use limited strategies for refusing their interlocutors' requests. This can imply the fact that Iranian EFL learners have a limited pragmatic capacity to rely on when refusing their interlocutor's requests. Besides, based on the questionnaire data what individuals would do, refusal patterns of natives are very different from those of non-natives, though they do share some similarities. Parallel to cultural differences, lack of explicit teaching of refusal strategies in Iranian EFL classrooms can be considered as a major reason for their failure in utilizing appropriate strategies in some situations. Furthermore, English is a foreign language in Iran and there are only a few chances for students to put their language knowledge, especially the pragmatic knowledge, into practice outside the classroom context.

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An Empirical Study on the Relation between Meta-cognitive Strategies and Listening Autonomous Learning Ability

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Abstract—**Meta-cognition refers to learners' autonomous awareness of their own mental process and the ability to reflect, control, evaluate and regulate their own cognitive process. Influenced by traditional teaching mode, college students are always lack of the ability of autonomic learning and of learning methods. We should foster their consciousness of meta-cognition using meta-cognition strategy, help them make a planning and improve self-supervision ability and self-evaluation ability. A great number of studies show that meta-cognition strategies provides the learners the proper guidance in English listening and can be acquired by training. Thus, we think that meta-cognition is the most crucial to further improve learners' listening autonomous learning ability. Based on the essence of meta-cognition theory and the characteristics of college English teaching, the cultivation of students' meta-cognition is favorable for the improvement of their ability to learn English listening autonomously. In students' listening autonomous learning, we should strengthen the training of meta-cognition. This paper analyzes and discusses the relationship between meta-cognitive strategies and English listening autonomous learning ability referring to the statistics and results from the empirical study of meta-cognition strategies training on 60 non-English major students. Results also showed that meta-cognition strategies training contributed to autonomous listening behaviors. Recommendations for further research are discussed.**

Index Terms—**meta-cognition strategies, strategies training, listening autonomous learning ability**

I. INTRODUCTION

Meta-cognitive theory caught the widespread concern in education fields, after it was introduced into China since the 1980s. In recent years, this theory has been widely applied to the pedagogical field. Meta-cognitive strategies concern the individual conscious control of cognitive activities and are helpful to improve autonomous learning ability. With the development of college English curriculum reform, the cultivation of listening autonomous learning ability and teaching research attract much attention. Reviewing foreign and domestic studies on meta-cognitive strategies, this paper analyzes teaching and learning psychological motivation from the perspective of meta-cognitive strategies, with the emphasis on the cognitive structure and cognitive process of students as well as the cultivation of students' listening autonomous learning ability, stimulating students' potential, and strengthening the cultivation of their listening autonomous learning ability, thereby optimizing the teaching structure which put forward education suggestions based on the experiment results. The results indicates that the training of meta-cognition strategies can not only help to improve students English listening, but also inspire student's motive and improve their ability to learn independently. On the basis of previous researches, it further explores the relation between meta-cognition strategies training and listening autonomous learning ability. It also helps to enrich the teachers' education research and to provide empirical research for foreign language teaching theory in listening autonomous learning cultivation.

II. AN OVERVIEW OF META-COGNITION THEORY AND AUTONOMOUS LEARNING THEORY

A. Meta-cognition Theory

Meta-cognition means an individual's awareness of his own thinking processes and his ability to control these processes. Meta-cognition is a model of cognition, which acts at a meta-level, and is related to the object-world, through the monitoring and control function (Efklides 2001). It is observed that modern studies discuss the meta-cognition under three main facets: meta-cognitive knowledge, meta-cognitive control (Desoete and Roeyers 2006; Flavell 1979; Nelson and Narens 1990; Otani and Widner 2005; Ozsoy et al. 2010; Sungur 2007) and meta-cognitive experiences (Efklides 2001, 2008; Flavell 1979). "Meta-cognitive knowledge is knowledge we retrieve from memory and regards what the person knows or believes about him/herself and the others as cognitive beings, their relations with various cognitive tasks, goals, actions or strategies as well as the experiences s/he has had in relation to them" (Efklides 2001, p. 299). Meta-cognitive knowledge can be described as the knowledge, awareness, and deeper understanding of one's own cognitive processes and products (Flavell and Wellman 1977). Paris et al. (1984) suggested that meta-cognitive

knowledge can be divided into three areas. These areas are declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge. Declarative knowledge refers to knowledge about one's general processing abilities. The knowledge about how to successfully solve problems is called procedural knowledge. Conditional knowledge means knowledge about when to employ specific strategies (Sperling et al. 2004).

Empirical studies (e.g. Baird, 1986; Paris & Oka, 1986; Thomas& McRobbie, 2001) have consistently suggested that enhancing students' meta-cognition can result in improvements in learning. Further, Veenman, Wilhelm and Beishuizan (2003) have suggested that independent of intelligence, "meta-cognitive skills appear to develop and to contribute to learning performance" (p. 89).

B. Meta-cognition Strategy

Meta-cognitive strategies may be thought of as core learning strategies because they are applicable to a variety of learning tasks and also because they are overarching strategies above cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies. Meta-cognitive strategies are higher order executive skills entailing goal identification, planning, monitoring and evaluation. According to Anderson (2002), understanding and controlling cognitive processes may be one of the most essential skills in the classroom. It seems that meta-cognitive strategies, which allow students to plan, control, and evaluate their learning, have the most central role to play in this respect, rather than those that merely maximize interaction and input. Thus the ability to choose and evaluate one's strategies is of central importance. There are also other researchers who emphasize meta-cognition in learning strategies. Williams and Burden (2000) stress meta-cognition is central to effective learning. Wenden (1987) says that meta-cognition is "the process that underlies the efficient use of strategies and the essence of intelligent activity" (p. 573). Quicke (1994) similarly views that meta-cognitive awareness is crucial in learning strategies. Ellis (1994) is relatively reserved, saying that meta-cognitive strategies assume considerable importance at least for adults. In addition, most of the studies (O'Malley snd Chamot 1990; Wenden and Rubin 1987; Oxford and Crookall 1989) found the learners who were particularly taught meta-cognitive strategies performed better. Good language learners make use of meta-cognitive knowledge to help them assess the needs, evaluate progress and give directions to their learning.

This paper explored the impact of meta-cognition strategies training on students' listening autonomous learning ability, and stresses the importance of meta-cognitive strategies in strategy instruction. The experimental group achieved significantly better results than the contrast group after one semester of meta-cognition strategy-based training. Results also showed that the strategy instruction contributed to students' listening autonomous learning ability.

C. Autonomous Learning Theory

The concept autonomous learning was put forward by Holec in 1981. It is considered as the beginning of autonomous learning study. Since then, Allwright (1990), Huttunen (1986), Cotterall(1995), Benson(1997), Bandura(1997, 1986), Zimmerman(1990, 1996), Dickinson (2004) have done a great deal of research work on it and their masterpieces about autonomous learning came out gradually. In the late of the 1990s, this research reached its summit. Although Holec defined autonomous learning as "the ability to be responsible for own learning" (1981), no united definition was formed. Some researchers consider it a kind of ability while some others think it as a kind of behaviors. Huttunen (1986) thinks that autonomous learning is a certain study behaviors and learners' individual or collective monitor or evaluation of learning process. Allwright (1990) says that the autonomy of learning is a continued transformation but sometimes it is a balanced state between maximum self-development and interdependence. Cotterall (1995) believes that the learning autonomy is a degree of a learner's regulating and controlling on his study with some strategy. Benson (1997) defines autonomous learning "the ability of controlling personal learning". He believes that the "autonomy" is a different ability for different individual and the same person will present various "autonomy" in different occasions.

Nowadays, many theories have been raised to discuss autonomous learning. Based on those theories, empirical study is designed in this paper which aims at analyzing what effects the meta-cognition strategies training can bring to listening autonomous learning ability. Although autonomous learning theories are emphasized in many schools, some teachers still do not know how to put them into practice in English teaching. And they still cannot change their role in their teaching. They just do it in the traditional way. They teach the students knowledge as much as they could, and the students just accept as much as possible. Suggestions are given here to help English teachers be aware of their real roles in students' autonomous learning and improve their autonomous learning ability through appropriate meta-cognition strategy training.

Self-access learning centre is a new learning environment in the context of nationwide college English teaching reform. In this study, meta-cognition strategy training was performed on English listening in the self-learning center. The results indicates that the training of listening meta-cognition strategies can not only help to improve students English listening, but also inspire student's motive and improve their ability to learn independently.

III. THE PROCESS AND RESULTS OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

Since the importance of meta-cognition has been stressed, it is advisable to heighten learners' meta-cognitive awareness. Wen (1995) emphasized that successful learners are thoughtful and aware of themselves in relation to the learning process. They are able to employ strategies unconsciously, and make their meta-cognitive awareness into play

when necessary or when they are faced with difficulties. Such awareness gives learners control over their own learning. Therefore, meta-cognitive awareness is a necessary and essential focus in learning to regulate learning.

Training in meta-cognitive awareness includes awareness of what learning a language involves as well as training in the selection of appropriate strategies for different situations. In addition, meta-cognitive training should include heightening awareness of the feelings in different aspects of language learning, and of a learner's personalities and strengths. (Williams & Burden, 2000) To raise meta-cognitive awareness involves five aspects.: (1) preparing and planning for learning; (2) knowing how to select and use learning strategies; (3) monitoring strategy use; (4) knowing how to deploy various strategies; (5) self-assessing one's own strategy use. The five aspects are valuable suggestions for teachers to instruct the meta-cognitive strategies. To have good meta-cognitive awareness can greatly facilitate the improvement of strategy use and empower second language learners.

When it comes to training learners in the use of learning strategies in second language learning, maybe it is most appropriate to say "there is a lot to play for" (Skehan 1991 as cited in Ellis, 1994, p.558). Up to now, there are a large number of materials on training learners to use effective language learning strategies (e.g., Ellis and Sinclair 1989; Brown 1989; Oxford 1990; Wenden 1986b and 1991). However, there have been few empirical studies evaluating the impact of meta-cognition strategies training on students' listening autonomous learning ability and the relationship between them. Meta-cognition strategy training in second language listening is effective in enhancing listening comprehension. The following empirical study aim at exploring the impact of meta-cognition strategies training on students' listening autonomous learning ability.

A. Participants and Methods

Participants

The participants of the study consist of 60 second grade students of non-English major students in Qingdao University of Science and Technology. They have completed two semesters of college English learning. They did not received any formal training of learning strategies, they all have to improve their English listening and all have strong desires to pass the CET4. They are respectively divided into experimental group and contrast group. Every group includes 30 students.

Methods: meta-cognition strategies training

This research instruments mainly include English CET4 listening test before meta-cognition strategies training, final CET4 listening test after training and English Listening Strategies Questionnaire. Questions of CET4 listening test are eight short dialogues, two long dialogues, three passages and a compound listening. Listening meta-cognition strategy questionnaire will be distributed after meta-cognition strategies training to reflect their listening problems and evaluate their autonomous learning ability (4 stands for "strongly agree", 3 for "agree", 2 for "disagree" and 1 for "strongly disagree").

Those two groups of students first had the English CET4 listening test before meta-cognition strategies training to learn their listening proficiency level. Then the meta-cognition strategies training were taught to the experimental group students for one semester. The contrast group did not receive any meta-cognition strategies training. Meta-cognitive strategies such as "determining in advance what my reading purpose is and then reading the text with that goal in mind", "looking for specific aspects of information and focusing on that information while reading the text", "checking the effectiveness in strategy use", "checking whether the goals for reading are accomplished". Finally, both groups had the final CET4 listening test after training to reflect their listening performance.

The teacher, who was also the classroom teacher, asked the participants to join in the interactive discussion and definitions of strategies, and to use them in the listening class. The teacher-researcher gradually encouraged them to use strategies independently. This task was supposed to help the students to raise their awareness of using strategies. Strategy instruction normally begins by helping students become aware of what strategies are and which ones they are already using. The teacher presented and modeled strategies so that students became increasingly aware of their own thinking and learning strategies. Students started using these strategies independently so that learner autonomy (autonomy of language learning competence) or self-regulation could be regarded as an ultimate goal for the strategy instruction.

B. Results and Analysis

Listening meta-cognition strategy questionnaire was distributed among the participants after meta-cognition strategies training. The following is the results. (4 stands for "strongly agree", 3 for "agree", 2 for "disagree" and 1 for "strongly disagree").

Learning strategies	4	3	2	1
It's important to set goals for my learning.	60%	36%	4%	0%
It's important to make plans for my learning.	49%	47%	4%	0%
It's important to evaluate my progress.	13%	65%	22%	0%
I feel I know what the best strategy for my language learning is.	6%	40%	48%	2%

Among meta-cognitive strategies, making plan, setting goals and evaluating are the main means to achieve autonomy. After the strategy training, 96% of students have agreement responses to goal setting and plan making. It seems that students are willing to assume more responsibility and are initiative in taking charge of their own learning autonomously.

The CET4 listening tests were utilized as a pre-test and post-test assessment. The listening scores of participants in both groups were collected after tests in order to explore the possible impact of meta-cognition strategies instruction on their listening comprehension. Pre-test results and post-test results are available. The data of the survey results and student test scores results were statistically analyzed using statistical software SPSS. The questions and difficulty of CET4 listening proficiency pre-test and post-test are same. The listening test scores of two group results are shown in Table 1 and Table 2.

TABLE ONE
PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST RESULTS ANALYSIS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Short dialogues	Long dialogues	Passages	Compound dictation	Total average score
Pre-test	3.1	2.73	4.26	3.83	13.92
Post-test	3.56	3.1	4.9	4	15.56
Difference	0.46	0.37	0.64	0.17	1.64
t	1.787	2.262	3.176	3.053	4.182
P	0.042	0.015	0.001	0.002	0.0001

TABLE TWO
PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST RESULTS ANALYSIS OF CONTRAST GROUP

	Short dialogues	Long dialogues	Passages	Compound dictation	Total average score
Pre-test	2.76	3.2	4.1	2.95	13.01
Post-test	3.16	3.5	3.8	2.93	13.39
Difference	0.4	0.3	-0.3	-0.02	0.38
t	1.561	1.201	-0.858	-0.046	0.605
P	0.064	0.119	0.199	0.481	0.274

Questions and total score of the test papers were short dialogue 8 points, long dialogue 7 points, essay 10 points and compound dictation 10 points.

From the table one, we can see the pre-test total average score of experimental students was 13.92 and the post-test total average score increased to15.56 points. The difference was 1.64 and P=0.0001<0.05 explained that the experimental students' listening test results had been significantly improved after one semester of listening meta-cognition strategies training. From the analysis of the data of Table 1, the scores of all various questions had been increased and the differences were respectively 0.46, 0.37, 0.64 and 0.17. The data suggests that meta-cognition strategies help to improve the results of all kinds of listening questions and in this study, the score of passages has been increased significantly. Statistics also showed that there was an overall increase in the experimental group's performance of listening test as seen in the post-test and there was a difference in the experimental group between the pre-test to post-test listening scores. The experimental group seems to have benefited from meta-cognition strategies instruction.

From the table two, we can see the pre-test total average score of contrast students was 13.01 and the post-test total average score increased to13.39 points. The difference was only 0.38 and P=0.274>0.05 explained that the contrast students' listening test results were almost same with the pre-test listening results. From the analysis of the data of Table 1, the scores of short dialogues and long dialogue had been slightly increased and the results of passages and compound dictation were even worse than the pre-test results. The differences were respectively 0.4, 0.3, -0.3 and -0.02. It indicated that the contrast group did not receive better listening results without meta-cognition strategies training.

Compare the results of experimental and contrast group, it can be concluded that the experimental group performed better than the contrast group in the post-test after one semester meta-cognition strategies, indicating a strong association between meta-cognition strategies training and listening performance improvement for the experimental group and listening autonomous learning ability. The data analysis also showed that the students' cognitive and meta-cognition strategies have been greatly improved after the meta-cognition strategies training.

IV. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Conclusion

There are many studies reports that teaching meta-cognitive skills to students may lead to some improvement in their academic achievement (Cardelle-Elawar 1992; Silver 1987; Ozsoy and Ataman 2009). Different approaches to improve meta-cognitive abilities, such as 'IMPROVE' (Mevarech and Fridkin 2006; Mevarech and Kramarski 1997), 'meta-cognitive problem solving activities' (Ozsoy and Ataman 2009), and 'reciprocal teaching' (Palincsar and Brown 1984) are available to teachers to provide their students with instruction in meta-cognitive strategies. On the other hand, during the review of literature for this study, it has been observed that meta-cognitive skills are studied usually in

relationship with the language and listening skills. Meta-cognitive skills can also be studied especially in relationship with courses such as social sciences, science, and arts.

The objective of the current study was to examine the relation between meta-cognitive strategies and listening autonomous learning ability. It was observed that the experimental group outperformed the contrast group in listening performance and there was a positive and high correlation between meta-cognition strategies and listening achievement and listening autonomous learning ability. For this reason, meta-cognition can be used as a useful tool in order to develop listening skills. The results also show that, under the guidance of the meta-cognitive theory, using the integrated and organized meta-cognition strategies design, it not only strengthens the students' listening autonomous learning ability, but also improves the overall learning outcomes.

(1) The meta-cognitive strategies help improve students' autonomous learning ability. To use meta-cognitive strategies in the process of developing foreign language autonomous learning ability, learn the main cognitive processes and how they process, maintain and use foreign language information, to guide students to use the necessary meta-cognitive strategies in order to improve the analysis, and creative use of language ability; To learn the main existing cognitive structure, find the best links between the old knowledge of learners' cognitive structures and new knowledge, make the new knowledge interact with students' cognitive structure, to gain an overall improved autonomous learning ability.

(2) Foreign Language Autonomy learning ability has an effect on the foreign language learning outcomes. The students good at using meta-cognitive strategies have planning and initiative ability, stronger autonomous learning ability and better learning outcomes; students not good using meta-cognitive strategies are usually in the blind and passive state, have poor autonomous learning ability and poor foreign language learning outcomes.

Suggestions

Currently, the foreign language autonomous learning ability of our college students are generally low, and in this context, using meta-cognitive strategies and strengthening the foreign languages autonomous learning ability are particularly important to improve learning outcomes.

(1) To stimulate students' interest in learning and promote autonomous learning. In the process of developing students' autonomous learning, teachers should pay attention to stimulate students 'interest, strive to improve their professional level according to curriculum implementation needs and characteristics of students' psychological development, and thus effectively promote the changes and optimization of learning methods.

(2) To develop students' self-monitoring abilities. Self-record is an effective means of self-monitoring. In teaching, teachers should require students to develop self-monitoring tables, making students conscious of their own learning process, learning mode, learning strategies and study effects in order to self-monitor themselves. Correctly using meta-cognitive strategies, class lectures and panel discussions help to develop students' self-monitoring capabilities.

(3) Meta-cognitive strategy training should be combined with guidance of teachers. A combination of meta-cognitive strategy training and guidance of teachers and evaluation of student learning objectives, content and methods in teaching play a crucial role in improving the students' autonomous learning ability.

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