Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

The Effectiveness of a Suggested Specific Course on Developing Third-year University Students' Skills in Translating Culture-specific Items

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Abstract—**This study aimed at helping students to deal systematically and effectively with culture-specific items. This was treated through designing and applying a specific course based on sixteen strategies adopted from what Newmark(1988), Hariyanto (1997), and Harvey (2003) suggested. The course was designed in the light of these strategies. It included different cultural topics with various cultural items in both English and Arabic. The course was applied in seven weeks to a sample of third-year university students at Al-Imam Muhammad Bin Saud Islamic University, College of Languages and Translation, during the first seven weeks of the second term. Students were asked to answer a pre-test on culture-specific items. The same test was distributed on students after the treatment which was represented in teaching the specific course. A Wilcoxon test was used to compare students' scores in each item and in the test as a whole. The results showed the effectiveness of using the specific course in developing third-year students' skills in translating culture-specific items. However, the change that happened for students was not very high as only one got an excellent degree and just four got a very good degree. The percentage of unsuccessful students reached 25% and the percentage of students with fair degree reached 40%. This reflected the fact that the time was not enough as students needed more practice. In general, strategy teaching is very important but it is not sufficient to create professional or good translators.**

Index Terms—**culture-specific items, translation strategies, specific course**

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent translation studies, special attention has been paid to the examination of cultural aspects. Rabin (1972) believed that translators tended to make certain decisions before starting translation. Such decisions were conditioned not only by the translators' linguistic competence but also by their cultural background. In other words, the way translators understand and appreciate the source culture is one of the factors that influence the way in which they translate. Hermans (1999) asserted that that translation should be recognized as a cultural practice. Gerding-Salas (2000) stated that translation is considered a cross-cultural bilingual communication vehicle among people of different tongues and cultures by attempting to interpret concepts and speech in a variety of texts as faithfully and accurately as possible. Moreover, Pena, (2007) affirmed the importance of cultural equivalence in the process of translation. Bahameed (2008) underscored the role played by intercultural translation in modern social linguistics theories. Such views pinpointed that both language and culture should be highly regarded in the act of translation. However, cultural differences may cause more serious translation problems than do linguistic differences.

It is a very hard task to translate the cultural aspects of any source language as the reader of a particular culture will expect the translation to be associated his customs and beliefs with expressions derived from his culture because the people of a given culture look at things from their own perspectives (Lefevere, 1992). Thus, the translator needs to be aware of the use of such expressions since translation is affected by the kind of society from and to which it is performed (Larson, 1984). Any cultural term is the result of the behavior of a certain society and in translation this cannot be easily conveyed. Sometimes both the source and the target language have cultural equivalents or correspondences but the problem arises when there is a cultural gap between the two concerned languages. Newmark (2001) saw culture as the greatest obstacle to translation, at least to the achievement of an accurate and decent translation (p.328). Armellino (2008) considered translating culture-bound elements of a source language into a target language the most challenging tasks for all translators. He believed that replacing culturally-bound words or phrases in one language by the same words or phrases in another language is often impossible because the meaning is always linked to the specific cultural context where the text originates or with the cultural context it aims to recreate.

Previous Research

Aly (1990) designed a translation course for the students of English at faculties of education. Al-Maghraby (1995) developed some guidelines for building translation courses. Solhy (2002) evaluated the current state of teaching translation in the Arab universities and suggested a comprehensive systematic program for designing translation courses. Dadour (2004) proposed a translation program for developing EFL prospective teachers' bicultural awareness and performance in translation. Al-Hasnaw (2007) investigated the 'untranslatability' of some Arabic metaphors into English

and found that most metaphors are shaped by the socio-cultural beliefs and attitudes of a specific culture. Zare-Behtash (2010) discussed culture-specific items in literary texts.

In the light of the aforementioned review, culture-specific items and translation strategies can be conceptualized as unique elements to a language that cannot be understood simply from the meaning of their individual words but they require an adequate cultural awareness of both the source language and the target language cultures. Moreover, the aforementioned review revealed two important remarks. Initially, most of the foreign translation studies focused on translation as a process, while many Arabic studies focused on translation as a product. Furthermore, the role of culture in translation is marginalized in the previous research especially in the Arab world. This means that more studies are needed in the area of culture and translation. This paper attempted to focus on translation as a process as well as a product. It concentrated on the process of translation through teaching a theoretical part related to the strategies that students could use to overcome the problems of translating culture-specific items and noticing the way students usually resort to while translating. It also gave great attention to the product that students gave either in their translation of the cultural texts involved in the specific course or in the outcome of the assignments given to them every week and discussed later in next classes. This study was also different from the previous studies in its focus on both kinds of translation; from English into Arabic and vice versa.

Review of Literature

As for translation strategy that could be used to overcome the problem of translating culture-specific Items, literature on several translation strategies showed how they were taken into account by some linguists. Newmark (1988) suggested a long list of translation strategies that could be used such as: naturalization, cultural equivalent, functional equivalent, descriptive equivalent, componential analysis, synonymy, shift, transposition, modulation, recognized translation, compensation, paraphrase, couplets, and notes. Hariyanto (1997) suggested some strategies for translating cultural aspects such as: addition, componential analysis, cultural equivalent, descriptive equivalent, literal translation, modulation, recognized translation, reduction, synonymy, transference, deletion, and combination. Moreover, Harvey (2003) suggested four strategies for translating culture bound idioms such as: functional equivalence, formal equivalence or linguistic equivalence, transcription or borrowing, and descriptive or self-explanatory. This study used sixteen strategies adopted from what Newmark (1988), Hariyanto (1997), and Harvey (2003) suggested. They were taught to students within seven weeks, three hours a week.

Statuesque of Teaching Translation at University Level

It seems that many undergraduate students come to university with the aim of gaining a qualification because that is the best way to get a prominent job. The actual usefulness or relevance of what is learnt to future employment is not a question that is often asked. Thus it seems that what is learnt in the classroom is not expected to be relevant to real-life work. The method of teaching is often very teacher-centered, and students expect to take notes which they then learn in order to reproduce in the exam. There is no real engagement of the critical faculties of the brain. Hence, professors and lectures are authority figures whose word is law and who must not be embarrassed by questions.

Unfortunately, even worse, the majority of the students regard translation as a minor subject compared with poetry, the novel, or drama. Since the class does not have textbooks, or even handouts, they assume that there is nothing to study, and all they have to do is learn vocabulary by heart and just attend and write down whatever translations the professors and lectures may dictate. Worst of all, many of them apply the rule of 'parroting' (Larson, 1984), in other words, they learn by heart whatever translations the teacher may propose. (p.11)

In such a case, class participation is undermined because only more proficient and confident students can interact with the student/teacher and engage in discussion. Taking these previous notes into consideration and hoping to make a kind of change in the course as well as the method of teaching translation, the researcher attempted to offer something new and creative by designing a specific course that could allow students to be active participant and creative in the process of translation.

Statement of the Problem

Translating culture-specific items is expected to be one of the most nagging translation problems facing EFL learners at Al Imam Muhammad Bin Saud Islamic University. To be more specific, this study was concerned with teaching a specific course that included strategies for translating culture- specific items accompanied with different kinds of cultural texts so as to help EFL Saudi students translate culture-specific items involved in these texts. To better study the problem under investigation, the following two research questions were raised:

1. What is the effectiveness of using specific course in cultural translation for developing students' skills to translate culture-specific items?

2. What are the most effective strategies that helped students overcome their problems in translating culture-specific items?

Hypotheses of the Study

1. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the students on the pre-test and the post-test concerning the first item of questions in favor of the post- test.

2. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the students the pre-test and the post- test concerning the second item of questions in favor of the post- test.

3. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the students the pre-test and the post- test concerning the third item of questions in favor of the post- test.

4. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the students the pre-test and the post- test concerning the fourth type of questions in favor of the post- test.

5. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the students the pre-test and the post- test concerning the whole items of questions in favor of the post- test.

Objectives of the Study

The study tried to achieve the following objectives:

1. To investigate the effectiveness of using a specific course in cultural translation for developing students' skills to translate culture-specific items.

2. To identify the most effective strategy that helped students overcome their problems in translating culture-specific items.

3. To develop a culture-based translation course.

4. To develop a culture-based translation test.

5. To develop a translation strategy awareness among students.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The current study targeted the third year English language male majors at the University of Imam Muhammad Bin Saud Islamic University. The study participants involved all the EFL Saudi students who were performing their final term exams of the second semester of the academic year 2012/2013. The participants were (43) EFL students whose age was ranging from 21 to 23 years old. The sample was limited to the third year English language majors who are supposed to be well acquainted with English language and translation courses.

B. Instruments

1. Culture-Based Translation Course

As far as designing translation course is concerned, there must be a sort of balance between theory and practice although it is preferred to lean a little bit on practice, because it is practice that actually produces a good translator (Samudra, 1993). Accordingly, the researcher selected to design this specific course in such a way that helps students enjoy and practice translating as much as possible. (p.53) The researcher designed the specific course and sent it by e-mail to his colleagues to check it and give him their feedback. Their suggestions and comments were most welcome and significant. The researcher used such points to modify and improve the final version of the course. Continuous evaluation and feedback were always given during the process of teaching the course. Students were often asked to give their frank opinion concerning the course. The benefits of the course were weighed carefully to figure out if the course truly helped effectively developed students' skills in translating culture-specific items or not. Colleagues and students were always queried about every aspect of the course: How long does it take? What kind of strategy do students learn better? Are the topics related closely to the main objective of the course? Does the coursework reflect students' interests and give them the training they need to succeed in translating cultural texts in general and culture-specific items in particular?

In designing the course, the researcher tried to avoid the errors that could be made by any course designer such as the overload of information presented in the course and the unsuitability of the time allotted for teaching the course. Students were given enough time to learn and practice the new strategies. The course was not too brief or too shallow. It was deep enough to arouse students' motivation and satisfy their needs. Immediate correction was provided and discussion of certain issues was allowed. The topics involved in the course matched the skills and experience of the students and

1.1 Course Objectives

The Objectives of the Course are Included the Following Points:

1). Enhancing basic skills in cultural translation.

2). Intensive training in the translation of culture-specific items from Arabic into English and vice versa.

3). Training the students to acquire the skills of using various translational strategies to overcome problems they face in cultural translation.

4). Developing the student's insight into the strategies of translating culture-specific items.

5). Offering a systematic syllabus that could develop students' skills in translating culture- specific items.

6). Giving students more chances to have constructive dialogue and exchange of ideas and experiences concerning the translation of culture-specific items.

7). Promoting the student's competence in the mother tongue and the foreign language.

8). Stimulating an intellectual and linguistic challenge in the student.

9). Training students to be future translators by teaching them real-life work translations.

10). Giving students a chance to read about different aspects of foreign as well as local cultures.

1.2 Teaching Methods:

1) Lectures

2) Class discussions; encouraging class participation and presentations

3) power point presentations (visual aids)

4) giving handouts

5) tutorials, group discussion and team work

1.3 Learning Methods

1) The use of the internet.

2) Keeping journals and files for new terms and collocations students learn.

3) Submitting home assignments regularly in well-organized files.

4) Correcting each others' translation and language mistakes through displaying their assignments in the class.

1.4. Cultural Topics

The topics included in this specific course were carefully selected to meet the needs of students to overcome the problem of translating culture- specific items. The course was designed to be applied in seven weeks. The material of the course was taught three hours a week and was distributed as follows;

1.4.1 Week 1

1. A pre- test was given to students to investigate the effectiveness of using this specific course in developing students' skills concerning translating course- specific terms.

2. An introduction to the course, showing the main points that students were going to study in this specific course, was explained to students.

1.4.2 Week 2

1. Revision of the differences between the literal, free, semantic and communicative approaches to translation.

2. A Handout containing short texts with their translations was given to students; it was used as a tool to help students recognize how approaches of translation are used.

1.4.3 Week 3

1). General Discussion on the different kinds of strategies used to translate culture-specific items was made.

2). A handout containing explanation, illustration and examples of the first four strategies (cultural equivalents- cultural correspondence- accepted standard translation- naturalization) that could be used to translate culture-specific items was distributed on the students.

3). Two cultural texts were given to students to apply and practice the use of the four strategies; one to be done in class and the other to be taken as an assignment.

4). A power point presentation containing important information about the culture specific items included in the class-done text was offered. This information was presented in the form of short passages that helped students a lot to acquire much experience about features of foreign cultures as well as some aspects of their own culture. It played a vital role in enhancing students' translation skills concerning culture-specific items.

5). Another power point presentation containing true-false questions was provided to students to get their comments.

1.4.4 Weeks 4

1). A handout containing explanation, illustration and examples of other four strategies (general sense – transcription – literal translation – translation couplets), that could be used to translate culture-specific items, was given to students.

2). Two cultural texts were given to students to apply and practice the use of the four strategies; one to be done in class and the other to be taken as an assignment.

3). A power point presentation containing important information about the culture specific items included in the class-done text was offered. This information was presented in the form of short passages that helped students a lot to acquire much experience about features of foreign cultures as well as some aspects of their own culture. It played a vital role in enhancing students' translation skills concerning culture-specific items.

4). Another power point presentation containing short sentences with their translations was offered. Each sentence has one underlined culture-specific item that has been translated using a certain strategy. Based on the strategies they have studied, students were asked to determine which strategy has been used.

1.4.5 Week 5

1). A handout containing explanation, illustration and examples of other four strategies (translation triplet – classifier - neutralization – componential analysis) was given to students.

2). Two cultural texts were given to students to apply and practice the use of the four strategies; one to be done in class and the other to be taken as an assignment.

3). A power point presentation containing important information about the culture specific items included in the class-done text was offered. This information was presented in the form of short passages that helped students a lot to acquire much experience about features of foreign cultures as well as some aspects of their own culture. It played a vital role in enhancing students' translation skills concerning culture-specific items.

4). Another power point presentation containing short sentences with their translations was offered. Each sentence had one underlined culture-specific item that had been translated using a certain strategy. Four choices were provided after each translation and students were asked to select the correct answer.

1.4.6 Week 6

1). A handout containing explanation, illustration and examples of other four strategies (paraphrase – translation label - deletion – gloss, notes, and footnotes) was given to students.

2). Two cultural texts were given to students to apply and practice the use of the four strategies; one to be done in class and the other to be taken as an assignment.

3). A power point presentation containing important information about the culture specific items included in the class-done text was offered. This information was presented in the form of short passages that helped students a lot to acquire much experience about features of foreign cultures as well as some aspects of their own culture. It played a vital role in enhancing students' translation skills concerning culture-specific items.

4). Another power point presentation containing short sentences with their translations was offered. Each sentence had one underlined culture-specific item that students had to translate using one of the strategies they studied in the course. A good discussion was raised among students as each one wanted to use a certain strategy. They gave the researcher a good impression about the development that happened concerning their awareness of translation strategies.

1.4.7 Week 7

1). General revision was made on the whole strategies. The main focus was on the differences between these strategies and the order of their preference. Students were asked to give the difference with examples.

2). A post- test was distributed on the students to investigate the efficiency of the specific course in developing students' skills in translating culture-specific items.

1.5 Assignments

In essence, the translation course depended on giving students plenty of time to do translation assignments, then analyzing those assignments in every detail, and ultimately discussing the nature of their work, often with an extreme focus on student errors, in great depth. Besides, students were introduced to the purpose and nature of translation. According to Newmark (1988): "What translation theory does is, first to identify and define a translation problem; second, to indicate all the factors that have to be taken into account in solving the problem; third, to list all the possible translation procedures; finally, to recommend the most suitable translation procedure, plus the appropriate translation."(p.9)

Assignments were given each week to students. They were asked to do it at home. Sometimes students complained that the assignment contained some difficult parts. It was something normal especially when translating cultural texts. The tool of discussion was used to overcome any problems concerning translating culture-specific items. At the first stage the difficulty of finding no equivalent was their main problem but gradually they acquired the ability to deal with such a problem by using different types of strategies they had studied in the course.

2. Culture-Based Translation Test

The main objective of the test was to investigate the effectiveness of using this specific course in developing students' skills in translating culture-specific terms. To determine the raw content of the test, the researcher reviewed the related literature and previous research to list the most important strategies that should be included in the test through using phrases or short texts and asking students to translate them from English into Arabic and vice versa. The students were also asked to determine the strategy that they used to translate the culture- specific items included in the phrases as well as in the texts.

2.1 Layout of the Test

As for the layout of the test, it was taken into consideration that the content of the test be clear and allows the test-takers to respond easily. Each test phrase contained one culture-specific item while the short texts contained more than one item. The students were asked to translate each item into a full meaningful item. The test consisted of ten Arabic phrase, ten Arabic short texts, ten English phrases and ten English short texts. The students were asked to give the right equivalent in the Target Language, and to determine the strategy they used to translate such culture-specific items.

2.2 Validity and Reliability of the Test

For assessing the validity and reliability of the test, the test was reviewed by the same EFL experts who approved its face and content validity. For estimating the reliability of the test, the test was administered twice. At the end of the first semester on the 9th of January 2013, the test was administered to 9 Saudi university English language majors at the University of Imam Muhammad Bin Saud Islamic University. After a week on the 16th of January, the test was re-administered to the same students. The test-retest procedure was used to calculate the reliability of the test using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The reliability coefficient of the test was (r= 0.78).

2.3 Administration of the Test

The test was administered on Saturday the 26th of Jan. 2013 at the University of Imam Muhammad Bin Saud Islamic University in the second semester of the academic year 2012/2013. The pre- test was given to the students on the first week of study in the second semester and the post-test was given to them on the seventh week of study. The students were informed that that this test would not affect their academic performance or scores. It was made clear that the test is a part of an academic study. After finishing the test, students' responses were collected. The time allotted for the test was one hundred minute.

2.4 Scoring the Test

The total score of the test was (60) scores where one point was devoted to translating the phrase and two points were devoted to translating each short text. Exact or accurate cultural translation of the phrase was given one point, while half

a point was given to any acceptable translation. As for the translation of the short texts, two points were given to accurate translation, while one point was devoted to any acceptable translation. Literal or inaccurate translation was scored zero. Students' scores were interpreted according to five criteria; less than 60% means poor, from 60% to 69% means fair, from 70% to 79% means good, from 80% to 89% means very good, and from 90% to 100% means excellent.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

It was clearly noticed during teaching this specific course that students felt happy when they translated cultural terms as they were shown how these terms could be carried into the Target Language safely and satisfactorily. They believed that they could acquire invaluable knowledge of the cross- and different aspects of the Source Language and Target Language cultures, and they could bridge many cultural gaps between the Source and the Target Language cultures through refining and develop their translation skills at dealing with cultural terms in translation. The test was divided into four sections; two of them were devoted for translating from English into Arabic while the other two were for translating from Arabic into English. Students were asked in each type of translation to translate culture-specific items included in short texts as well as items alone without been found in any context. The following table showed the total results on the test:

TABLE 1:
PARTICIPANTS' TOTAL RESULTS ON THE POST- CBTT

Participants	Pass	Fail
40	30 (75%)	10 (25%)

This result meant that the participants managed to achieve the required mean scores. Accordingly, EFL students were able to translate culture-bound expressions with very good degree (75%). It was clear that while third-quarter of the participants could pass the test, 25% of the participants (n= 10) could not pass the test. This confirms the conclusion that the specific course was to a good extent helpful for students to get better marks in the post test. To be more specific and exact, the following table showed the number and the percentage of the participants with regard to degrees of evaluation.

TABLE 2:
PARTICIPANTS' DETAILED RESULTS ON THE POST CBTT

Criteria	Number	Percentage
Fail	10	25%
Fair	14	35%
Good	10	25%
Very Good	5	12.5%
Excellent	1	2.5%

For further evidence, table (2) showed that only one student could reach the degree of excellence in his translation while five students (12.5%) managed to reach the level of very good degree. This revealed that culture-specific items were not easy to translate even if the students were subject to studying specific strategies to deal with. On the other hand, it cannot be denied that the specific course with its strategies was helpful to some students as the results included in this table revealed; ten students (25%) got good degree while fourteen (35%). got fair degree.

As for the First Hypothesis

In order to verify the validity of this hypothesis, a Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was used to compare the mean scores of the students' answers on the pre/post- test. The results proved to be statistically consistent with the hypothesis. See table (32).

TABLE:3
A WILCOXON TEST RESULTS COMPARING THE PRE- TEST VS. POST- TEST MEANS FOR THE STUDENTS IN THE FIRST ITEM OF QUESTIONS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Z Value
Pre	40	3.450	1.3436	1.0	6.0	-5.558
Post	40	6.788	1.4715	4.0	9.5	

Table (3) indicated that there was a statistically significant difference at 0.00 level in the first item of questions between the mean scores of the students on the pre-test (3.450) and the post-test (6.788) in favor of the post-test since the estimated z- value was**(-5.558).** Thus, it can be safely said that the Wilcoxon test results proved to be statistically consistent with the hypothesis. Therefore, the first hypothesis was confirmed. In addition, the estimated Z value indicated that the specific course had a large effect on the students' performance concerning the first item of questions on the post- test as compared to their results on the same item on the pre- test. The minimum degree obtained by students on the pre-test was one out of ten while the minimum degree obtained by students on the post-test was four. The same growth was noticeable in students' maximum degree on the pre and post-test. As for the pre-test, the maximum was six while on the post-test, it was 9.5. this revealed the development that happened in the students'

performance in translating the sentences included in the first item of questions. This is, of course, due to the use of the specific course that included definite strategies in translating culture-specific items.

The second Hypothesis

To determine the relative extent of change fostered by the implementation of the proposed specific course from the pre-test to the post-test for the students, a Wilcoxon test was used. This test aimed at comparing the mean scores of the students group on the pre- test and the post- test in overall questions included in the second item. See table (4).

TABLE:4
A WILCOXON TEST RESULTS COMPARING THE PRE- TEST VS. POST- TEST MEANS FOR THE STUDENTS IN THE SECOND ITEM OF QUESTIONS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Z Value
Pre	40	1.688	.9916	.0	4.0	-5.570
Post	40	4.625	1.0786	2.5	7.0	

Table (4) indicated that there was a statistically significant difference at 0.00 level in overall questions in the second item between the mean scores of the students on the pre-test(1.688) and the post-test (4.625) in favor of the post-test since the estimated Z- value was(-5.570). Thus, it could be safely said that the Z-test results proved to be statistically consistent with the hypothesis. Therefore, the second hypothesis was confirmed. In addition, the estimated Z value(-3.26) indicated that the specific course had a large effect on the experimental group students' overall questions in the second item on the post- test as compared to their results on the pre- test. The minimum degree in the pre-test was zero but it rose to be 2.5 in the post-test. The same applied to the maximum degree as it rose from four degree to reach seven. It was noticed that the degree of maximum did not grow much as most students were not able to give the correct translation. This might due to the difficulty of most cultural items as well as the unfamiliarity of the students with such items. They did their best to give an appropriate equivalent but the context did not help them reach their goals.

The Third Hypothesis

In order to verify the validity of this hypothesis, a Wilcoxon test was used. The results proved that there were statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the students on the pre-test and the post-test in overall literal, inferential, and critical comprehension levels and their sub- skills. In other words, the results of the t- tests proved to be statistically consistent with the above stated hypothesis. Therefore, the ninth hypothesis was accepted. The following tables show this statistical significance.

TABLE:5
A WILCOXON TEST RESULTS COMPARING THE PRE- TEST VS. POST- TEST MEANS FOR THE STUDENTS IN THE THIRD ITEM OF QUESTIONS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Z Value
Pre	40	3.9250	1.26364	1.00	6.00	-5.482
Post	40	7.100	1.3737	4.0	9.0	

Table (5) showed that there was a statistically significant difference at 0.00 level between the mean scores of the experimental group on the pre-test and the post-test in overall questions of the third item (Z value =**-5.482)** in favor of the post- test. In addition, the results shown in the above table revealed that the proposed specific course had a large effect on developing students' overall translation skills with regard to culture-specific items as shown in their performance on the post- test compared to their results on the pre- test. The minimum changed from one to become four in the post test while the maximum rose from six to nine. These results revealed the existence of statistically significant differences at 0.00 levels in this respect.

The Fourth Hypothesis

To determine the relative extent of change fostered by the implementation of the proposed specific course from the pre- test until the post- test for the students in all questions of the fourth type, a Wilcoxon test was used. was used. The following table shows the existence of a statistically significant difference at 0.00 level.

TABLE:6
A WILCOXON TEST RESULTS COMPARING THE PRE- TEST VS. POST- TEST MEANS FOR THE STUDENTS IN THE FOURTH ITEM OF QUESTIONS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Z Value
Pre	40	1.662	.7876	.0	4.0	-5.548
Post	40	4.638	1.0977	1.0	6.5	

Table (6) showed that there was a statistically significant difference at 0.00 level between the mean scores of the students on the pre-test (1.662) and the post-test (4.638) in favor of the post-test scores in all questions included in the fourth item**.** In addition, the Z value **(-5.548)** revealed that the proposed specific course had an effect on developing the students' skills concerning translating culture-specific items as shown in their performance on the post- test compared to their performance on the pre- test. The effect was not high concerning this item as the culture-specific items included in the questions of this item were difficult and unfamiliar to students so the minimum just reached one and the maximum changed from four to 6.5.

To further investigate the differences between the students' performance before and after being exposed to the specific course, a Wilcoxon test was used. The following table showed the existence of statistically significant differences at 0.00 level.

TABLE:7
A WILCOXON TEST RESULTS COMPARING THE PRE- TEST VS. POST- TEST MEANS FOR THE STUDENTS IN ALL ITEMS OF THE TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Z Value
Pre	40	10.725	3.8480	3.0	19.0	-5.517
Post	40	23.150	4.1867	16.0	32.0	

As shown in the above table, the estimated Z- values **(-5.517) revealed that there was** statistically significant difference at 0.00 level in favor of the post- test. Moreover, the results proved that the proposed specific course had a large effect on developing the students' skills in translating culture-specific items on the post- test as compared to the pre- test.

In sum, the present study was conducted to measure the effect of a specific course on developing students' basic skills in translating culture-specific items. Results of the study confirmed that there was a remarkable increase in students' level of achievement after the experiment. Means of scores in the posttest and the obtained Z-value in the pre-posttest analyses were significantly favoring the posttest results. These remarkably high gains obtained by the subjects in the posttest can be attributed to the effect of using the suggested specific course.

Students' level in translation skills improved in general, however what deserves to be mentioned is that students' achievement in the first and third items of the test was higher than their achievement in the second and the fourth items. This is simply due to the lack of students' knowledge about the cultural items included in the short texts. They faced some kind of difficulty in finding appropriate equivalents for them. They used different strategies but they could not give the correct counterparts in the target language. This also reflected how strategies could be insufficient if students did do have enough knowledge about different cultures. Agood translator should be bicultural as well as bilingual.

Results also show the importance of implementing translation theoretical concepts in practical translation training as indicated by Thomas (1992), Gutt (2000), and Teleiba (2004). Students stated that they liked this specific translation course, that they started to recognize the importance and necessity of translation in their university life as well as in their future life. They wished they could have a similar specific course for different translation courses. They admired the systematic way in which the course was designed and taught; the objectives were clear, the tasks was purposeful, the strategies were applicable and the topics were varied.

Finally, results of the study clearly pinpointed that careful planning for the translation classes and systemic training in translation skills could contribute significantly to the improvement of students' ability to translate. Moreover, Students' success in performing the translation tasks correctly enhances their ability to translate and creates more favorable attitudes towards translation courses. On the other hand, the present study and the suggested specific course helped in motivating students to improve their translation skills, but they need more than just one specific course. There should be a holistic and interrelated web of language courses that run along the four years of study in order to achieve remarkable and considerable improvements in translation skills. In this study, because of time limitation, the sample was small. So, for the generalization of these findings and for higher reliability of the results more studies are needed. In general, based the research in translating culture-specific items, students should try to use equivalents as much as possible to give optimal translation, and in those cases which there are not any equivalent for them in the target language, they can convey all aspects of their meaning by translating them literally plus adding some note or create equivalent for them based on the target language word formation processes, or they can make new words in the target language by different means either to use the existing material in the target language in other new ways to increase its term formation processes or to import words from another language to enrich its vocabulary.

IV. CONCLUSION

Since the twentieth century has been called the age of translation, translators, like all professionals, must undergo permanent training since their capacity is not measured in terms of pages, words or hours done, but rather the quality of the output or finished work. To reach that goal the present study tried to shed some light on the strategies that could be used to create and promote such quality through helping students have a chance to recognize these strategies in the classroom to use them later when they become future translators.

Teaching translation is not an easy job as most universities are not accustomed to give systematic specific courses that are based on theories of translation. Teaching translation in classroom, as Delisle (1981) stated is considered an arduous job that mortifies teachers, puts them in a state of despair at times. (p.54) In order to be successful in teaching translation, lecturers need to merge the teaching techniques they may deem best for their students with those of teaching translation. Besides, it is a real problem since one has to teach translation skills, techniques, and doing translation practice within a limited time span so more concentration and attention should be made in the selection of the texts that should be translated and the assignments that have to be done at home. An organized plan of study could help achieve such a goal.

One of the worst things that were noticed before and during designing this specific course was that the majority of students regard translation as a minor subject compared with poetry, the novel, or drama. Since the class does not have textbooks, or even handouts, they assume that there is nothing to study, and all they have to do is to learn vocabulary by heart and just attend and write down whatever translations the lecturer may dictate. This was one of the motives that encouraged the researcher to develop a specific course so as to be a source of motivation and interest to most students. Having students of different levels of knowledge, skills, and abilities required developing a specific course that worked for all of them. It covered their needs by exceeding the training requirements in terms of levels of basic skills and knowledge. Consequently, the researcher made some modifications on the content in order to make it acceptable by a large number of students. The course materials was modified to be appropriate to all of them because if not they will easily lose motivation. In such a case, learning will not occur.

No one can deny that being skillful in translation is a talent: either you have got it or you have not but we must not forget that good learning and teaching can play a vital and significant role in developing students' skills and in creating positive attitudes towards translation. This was evident in the development of students' skills in translating culture-specific items and in doing their assignments actively and accurately. The present study concluded that translation is teachable because it is a craft and consequently teachable as are other crafts.

As far as designing a translation course is concerned, the present study found that it has to be designed in such a way that students who take this course will practice translating as much as possible. It must aim, at least, at developing the student's insight into the nature and significance of translation as such, as a result of the confrontation between the mother tongue and the foreign language while searching for equivalence in meaning and broadening the student's competence in the mother tongue and the foreign language. Students were encouraged to find the solutions of any translation problems themselves through showing them the right strategies that could be used to solve these problems. Students were shown how to apply the new strategies they were taught through translating authentic texts that include cultural topics. In the light of the study findings, it could be concluded that EFL students' performance in translating culture-specific items was acceptable as reflected by their scores on the culture-based translation test (CBTT).

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

It is recommended that to suggest a training program to familiarize university students with translation strategies. More research is needed to investigate students' ability to translate proverbs and figurative language. More research is needed to investigate students' ability to translate literary texts since culture represent a core component in literature.

Finally, it is hoped that the present study provided some insight into the issues surrounding the teaching students in the classroom to be translators. Accordingly, it reached the following recommendations:

1- Teachers of translation in the classroom should encourage the students to frequently use the dictionaries.

2- Students should deal with various topics on culture and religion. This procedure helps the students to have more practice in the different kinds of material and styles.

3- The course should focus on the development of the students' vocabulary more than of grammar, because the former is already a more problematic language component.

4- The course should deal with expressions, phrases and topics of different levels of difficulty according to the students' abilities. There should be clear cut, and agreed-upon standards for designing translation courses, translation activities, translation tests, and even for determining who is the translation instructor.

5- There should be a balance between practice and theory, with very little theoretical guidelines. That is to say, translation theory should be integrated in translation courses in the form of graded activities that are related to the practical translation skills presented in each course.

APPENDIX A. CULTURE-BASED TRANSLATION TEST (CBTT)

Dear Students:

The researcher designed such a test in order to investigate the effectiveness of strategy-based course in developing students' skills in translating culture- specific terms from Arabic into English and vice versa at Al Imam Muhammad bin Saud Islamic University, College of Languages and Translation. The researcher studies the difficulties and problems that the students face during the translation process from English into Arabic and vice versa.

(A)   Personal Information:

Age   : ……………………………………………………………

Sex   : ……………………………………………………………

Level   : ……………………………………………………………

Degree in Last Translation Course: ……………………………………

You are kindly requested to answer the test seriously

(B)   The Test

I. Give the suitable cultural Arabic equivalent for the following expressions and decide on which strategy can be used to translate it accurately

1. As beautiful as a lark……………………………………………

2. To hit two birds with one stone…………………………………..

3. To throw all man's cards……………………………………………

4. Kung Fu……………………………………………………………

5. The white House…………………………………………………...

6. Love virus…………………………………………………………

7. Parkinson's disease………………………………………………..

8. Cream tea…………………………………………………………..

9. Catch 22……………………………………………………………

10. Tilbury……………………………………………………………..

II. Translate the following statements into Arabic and decide on which strategy can be used to translate it accurately:

(1) The one parent child association released its latest booklet which includes all the services it offers to its members.

……
……………………………………………………………

(2) The Lee Marvin palimony case shows that married or unmarried people who live together cannot avoid a shared responsibility.

……
……
…………………………………………

(3) According to the police, car boot sales are notorious places where stolen goods are sold.

……
……………………………………………………………

(4)   In the US, an organization called big brothers and sisters provides mentors for poor under-privileged and high-risk children.

……
……………………………………………………………

(5) Unless I got it from the horse's mouth or had undeniable evidence, I would never say it's a fact that I know.

……
……………………………………………………………

(6) The recently introduced New Tradition Axminster range is already   creating great interest and will be on display at the exhibition.

……
……………………………………………………………

(7) Many love children suffer from psychological problems.

……
……………………………………………………………

(8) The stock market goes under the control of fat cats.

……
……………………………………………………………

(9) His political scandal is a real can of worms. Let's not open that again.

……
……………………………………………………………

(10) A lot of criminals also live in poverty, and I don't hear anyone screaming Shavian imprecations about that.

…………………………………………………………………………………………....…………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………

III.   Give the suitable cultural English equivalent for the following expressions and decide which strategy can be used to translate it accurately

1. قيس وليلى. ....

2. انتفاضة...

3. كافر. ....

4. بيت الله الحرام...

5. ان شاء الله...

6. نعيما- أنعم الله عليك...

7. القِلة...

8. الخشية والخوف من الله...

9. جزاك الله خيرا ....

10. فضل العطاء والسخاء...

(A) Translate the following statements into English and decide on which strategy can be used to translate it accurately:

1.ألقى السيناتور خطابا طنانا رنانا بعد الوليمة

....

2. يحتاج المرء لصبر أيوب لانهاء هذا العمل

....

3. ان هبت رياحك فاغتنمها

....

4. أثلجت الأخبار صدره

....

5. هكذا يصل الاستبداد الى أقصى حدوده, هكذا يصفع العالم على قفاه ممثلا في منظماته التي أنشأها لحماية ومناصرة الاقوياء.

....

6. غالبا ما تلجأ المرأة الى الخلع لانه طريق أسهل. فهي اذا طلبت الطلاق تحتاج الى أن تثبت الضرر الذي أصابها بالقول أو الفعل.

....

7. بعد أربع سنوات من العدوان الصهيوني على غزة وزرف دموع التماسيح على ما يحدث للضعفاء تبارى العرب في عنترية زائفة وتباكوا على شهدائها واعلنوا تعهدهم باعمار غزة ولم يتم اعمار ولم يجرؤا على اتخاذ قرار.

....
....

8. بعد أن استهلك كل الماء لديه كان لابد له من التيمم كي يصلي صلاة العصر.

....

9. لقد اعتكف جارى في المسجد لمدة عشرة أيام في رمضان الماضي.

....

10. عزَّ العبد في عبوديَّته لربِّه ـ عز وجل ـ، وقوَّةَ المُسلم في توكُّله على مولاه،وفلاحَه في إحسانه لصلاته، وحُسن عاقبته في تقواه لرب العالمين، واشنراح صدره وسروره في برِّ الوالدين وصِلة الأرحام والإحسان إلى الخلق.

....
....
....

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Recommendation for Sustaining the In-service Professional Development of Tertiary EFL Teachers

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Abstract—The increasing influence of English as a lingua franca or an international language has brought new trends of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL). But on the way to these new trends some issues have inevitably appeared, and one of them is the continuity of EFL teachers' in-service professional development. This study aimed to investigate the opinions of the tertiary EFL teachers on the multilayered peer coaching model (the MPC Model) that they had employed for their in-service professional development, and make the recommendation of this model for sustaining tertiary EFL teachers' in-service professional development. The information was obtained from the EFL teachers at Guiyang University in China with the help of such instruments as observation, teacher's diary, the researcher's field note, questionnaire and interview, and the data were analyzed in both qualitative and quantitative methods. The results revealed that the tertiary EFL teachers had positive attitudes towards the MPC Model and it could be recommended as one of the effective tools for the tertiary EFL teachers to sustain their in-service professional development.

Index Terms—in-service professional development, tertiary EFL teachers, the multilayered peer coaching model, recommendation

I. INTRODUCTION

English is now used for international and intercultural purposes more extensively. In order to smooth the flow of English language use, to facilitate English language learning, and to reach the requirements of new trends in the field of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL), EFL teachers are expected to update their professional knowledge and competence, and more importantly, to continue this updating through their in-service professional development.

Studies of teachers' professional development have identified the phases that the EFL teachers have to go through in the course of their careers. Tsui (2007) stated that some of the commonly identified phases included: 1) the survival phase, 2) a stabilization phase or a self-doubt phase, 3) an experimentation phase or a reassessment phase, and 4) a serenity phase. In these four different phases, the first and the last were found to be easily realized because they are two extremes of a teacher's career, while the in-between phases are quite dynamic because they may develop into either of the two situations: positive and negative. According to Fessler and Christensen (1992) and Huberman (1993a), if the experience in the survival phase is positive, there comes a stabilization phase; if it is negative, a self-doubt phase may occur. Likewise, in the third phase, if the teachers are highly motivated to try out new ideas, an experimentation phase may happen; if they are disappointed with the outcome, a reassessment phase may jump off. So it is obvious that achieving the positive results of these in-between phases is important and it is closely related to the teachers' in-service professional development which serves as the promoter to update the EFL teachers' professional knowledge and competence with the change of the society and the timely requirements of TEFL.

In-service professional development can be generally defined as the education to help EFL teachers develop their skills in the field of TEFL, and it usually takes place after a teacher begins his or her work responsibilities. Its importance has been discussed by many researchers for a long time, for example, from James (1973), who once stated that it is only through the growth of in-service training that this gulf between advancing knowledge and practice can be bridged, to Widden et al (1996) and Day (1999), who have claimed that the nature of teaching demands teachers to engage in utilizing this knowledge effectively and it needs continuing career-long professional development role of the teacher in changing contexts, then to Wan (2011), who ascertained that continuous professional development that serves

as an ongoing process of education, training, learning and support activities engaged in by teachers alone or with others can enhance their knowledge and skills and enable them to consider their attitudes and approaches to the education of learners, and to improve the quality of learning and teaching. Therefore, EFL teachers throughout the world are greatly encouraged to have their in-service professional development.

China, since its education reform, has also encouraged its tertiary EFL teachers to carry out their professional development to meet its updated requirements of TEFL, such as, the "Syllabus for English Majors of Colleges or Universities" (revised in 2001) and the new "College English Curriculum Requirement" (issued in 2006). Tertiary EFL teachers in China can be generally divided into two groups: EFL teachers for non-English majors and EFL teachers for English majors. The former group focuses on teaching general English skills, namely, listening, speaking, reading, writing, and translating, and in most cases they have much heavier teaching load; the latter group deals with both general English skills teaching and specialized courses delivery such as English linguistics, American and British literature, translation between Chinese and English, culture studies, etc., and most of them have a specific research focus. Since the year of 1998, China has increased its college enrollment, during the 1996-2000 period there was a total enrollment of over 11 million, from 2001 to 2005 the number of university students would be up to 16 million (CERNET, 2001). It is evident that the workload has increasingly been heavier for both groups, which is found to contribute to the difficulties of their in-service professional development.

Besides, the implementation of in-service professional development is also faced with other difficulties. Ono and Ferreira (2010) have pointed out that many models of professional development do not achieve their ambitious learning goals. Other researchers (e.g. Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996; Ball & Cohen, 1999; Collinson & Ono, 2001; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Villegas-Reimers, 2003; Schwille & Dembélé, 2007) found that traditional in-service teacher professional development programs are delivered in the form of workshops, seminars, conferences or courses, which have been criticized as being brief, fragmented, incoherent encounters that are decontextualised and isolated from real classroom situations. And the results in these studies (Zhang & Li, 2003; Liu, 2005; Liu, 2006; Zheng, 2010) showed that Chinese EFL teachers are often trained in a theoretical, academic, or research-oriented way which makes them tend to be passive, and the theory-practice gap has always been criticized by school teachers when commenting on these training programs. In Wen and Ren' survey (2010), by reviewing the characteristics of the literature concerning the tertiary EFL teacher in-service professional development in China from the year of 1999 to 2009, they also found that many problems were linked to such limitations as being isolated from EFL classrooms and neglecting the teachers' demands.

Therefore, this study aimed to investigate the opinions of the tertiary EFL teachers on the multilayered peer coaching model (the MPC Model) that they had employed for their in-service professional development, and recommend this model for sustaining tertiary EFL teachers' in-service professional development. This study provided the answers to the following research questions:

1. Does the MPC Model help to sustain the tertiary EFL teachers' in-service professional development?

2. What are the tertiary EFL teachers' attitudes towards the MPC Model for their in-service professional development?

II. THE MULTILAYERED PEER COACHING MODEL

The MPC Model was developed for tertiary EFL teachers to have their in-service professional development. It refers to the practice of peer coaching within a team teaching context, which can offer teachers more opportunities to support one another in their work. In the TEFL setting, this means that teachers may experience two layers of collaboration. The first layer is team teaching in which four teachers can be involved as a team so that common issues and problems will be discussed and solved by pooling the ideas of the team members. The second layer is peer coaching where two dyads will be formed within the team so that the two peer teachers in each dyad will work together to reflect on current practices, expand, refine, and build new skills, share ideas; teach each other; conduct classroom research; or solve problems in the workplace. The working flowchart of the MPC Model was shown in Figure 1 below.

The MPC Model was developed based on the ADDIE Model, which is one of the most popular Instructional System Design (ISD) models and is characterized by its five generic and easily-followed phases: Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation and Evaluation. The first letter of the five phases forms the acronym "ADDIE". The "Analysis" phase is mainly for investigating the needs, clarifying the instructional problems, obtaining the relevant suggestions, and identifying the learning environment. The "Design" phase deals with learners, learning objectives, assessment instruments, content, lesson planning, and media selection. In the "Development" phase, the instructional designers and developers create and assemble the content assets that are blueprinted in the design phase. The "Implementation" phase offers a procedure for training the learners. The training usually includes the course curriculum, learning outcomes, method of delivery, and testing procedures, etc. In the "Evaluation" phase, two parts are involved: formative evaluation and summative evaluation. Formative evaluation is present in each stage of the ADDIE process. Summative evaluation includes tests designed for domain specific criterion-related referenced items and provides opportunities for feedback from the learners (See Figure 2).
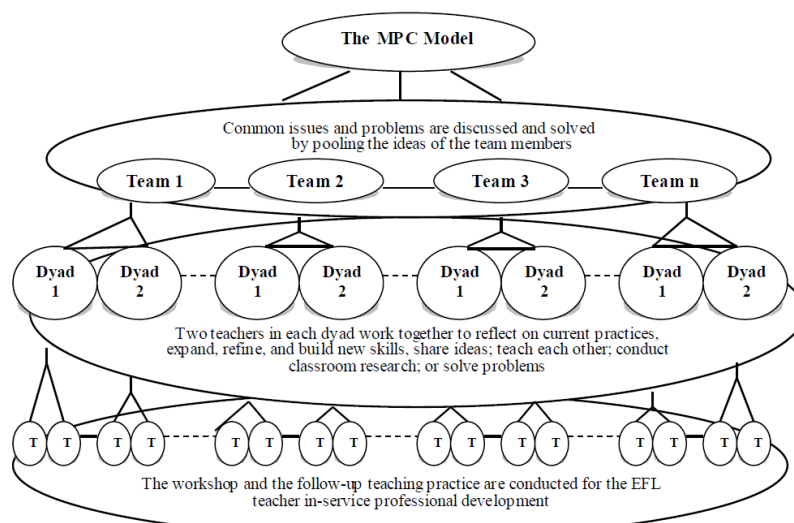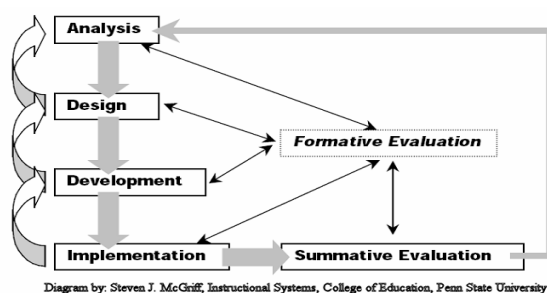
Figure 1. The Working Flowchart of the MPC Model

Figure 2. The ADDIE Model

In developing the MPC Model, the researcher constructed its conceptual framework which was actually the operationalization of the ISD theory that the MPC Model followed in its development. The main ISD theory for the MPC Model was ADDIE, and in order to show the relationship between the phases of the MPC Model and those of ADDIE, the figure "the ADDIE correspondence with the MPC Model" was made. The top part of this figure was the ADDIE's phases, and the rest part was the MPC Model's conceptual framework. The dotted lines and the different shapes showed the match between them. The detail was presented in Figure 3 as follows:
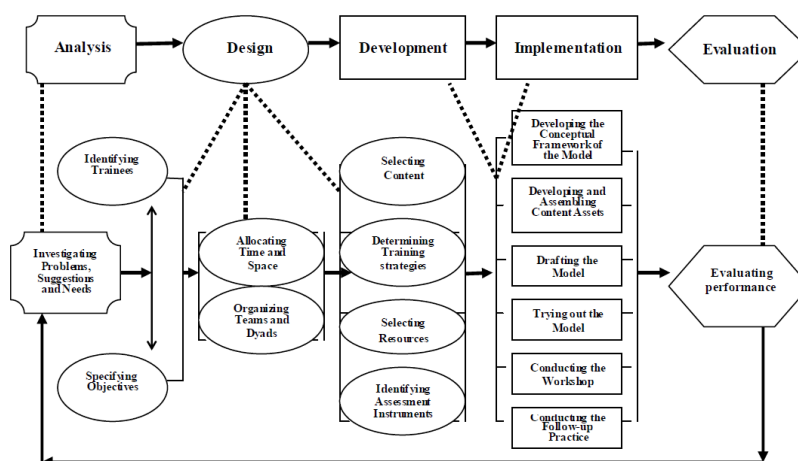

Figure 3. The ADDIE Correspondence of the MPC Model

The MPC Model also had its research procedure including five phases and 15 steps (See Figure 4). Each of the five phases with its own elements displayed the detailed process for developing the MPC Model.

Phase I: Needs Analysis

The purpose of this phase in this study helped the researcher determine to use questionnaire and interview in group for the tertiary EFL teachers' problems and suggestions on their in-service professional development, and obtained their needs of the MPC Model. Three experts from the fields of TEFL and education research checked the questionnaire items and interview questions. Their detailed results were shown in another academic paper by the same authors.

Phase II: Design of the model

In this systematic and specific phase, the researcher firstly identified the trainees, wrote the training objectives and settled the training environment; then selected the training content, specified training methods and media; finally identified assessment instruments. All the steps in this phase were conducted based on the needs analysis in Phase I and with the consultation of the experts as well.

Phase III: Development of the model

In this critical phase, the researcher followed such steps to develop the MPC Model as follows. First, the conceptual framework for EFL teacher multilayered peer coaching training was developed. Second, the content of instruction was developed based on the analysis of needs done in Phase I. Third, the content of the training lessons was evaluated by the experts in the field of TEFL. Fourth, the MPC Model was drafted. Fifth, the MPC Model was tried out. Sixth, the model was finalized. The in-service tertiary EFL teachers' feedback and suggestions were considered. To determine the efficiency of the MPC Model, the tests were designed. The pre-test and the post-test were constructed with their items analysis and improvement.

Phase IV: Implementation of the model

In this practical phase, the researcher investigated the efficiency of the MPC Model by conducting the experiment. First, on the day before the experiment, the 12 teacher participants were pre-tested on their knowledge of both TEFL and the required teaching materials. Second, the teachers were grouped into three teams with two dyads in each based on their teaching duration. Third, the teachers received the training in the 3-day workshop by an external expert and the researcher. The training started with the expert's lecture on the new concept and updated knowledge of TEFL, and then the MPC Model was introduced by the researcher, after that, the teachers practiced the collaborative approach they had just learned. As soon as the workshop was over, the teachers moved on to the follow-up teaching by practicing the multilayered peer coaching in the intact classes for 15 weeks. Fourth, after each lesson, the teachers wrote the teacher's diary to show their procedure and feedback. Meanwhile, the researcher observed the teachers' classroom teaching and cooperation, and kept her field notes after each lesson. Fifth, after the experiment, a post-test was given to the teachers. Sixth, the questionnaires were conducted to find out the students' opinions on the instruction given by the teachers involved in the MPC Model and the teachers' opinions on the MPC Model. Finally, the interview was adopted to obtain the in-depth information about the teachers' attitudes towards the MPC Model.
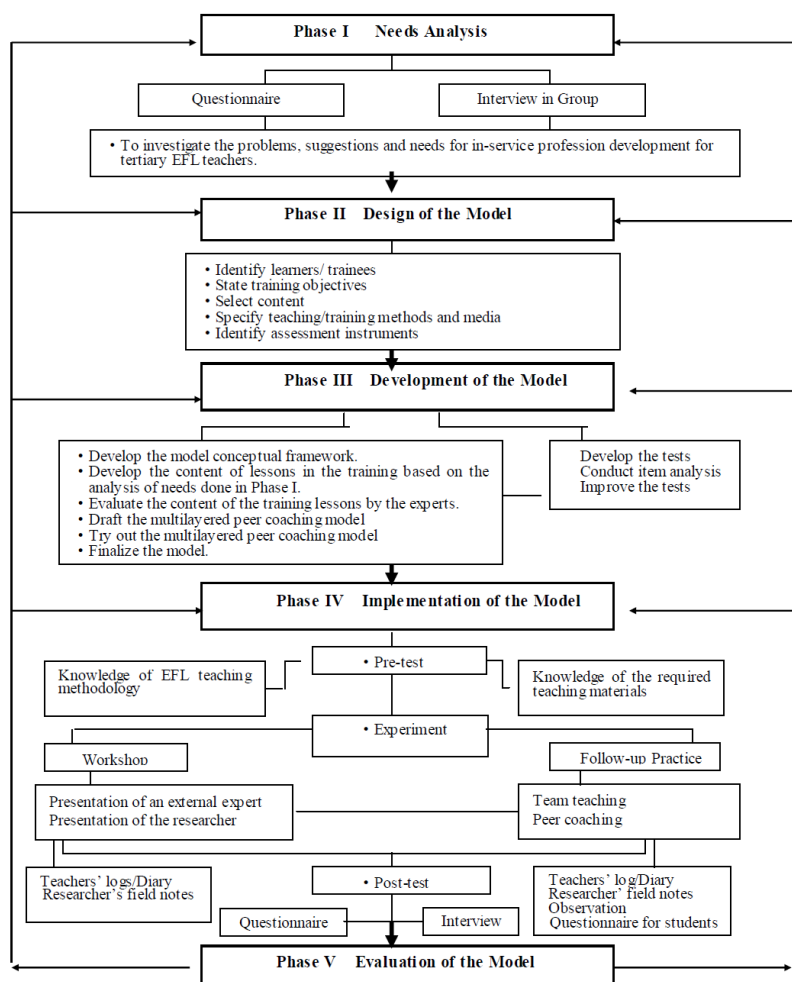

Figure 4. The Research Procedure of the MPC Model

Phase V: Evaluation of the model

In this indispensable phase, the researcher measured the effectiveness of the MPC Model and the teachers' performance in it. Throughout the entire instruction design process, whether within phases, or between phases, or after the implementation, the evaluation was conducted. Starting with investigating the needs for the MPC Model, the evaluation was carried out by determining the design of instruction, observing the training instruction and the practice of this model, investigating the teachers' achievement in their in-service professional development, identifying the teacher's attitudes towards the MPC Model and the students' opinions on the instruction guided by the MPC Model.

To summarize, the MPC Model served as an effective training support tool for tertiary EFL teachers to have or sustain their in-service professional development. Being rooted in the real teaching context and in daily teaching, the MPC Model laid emphasis on the real demands of the trainees. With the multilayered peer coaching practice, the teachers could have their in-service professional development in continuity. The MPC Model helped to realize the goal that where there was teaching, there was the teachers' in-service professional development.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

12 EFL teachers and 105 second-year EFL students from the School of Foreign Languages at Guiyang University in China participated in this study. The teachers teach the course "Comprehensive English" and the students are in the intact classes. The participants were selected on the basis of purposiveness and availability.

B. Instruments

5 instruments were employed for data collection, namely, non-participant observation, teacher's diary, the researcher's field note, a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview.

- The observation checklist was designed in the observation to find out the steps that the teacher participants followed in their teaching procedure in class, and its items were checked by the experts for validity and reliability;

- The teacher's diary was used for the teacher participants to record their teaching and cooperation, and to keep their reflection as well;

- The researcher' field note was for the researcher of this study to write down what she observed in the teacher participants' classroom teaching and after-class cooperation;

- A questionnaire was designed to investigate the teacher participants' opinions on the MPC Model. Three parts were included in this questionnaire. Part I was the participants' personal information. Part II was the statements on the opinions the teacher participants have on the MPC Model. Part III consisted of the open-ended questions about their attitudes towards the MPC Model. 5-point Likert scale was used to design the closed-ended questions according to their level of agreement. Values on the scale were strongly disagree, disagree, uncertain, agree, and strongly agree. Internal consistency of the questionnaires was checked by utilizing 10 respondents for a pilot. The respondents' data were analyzed by the Coefficient of Cronbach's statistical technique with the help of the SPSS, a computerized software for social sciences;

- A semi-structured interview was employed to find more in-depth information about the teacher participants' attitudes towards the MPC Model. Some related questions were offered, which were checked by the experts for validity and reliability.

C. Data Collection

While collecting the data, the researchers observed each teacher participant's classroom teaching for 15 hours (one hour per week) by filling out the observation checklists. Meanwhile, the teacher participants were asked to write the teacher's diary to reflect their classroom teaching and after-class cooperation, in which the procedure of their peer coaching, especially the application of some new strategies by the peer teachers of each dyad before, during, and after the classroom teaching were recorded. Besides, the researcher's field note was done each time when the researchers observed the classroom teaching and the after-class cooperation. Time was given for the researcher to work on it on the spot, and she may also work on it by more description at home. After the teacher participants implemented the MPC Model, all of them responded to the questionnaire with both closed-end and open-ended questions. Finally, the 12 teacher participants were interviewed for their attitudes towards the MPC Model.

D. Data Analysis

1. Quantitative Data Analysis

In terms of the quantitative data from the Likert Questionnaire and the observation checklists, the statistical way was adopted for analyzing the data, exactly, the teachers' responses in the questionnaire were analyzed by the frequencies for the level of their agreements, and the checklists were done by the frequencies for the occurrence of the teaching steps.

2. Qualitative Data Analysis

Regarding the qualitative data from the open-ended questions in the questionnaire, the teacher's diary, the researcher's field note, and interview, the qualitative analysis method, exactly, content analysis, was employed. While

analyzing the data from the open-ended questionnaire, the teacher's diary, and the researcher's field note, the data were already the written texts and then could be directly progressed according to the steps of content analysis. While analyzing the data from the interview, the audio-taped data were firstly transcribed with several times of listening in order to have their reliability, and then the transcribed data followed the other steps of content analysis.

IV. RESULTS

After analyzing the collected data, the researcher tried to relate the results to the research questions in this study. In response to Research Question 1, the results were presented based on the instruments respectively.

A. Results from the Observation

The researchers observed each of the teacher participants in his or her classroom teaching for 15 hours (one hour per week) for the purpose of investigating whether the teachers could go through the teaching procedure completely and smoothly, and what steps were more frequently or less frequently taken in the procedure. It was found that seven steps in the teaching procedure were taken. The results of the observation checklist were shown as follows:

TABLE 1:
THE RESULTS OF OBSERVATION CHECKLIST FOR TEACHING PROCEDURE

| Teacher | Observation Items | | | | | | |
	Preview	Teacher's presentation	Q&A	Discussion	Other activities	Summary	Assignment
T1	15	15	15	12	5	15	15
T2	15	15	15	11	5	15	15
T3	15	15	15	9	6	15	15
T4	15	15	15	10	4	15	15
T5	15	15	15	8	5	15	15
T6	15	15	15	13	6	15	15
T7	15	15	15	11	7	15	15
T8	15	15	15	12	4	15	15
T9	15	15	15	10	5	15	15
T10	15	15	15	8	6	15	15
T11	15	15	15	9	7	15	15
T12	15	15	15	8	5	15	15
Mean	15.00	15.00	15.00	10.08	5.42	15.00	15.00
SD	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.73	0.99	0.00	0.00

Table 1 showed that in the seven steps, such steps as *preview, teacher's presentation, questions and answers, summary,* and *assignment* were completed in each period for 15 weeks with the mean scores of 15.00 and the standard deviation of 0.00. So these five main steps were more frequently used. Regarding the other two steps: *discussion* and *other activities*, the teachers were less frequently used with the mean scores of 10.08 and 5.42 and the standard deviation of 1.73 and 0.99 respectively. For the *discussion*, it was found that the teacher could not do it in each period, and for the *other activities*, the teacher only used them in response to some unworkable activities. Obviously, these seven steps formed a cycle to complete a whole period of classroom teaching. The time allotment for each step was generally accepted and utilized well by the teacher participants. Therefore, the complete and smooth teaching procedure implied the teachers' improvement of teaching ability.

B. Results from the Teacher's Diary

The results from the teacher's diary were presented with two themes: 1) what they did during their daily teaching and cooperation; and 2) how did they feel about their work and their cooperation with the help of MPC Model.

Firstly, it was found that in the classroom teaching, all teachers shared similar main teaching steps with similar time allotment, and laid more emphasis on the interactions. However, they used different teaching aids for the same purpose, and showed their different focuses in each step. In the after-class cooperation, the peer teachers in each dyad had the cooperation mainly concerning four parts: teaching planning, material analyzing, students' problems, and classroom research; the four teachers in each team worked together for such purposes as the problems the peer teachers could not solve and the topics of classroom research. However, the peer teachers in each dyad had their own cooperation focus.

Secondly, the teachers felt: a) the teachers' cooperation in the multilayered layered context guided them to plan their lessons purposively and design teaching activities with the updated professional knowledge. A teacher wrote:

"I finished the teaching plan in the class accordingly, feeling very successful. In this lesson, I paid more attention to making the students grasp the usage of the new words and to their progress in language abilities. While in after-class cooperation, the teaching partner raised these suggestions for the class: first, it is not enough to tell the students that the conjunctions are important for writing. It should be explained with some examples, such as, the contrast of the two passages, and then make the students writing a passage with the conjunctions; second, when the teacher deals with the exercises of translation, some related translation skill should be generalized to the students. In real classroom teaching practice, these suggestions work." (T1)

And b) the cooperation in MPC Model helped them to solve problems both in classroom teaching and classroom research. An example was as follows:

"Further reading is a good opportunity to train the students' critical thinking. But the problem is that the material the textbook offered for further reading in each unit is quite close in the standpoint to the text the students learned. So, in today's cooperation, I raised this question, and together with the others, we have searched more information, and next week we can supply more materials from different angles for the students to do further reading. Our cooperation is really helpful." (T2)

In addition, c) they could be more exposed to the professional knowledge while cooperating with peers and team members, such terms as CLT, TBLT, CALL, etc, were often mentioned in after-class cooperation. Here was one of the examples:

"Language work and text explanation are the essential scenes of this course. It is thus natural to take up most of the course time. Although it is not easy to find a short-cut in this part, a wise selection of exercises which are aimed at checking the students' acquisition is possible. What should be selected for the required exercise has been discussed in the cooperation time, and those selected may have a good conclusion on such language work. TBLT helps us to design the tasks, CLT offers us a approach to the goal, and CALL is what we can use to present our lesson…" (T3)

To conclude, it can be said that after the teachers' cooperation in the MPC Model, they found the advantages of this model, and were willing to sustain their in-service professional development in their daily work.

C.   Results from the Researcher's Field Note

The researcher sat in the classroom and the discussion of the dyads and the teams in turn each week, and found that the teachers' cooperation both in class and after class could be grouped into two parts: things in common and things in difference. The results were showed as follows:

For the things in common, it was found that, a) in classroom teaching, all the teachers in six dyads went though the main five steps smoothly from *preview, teacher's presentation, questions and answers, summary* and *assignment* during the teaching procedure each time, and sometimes carried out the steps *discussion* and *other activities* in between. One of the peer teachers in a dyad who was good at teaching a specific skill gave the class the relevant content, and the other teacher sat to observe him or her. When the peer teachers were in class simultaneously, both of them answered the students' questions sometimes in turn and sometimes at the same time. The class with the appearance of the peer teachers led to more interaction and practice opportunities. b) In the after-class cooperation, the teachers' cooperation was generally practical and pleasant. The cooperation within the peer teachers of a dyad was mainly for the detailed issues on teaching preparation, classroom teaching, and the research on the classroom teaching, and the cooperation within the four teachers of a team was mainly for the problems that a dyad failed to solve, and the discussion for the classroom research.

For the things in difference, it was found that, a) in classroom teaching, each dyad had its own characteristics, the peer teachers had different strategies for their presentation in class, they had their own supplementary materials for students' further study, and they faced different problems from the students. b) In after-class cooperation, each dyad had its own focus on the research related to the classroom teaching. The peer teachers in some dyads could easily agree with each other in their discussion while some other dyads had to negotiate before reaching their agreement. Each dyad designed their teaching tasks based on their understanding of TEFL perspectives and methods.

Therefore, the results revealed that the teachers' cooperation in the MPC Model was improving the teachers' professional knowledge and teaching ability.

In response to Research Question 2, two instruments were employed for data collection, and their results were shown respectively.

D.   Results from the Questionnaire

The investigation was conducted through the questionnaire that was made up of both closed-ended and open-ended questions. Firstly, according to their level of agreement, the teacher participants rated on 5-point Likert scale to show their opinions on the MPC Model for their in-service professional development.

TABLE 2:
THE RESULTS OF TERTIARY EFL TEACHERS' OPINIONS ON THE MPC MODEL

Problems	$\overline{x}$	SD
1. The MPC Model can provide multilayered cooperation among teachers, that is, first within the dyads, and then within the team.	4.92	0.28
2. The MPC Model can put all the heads together so that teachers can quickly deal with the unexpected problems jumping from the real teaching context.	4.92	0.28
3. The MPC Model emphasizes the process of professional development.	4.83	0.39
4. The MPC Model does not function the same as the teaching done by an individual teacher.	4.83	0.39
5. The MPC Model can be used to help new teachers to learn from more experienced colleagues.	4.92	0.29
6. The MPC Model can be used for experienced teachers to work together to understand and implement a new curriculum.	4.83	0.39
7. The MPC Model can reduce the sense of isolation that teachers tend to feel.	4.92	0.28
8. The MPC Model provides opportunities for two teachers to identify teaching problems and think of possible solutions, and then four teachers in the same team can share their opinions on them.	4.92	0.28
9. The MPC Model is useful for updating teachers' professional knowledge and performance.	4.92	0.29
10. The MPC Model is an effective way to promote professional development in a sustainable way.	4.83	0.39
Total	**4.88**	**0.32**

Table 2 showed the responses given by a total of 12 teacher participants. The results were displayed according to the item categories: process, target-group, and product. Items No. 1, 2, 3 and 4 took the MPC Model as the "process". With the mean scores of 4.92, 4.92, 4.83, 4.83 and the standard deviation of 0.28, 0.28, 0.39, 0.39 respectively, the teachers agreed that the MPC Model could provide the teachers with the multilayered cooperation, deal with the unexpected problems from the real teaching context, emphasize the process of professional development, and offer the different teaching process from that done by an individual teacher. Meanwhile, items No. 5, 6 and 7 were intended to the "target-group" including the teachers with the help of the MPC Model. The mean scores (4.92. 4.83, 4.92) and the standard deviation (0.28, 0.39, 0.28) of these items showed that the MPC Model could be used to help new teachers to learn from experienced colleagues, to help experienced teachers to work together for better teaching, and to reduce the teachers' sense of isolation. Furthermore, items No. 8, 9 and 10 referred to the "product" that the MPC Model produced. These item results showed the teachers' agreement with the mean scores of 4.92, 4.92, 4.83 and the standard deviation of 0.28, 0.28, 0.39 that the MPC Model provided opportunities for the peer teachers to identify teaching problems, think of possible solutions, and then for the team teachers to share their opinions; in addition, the MPC Model was useful to update the teachers' professional knowledge and competence, and could sustain the teachers' professional development. Therefore, the teacher participants showed their positive attitudes towards the MPC Model from the results of these closed-end statements in the questionnaire.

Secondly, the open-ended questions in the questionnaire regarding the teachers' opinions on the MPC Model for their in-service professional development were also responded by all of the 12 teacher participants. The results were quite similar to those in closed-ended questions, which illustrated the teachers' positive opinions on the MPC Model.

E.   Results from the Interview

The responses from the 12 teacher participants in the semi-structured interview to investigate their attitudes towards the MPC Model were presented below:

It was found that 10 of these 12 teachers took part in the professional cooperation for the first time, while 2 experienced it in some high schools once before. After implementing the MPC Model, all of them had a clear understanding of the definition of this model and of how to carry it out.

When it came to their opinions on the differences between the MPC Model and the traditional individual teaching, each of them gave their answer, and said the former was tremendously helpful in many aspects. Here was one example:

"…… certainly, there are a lot of differences between these two kinds of teaching models. As for me, I think, maybe, the biggest difference is that the multilayered model focused on the team work, in the team, the teacher, the dyads can exchange ideas, they work together, they can solve problems, they can share teaching methods, and something like that, so I think it is good. For the traditional individual teaching model, we can not say it's bad, but we can see it only depends on one teacher, he only can depend on himself, sometimes, maybe his idea is not, how to say, is not so profound, not good, not so diverse……. " (T4)

They also said that if they had the choice, they would choose the MPC Model for their in-service professional development. One of them gave her reason like this:

"I will choose this model. I think it can encourage our in-service professional development, sometimes when we reach one level, we stop here, we can not expand our ideas, can not expand our teaching methods, but when we use this kind of multilayered peer coaching practice, we work, we cooperate with each other, and the other teachers in your group can bring you new ideas, new teaching methods, so it certainly can enlarge our views, can expand our horizons and it is very helpful, for our professional development." (T5)

The interviewees also gave their responses to the question "Do you think the multilayered peer coaching practice can make your in-service professional development in continuity?" the following was some of their voices:

"……this model is quite useful and helpful in this area, for the professional development, the sustains and enthusiasm are most important ways, how to say, we find this model can be for professional development, to go on to help teachers with their professional development, and if we can train the key purpose that is involved in this model, I think it is definitely useful and helpful to sustain the professional development. " (T6)

"…yes, sure, the multilayered peer coaching model can contribute a lot to the in-service professional development in continuity. … It seems that we hold some seminars by collaboration between the teachers in same university for our career, even between the colleagues. So this model provides more opportunities to discuss, to cooperate with each other in this sense, I'd like to call this model as another style of seminar or conference, very useful for us when we are in service." (T7)

While answering whether the MPC Model could deal efficiently with the problems arising from their classroom, they showed their uniform agreement. As one of them said,

"…Sometimes the problems are so unexpected, when I teach by myself, and I can find nobody to discuss with, sometimes I fail to solve it, and sometimes I solve it long after. But in the multilayered peer coaching model, the peer teachers' help, the team members' help can find the solution quickly or timely. What's more, we find we are strong or confident enough to deal with the situation with a team behind us…" (T7)

The teachers also gave the response to whether the MPC Model contributed to a better understanding between the colleagues, and all of them thought that by working together the teachers had more contact with their colleagues, which

led to their better understanding of each other. Besides, many of them suggested that we should continue the MPC Model after the experimental teaching, and more courses could be involved.

To conclude, it could be said that after the teachers' cooperation in the MPC Model, their professional knowledge and teaching ability were kept improving in their daily work and their in-service professional development were implemented in a sustainable way.

V. DISCUSSION

According to the results presented above, the continuity of the tertiary EFL teachers' in-service professional development and their attitudes towards the MPC Model were discussed.

A. The Continuity of the EFL Teachers' In-service Professional Development in the MPC Model

The results from this study revealed that the problem that the tertiary EFL teachers failed to continue their in-service professional development was solved by applying the MPC Model to their in-service professional development. This happened because the MPC Model was characterized by putting the teachers' in-service professional development into their daily teaching in a cooperative way. The design of the MPC Model was helped theoretically by the constructivist principle "Activity Theory," which was largely based on Vygotsky's work. It theorized that when individuals engage and interact with their environment, production of tools results. These tools are exteriorized forms of mental processes, and as these mental processes are manifested in tools, they become more readily accessible and communicable to other people, thereafter becoming useful for social interaction and this process is known as internalization (Vygotsky, 1978). Learning takes place in social interaction in a specific context which comes internalized by a person (Hedegaard, 1998). Following Vygotskian theory, the teachers began to internalize the processes of their daily cooperation in teaching and research until they became an automatic part of their internal professional development activities. This implied that the MPC Model could help the teachers sustain their in-service professional development.

B. The Advantages that Teachers Recognized to Cooperate for Their In-service Professional Development

Based on the results from this study, the teachers agreed that their cooperation in the MPC Model helped them solve the problems in their in-service professional development. They preferred to work together with the peer teachers or team members in their daily teaching rather than work individually. Their mind seemed to be activated by working with colleagues in the MPC Model, more ideas conjured up frequently and more teaching strategies appeared in classroom teaching, what's more, they felt much more pleasant in the teaching team. This happened because the multilayered peer coaching offered the teachers the environment in which the peer teachers and the team members could work together for their teaching and research. In doing so, the teachers felt much stronger academically and more confident psychologically, which was line with what some other researchers found. Montaya et al (2009) pointed out that in teacher cooperation experience, the members of the group gives each other moral support and confidence, most of the teachers involved feel that they carried out their professional duties with greater feeling of confidence and with the backing of their colleagues. Johnson (1991) also stressed that through cooperation, lecturers satisfy personal needs, obtaining security and psychological support; they satisfy teaching needs, as they receive pedagogic advice; and they satisfy organizational needs on coordinating the students' learning. Dunne and Villani (2007) asserted that through the use of successful cooperative planning and organizational techniques, teams of classroom educators and ESL (English as a Second Language) teachers not only discover how to improve their lesson delivery and differentiate instruction for ELLs (English language Learners), but also offer peer support to each other and engage in formal or informal mentoring and peer coaching arrangements. This implied that the teachers' agreement with the advantages of the multilayered peer coaching was the first step for them to have or sustain in-service professional development by using the MPC Model.

C. Factors Leading to the Teachers' Satisfaction with the MPC Model

From the results of this study, the teachers expressed that by using the MPC Model it was much easier for them to conduct their teaching and learning. This happened because the MPC Model with its striking characteristics of putting peer coaching within a team teaching context facilitated the teachers' in-service professional development, and they could update their professional knowledge and teaching ability in their daily work rather than do it on purpose in a specific program. This was quite the same with some other researchers' work. For example, according to Leavitt (2006), everyone on the team has to be behind every element of the course, while reaching this consensus may take a lot of time and compromise, in the end the extra effort will result in a far more successful intellectual experience. Darling-Hammond and Richardson (2009) reviewed 20 years of research on effective teacher learning and professional development, examining the content, context, and design of high quality professional development. They concluded that teachers learn most effectively and easily when learning is collaborative and collegial, and professional development is intensive and sustained over time. They noted that the most successful framework for this type of professional learning for teachers is professional learning communities.

The teachers also expressed that by using the MPC Model they felt much more comfortable with their teaching and research. This happened because when the peer teachers and team members worked together, they had more contact with each other and had a better understanding of each other than before. Friendship made in their cooperation could

encourage their learning interest, and the products or outcomes from their cooperative teaching and research could motivate their professional development as well. This was just consistent with some previous studies. Dove and Honigsfeld (2010) pointed out that when teachers engage in collaborative practices, they experience a reduction in isolation, enjoy more occasions to share their expertise, and appreciate the opportunity to shape the way the ESL program operates in their schools. This implied that the teachers in such a context were willing to continue their in-service professional development.

VI. Conclusion

This study has been conducted to investigate the opinions of the tertiary EFL teachers on the MPC Model for their in-service professional development, and make the recommendation of this model for sustaining tertiary EFL teachers' in-service professional development. The results from this study have contributed to the field of research on EFL teachers' professional development. It was found that the MPC Model could help the teachers sustain their in-service professional development and the teachers had positive attitudes towards the MPC Model for their in-service professional development. Furthermore, further research can be conducted to help tertiary EFL teachers focus on the classroom research so that their classroom teaching can be guided by the relevant updated TEFL theories and principles. In doing so, their in-service professional development will be continued.

Acknowledgment

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Materiality, New Economics and Dynamics in Controlled Cultural Writing: A Derridean Exploration

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Abstract—**Advanced information technologies have triggered a return to materialism with a focus on rapid re/production of cultural resources in multimedia applications. Machine-enabled translation has emerged as one possible solution to achieving the goal of massive re/production and transmission of cultural materials in diverse languages for international cross-cultural communication on the web. In light of the need of improving machine translation (MT) performance, controlled cultural writing (CCW) is here proposed as an alternative to general language writing. CCW refigures the format and re-presents the utterances of cultural texts emphasizing material presence of factual information for easy machine rendition. In addition to its materialistic feature, CCW undergoes a dramatic modification through paraphrase so that its meaning or thematic message is far from matching the original one. This dynamic feature is justified by the Derridean concepts of *dissemination* and *difference*. One more feature of CCW is its function of new economics resulting from its economical way of reproducing cultural information through multilingual MT application. Drawing on the controlled writings of Chinese folk texts as a case study, this paper explores the three attributes of CCW by using Derridean deconstruction concepts as the theoretical framework.**

Index Terms—**CCW, MT application, new economics, materiality, dynamics, Derridean deconstruction concepts**

I. INTRODUCTION

The western industrial revolution transformed the way of producing art and stimulated the turn to cultural materialism. The high/minority culture of literature, music, and art, created by a small group of literary figures and artists, gave way to the massive/majority culture reproduced by the machine (Williams 1958/1982). Today, advanced information technologies trigger a return to cultural materialism through the re/production of cultural sources in multimedia applications. One of the information technologies is online machine translation (MT) tool that helps render the cultural information into multiple languages within a short time. However, the semantic clarity, grammatical accuracy and pragmatic appropriateness of the MT output needs to be improved by controlling the source text. For this reason, controlled cultural writing (CCW) is proposed to improve the MT performance. CL refigures the format and re-presents cultural experiences emphasizing their material presence for easy machine rendition. Removal of local traits, appealing touch, aesthetic sense, along with the suppression of exotic aura and genuine/bodily experiences in CL writing, supports Derrida's (1973, 1976, 1978, 1981, 1982) concepts of disrupted, de-centered writing.

In addition, CCW has shown a new economics since it leads to cultural re/production and massive consumption on the web through the multilingual MT application in a cost-effective way. Finally, CCW has to paraphrase all the cultural references so it loses its origin and authenticity in the re/de-presentations. This point concurs with the Derridean concepts of *dissemination* and *difference*. Above all, CCW reveals the features of materiality, new economics and dynamics. Drawing on Taiwan's controlled writings of Chinese folk texts as a case study, this paper explores the three attributes of CCW by using Derridean deconstruction concepts as the theoretical framework. For investigation, three research questions are raised as follows.

1) How does CCW present the materialistic feature using cultural references as examples?
2) How does CCW account for a new economics of cultural re-production and consumption on the web?
3) How does CCW take on the significance of disseminative/diffuse meanings in its textual creation and multilingual MT application?

In seeking answers to these questions, this paper tries to testify to the materiality, production economics, and disseminative meanings of CCW that is designed for effective MT application. The economic, organic, dynamic, unstable, incomplete re/de-presentations of CCW would be discussed within the theoretical framework of Derridean notions of *de-authorization*, *dissemination* and *difference*.

II. CONTROLLED LANGUAGE AND MACHINE TRANSLATION

Before a discussion on the materiality and new economics of CCW, there is a need to introduce controlled language (CL) and machine translation. CL can be viewed as an artificial language because it restricts its range in vocabulary and

sentence structure.[1] The words with multiple meanings and complicated sentence structures are avoided and the sentence length is averagely less than 25 words. Ideally, CL follows the rule of "one word, one meaning" and "one sentence, one idea". More importantly, semantically unclear expressions such as idioms, slang and cultural references should be replaced with common, easily-understood words. Thus, CCW is suitable for the MT system to create multilingual translations.

With regard to the MT system, the Chinese-to-English rendition by the statistics-based MT system, e.g., Google Translate (developed by Google Company), is generally better than that created by the traditional rule-based MT system, e.g., TransWhiz (developed by Taiwan's Otek Company),[2] in terms of semantic clarity and grammatical accuracy. In this paper, Google Translate is used to create all multilingual translations. However, whatever MT tools are, the shorter the source text is, the better MT output is created. Furthermore, it is found that the simpler lexicon and syntax of the source text, the more comprehensible of the MT output. In other words, when linguistic signs or segments embody clear and definite meanings, they are easier to be parsed, transferred and rendered by the MT system.[3] However, we must notice that the MT performance varies as different presentations are used in the CCW. Furthermore, the expanding size of the MT corpuses affects the quality of the MT output.

III.   DERRIDEAN DECONSTRUCTION CONCEPTS

Since this paper used Derridean concepts as the theoretical framework to support analytical arguments with, some basic concepts of Derrida's theory would be introduced in this section. Derrida's arguments aim to challenge the concept of origin or the so-called logos and truth. Once when reality is linguistically formulated through words, its meaning becomes indecisive and de-centered. From Derrida's perspective, meaning is not something pre-existing in the mind that we can fetch and express it out. This notion opposes the neo-classical metaphysical concepts that meanings of words/language are derived from deep grammar (Chomsky) or social schema (Wittgenstein) or others. Derrida saw these analytical viewpoints as too narrow and self-centered. Derrida (1976) devalued structuralism as a devoted commitment to an unproblematic ontology that adheres to the "self-deceptive assumption of Western reason" and to "the original source of reality [that] could be recovered in its full integrity" (qtd. in Boyne, 1990, p. 106). For Derrida, an understanding of a word depends on other words or socio-cultural conventions, not on the meaning of the word *per se*. Meaning in a text/writing results from the reader's interpreting, so it is shifting and individual. This point outlines Derrida's concept of *différance*.

The French word *différance* means both *defer a*nd *differ*, carrying the connotation of breaching in writing. It suggests that each piece of writing creates some rupture or separation from external reality because language cannot fully present the author's interpretation of reality and thinking. Furthermore, writing records trace and this trace cannot lead back to the origin. As Derrida (1973) has put it, "Trace, as memory, is not pure breaching that might be re-appropriated at any time as simple presence. It is rather the ungraspable and indivisible difference between breaches" (p. 150). Overtly there is no return to an origin and only the recurring circulation of copies with some difference from the origin. Derrida challenged western rationality/reason that was used to seek one-to-one correspondence between signifier and signified. For Derrida, this correspondence was impossible because it had been totally disrupted. Similarly, the present research emphasizes that there is no exact match between CCW and GCW. Each CCW records the previous cultural traces, but the traces through lexical, syntactic and contextual adaptations cannot lead us back to the origin.

Simply put, Derrida's views revolve around *breaching* and *dissemination of meaning* in writing. Derrida agreed that the state of language was dissemination, a state of unfulfilled meanings within the absence of all signified (qtd. in Scott, 2002). The creation of multiple meanings depends on the reader's interpretations. As Scott looked at this deconstruction symptom of de-centralization, the removal of the fixed signified and the abolishment of the subjectivity of the author/writer released the dynamic energy of language and unleashes its creativity. Today, in the technological world, faithful reference to the origin is impossible in the post/Derridean sense. All cultural products, which come up under massive reproduction with the help of various multimedia and information technologies, have demonstrated some difference from the original ones. This case holds true with CCW as it is open to varied ways of adaptation and/or control, and thus gives its cultural presentation diverse forms.

IV.   MATERIALITY OF CCW

In response to the first research question, analysis of CCW leads to a finding that its cultural presentation was heavily materialistic because it used objective, factual discourses, not subjective, metaphorical ones. If creative writing emphasizes aesthetic appreciation through the use of some rhetorical devices, CCW focuses on effective communication relying on clear, plain wording and informative presentations. CCW and its machine translation send readers to a remote place where the original emotional or bodily experiences cannot be felt and where only cultural facts can be acquired. In CCW, the distance from the local culture is inevitably created because the primitive, exotic and folk elements that create an aesthetic taste and emotional touch must be removed. All the narratives or utterances that can evoke the readers' imagination, aspiration, inspiration, desire and curiosity must be suppressed as they hinder the appropriate rendition of the machine. The following examples, extracted from some cultural texts of online *Encyclopedia* of *Taiwan* and adapted by the author, may illustrate the materiality feature of CCW. ST means the source

text.

Ex. 1 Extracted from "Ku hao-ming" [lit: Crying for good life] (Xin, 2009)

ST: 新娘哭泣是表示對娘家一種依依不捨的情懷。

[lit: Bride crying is presenting to her natal family a kind of emotional attachment]

CCW: 新娘會哭泣因為她不願意離開她自己的家。

[lit: Bride will cry because she does not want leave her own family.]

MT: The bride will cry because she does not want to leave her own home.

After removing the metaphorical description "emotional attachment", Google Translate produced an understandable translation. Another example is given below.

Ex. 2 Extracted from "Ku hao-ming" [lit: Crying for good life] (Xin, 2009)

ST: 據說新娘哭得越大聲，未來的生活也就越幸福，並且也越旺娘家方面的運勢。

[lit: It is said bride cries louder, the future life would be happier, and also more prosper her natal family.]

CCW: 臺灣人相信：當新娘哭得越大聲，她的生活會是更幸福，且她的娘家也會變得更幸運。

[lit: Taiwanese believe: when bride cries louder, her life would be happier, and her natal family would become luckier.]

MT: Taiwanese believe: When the bride cried louder, her life will be happier, and her family will become even more fortunate.

In the example above, the original audio metaphor, "the loud crying that prospers her own family" was adapted with a common account "her own family would become more fortunate" in the CCW. In short, all articulations were converted to factual reporting or explanatory discourses that presented referential meanings, not connotative meanings. CCW became heavily materialistic, characterized by simplified narratives and substantial, factual information. Its semantic clarity and pragmatic appropriateness led to good-quality, understandable MT outputs.

V. ECONOMICS OF CULTURAL PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION

In response to the second research question, CCW and online MT application have demonstrated a new economics of cultural production and consumption on the web. CCW helped improve the performance of multilingual machine translations, and the online cultural re-production allowed for global information exchange across the borders of different countries. This relationship between massive cultural re/production and consumption can be explored from the post/Derridean or post/deconstruction perspective.

As opposed to Derrida, Frankfurt school associates, such as Adorno (1991, 1994) and Adorno & Horkheimer (1997), condemned the technological forces for destroying noble, unique attributes of arts and cultural goods. However, Derrida held a view that because mass-produced cultural goods were secularized and commercialized so that the majority of people could afford it. In this paper, Shih argued that although de-individualization led to the loss of aura and origin, it has led the text/works into a new zone where more people could enjoy, approach and know it. When a controlled cultural text is popularized through MT-driven repetitive production, it benefits many people who can access and acquire the cultural information in their native languages.

The cultural re-production resulting from CCW and MT applications can be viewed as liberating culture from the minority group's privileged possession and enjoyment (monopolization). Examining the CCW from the post/Derridean or anti-Adorno perspective, we can argue that CCW has enlarged its scope of service and contributes to the realization of the ideal of cultural humanism without discrimination against non-privileged English audiences. In spite of the negative accusations of the secularization and de-individualization of cultural texts, CCW and online MT application have provided international audiences with an easy, convenient access to cultural information on the web.

Actually, as massive cultural production is criticized as "a business enterprise operated for profit" (Adorno, 1984, p. 26), we cannot overlook that transforming art and culture from the indispensable image to a commodity for free trade is an irresistible trend under the mantle of globalization. Out of the need of reducing international conflicts and increasing the understanding of other cultures, a new economics has been formed and more people are eager to enjoy all culture goods either domestically or abroad. This phenomenon demonstrates a mixture of high and low art/cultures. The conventional, hierarchical from of cultural economics is declining because its enclosed economic system does not consider the needs of the powerless and marginalized groups. Rather, when CCW is offered on the web, Google Translate immediately translates it into 66 languages, and the multiple MT outputs are readable and comprehensible to native target language audiences. When the goal of massive consumption of cultural resources is fulfilled, CCW has successfully justified the function of the new economics based on the effective MT application.

VI. DISSEMINATIVE/DIFFUSING MEANINGS

In response to the third research question, CCW has taken on some significance of disseminative and diffusing meanings from the perspective of Derridean concepts. The absence of fixed meaning and changing styles of presentation can be examined by using some examples retrieved from controlled cultural texts. It is noted that to improve MT performance, the editors/writers of CCW cannot preserve original primitive idioms and metaphorical expressions. The idiomatic expression of "Chuang mu" [lit: Bed Mother], for example, must be adapted as "Chuang

nushen" [lit: Bed Goddess], and then the original image of merciful, care-taking mother was lost. Although Goddess can bless the sleeping babies, she might not be as kind and gentle as a mother. Furthermore, when the cultural reference "Ming hun" [lit: ghost marriage] was edited as "Jingshen hunyin" [lit: spiritual marriage] for the western audience, the original meaning of "marrying a dead girl" was not clearly re-presented, not to mention its hidden socio-cultural implications.[4] Adaptation incurs some breaching and disruption, concurring with Derrida's anti-Totalitarianism notion that there is often a gap between true meaning and verbal re-presentation.

The writers of CCW play a crucial role in communicating the cultural message to international audiences, and different versions of CCW lead to different MT outputs. Regarding the cultural reference "Dailu ji" [lit: leading-way chicken], the MT of the controlled expression, "Yīduì jī yǐ dàigěi xīnhūn fūfù xìngfú" [lit: a pair of chicken to bring the newly-wed couple happiness] is *One pair of chicken to bring the newlyweds happiness*, but the MT of another controlled expression, "Yīduì jī yònglái qìngzhù yīgè xīnjiā de chénglì zài jiéhūn zhīhòu" [lit: a pair of chicken used to celebrate a new home's establishment after marriage] is *One pair of chicken used to celebrate the establishment of a new home after marriage.* The former CCW suggests that the pair of chicken is a gift for wedding happiness, and the latter, a symbol of building a new family after marriage. The two different ways of presenting the same reference in CCW, due to the editors/writers' different interpretations, create different MT outputs and convey different messages. One more example is given below.

Ex. 3 Extracted from "Huan du" [lit: Changing the belly] (Wei, 2009)

ST: 人們認爲吃豬肚即可以換肚。[lit: People think eating pig belly just can change belly.]

CCW 1: 當已婚婦女吃豬肚，他們很容易地懷孕。豬肚子是象徵著生育。

[lit: When married women eat pig belly, they are very likely pregnant. Pig belly is a symbol of birth.]

MT1: When married women eat pig stomach, they easily become pregnant. Pig stomach is a symbol of fertility.

CCW 2: 人們認爲假如已婚婦女吃了豬肚，她們可以懷孕。這是一種吉祥的象徵。

[lit: People thought that if married women eat pig belly, they may be pregnant. This is a symbol of good luck.]

MT 2: People think that if married women eat tripe, they may be pregnant. This is a symbol of good fortune.

In the example above, CCW1/MT1 emphasizes the cause-effect relationship between eating pig belly and pregnancy. In contrast, CCW2/MT2 tries to send a message that eating pig belly helps married women to be pregnant so that it is viewed as an emblem of good luck. We also note that the same CCW translated by Good Translate in 2012 and in 2013 are slightly different. As the size and corpus of Google Translate in 2013 has changed, its MT output surely shows some differences. One example is presented below.

Ex. 4 Extracted from "Zha Handanye" [lit: Bombing Lord Handan] (Wu, 2009)

CCW: Bombing Lord Handan 是一個習俗，在元宵節，在臺東。漢人相信：寒單爺是一位相當重要的神祇，在台東地區。根據一傳說，寒單爺是害怕冷天氣。因此，當他正是在出巡，一些信徒點燃鞭炮爲他驅寒。他將會出巡，長達兩天，在每年元宵節。這是一個重要活動，在台東。

MT1: Bombing Lord Handan is a custom in the Lantern Festival in Taitung. Han Chinese believe: Han Dan is a very important deity in the Taitung area. According to a legend, the Han Dan is afraid of cold weather. Therefore, when he is in the parade, some believers lit firecrackers for him to fend off the cold. He will be touring up to two days, in the annual Lantern Festival. This is an important activity in Taitung. (created in 2012)

MT2: Bombing Lord Handan is a custom in the Lantern Festival in Taitung. Han Chinese believe: Han Dan is a very important deity in the Taitung area. According to a legend, the Han Dan is afraid of cold weather. Therefore, when he is in parade, some believers lit firecrackers for him to fend off the cold. He will be on parade, up to two days, in the annual Lantern Festival. This is an important activity in Taitung. (created in 2013)

The marked portions indicate some differences in the English machine translations between 2012 and 2013. This variation denotes that the MT system does not have a steady performance because the statistical result of the most frequent occurrence for each segment is different at different times and then the stringing up of the segments together create different translations. MT application suggests that viewed from the theoretical perspective of Derridean concepts, the machine–created translation can be permanently deferred and different as its corpus size and contents undergo constant changes.

In short, different CCW writers present the same cultural reference or message with different syntax, wording and expressions depending on their interpretations. The same CCW probably creates different English machine translations at different times. The loss of control in translation can be analogous to Derrida's (1973) argument that language is "the structure peculiar to language alone, which allows it to function entirely by itself when its intention is cut off from intuition…." (p. 92). CCW, once submitted to the MT system, only allows it to function by itself. In this respect, the editor/writer's intention in CCW can only be retained or/and represented in the MT output at one moment, but not at another. The writer's intention in CCW is tentatively traceable, and the meaning is only tentatively fixed.

VII. Concluding Remarks

This paper identifies a changing scenario in culture re-production and consumption using CCW and MT application as a case study. CCW refigures the format and re-presents the utterances of cultural texts to emphasize the material presence of factual information for easy machine rendition, fully supporting Derrida's disrupted, de-centered approach

to writing. CCW suggests economical materialism by reducing idiomatic or metaphorical presentations to referential meanings for effective MT application. Production economics, textual materiality and disseminative meanings in CCW denote a need to re-examine intercultural communication from the Derridean perspective under the push of globalization.

One might well ask if CCW for MT-driven intercultural communication is a blessing or a curse. From the functional point of view, improved MT quality through CCW increases an exchange of cultural information across borders of countries. Secularized and simplified cultural writing fits multilingual machine translations and thus provides an easy, convenient access to many international readers. However, CCW is simultaneously accused of creating some alienation from the cultural origin, and its MT application distorts, to some extents, original meanings at the cost of re/de-presentation. Thus, a paradox stays with CCW--destroying the source culture at one place, but rejuvenating it in a new form/language at other places.

Notes

1. To create multilingual translations of product instructions and user's manuals, controlled English (CE) has been used in western large-scale companies and the localization industry for business profits.

2. The translation through the application of a statistics/corpus-based MT system is more natural and more comprehensible. The rule-based MT system creates a translation through three phases such as analysis, transfer and generation, and its output tends to be a word-for-word translation (Shih, 2006). In contrast, the statistics/corpus-based MT system considers various candidate translations and selects the statistically most likely option for the translation (Coffey, n.d.).

3. The MT tool has no common sense to judge the meaning of words based on the context and has no power to create a new translation out of nothing, so the use of common words that have been saved in the corpus of an MT system tends to create a good-quality machine translation.

4. It is noted that in ancient Taiwan, a dead girl's memorial tablet could not be put in her own family's shrine, so her parents had to find a man to marry her so that her memorial tablet could be kept in her husband's family shrine. This cultural practice might be ridiculed by people outside of Taiwan, and thereby the original presentation is adapted.

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The Current Practices of Teaching Grammar in CLT at Secondary School Level in Bangladesh: Problems and Probable Solutions

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Abstract—Experience of teaching English in Bangladesh demonstrates that grammar is the least interesting learning item in ESOL classes. In other words, students often feel uninterested and bored with lectures dealing with grammar. Consequently, learners of English remain quite weak in grammar; they cannot use appropriate structures of grammar neither in spoken nor in written English even though they have completed English language programs at various levels of educational institutions. Besides, huge number of students fails in different public exams for their lack of knowledge in English grammar. Besides, learners in Communicative Language Teaching or CLT chiefly aims at achieving communicative competence, and seem to bypass grammatical competence as noticed in the context of Bangladeshi learners. But, theoretically grammatical competence or the practice of grammar is not enemy of achieving communicative competence other than it facilitates the goal of CLT or communicative competence. This situation necessitates thinking over the matter in a different analytical way so that some dynamic and interesting ways of instructing grammar can be found out. The current papers makes an effort to investigate the performance of learners in mastering grammatical competence and the reasons of their failure in developing this linguistic skill of accuracy. The study also tries to find out some probable solutions to improve the current level of learners in grammar.

Index Terms—secondary level, CLT, grammar

I. INTRODUCTION:

To all Methodists, learning or mastering a language means a balance combination of both accuracy and fluency; linguistic as well as communicative competence. Pioneer of CLT don't differ with this view. What is different to their new method is the technique of teaching the rules of grammar, but they acknowledge the significance or role of grammar and emphasis on developing this skill. In spite of that, the practice of teaching and learning grammar in CLT in Bangladesh seems to be quite nominal or ignoble. Students' mind-numbing attitude towards grammar, failure of huge number of students in achieving the expected skill in grammar even after passing secondary and higher secondary levels are the vivid evidence of that bitter reality (Ahmed,2012). This lacking also proves that the application of the principles of CLT at secondary level in Bangladesh is not up to the mark. Because principles of CLT inevitably involve and acknowledge the role of grammar and if a teacher works according to those principles, students are supposed to be introduced, interested and skilled in grammatical competence. However, this study tries to conduct an evaluation of the practical practices of grammar particularly in teaching English at secondary level in Bangladesh by using CLT method.

II. METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

To attain the research goals, this study basically uses secondary sources of data. The proposed study emphasizes on the analysis of the studies conducted on the practices of CLT at secondary schools located in Sylhet division particularly. With regards to its conceptual framework, the study views how teaching and learning of English are actually happening in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) classroom in Bangladesh. The secondary sources of data comprise the individual research findings, and publications, also conducted in wide area of CLT in Bangladesh as well as in global context.

A Brief Historical Background of ELT in Bangladesh

In Pakistan period English was taught and used as a second language in Bangladesh (previous East Pakistan). After Bangladesh got independence from Pakistan in 1971, English termed from second language to foreign language. In Pakistan period people were to use English for keeping officially record mainly, but after Bangladesh got independence there was no more mandatory official use of English. In recent time here restarted a huge growth of use of English in Bangladesh for communication e. g many national and international business organizations, educational institutions use English for all their internal as well as external communication and instruction. Either it is in work or education, English is a common means of, official and unofficial dealings. Here rises the need of changing strategy of ELT, because the purpose of using English has now been changed. Linguists found that the people who have already learned English to pass academic examination are not able to use English communicatively, but the first goal of learning English is now communication. Hence, this demand of situation or communicative need of English compelled the

educational authority of Bangladesh (e. g ministry of education, NCTB) change the strategy and methodology of ELT in Bangladesh. Thus, with the begging of new millennium Bangladesh launched new strategy or method in this arena by introducing CLT.

A sketch of ELT Institutions and methodologies

There are both public as well private institutions, involved in teaching English in Bangladesh from primary to higher level. Public institutions are more backdated particularly which are located in rural area. The students of those institutions study English aiming at passing the examination other than achieving linguistic competence. Whereas, private institutes are more advanced and updated in case of dynamism in teaching English. Their students have better perspectives in case of higher study and work in home as well as abroad. Nonetheless, along with these bodies of education there are also private coaching centers that have individual methods to English. These institutes also play remarkable roles in the field enhancing teaching and learning English.

Dimensions at the education system in Bangladesh

Basically the education system of Bangladesh is divided in to two dimensions i.e. general, and Madrasah. General education has three types; general education, technical-vocational education, and professional education. On the other hand, Madrasah education also has two dimensions i.e. alia madrasah and kawmi madrasah.

Different levels of education in Bangladesh

There are different levels in the educational structure of Bangladesh. To better understand the position of the students of secondary level who are the subject of this paper, it will be helpful to have a brief idea about those levels.

Primary

Primary schools of general dimension (ran by government) usually take the responsibility of teaching students, aged from six to eleven. The largest portion of learners of primary level is involved in this dimension. English is a mandatory discipline at this level. But students' performance in English is not up to the mark.

Secondary level

Secondary level of education in Bangladesh is also divided into different dimensions e. g school, alia madrasah, kawmi madrasah and so on. Kawmi madrasahs are totally apart from the knowledge and implantation of new methodologies of teaching English. These institutions still follow some grammar based teaching materials or books to teach English language. They teach English only for six to seven years from class I to VII or VIII. And, this is quite nominal as well. They authority of kawmi madrasahs are not conscious enough about the dynamism of teaching. Consequently the learners of kawmi madrasahs do not have any facility to practice CLT or learn English in modern and effective ways. Alia madrasahs' English curriculum share similarities with school's curriculum which is based on communicative language teaching method. But CLT is not effectively implemented here in alia madrasah too. The causes of failure are almost similar to school. It is therefore expected that the findings and recommendation of this study on school will also be similarly useful and implacable in case of madrasah why it does not necessitate carrying out a separate investigation or studying on alia madrasah. Nevertheless, school still arranges the education of majority of the students of the country. There are two types of school based on management e.g. public or government and private. Likewise, government primary schools, secondary government school are unable to ensure quality education particularly teaching English by arranging sufficient modern teaching equipment. Many of the schools do not adequate number of teacher. Sometimes a single teacher has to teach two to three hundred students at the same time in a class room. Consequently, it becomes quite impossible for the teacher to nurse all the students of the class. On the other hand private schools are performing a bit better in this case. Some schools divide their students in to sections of 20 to 50 students. However, the syllabus of English for both public and private school is same and based on the formula of CLT and centrally designed and placed by NCTB. All the schools either private or public must follow that syllabus.

A typical class room of Bangladeshi secondary school, where hundreds of students learn with a single teacher at a time.

Higher secondary

At this stage, both school and madrasah students are enrolled for two years of formal education after secondary level of five years. There are colleges as well as Alim madrasahs which are responsible to run higher secondary education. English is also here a mandatory and one of the most important disciplines which is a challenge for the students to pass this level or get entrance into higher level of education

Higher level

At higher level of education Bangladesh has universities and colleges. Universities are of two types private and public. Public universities follow both Bengali as well as English as the medium of instruction, but private universities use English as the only medium of instruction.

Public school vs. private school

It is already mentioned that in the case of every level of education in Bangladesh; primary, secondary, higher secondary, as well as higher level, there are two types of management private and public. Private schools are basically based on city. Here it is important to note that the performance of learners varies from public to private. Though the number of private schools is relatively very few but they are more conscious of dynamism than government institutions in terms of teaching and running their institutions. Though there are limitations in private schools in terms fees, and arrangement of qualified teachers paying sufficient salary, but these schools are rapidly growing and getting popularity. Whereas, government ran schools noticeably the primary schools of city are getting totally ignored particularly by the conscious parents. These schools are now mainly working for the children of labor and lower class society. Consequently, there is no remarkable step or plan to think about improvement of quality of these schools. The learners of these schools are ignoble as their parents in the society. On the other hand the elite have no concern to think over this matter as their children are privileged at highly paid private schools. However, the following diagram shows how private secondary schools are growing in Bangladesh.
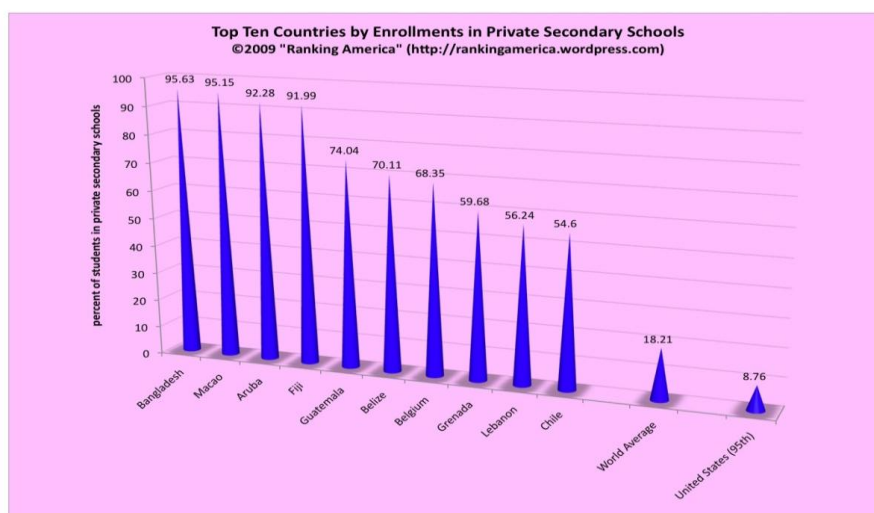
Data from UNESCO
http://portal.unesco.org/culture/en/ev.php-URL_ID=35396RL_DO=DO_TOPICRL_SECTION=201.html

Rural school vs. city school

There are also vivid differences between the city schools and village schools in terms of quality of teaching, management, teaching equipments and other facilities. Most common crisis of the schools located in rural area is the crisis of qualified teachers. So far the limited number of comparatively qualified teachers the country has, is not interested to stay in village, because of the scarcity of the financial and other personal benefits. It is true that the teachers are more neglected in terms of salary and other basic facility. This is one of the major problems of the whole education sector of Bangladesh. However, village are not only neglected from the nursing of qualified teachers but they are also deprived from the facilities of modern teaching materials and equipments like computer, access to internet, multimedia projectors etc. Many of village schools even do not have their elements like building, chair, table etc. One common reason of this crisis is the lack of awareness of the managerial committees of those schools, because majority of members of the managing committees of village schools are uneducated and therefore unable to arrange modern and sufficient facilities for their schools. Government also cannot pay any satisfactory extra concern for those neglected institutions. On the contrary, students of city are enjoying more these modern facilities than village students, why they are closer to success of learning particularly English with the help of up to date and dynamic teaching materials.

Introducing CLT at secondary level in Bangladesh

From British colonial period to the year of 2000, English had been learned and taught in Bangladesh by GTM. Turning from GTM to CLT was indeed a gradual process. There have been number recommendations from commissions and taskforces which from its background of dynamism or changes in policy and methods in teaching English. Finally, in 2001, it was decided to teach English at all levels of education in Bangladesh, directly by communicative language teaching method. Hence, secondary level also got its own curriculum based on the concept of communicative language teaching.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Communicative Language Teaching or CLT began its journey with the slogan of emphasizing on the learners' communicative competence as opposed to linguistic competence. It claims to be something more than grammatical teaching. In other words, CLT is the method that is concerned with learners' needs of communication. Its teaching techniques reflect the choice of language content and materials, with emphasis on role play, pair and group work etc. The method suggests that the learners need to understand as well as express rather than merely describe the core of language by grammatical interpretations and vocabulary. But the role grammar is never ignored while putting emphasis on communicative function of language.

Role of Grammar in CLT

However, the principles of CLT in terms of grammar never tells to ignore grammar, but they suggest only different techniques or methods of practicing it; they turns from deductive to inductive way of teaching grammar-rules. Hence, there is no controversy regarding the significant role of grammar in CLT, it is therefore should be a core concern of research in the field of CLT for the apt implementation of the principles of CLT by analyzing the existing problems in terms of the practices of grammar in CLT class rooms and find out effective solutions.

Problems in the current Practices of teaching grammar

The current study based on some secondary data finds that a number of factors are responsible for making learners uninterested in practicing or learning grammar. Some the factors are analyzed below along with attempt to find out some probable solutions.

The nature of instruction: Mechanical other than interactional

As the students says teachers remain more busy in the CLT class as they were in the Grammar Translation Method or GTM classroom and the class is mainly teacher oriented; where students are silent listeners, hence students have rare option to live practice the grammar rules in the classroom through interaction with learning fellows (Ahmed, 2012). Consequently, they become silent audience and listen and memorize the rules of grammar on a whim as their teacher works mechanically in teaching these rules. Spontaneity is still far from the practical exercises of the learning environment.

Lack of learning management process

A study of Ahmed (Ahmed, 2012) finds that the teachers of CLT in Bangladesh have a nodding knowledge regarding nature and management of CLT class room. As a result they fail to attract the students the learning materials effectively. Students don't find any diversity or differences of CLT and GTM class room.

Presentation of Grammar Items, and Text book

To some analysts, the physical appearance of English book is a factor to learners of secondary level. It vastly influences the psyche of young school learners. But, the current secondary English text books are printed on 'news paper' of below standard which can't attract the mind of learners. Apparently, therefore, newly introduced CLT based text book does not differ from the old GTM based text book. Consequently it becomes a psychological barrier to the students though it seems to be minor one.

Lack of Variation in Teaching

Communicative language teaching also put emphasis on teaching grammar as it is emphasized in Grammar Translation Method, but the technique of teaching grammar in CLT vividly varies from GTM. But this variation is seldom followed in real teaching situation. Consequently students may feel bored and burden in the discussion of grammar as they felt early in GTM class room.

Absence of relation of grammar with realia

The practices of grammar is likely to be interesting and useful when students are shown its relation with the practical life and that's why there must be a link or close connection of the practices of grammar based language with language activities outside the class room. But it noticed that many of students did not even hear the word realia.

Learners' Self Experience

As the learners of CLT classroom are still treated as the learners of GTM, hence they have few opportunity to demonstrate and enhance their own experience of their practices of language from which they could realize their lacking of grammatical competence, and follow the principle 'learning through teaching'. Example Activities, role play, interviews, games, language, exchanges, surveys, pair work, and learning by teaching etc. learning activities are rarely offered to the learners.

Orientation of learning

In the current practices, the instruction of grammar is chiefly exam oriented other than not notional-functional. Students memorize grammatical rules the more they need to pass the exam. Teachers don't or can't demonstrate the utility of grammar in language of real context or notion.

Standard of interpretation

Standard of explanation and age of learners don't always match with each other. Because of the lack of this harmony and variation, learners seem to lose their interest in the instruction of grammar.

Motivation

Teacher is considered to be the centre of learning (Ara, 2004). Usually teachers influence the psyche of learners, and help them in any way that motivates them to work with the language. They could be motivated if the practical role of grammar in their practical, academic and professional future is explained to them. But the unfortunate reality shows the lack of this practice in Bangladeshi schools. Students' uninteresting and negative attitude towards grammar is the vivid evidence of this fact(Ahmed, 2012).

Journey from Fluency to Accuracy

CLT principles suggest a gradual development of language from fluency to accuracy. Though its primary goal is fluency but progressively accuracy is also expected. This natural and principle- based attempt and exercise is not maintained.

Freedom and Fear

Where students are allowed to enjoy plenty of freedom with ample linguistic exercises in CLT like telling relevant personal story using face, body and voice, but in Bangladeshi schools learners are still dominated and frequently criticized, and corrected for their grammatical mistakes as well as errors, instead of having those opportunities of practicing language independently (Wingate, 2003). Consequently they feel afraid and avoid exercise of grammar-items.

III. FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATION

However, there may be number of ways to overcome the found or above mentioned problems and make the practice of grammar more interesting to school learners. This paper has tried to give the teachers and further researchers some ideas about many of the probable ways of finding out some practical solutions. It attempts to reveal some suggestions along with a sample of proposed practical grammar lesson for CLT classes. In order to prepare some sample lessons in new and diversified ways, author has tried to follow the principles of Communicative Language Teaching method other than conventional principles and practices of Grammar Translation Method. Some techniques of teaching technical disciplines have also been reviewed in this study. This approach may be one of many probable ways in the case. This effort would be successful if it can make learners a bit more interested in learning grammar, helps English teachers of anywhere of the world and opens new doors for linguists to find out more effective and interesting techniques to teach English grammar successfully. A paradigm of preparing grammar lesson in CLT can be author's recent book on teaching grammar; "How to Prepare Grammar Lesson". A sample of his suggested ways of preparing grammar lesson is provided below. (Ahmed, 2012)

Lesson Layout

Lesson layout introduces the sample activities which are commonly followed by every lesson of this book.

Teacher:		Date:	
Subject:		Duration:	
Topic :		Time:	
Context:			
Learning Objectives:			
Activities:			
Resources:			
Contribution to Core Skills:			
Differentiation:			
Notes on Class:			
Homework:			
Confidential Pupil Information:			

Outcome of today's lecture: Items students can do/cannot do after listening to lecture.

Learned Items	Can do	Cannot do
1.		
2.		

Practical Lesson -1

Course:	Remedial English	Date:	
Topic :	Review of tenses (present simple, continuous, perfect ,present perfect continuous)	Duration:	
Context:	Self-assessment and practices	Time:	
Learning Objectives:	The pupils themselves will evaluate their knowledge of the topic, basically to have their background knowledge on the topic and identify their lacking which to be emphasized in instruction particularly. They will begin to convert active sentences in to passive.		
Activities:	Starting and engaging by asking personal question on the topic, quiz etc. producing a 'rough' version of a tense sheet. Identification from realia, Native speakers' uses. Converting the given word in to different tenses and complete sentences. Memorize the formula of learning tense, voice and natural sentences. Three sentences are to be memorized or frequently repeated. If time remains the learners will practice in group and pairs and many more.		
Resources:	Completed paper based solution. Note book, referred books of grammar, Lecture sheet by the instructor, CD/VCD		
Contribution to Core Skills:	Ability to produce twelve basic sentences. Ensure the right uses of tense both in spoken and written English. Theoretical and practical knowledge.		
Differentiation:	Differentiation based on outcome. More capable pupils will be able to produce accurate 2304 basic expressions with differentiation of person. Pupils who normally struggle with making appropriate 288 fundamental sentences.		
Notes on Class:			
Homework:	The pupils will memorize twelve basic sentences along with ten most common words as they know in Bengali.		
Confidential Pupil Information:			

Outcome of today's lecture: Items students can do/cannot do after listening to lecture.

Learned Items	Can do	Cannot do
1.Convert same in to different tenses with different sentences		
2.Convert active sentences of present tenses in to passive		
3. Making natural sentences of four present tenses.		

Evaluation Sheet (evaluation and review of the class by the students)

Formal comment	Topic:	Date:
Is the topic easily understood? How do you feel it easy?		
Was it difficult? Why?		
How do you think it could be understood more easily? Your formal suggestion		

How the proposed lesson benefits

This sample lesson plan is the outcome of some practical lessons which have been applied in teaching English as a second language at a Bangladeshi university. The lesson basically deals with the rules and regulations of English grammar. The application of this new method of arranging grammar classes have been tested to be more fruitful than traditional procedure and practices .It is therefore expected that these classes can function as some models of preparing grammar classes particularly for non-native learners of English of any other country. This can be a guide to prepare further English grammar classes following the given items and adding some other aspects from your creative brain. This type of lecture sheet can also act as a diary of both teacher and students to keep the record of teaching and learning progress which will later help changing and updating the strategies.

Use of the Evaluation Sheet

We have already mentioned the importance and use of asking learners to give their opinion regarding teaching activities of their class and this sheet is indeed designed for this purpose. This opinion may be public or confidential; because some students are frankly and do not feel hesitated to share their opinion, but there are also learners who are a bit introvert and feel ashamed to express their opinion even though they face problem and have something to say. If learners are not interested to use the sheet publicly in the class, they can be given private and confidential options to use it.

Remember teachers' main concern is here to know their opinion by any means

IV. FURTHER RECOMMENDATIONS

For making the grammar teaching effective and interesting teacher teachers can keep the following suggestions in their mind along with the above given model of preparing lectures.

1. Please try to penetrate in to the terms or lesson items.
2. Ensure what goal or skill each and every item suggests to achieve.

3. Be always specific of your item, along with going to irrelevant supplementary.

4. Look at your time table; allocate certain amount of time for each item and ensure the apt utilization of the certain time for certain topic.

5. Think what new item you can add.

6. Get the feedback after every lecture. You have model as well as blank options in the sample class sheet.

7. Try to track the opinion of learners regarding the presentation of learning items; what learners say and how they feel enjoyable is your method.

8. Depending on your teaching situation, syllabus, psyche of students etc. you can modify the model.

9. Remember the proposed lecture plan is based on the principle "teaching and learning are the dynamic affairs" that is why these are always modifiable.

Oh! Do not for get to review the class by student's evaluation sheet.

V. Conclusion

A developing country like Bangladesh has lot of potentials of CLT. Its enormous social implication must demonstrate the inevitable role and influence of CLT on the socio-economic development of the country. If its prolific role is taken into notice and apposite actions are taken for its development, it must contribute a lot for the development of numerous human resources existing in Bangladesh. For several other realistic relevant reasons the country should emphasize and lay proper stress on the development of teaching grammar in CLT. However, the secondary level of education is regarded as the preparatory stage of learners to enter in to the higher educational stages. CLT, therefore, in this stage plays quite vital role. But, unfortunately the performance of CLT particularly in terms of teaching grammar at this level is not up to the mark. Consequently, the learners cannot fulfill the expected requirements of higher level of education, and have to face lot of difficulties at followings stages of their educational as well as professional life. Thus, finally, it is expected that if the described suggestions are taken in to notice by the concerned individuals and authorities of ELT in Bangladesh, teaching and learning of grammar in CLT will be much more effective and fruitful particularly at secondary level. Lastly it is also opined that the above mentioned opinions are many of probable ones. If researchers come forward to spend their precious time in this arena of research, many other effective solutions will be found.

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Feedback on Washback of EFL Tests on ELT in L2 Classroom

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Abstract—**Every year, competence-based tests for the students of all grades in Iranian high schools are introduced. Such tests are the certain components of high school curriculum; therefore, very much attention should be academically paid to them and particularly to their impact on teaching and learning. This study identifies the possible washback effect of English language tests on English language teaching in high schools and further describes the nature of the washback effect in the context of Iran. In order to do so, the booklets of the English language tests for final exams of all four high schools levels in June 2012 were first analysed. Then, thirty EFL classrooms were randomly observed and a questionnaire was filled up by the teachers of those classes to collect their feedback on the washback effect of the tests. Another questionnaire was filled up by thirty students who were randomly chosen from the same classes for their feedback on the washback as well. The analysed collected data indicates that there is a strong relationship between classroom teaching and what the final tests measure showing the presence of washback in all four levels of English language classes in high schools of Iran which is due largely to the scope of university matriculation in Iran. The results also explain that the nature of existing washback on what EFL teachers teach in L2 classes is negative. The negative impact is possibly resulted due to the existing restrictions of teaching and teachers in Iranian schools to meet the needs of the students just for matriculation.**

Index Terms—**Washback, EFL tests, ELT, feedback**

I. INTRODUCTION

In Iran, English Language Teaching (ELT) formally started in the 1930s and received the first systematic syllabus in 1977. The programs for ELT were first organized nationally and then locally, and each city could design and manage its own ELT courses. Then, due to the Islamic Revolution in 1979, the textbooks and the educational system underwent a great change; therefore, there was an urgent need for renewing the ELT syllabuses (Vajargah, 1997). From the beginning, the study of a foreign language was perceived necessary and now more necessary due to the globalization, expansion of the information technologies, and requirements of global communication. This necessity demands all high schools to include the teaching of a foreign language in the syllabus, mainly English. The English language tests are recommended, prepared, implemented, and monitored by the Ministry of Education to place the development of competences at the heart of all educational projects and evaluation in the country.

According to Narafshan (2006), following the changes in the textbooks, syllabuses received changes by offering new theoretical approaches towards the issues relevant to the classroom practice, presenting new materials, introducing new techniques, and improving classroom skills. It should be mentioned that the new changes required the application of systematic English language tests in order to meet the need of the schools.

Due to the communicative language teaching (CLT) as assigned approach for the Iranian high schools by the Ministry of Education, various English language tests were designed to evaluate the grammatical aspects of the English language. The new tests seek to evaluate the communicative competence of the students, which means observing the use of the knowledge of foreign language to act in specific situations (Atai & Khaki, 2006). Thus, the tests should rely on "the distinction between different levels of competence where knowledge of the grammatical rules and semantic aspects of the language is meaningful" (Motes, et al. 2010). Theoretically, the English language tests set out to measure how the student can unconsciously use the rules of the language and understand the meanings expressed through the language in different contexts. For evaluative purposes, the tests rely on inventory of sub-competencies presented by Bachman (1990) that distinguishes between linguistic competence and pragmatic competence.

It is noticeable that the English language tests for all the students finishing high-school in Iran would evaluate sub-competencies (i.e. grammatical and textual competences). Grammatical competence implies mastering the linguistic code, that is, knowledge of vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling rules, word formation and function, sentence structures. According to Manjarres (2009), "Textual competence implies the identification of cohesive elements and the rhetoric organization of a text". In textual competence, paradigmatic and semantic elements or meaning recognitions are

evident. Textual competence covers vaster areas such as "textual coherence, the ability to structure discourse, logical sequences of ideas, and construct meaning from a text" (ibid).

Because it is important to implement the English language tests in the educational system of Iran for their special effect, the following questions normally arise: Has the English language tests had any effects "on the teaching and learning of English? If so, what kind of effect? How are the tests reflected in the classroom?" (ibid). In the line of test effect on teaching and learning, the literature shows the significance of language testing and defines the property of the tests that concerns their effects on teaching and learning.

Since tests are considered as one of the integral features of the academic curriculum in Iran, whether such tests have had any impact on the teaching of English language in the country is an obvious question which attracts the figures involved in education. Such impact of the test on the teaching and learning is considered a very complex phenomenon known washback (Cheng, 2000 & Watanabe, 2004).

II. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Washback, according to Chen (2002) and Hughes (2003), is defined "the effect of tests on teaching and learning". However, Cheng and Curtis (2004) make a clear distinction between washback and test impact. Test impact refers to the effect of a test on "individuals, policies, or practices within the classroom" (p. 4). Andrews, Fullilove, and Wong (2002) do not make that distinction and consider that "narrow and wider effects can be included under the term washback" (cited in Salehi et .al (2011).

The concept of washback should be associated with validity. Cheng (2000) refer s to washback validity to describe the "quality of the relationship between testing and teaching and learning" (p. 4). For Messick (1996), washback is "part of construct validity and an inherent quality of any kind of assessment, especially when the results are used for important decisions". Accordingly, Salehi et.al (2011) stresses that "only valid tests which minimize construct irrelevancies can increase the possibility of positive washback". Furthermore, Djuric (2008) supports in his detailed study when and if teachers narrow any aspect of the curriculum because of the tests, it results in negative washback. Positive washback, on the other hand, is said to result when a testing procedure encourages good teaching practice (Tylor, 2005).

In order to know how washback emerges, Manjarres (2009) mentions that "a number of variables in society, education, and schools" should be considered. They include variables relevant to the participants of the case such as teachers, students, material developers, and publishers, variables relevant to the process of learning like actions by participants towards learning, and variables relevant to the products like what is learned and the quality of learning (Hughes, 1993, as cited in Bailey, 1996).

Different scholars view washback differently due to the different results of the washback. Alderson and Wall (1993) show English language tests cause "faster changes in the content of teaching than changes in teaching methodology" (cited in (Manjarres, 2009). Cheng (1997) accounts for washback that brings changes in teaching materials. Andrews et al. (2002) found out "washback seems to be associated primarily with "high-stakes" tests, that is, tests used for making important decisions" (cited in Manjarres, 2009). Cheng (2000) reports on how tests are often introduced into the education system to improve teaching and learning.

In general, various features have to be regarded to deepen the understanding of washback, such as the school environment, messages from administration, expectations of teachers, students' needs, and objectives of learners and educational systems (Saif, 2000). In addition, Shohamy et al. (1996) consider other features like "the status of the subject-matter tested, the nature of the test, and the use to which the test scores are put". Wall (1996) also lists other features ranging from teachers' factors to more macrofactors like the gap between "designers of tests and teachers, lack of well-trained teachers, and the overload of teachers". According to Andrews et al. (2002), motivation and the published materials should be added to the abovementioned list.

III. METHODOLOGY

Because the purpose of this study was to describe the washback effect of the English language tests on the teaching of English language in Esfahan high schools, the lessons and the components of the each lesson with the contents of each component in the textbooks of four levels which are taught in high schools of Iran were considered and reviewed. All books assigned to teach at four high school levels consist of the parts titled 'new words, reading, grammar, write it down, language function, pronunciation practice'. Then, the final tests of June 2012 for each level were separately analysed to see the parts of the books which have been addressed. Thirty classrooms at all four levels in Education District 3 in the city of Esfahan were randomly selected and observed to see the parts of each lesson that are practically practiced in the classes. The teachers of the classes participated in this study and gave their feedback on teaching practice through a-20-item questionnaire. Another 20-item questionnaire was employed to collect the learners' feedback on the teaching practice. Both questionnaires were in Likert scale (5-Strongly agree, 4-Agree, 3-Undecided, 2-Disagree, 1- Strongly disagree).

A. Participants

Thirty male English language teachers at level 1, 2, 3, and 4 were randomly selected from different high schools in the Education District 3 in the city of Esfahan. They all had more than four years of English teaching experience. They were observed as they were teaching and implementing various teaching techniques. They were then given a-20-item questionnaire to be filled up in terms of what they teach in the classroom. Thirty students from the observed classes were offered another 20-item questionnaire to collect their feedback on the teaching materials. In their answers, the teachers and students reflected general awareness of the instrumental benefits of teaching and the importance of the English language tests.

B. Processes

According to Manjarres (2009), "processes mean to material development, syllabus design, changes in teaching methodology, and testing strategies among others". The syllabus of the course under study was textbook-driven, though sometimes the teachers would not follow the exact order or would choose to skip some of the activities outlined in the textbook. During the observations, the text-books were followed to trace teachers' coverage of the lesson components. It is suggested by the curriculum experts (Farhadi et.al, 2009) that the books, which are built up to meet CLT-based requirements, should deal with both discrete-point schemes like quantifiers, vocabulary, grammar, guided writing and integrative-point schemes like dialogues, listening comprehension, reading, and composition.

However, dialogue practice, listening comprehension, and extensive writing were not dealt with in the observed classes. Among them, writings were assigned as homework before the topics were actually developed. The classroom observations also showed that from the many activities to be developed during the class time, some of them were directed towards the development of grammatical competence, such as gap-filling exercises, sentence construction, negative and question forms of the sentence, scanning, and translation of discrete items. Furthermore, there were few cloze exercises to fill in the appropriate quantifier and guided reading tasks where the students were asked to read paragraphs loudly and translate them identifying the present discourse markers.

Some productive class activities like oral presentations and dialogue practice for the enhancement of other competencies were not exploited because they turned out to be excluded in university entrance exams (UEE). Students just articulated them with non-native pronunciation and poor intonation. Understanding the oral presentations or dialogues was non-existent. In other cases, the presentations just included reading texts aloud that contained a number of mistakes. The students were, most of the time, practicing rules in artificial exercises that focused on form, usually at sentence level, with predictable responses. For grammar exercises, the correct answers were supplied and sometimes the repetition of the rule was considered if there were errors.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Manjarres (2009) highlights an insight into the test to be obtained through an analysis of the official documents of the English language tests. Hence, the analysis of such documents available for the teachers and researchers in the Exam Office of Education District 3 in the city of Esfahan was carried out. They were set in June 2011 enclosing the general theoretical frames of the teaching of foreign languages in Esfahan. As Manjarres (2009) predicts, "special attention is given to the communicative competence while the distinction between grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competences is attended". However, the concept of communicative competence was made operative through the notions of linguistic competence. On the other hand, only linguistic competence with its three sub-competencies—grammatical competence, textual competence, and textual coherence—is included in the obligatory tests that all the students have to take. The tests included multiple-choice questions, distributed in 10 different types of tasks or contexts of evaluation including different number of items for each task. The following table summarizes the types of tasks in the tests:

TABLE 1.
TYPS OF TASKS IN THE TESTS

No	Task	No of Items	Competence	Focus
1	Word definition	5	Grammatical	Structure
2	Word matching	10	Grammatical	Structure
3	Skimming	5	Textual	Comprehension
4	Scanning	10	Textual	Comprehension
5	Sentence structure	5	Grammatical	Structure
6	Verb tenses	5	Grammatical	Structure
7	Writing sentences	2	Textual	Comprehension
8	Discourse markers	3	Textual	Comprehension
9	Dialogue completion	3	Textual	Comprehension
10	Pronunciation practice	2	Textual	Comprehension

The nature of the tests was matched with the textbooks contents and the format of the tests was sequenced in accordance to the textbooks topics. "Word definition" items were to evaluate grammatical knowledge of parts of speech, whereas items aimed at "Word matching" evaluate correct structures. "Skimming" and "Scanning" items were to identify the level of the students' reading comprehension in general and in parts. "Grammar recognition" part evaluated whether the students could distinguish the correct choice among multiple items (answer and distracters). "Verb tenses" items were assigned to check the students' knowledge for proper forms of verbs and their applications in question and

negative sentences. In "Writing sentences" items, the students needed to bring the non-arranged parts of the sentences into rational order. It sometimes seems to be testing general logical abilities and one may feel like solving a puzzle, rather than be tested on actual knowledge of how to connect pieces of discourse or use discourse signals. "Discourse markers" in the form of cloze tests required the students to know the correct form of the appropriate words or the right preposition in a certain sentence. In some cases, "it also required understanding of relationships between adjacent sentences or clauses" (Salehi and Yunus, 2012). "The dialogue completion" task was not authentic since the test takers had to fill the blank of the missing chunks in order to get the answer right. This was never a requirement for using the language in real-life. Besides, sometimes more than one answer was possible. "Pronunciation practice" items tried to estimate the students' capability to identify the correct pronunciation through phonetic transcriptions.

The observation process took a complete session for each class through which both researchers pursued the lesson coverage by teachers and those textbook parts skipped by teachers were marked on an observation checklist sheet. At the end of each session, a 20-item questionnaire prepared for the teachers to identify the textbook-based activities implemented in the classrooms was offered to mark the activities. In addition, another 20-item questionnaire arranged for the students was submitted to one of the students of each class to mark the textbook-based activities he had received in the classroom. The data from the information on the questionnaires were statistically analysed.

V. RESULT & DISCUSSION

The focus of English language teaching in high schools of Iran is the development of communicative competence. This focus is possible to be traced throughout the textbooks. Based on the textbooks focus, statistical analysis was made and findings indicated that both the teachers and the students work exclusively towards the development of linguistic competence in class. Table 2 shows textbook materials, the number of teachers expressing feedback, mean and standard deviation.

TABLE 2.
TEXTBOOK MATERIALS, NUMBER OF TEACHERS, MEAN, & STANDARD DEVIATION

Material	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std.Dev
Vocabulary	30	2.50	5.00	4.1000	.77013
Writing	30	1.00	4.00	1.5333	.71973
Reading	30	3.00	5.00	4.3000	.52777
Grammar	30	3.67	5.00	4.4444	.46595
Speaking	30	1.25	3.25	2.4500	.50600
Listening	30	1.00	2.00	1.0500	.20129
Pronunciation	30	2.00	5.00	3.4444	.94416

The mean for teacher participants' feedback (Table 2 and Graph 1) indicates that maximum emphasis in English language classes in Iranian high schools is respectively placed on grammar, reading and vocabulary and the minimum on speaking, writing, and listening. The skill which is moderately paid attention to is pronunciation practice.
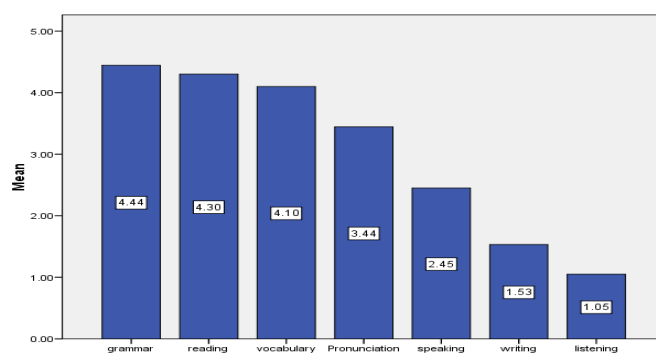
Graph 1: The mean of the textbooks materials from teachers' feedback

The maximum and minimum focus on some teaching materials in the classes (Graph 1) is felt to justify the presence of the first group and the absence of the second group in UEE in Iran. Comparing Table 1 and Graph 1 show the justification of teaching some materials like grammar to the maximum and some others such as writing to the minimum and some receive no attention like listening.

TABLE3.
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS FOR THE TEACHERS' FEEDBACK ON TEXTBOOKS MATERIALS

|	Mean	N	Std. Dev	Std. Error Mean
Exam	3.9833	30	.50507	.09221
Non-Exam	2.4500	30	.26316	.04805

Table 3 shows mean difference for EFL teachers in Iranian high schools who teach those materials and skills that are presented in the tests. The mean for those materials and skills that are in the tests is (3.99) and for the materials that are absent in the test is (2.45) indicating the teachers' focus is on the materials that are included in the tests.

In order to consider the possible washback effect on the teaching of the teachers based on the materials of the textbooks, the analysis and findings of the collected data taken from the students' feedback are presented. Table 4 shows textbook materials, the number of students expressing their feedback, mean and standard deviation.

TABLE 4.
TEXTBOOK MATERIALS, NUMBER OF STUDENTS, MEAN, & STANDARD DEVIATION

Material	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Vocabulary	30	3.00	5.00	4.2000	.97025
Writing	30	1.00	1.00	1.0000	.00000
Reading	30	2.33	5.00	4.1556	.89157
Grammar	30	3.67	5.00	4.5111	.65351
Speaking	30	1.00	3.00	2.1250	.63229
Listening	30	1.00	2.00	1.0333	.18257
Pronunciation	30	1.00	5.00	3.0333	.24522

The mean for student participants' feedback (Table 4) is highly similar to the mean for teachers' participants. That is, that maximum emphasis in English language classes in Iranian high schools is respectively placed on grammar, vocabulary, and reading and the minimum on speaking, writing, and listening. That the teachers' participants show moderate attention to pronunciation practice in the classes is also confirmed by students.
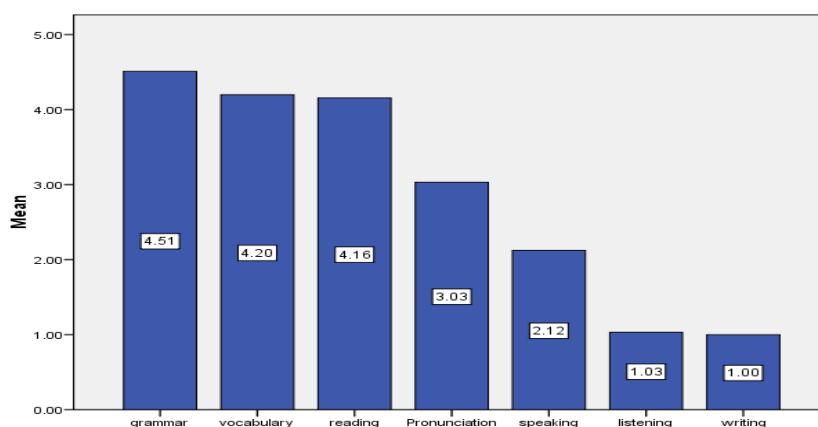
Graph 2: The mean of the textbooks materials from students' feedback

The maximum and minimum focus on some teaching materials in the classes (Graph 2) represents the materials that are included in the tests. By comparing above-illustrated tables and graphs, it is understood that textbooks materials taught and emphasised in the classes are integrated in the tests.

TABLE 5.
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS FOR THE STUDENTS' FEEDBACK ON TEXTBOOK MATERIALS

	N	Mean	Std. De	Std. Error Mean
Exam	30	3.8792	.59041	.10779
Non-Exam	30	2.1694	.36912	.06739

Table 5 shows mean difference of students' feedback in Iranian high schools that seem to learn language skills in the light of CLT method attending communicative competence for English language students. The mean (3.87) shows the taught materials are those materials and skills represented in the tests and the mean (2.16) shows the materials that are not included in the tests.

The central question of this study was whether the English language tests have had any washback effect on the teaching of English in the high school classes in Esfahan. The results of this study indicate that there is the effect of the English language tests in the context of teaching practices. Since it is possible to establish with certainty how was English taught and learnt in the context before the English language tests were introduced, it is obvious that the washback has naturally exerted effect on English language teaching. From the analyzed data, it is apparent to document certain trends to go in line with the tests, whereas the data cannot identify the presence of certain skills required for L2 learners such as listening, speaking, and writing. This absence of certain skills is highly due to the test as the teachers teach the materials assigned and considered in the final tests.

Manjarres (2009) defines the English language tests as "a step in a lengthy process of improving the quality of teaching in a country and as a measure to quantify the advances made by the students". Moreover, the students take various tests in the school in order to score higher in the final exams of each school year as a short-term goal and university matriculation as a long-term goal. Besides, the textbooks introduce plenty of practice in linguistic competence, and due to the both pre-determined goals and tests-oriented curriculum assigned by the educational policy making figures, much of the formal classroom time is inherently dedicated to the linguistic competence and subsequently such competence is hugely tested in the tests.

The teachers and the students are well aware of the importance and the demands of the tests, and in a way, they admit that what they do is related to this challenge. The teachers feel they are evaluated through this, but the students seem to associate the tests with a wider general goal of knowing English. Consequently, it can be said that "the tests have contributed to strengthening the feedback of the importance of English inside the school" (Manjarres, 2009). Therefore, teachers and students should face the challenge over teaching and learning to deal with the tests or to use the tests to teach and learn English language. However, it could be argued that if there were no tests, the changes would hardly take place.

The washback effect of tests on teaching in four levels has shown to be negative because it seems to constrict teaching practices implemented in the classroom. For instance, the findings of this study indicate that the teachers' decisions relevant to syllabus, activities, and evaluation are because of the tests in final examinations that cannot necessarily assure students of learning all required skills such as listening, speaking, and writing. The teacher-made decisions are unable to have the needs of the students met as outlined in their CLT-based textbooks but just prepare students for handling the final test requirements.

VI. CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

This study shows an overall negative washback effect of the English language tests on teaching materials. It also confirms the lack of general awareness of the importance of improving all required skills for students charted in CLT-based textbooks in high schools of Esfahan. Any teaching practice directed to ignoring or narrowing down the essential needs of students result in negative washback (Djuric, 2008). Listening, speaking, and writing that have not been taught or sounded trivial in the classes signify ignoring or narrowing down students' necessary skills. Moreover, the communicative competence is reduced in the English language tests to two sub-competencies—grammatical competence and textual competence. The orientation of the classroom practices, including class tests, strongly correlate with the direction set by the tests. The scope of the tests and the objectives of the class is highly restricted because most of the time the students are asked to focus on linguistic features, and any activity that goes beyond this such as listening, writing, and speaking are seen as a waste of time. The students spend most of the time solving grammatical exercises from the book or the board and translating unknown words from Persian into English or vice versa.

It should be pointed out that in Iran schooling system; however, the lack of audio-oral facilities as a limitation of the teaching and testing cannot be overlooked. Accordingly, a lot of teaching, learning, and testing practices and activities in English classes in Iran are turned down. The lack of facilities brings about some constraints by which the negative wsahback would be exerted on the teaching practices. The negative washback, either due to the narrowing down any aspect of the curriculum by the teacher or lacking facilities, results in the students' low level of linguistic competence, let alone communicative competence.

It is hoped that in upcoming school years, the educational authorities, according to Manjarres (2009), consider "the evaluation of pragmatic competence" in the tests, so that the teachers make a definite step towards focusing beyond linguistic forms into communicative interaction. It is also essential that the teachers get extensive professional development opportunities in relation to "what communicative competence is and how it can be developed and tested" (ibid). It is also hoped that more direct and authentic language and tasks are included in the tests to drive students to use the language and avoid them from just viewing the usage of language. In accordance with Manjerres (2009), in case of not driving students to listening, speaking or writing activities beyond recurring practices, they possibly ignore the significance of such skills.

It is worth analysing the needs of EFL in the Iranian context and subsequently finds the outlines for both teaching and testing to match the needs and have the students feel an actual need for language learning rather than considering the foreign language tests as a mere formality for finishing high school. Although the construction, administration, and evaluation of existing test for English language classes should be taken into consideration as "an initial step towards a long-term goal of raising the standards of communicative competence in the country" (Manjarres,2009), there is no evidence available in this study showing that what is being taught and learnt is currently oriented to communicative competence. It is therefore made known that prepared tests in Iranian context are highly oriented to the linguistic competence and students accordingly are prepared for involving in limited number of tasks that are not fully productive in EFL context. The focus of the test tasks reveals that washback effects of tests change students to receivers of language inputs rather than language producers of language output. The students are just involved in comprehension and structure tasks which are qualitatively different from what is outlined in the textbooks, syllabus, and curriculum assigned by the ministry of Education of Iran. It is important, then, to keep track of future changes in the tests and of the

ways in which the schools and the teachers react to them in order to direct all interested individuals and in particular teachers and students to turn to active communicators instead of being mere receivers.

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An Analysis of Errors in English Writing Made by Chinese and Korean University Students

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Abstract—This study adopted Kim (2009)'s error classification system, based on from Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982)'s linguistic classification of errors. Errors in 168 English essays written by Chinese and Korean university students were identified and coded by three coders using NVivo. The analysis shows that some errors such as run-on sentences, the omission of articles and plural suffix-s, and sentence misordering can be caused by the negative transfer from learners' first language. This phenomenon is highlighted by the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH). In Chinese, for example, commas are used in a multifunctional way. They can be used as either periods or conjunctions, which results in run-on sentences and the omission of conjunctions in English. No articles exist in the Chinese and Korean languages, which is also the reason for the omission of English articles. Different use of plural forms in Chinese and Korean makes it difficult for EFL learners to master in English. The Korean SOV structure also confuses many Korean university students when they construct their English SVO sentences. Meanwhile, some errors can be caused just because of learners' own creative construction regardless of their first language background, such as the misformation of verbs and nouns. This error cluster is illustrated by the creative construction hypothesis (CCH). The results indicate that both the occurrence of CAH and CCH are reasonable to some extent. The comparative analysis of errors in English writing made by Chinese and Korean university students shows a general picture of common errors made by these English learners as comprised of both CAH and CCH type errors. The reasons these errors were made are also explored, especially reasons related to their first language.

Index Terms—classification of errors, contrastive analysis hypothesis, creative construction hypothesis, first language transfer, error analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

In the 1960s, Error Analysis (EA), which studies the types and causes of language errors, developed as an alternative to the Contrastive Analysis (CA) approach in applied linguistics. Corder (1981) explained two rationales for conducting error analysis: theoretical reason and practical reason. Theoretically, he claimed error analysis could help in the investigation of the language learning process. Practically, it can guide the remedial actions teachers need to make in order to correct the errors for learners.

Error analysis may seem to some to be an outdated theory, because it was proposed in 1960s, then criticized and replaced by interlanguage theory (Selinker, 1992). However, this approach is still, no doubt, very useful in English language learning and teaching. It has proven useful for teachers to use to diagnose English learners' writing problems, analyze the reasons for these problems and thus provide effective remedies. This paper collected, identified, analyzed, and described the errors in English essays written by Chinese and Korean university students. As EFL learners belonging to the Asian cultural circle, Chinese and Korean English learners may exhibit both similarities and differences in their English writing. This paper thus focuses on the errors made in the English essays of Chinese and Korean university students, hoping that identification of the similarities and differences between the Korean and Chinese students' errors in writing could help English teaching and learning in China and Korea.

II. BACKGROUND AND PREVIOUS RESEARCH

A. Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) vs. Creative Construction Hypothesis (CCH)

Lado (1957) (as cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 359) claimed that when a learner learns a second language, the elements in L2 which are similar to the learner's L1 will be easy for him, while elements which are different from the learner's L1 will be difficult. CAH as formulated by Lado implies that learner's L1 has a great influence on his L2 learning. L1 determines to some extent whether a learner can learn L2 successfully.

CCH was first proposed by Dulay and Burt (1973). It is an opposite hypothesis from CAH. According to CCH, a learner's L1 does not have much influence on the acquisition of a L2. Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974, as cited in Ellis, 1985, pp. 28-29) conducted an empirical study calculating the frequency of error types made by L2 children learners.

They found that children do not organize a L2 based on their L1 transfer or comparison. They construct their own L2 structure in a creative way.

Now the question is which of these two theories is more convincing in terms of the English essays written by Chinese and Korean university students? This study provides evidence in support of both of these theories.

B. Classification of Errors

There are different error taxonomies that have been constructed over the years, classified from a variety of perspectives. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) summarized error types using four different taxonomies: error types based on linguistic category (morphology and syntax), surface strategy taxonomy (the skeleton of English clauses, the auxiliary system, passive sentences, temporal conjunctions, sentential complements and psychological predicates), comparative taxonomy (developmental errors and interlingual errors) and communicative effect taxonomy (global errors, local errors and psychological predicates). This study adopts Kim (2009)'s error classification system, which is based on Dulay and Burt and Krashen's classification system. Four types of errors with their subcategories are identified and coded in this study: misformation, omission, addition, and other.

C. Previous Research

As mentioned, error analysis is not a new theory, but it has still proven to be very useful and practical in language teaching. That is why in recent years many English teachers and educators are still researching error analysis, either empirically or just theoretically.

Xing (2007), for example, summarized the classification, sources and significance of errors. However, she failed to focus on error analysis in English language teaching in China. Yang (2010) described the different types of errors and highlighted the fact that errors may not always be caused by the influence of L1; they could also reflect some common learning strategies. Heydari and Bagheri (2012) provided an overview of almost all the previous research in the field of error analysis, hoping that EFL teachers and educators could become more familiar with students' errors and thus utilize appropriate teaching strategies along with their colleagues and learners.

Some researchers conducted the empirical studies. Muriungi, Mukuthuria and Gatavi (2011), for example, explored an English error study in a primary school in Kenya. They collected students' English essays, investigated the nature and typology of errors, and provided some remedies for these errors. Yahya, Ishak, Zainal, Faghat and Yahaya (2012) identified and analyzed secondary school students' errors in narrative and descriptive essays in Malaysia. Ning (2012) also did an empirical study, collecting English writing samples from graduate students at a university in China, analyzing the error types and sharing some suggestions on how to improve the students' writing.

These studies benefited the field in that they applied Error Analysis theory in order to classify errors based on various criteria, analyze the errors in specific ways and provide suggestions for English teaching and students' learning. No previous study to date, however, has focused on the comparison of errors between Chinese and Korean English learners. This paper focuses on the comparative analysis of errors in English essays between Chinese and Korean university students.

III. RESEARCH METHOD[1]

A. Research Questions

Through the identification and description of errors made by Chinese and Korean university students, this study tries to identify the similarities and differences between them, and then provide some suggestions based on this analysis for English teaching in China and Korea.

B. Subjects

A total of 168 essays, 84 essays written by Chinese and 84 essays by Korean university students, 39 males and 129 females, were collected and analyzed for the current study. These students were asked to write an argumentative essay within 30 minutes titled, "Do you agree or disagree with the following statement: 'Always telling the truth is the most important consideration in any relationship'?" This prompt was taken from the TOEFL iBT's independent writing topics for Asian test takers.

In order to make an equivalent comparison, which means Chinese and Korean university students being compared should have at least similar holistic writing proficiency, four raters were asked to score these essays after being trained based on the rubric for TOEFL iBT's independent writing. Then essays which received the same score were selected for further error analysis.

C. Research Design

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[1] This paper is part of a larger mixed method study of English writing features of Chinese and Korean university students, which includes not only the analysis of errors, but also an analysis of linguistic features of their writing, both quantitatively and qualitatively.

According to Corder (1974) (as cited in Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005, p.57), EA research includes five steps: collection of a sample of learner language, identification of learner errors, description of learner errors, explanation of learner errors, and evaluation of learner errors. This is the research procedure that was followed in the current research.

As mentioned, this study adopted Kim (2009)'s error classification system, derived from Dulay and Burt's linguistic classification of errors. Four types of errors: misformation, omission, addition, and other, with their subcategories are identified and coded in this study. According to Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982), "mistakes" need to be distinguished from "errors." Mistakes are linguistic disfluencies caused by fatigue or inattention, while errors are the results of students' language proficiency levels. But it is often difficult to distinguish an error from a mistake. Therefore, in this paper, error is used to refer to "any deviation from a selected norm of students' writing performance, no matter what the cause of the deviation might be" (p.139).Three coders, one Chinese English teacher, one Korean English teacher, and one American English teacher, worked together to identify all the errors in the student essays. Errors were further analyzed with the help of the qualitative data analysis software NVivo.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A total of 3, 241 errors were identified in all. Of them, 1, 393 errors were found in essays written by the Chinese English learners (CE), while 1, 848 errors were found in essays written by the Korean English learners (KE). Tables below provide a comparative analysis of the errors made by CE and KE respectively in terms of misformation, omission, addition, and other categories.

A. Misformation

According to Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982), misformation errors are characterized by "the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure" (p.158). In this paper, misformation is further analyzed from subcategories such as noun misformation, verb misformation, article misformation, etc. Table 1 shows the error frequency of misformation for both the CE and KE.

TABLE I.
ERROR FREQUENCY OF MISFORMATION

Number of errors in CE (rank)	Categories	Number of errors in KE (rank)
56 (3)	Verb	79 (1)
56 (3)	Preposition	69 (2)
53 (5)	Ill-formed sentence structure	67 (3)
65 (1)	Tense	55 (4)
57 (2)	Noun	30 (7)
43 (6)	Verb inflection	30 (7)
40 (7)	Subject verb agreement	42 (5)
24 (10)	Article	31 (6)
27 (8)	Adjective	15 (14)
26 (9)	Adjective form	19 (11)
19 (13)	Modal verb	26 (9)
24 (10)	Noun form	24 (10)
20 (12)	Pronoun	17 (12)
19 (13)	Run-on sentence	5 (23)
17 (15)	Single and plural form	13 (15)
6 (20)	Passive voice construction	16 (13)
14 (16)	Infinitive	7 (21)
13 (17)	Conjunction	10 (17)
8 (19)	Plural agreement	13(15)
10 (18)	Possessive adjective	8 (19)
4 (24)	Relative pronoun	10 (17)
6 (20)	Phrasal verb	8 (19)
6 (20)	Pronoun inflection	3(25)
6 (20)	Adverb	6 (22)
1 (28)	Determiners	5 (23)
4 (24)	Adverbial	3 (25)
4 (24)	Auxiliary verb	2 (28)
0	Adverb form	3 (25)
1 (28)	Gerund	2 (28)
2 (27)	Parallel structure	1 (30)
0	Possessive-'s	1 (30)

Table 1 shows the occurrence of similar error types and frequencies for both CE and KE. The ten most frequently made errors are almost identical for in CE and KE. They are the misformation of verbs, nouns, prepositions, articles, verb inflection, noun forms, subject verb agreement and ill-formed sentence structures. It turns out that both Chinese and Korean learners are equally likely to make mistakes in terms of tense, the selection of accurate verbs and nouns, the usage of prepositions and articles, subject verb agreement, the inflection of verbs and sentence structure. Some sample errors are as follows (the words in the brackets are corrections):

1) If one [a] person always lie [lies] to other people, others will fell [feel] hatred. (CE 30) (Article misformation, subject-verb agreement misformation, verb misformation)

2) For instance, many couples end up in a fighting [fight], because they are not experts at hiding personal thoughts. (KE 25) (Noun misformation)

3) For [From] my standpoint, it is very important to tell the truth in the relationship. (CE 67) (Preposition misformation)

4) In [On] the other hand, always telling the truth may hurt others. (KE 45) (Preposition misformation)

5) As time went by, he became a [an] introvert [introverted] person and [was] still stupid [reclusive]. (CE 10) (Article misformation, adjective form misformation, omission of 'be' verb, awkward expression)

6) Sometimes saying [telling] a lie is a kind of self-protection (KE 33) (Verb misformation)

7) Most of time, honest [honesty] plays an important role in our life. (CE 6) (Misformation of noun form)

8) In my opinion, the true [telling the truth] is very important.[,] Because [because] lie is someday revealed [lies are usually revealed]. (KE 4) (Misformation of noun form, fragment, single and plural form)

9) For example, some business information are [is] extremely important for our groups. (CE 2) (Misformation of subject verb agreement)

10) Telling the truth [In telling the truth], we must be honesty [Honest]. (CE 22) (Ill-formed sentence structure, adjective misformation)

Additionally, both the Chinese and Korean learners committed similar errors in their selection of adjectives and pronouns. Some sample errors are as follows:

1) For example, if one girl ask [asks] you: "Hey, look at me. Is (Does) that dress suit on [delete 'on'] me?" we [I] response [respond] "That dress suits you well." though the dress is terrible. (KE 50) (Misformation of verb reflection, misformation of modal verb, misformation of pronoun, misformation of verb)

2) We must be honesty [honest] to our classmates and our teachers. (CE 12) (Adjective misformation)

Why do most Chinese and Korean university students make similar errors in verbs, nouns, adjectives, prepositions, etc.? Does it prove that general learning structures exist during the process of second language learning? Based on the Creative Construction Hypothesis, VanPatten and Benati (2010) summed up that, and more specifically morpheme studies, learners tend to go through the same stages in order to acquire a given structure of the target language, regardless of their L1 background.

However, the question is, since these Chinese and Korean university students had learned English for at least six years, why were they still making errors in terms of misformation of verbs, nouns, prepositions, etc.? Shim (2006) noted that in many cases Korean English learners' errors were not explicitly identified and corrected and thus became fossilized and that this fossilization seriously interfered with their fluency and accuracy in acquiring L2. This suggests that Korean university students need to learn through form-focused instruction so they can pay more attention to form and grammar. Fossilizable linguistic phenomena, as Selinker (1982) defines them, are "linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular L1 tend to keep in their interlanguage relative to a particular target language, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the target language" (p. 215). Though the Chinese and Korean university student had learned English for a relatively long time, they must have failed to fossilize some rules of English and grammar correctly in practice because they were not corrected immediately after they made these errors. It is probable that fossilization was the main reason for their misuse of verbs, nouns or prepositions. One more explanation is that although they had learned English for a long time, the Chinese and Korean English learners were still EFL learners, which means they had not had sufficient opportunity to be exposed to English. In other words, they had limitations to their ability to practice their English due to their being surrounded by only Chinese and Korean. Whatever the reason, the Chinese and Korean English learners needed to pay more attention to these errors in order to become more proficient speakers.

One error category which revealed an obvious difference between the Chinese and Korean English learners was that of the run-on sentence. A run-on sentence refers to when two or more independent clauses are joined together without appropriate punctuation mark or conjunction. The Chinese English learners had more run-on sentences than the Korean English learners. Some run-on sentence examples of CE were as follows:

> 1) In our lives, teamwork is very important, we should turn into unification so as to make our work more efficient, so we must be honest to tell the truth and loyal to any member. (CE17)

A coordinating conjunction 'so' may be needed after the first clause 'teamwork is very important' to present a consequence, 'so we should turn into unification so as to make our work more efficient'.

> 2) Maybe someone say something bad on your friends, he/she will hate the guy. (CE22)

This sentence is ambiguous. It has more than a conjunction problem. But one thing this sentence needs, at least, is a coordinating conjunction such as 'and', to show a non-contrasting idea. The sentence may sound better if it reads 'Maybe someone said something bad about your friends and this person actually hates your friends…' Another way to fix the sentence would be to create two separate sentences: 'Maybe someone said something bad about your friends. In other words, he/she hates your friends'.

> 3) a patient gets a cancer, the doctor often don't tell the truth directly but tell the patient's family to let them choose it. (CE70)

For this sentence, a subordinating conjunction 'if' is missing to introduce a dependent clause: 'If a patient is diagnosed with cancer, the doctor often doesn't tell the truth directly but tells the patient's family, letting them decide whether to tell the patient or not'.

> 4) If we keep a "secret", we always do everything cautiously as if we are doing something bad, in reality, we are not. (CE74)

Basically, this sentence lacks a 'but' to show contrast: 'but in reality we are not'. Or the student could also have chosen to use a semicolon after the word 'bad' to separate the sentences, while still maintaining the vital connection between the two clauses.

In all, there are three basic remedies for these sample run-on sentences: use conjunctions, use a semicolon, or use separate sentences. No matter which of these remedies is used, the revised sentence would be clearer.

Why do Chinese English learners write more run-on sentences? Some other researchers have noticed this phenomenon as well. Liu (2011) claimed that roughly seventy-five percent of Chinese sentences are comprised of more than two phrases separated by commas: comma splices and independent clauses joined together without any conjunction. Xue and Yang (2012) have pointed out in this regard that the Chinese comma is very ambiguous and multi- functional because, in some contexts, it can identify the boundary of a sentence just as does a period, a question mark or an exclamation mark.

According to Ma (1999), Chinese is a language that focuses more on semantics whereas English focuses more on syntax. Therefore, English is more complex grammatically requiring conjunctions to form compound or complex sentences, while Chinese is more implicitly coherent having fewer conjunctions. One researcher (anonymous, n.d.) did a very detailed comparison of features of Chinese and English. He featured English and Chinese as rigid vs. supple, hypotactic vs. paratactic, and complex vs. simplex.

TABLE II.
ENGLISH LANGUAGE FEATURES VS. CHINESE LANGUAGE FEATURES

rigid vs. supple	The rigidity of English means it is formal, requiring a complete sentence structure and SV concord, while Chinese enjoys the suppleness of a flexible sentence structure and pays more attention to semantic coherence.
hypotactic vs. paratactic	Hypotaxis refers to the dependent or subordinate construction or relationship of clauses with connectives. Parataxis means the arranging of causes one after another without connectives to show the relation between them. English more often employs overt cohesion, frequently using various cohesive ties such as coordinators, subordinators etc.
complex vs. simplex	English sentences display an "architecture style" that uses many longer or subordinate structures, while Chinese is marked by a "chronicle style" with frequent use of shorter or composite structures.

This table explains why the Chinese English learners frequently use many run-on sentences. Their use of run-on sentences is the result of heavy L1 negative transfer.

B. Omission

Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) pointed out that omission errors are characterized by "the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance" (p.154). For instance, one student wrote: Always telling the truth cannot be (the) most important consideration in any relationship. Obviously, this student omitted the article 'the' which is needed with a superlative adjective. Table 3 shows the error frequency of omission for both the CE and KE.

TABLE III.
ERROR FREQUENCY OF OMISSION

Number of errors in CE (rank)	Categories	Number of errors in KE (rank)
70 (1)	Article	177 (1)
56 (2)	plural suffix-s	100 (2)
24 (3)	Preposition	45 (3)
16 (4)	Object	22 (4)
12 (6)	'be' verb	17 (5)
16 (4)	Gerund	6 (10)
7 (9)	Possessive adjective	13 (6)
11 (7)	Subject	10 (7)
8 (8)	Modal verb	6 (9)
4 (13)	Auxiliary verb	8 (8)
7 (9)	Noun	3 (16)
7 (9)	Verb	6 (9)
7 (9)	Adjective	0
4 (13)	Adverb	6 (9)
2 (16)	Relative pronoun	5 (13)
1 (18)	Possessive-'s	4 (14)
3 (15)	Infinitive	4 (14)
0	Determiner	2 (17)
2 (16)	Adverbial	0
0	Passive voice	1 (18)

Note: Omission of conjunctions was diagnosed as a run-on sentence.

Usage of articles and plural suffix-s were the two main grammatical categories which were most easily forgotten by both the Chinese and Korean English learners. However, in terms of the number of errors committed, the Korean English learners were more likely to omit articles, plural suffix-s and prepositions. Here are some examples.

1) Some people think divorce is really [a] bad thing. (KE74) (Omission of article)

2) People even think she is not [a] good girl. (KE76) (Omission of article)

3) In that case, telling [the] truth is not [a] good thing rather [an] obstacle to relationship(s). (KE7) (Omission of article and plural suffix-s)

4) Telling [the] truth between people's relationship may have good effect[s] or bad effect (s). (KE31) (Omission of article; Omission of plural suffix-s)

5) Many people often ask trivial question [s]. (KE35) (Omission of plural suffix-s)

6) So we must sometimes tell lie[s] for around people. [to people around us] (KE35) (Omission of plural suffix-s)

7) I don't agree [with] this statement. (KE40) (Omission of preposition)

8) So, I think we must be smart [about] whether [to] tell the truth or not. (KE17) (Omission of preposition)

9) You know something the truth likes a knife [with] which someone's heart'll be broken. (KE17) (Omission of preposition)

1. Different Use of Articles

There are no articles in the Korean language. That is why Korean English learners usually have a lot of problems with the English system of articles. The Korean language system lacks both the definite article "the" and the indefinite article "a". Korean generally relies on the context to communicate whether a noun is definite or indefinite. For example[2]: 개가 $_1$ 밥을 $_2$ 먹어요 $_3$ could mean: "The dog$_1$ eats$_3$ rice$_2$"if we know which dog; or "A dog$_1$ eats$_3$ rice$_2$" if it refers to some dog that is unspecified or new to the conversation.

The Chinese language also lacks an article system. Instead, determiners like 'this', 'that', 'these' or 'those' are used to define whether a noun is definite or indefinite. The difference in word sequence can also show the difference between definite and indefinite nouns. Zhang (2004) gave two examples to illustrate this point:

来 $_1$ 客 $_2$ 了 $_3$。(A guest is coming)

客 $_2$ 来 $_1$ 了 $_3$。(The guest is coming)

Therefore, the difference in the word sequence can specify whether a noun is definite or indefinite.

2. Different use of plurals

The use of plurals in the Chinese and Korean languages is the same. Plural forms do exist in both Chinese and Korean. The word '们 (men)' in Chinese and '들 (deur)' in Korean are used as the plural forms of these nouns. They can be used together with determiners like 'these' or 'those' or with possessive adjectives like 'my', 'her', or 'our,' etc. However they can never be used together with specific numbers. For example:

In Chinese: 我 $_1$ 有 $_2$(三只)$_3$ 猫 $_4$。 (I1 have$_2$ three$_3$ cats$_4$).

猫（mao）means cat in Chinese, but since there is a specific number ('three') in the sentence, the plural form '们'(men) can not be added after the noun. The same principle applies to the Korean language as well. That is why Chinese and Korean English learners always have a tendency to forget to add the plural form after the noun, even though they may have become advanced English learners. The L1's influence seems to continue to hang on to some extent.

3. Different use of prepositions

The Korean language has postpositions instead of prepositions. The postpositions are usually attached at the end of the noun. For example, instead of saying "I am going to school with you", Korean kids would say "I am going to school you with". In other words, English is said to be "right branching", while Korean is consistently "left branching".

Like English, the use of prepositions in Chinese is also very complicated. It has prepositions for time, place, direction, agent and instruction. Prepositions can be a word or a phase. In Chinese, prepositions can be used before or after the noun, depending on the meaning difference. For example, instead of saying "I am in the room," Chinese people tend to say "I am room in," which is the same for Korean in this case.

The complexity of the use of prepositions in English also makes it difficult for Chinese and Korean English learners to master them when they write in English.

C. Addition

Addition errors are the opposite of the omissions category. According to Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982), they are characterized by "the presence of an item which must not appear in a well-formed utterance" (p.156). Table 4 shows error frequency of addition for both the CE and KE.

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[2] From: http://www.declan-software.com/korean.htm

TABLE IV.
ERROR FREQUENCY OF ADDITION

Number of errors in CE (rank)	Categories	Number of errors in KE (rank)
50 (1)	Unnecessary word	47 (1)
40 (2)	Article	26 (3)
18 (4)	Preposition	28 (2)
19 (3)	Conjunction	16 (4)
11 (6)	'be' word	16 (4)
12 (5)	Plural suffix-s	6 (7)
7 (7)	Modal verb	7 (6)
2 (8)	Object	4 (8)
2 (8)	Possessive adjective	4 (8)
0	Auxiliary verb	3 (10)
1 (10)	Possessive-'s	2 (11)

Addition of unnecessary words was the most frequent error for both the CE and KE. Articles, prepositions and conjunctions were also the main problems that both the Chinese and Korean English learners encountered in terms of word addition. Here are some examples:

1) We prefer the people who always telling the truth. (CE24) (Addition of article)

2) This is the true love. (CE24) (Addition of article)

3) Truth is Important in Everytime. (KE11)(Addition of preposition)

4) At school, if we tell truth with our classmates and we'll have good friends. (CE21)(Addition of conjunction)

5) In our life, we faced so many situations. And also we faced many decisions. So If you want to deal this problems very well, you have to various answers for them. (CE21)(Addition of conjunction)

6) Old man's eyes were blind. (CE85) (Addition of unnecessary word)

7) I am to agree with "Always telling the truth is the most important consideration in any relationship" this sentence. (KE14) (Addition of unnecessary word)

If we compare Table 3 with Table 4, we can find that students omitted more articles and plural forms than those they added. The problems still lie in the complexity of the English article and plural form system. This suggests that since the use of articles and plural forms are so different from their L1, the students may have paid more attention to their use. It just turned out that sometimes their use of them was wrong.

D. The Error Category of 'Other'

In this study, awkward expressions, not clear, misordering, fragments, and wrong vocabulary are all categorized in the error category of 'other.' Misordering errors, as Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) pointed out, are the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance (p.162). Table 5 shows the error frequency of other category of errors.

TABLE V.
ERROR FREQUENCY OF OTHER CATEGORY OF ERRORS

Number of errors in CE (rank)	Categories	Number of errors in KE (rank)
115 (1)	Awkward expression	120 (1)
90 (2)	Not clear	86 (2)
34 (4)	Misordering	55 (3)
41 (3)	Fragment	34 (4)
27 (5)	Wrong vocabulary	11 (5)

The frequency of errors shows that both of the Chinese and Korean English learners had problems expressing themselves in English. Therefore, their expressions were either awkward or not clear at all. All of them used many awkward expressions. Some samples are shown as follows:

1) If you know the truth disease that a patient causes. (KE11)

2) Let us suppose that is father and daughter with good relationship. (KE13)

3) Also a case of family is same. In this situation that one of your family member fail to entrance exam of the best university, the member's feeling will really frustrate. If you tell the member that "Your limitation is this level. So your labor was useless and you have to awake from dream that your ability is SNU. (KE48)

4) I think this essay is disagree. (KE 6)

5) Between both of you, you shouldn't hide any secrets. (CE26)

6) I don't resist to tell the truth. (CE28)

7) we must do the true things for them. (CE29)

Error differences between the Chinese and Korean English learners occurred most often with regards to the sequence of words and phrases. The Korean English learners made more 'misordering' errors than the Chinese learners. Some examples of misordering errors made by Korean English learners are provided below:

1) All of history are not truth. [Not all history is true.] (KE 11)

2) Always lying is not bad. [Lying is not always bad.] (KE 13)

3) I don't think that telling to lie is bad absolutely. [I don't think that telling lies is absolutely bad.] (KE 13)

4) Because too blunt speaking or too frank speaking [speaking too bluntly or too frankly] can hurt listener. (KE 59)

5) Justice not works always. [Justice doesn't always work] (KE 74)

Chinese and English share basically the same sentence structure-SVO. The subject is the one who acts. The object is what receives the subject's action. However, Korean is classified as an SOV language, which means that the verb always comes at the end of sentence. This basic sentence structure difference influences the Korean English learners as they try to construct English sentences. As a result, errors may happen unconsciously. Von Stutterheim and Klein (1987, p. 196, as cited in Han, 2008, p. 63) stated that "the way in which the learner organizes his utterances is heavily influenced by the conceptual structure present and by the way in which this conceptual structure is encoded in the [native] language." Han (2008) claimed that the influence of L1, positive or negative, often continues into advanced stages of L2 learning. Take the following sentence for example:

All of history are [is] not truth. (Not all history is true.) (KE 11)

In the Korean language, if you want to say "Not$_1$ all$_2$ history$_3$ is$_4$ true$_5$", the sentence would be: 모든 $_2$ 역사 $_3$가 $_4$ 진실한 것은 $_5$ 아니다 $_1$. The biggest difference in order is the position of the negative word "not". In Korean, it moves from the beginning of the sentence to the end. Because of this basic sentence structure difference, it is no wonder that the Korean English learners wrote the sentence wrongly: All2 of history3 is4 not1 truth5.

The point to be made is that these misordering errors may be in many cases because of the Korean English learners' L1. The way of speaking and writing in their L1 was transferred to their L2.

The next subcategory of other errors was wrong vocabulary. Here are some other examples Chinese learners made.

1) They don't want to make friends with liers. [liars] (CE 20) (Wrong vocabulary)

2) Nobody were like a person who is unhonesty [dishonest] or often tell lies. (CE 65) (Wrong vocabulary)

3) Truth can make us trust others and find sincereious [sincere] friends. (CE 35) (Wrong vocabulary)

On the one hand, these errors show that these English learners at least knew some principles of English grammar, such as the necessity of adding a suffix 'er' after a verb to make a noun, or adding a prefix 'un' before an adjective to make an opposite word. The problem here was that they tended to over-generalize the rule. But this also shows that they were in the process of building the new English structure in their mind. What they need to do now is to just keep working on improving their ability to apply these rules proficiently.

The final subcategory of other error is sentence fragments. The followings are several examples.

1) Since you need to tell a lie on some occasions and you have not choice. (CE3) (Fragment)

2) But not any relationship. (CE1) (Fragment)

3) Just as always telling the truth isn't the most important consideration in any relationship. (CE61) (Fragment)

The fragment error category is still subject to the L1's negative influence. However, I believe it could be cured after English learners' self-rediscovery process or with teachers' help.

V. Conclusions

This study undertook a detailed comparative linguistic error analysis based on the error classification system developed by Kim (2009). Linguistic errors were identified and coded with the help of NVivo. The study's main findings were as follows: 1) In terms of misformation, both the Chinese and Korean learners are likely to make a similar number of mistakes in their use of tense, the selection of accurate verbs and nouns, the usage of preposition and article, subject verb agreement, the inflection of verbs, the sentence structures, conjunctions, the selection of adjectives and pronouns, plural agreement and plural forms. It suggests that in the process of second language acquisition, some common errors may happen regardless of learners' first language background. 2) One obvious difference was with regards to the run-on sentence. The Chinese learners had more run-on sentences than the Korean learners. It was hypothesized that this was due to the different features of the Chinese language, in which commas are frequently used to serve the added functions of conjunctions or even periods. 3) In terms of omission, article and plural suffix-s were found to be two main grammatical features easily forgotten by both the Chinese and Korean learners. It was suggested that this may also be because of the negative L1 transfer from Chinese and Korean. In Chinese and Korean, articles do not exist. The usage of the plural form is also different from that of English. 4) In terms of addition and omission, use of prepositions was one of the main problems that both Chinese and Korean encountered. It was proffered that the reason for this also lies in the complex and different usage of preposition in both Chinese and Korean. 5) Finally, the Korean learners had more "misordering" errors than the Chinese learners, which may be accounted for basically because the Chinese language structure is closer to that of English than Korean is.

Mitchell and Myles (2004, as cited in Benati and Lee, 2008, p.1) commented that there is no unified or comprehensive theory as to how second languages are learned, although this is presently a burgeoning field of research. Through the detailed description and comparative analysis of possible reasons for errors, this study supports the plausibility of the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) and creative construction hypothesis (CCH). CAH concentrates on the role of learners' first language in second language acquisition. Some errors such as run-on sentences, the omission of articles and plural suffix-s, and misordering all revealed what appeared to be the influence of learners' first language on L2 acquisition. CCH holds that learners' second language acquisition process is very creative, with no relation to L1 background. The common errors could be the result of CCH, very creative innovations in the learners' efforts to learn L2, or they could be merely the result of lack of knowledge of L2. Therefore, further study is needed to

explore the extent to which common errors are the result of CCH creative learning versus a mere lack of familiarity with L2. That is, no matter how advanced their English level was, no matter whether the learners were Chinese or Korean, they still had many commonalities in terms of their problems in the use of verbs, nouns, adjectives, etc. Some errors, as explained, may have thus been due to the L1 influence, while others were common errors that may be encountered regardless of one's nationality.

Since errors may be caused by the L1 influence or by learners' self-construction, teachers, firstly, need to figure out the causes of these errors. Are they errors or just mistakes? Are these errors influenced by learners' L1 or just by their creative overgeneralization of some grammatical rule? Secondly, having a correct attitude towards learners' errors is also very important. The learner's L1 could have both positive and negative influence on L2 learning. Besides, some errors could be a positive indicator of learners' L2 learning progress. As previously noted, errors like overgeneralization of negative prefix 'un' in the word 'dishonest' could merely indicate that learners are actively building their own grammatical understanding cognitively. They could realize their errors through teachers' instruction individualized coaching or even by themselves. Therefore, teachers should treat learners' errors in a more comprehensive way. As long as L2 learners have adequate exposure and practice in L2 writing, with the help and consistent feedback of teachers, they could finally internalize the L2 grammatical rules and consequently the number of errors could be reduced.

A limitation of this study is that it my be very hard at times to determine what category a specific error belongs to. For instance, some run-on sentences could also be categorized as omission of conjunctions. So there might be some mistakes in coding these errors. However, the study shows a general picture of the types of errors made by the Chinese and Korean university students, which can definitely prove helpful for English writing teaching and learning in China and Korea.

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Iranian Language Learners' Conceptions of the Ideal English Lesson: Form-focused or Communicative

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Abstract—This study aimed to investigate the Iranian language learners' ideas of the ideal English lesson. Two kinds of English lessons, form-focused and communicative were taken into account. Moreover, the current study set out to investigate the relationship between the learners' conceptions of ideal lesson and their gender. The collection of data was accomplished by administering a modified 10-item survey questionnaire to 100 advanced English learners of a language institute in Hamedan. The participants were randomly selected to complete the questionnaire, reflecting their opinions regarding the ideal English lesson. Accordingly, the results of the study indicated that advanced Iranian learners preferred communicative activities such as having lots of active discussions, working independently of the teacher, doing funny activities (e.g., singing happy songs and playing games) and using real-life materials (e.g., TV, magazines) more than form-focused activities such as teaching items of language (e.g., grammar and vocabulary), correct pronunciation, revising grammar, correcting most of the grammatical mistakes and guiding most of what they do. It was also found that there is a significant difference in learners' orientations towards communicative activities based on their gender, with males scoring higher on those items.

Index Terms—communicative lessons, form-focused lessons, second language learning, students' preferences

I. INTRODUCTION

With the advent of Communicative language Teaching (CLT) in the 1970s, a different approach to syllabus design was introduced which was based on the communicative needs of the learners rather than on the grammatical, phonological and lexical features; the proponents of CLT believed that "the syllabus content should reflect the purposes and needs of the learners" (Nunan, 2001, p. 57, cited in Celce- Murcia, 2004).

Additionally, now, we are in 'postmethod stage' in language teaching; accordingly, there is no single right teaching method which could be successfully applied for every learner in every situation (Littlewood, 2010). One can safely argue that the students' beliefs, preferences and expectations are quite important, because if English as foreign language teachers are familiar with the students' expectations and preferences, they will be able to provide them with materials which can be tailored to their needs (Bermen & Capel, 2007). Furthermore, being aware of students' expectations, preferences, motivations and problems helps teachers improve their own teaching processes, techniques and methods and adapt their own lessons to different learners in different situations (Bermen & Capel, 2007).

According to Hedge (2000), there are different ways to become aware of the students' conceptions of the ideal lesson. Teacher's experience, reflection, observation, directly asking students about their preferences, motivations and problems and questionnaires are some telling examples (Hedge, 2000). Becoming aware of the students' preferences, motivations and problems is further augmented by the fact that, although language is a social practice, learning a language is an individual process. As a result, recognizing learners' different backgrounds, experiences, styles and learning strategies is absolutely significant. L2 learning strategies can be defined as specific behaviors or thought processes, providing the students with opportunities to improve their own L2 learning process (Oxford, 2003, cited in Celce-Murcia, 2004); if these strategies are to be useful for learners' involvement, they should be in accordance with learners' beliefs, preferences and expectations.

By the same token, as Schmidt (2004) put it quite aptly, "people are motivated to do things that are interesting, relevant to their goals (instrumental, knowledge, communicative, etc) and enjoyable" (cited in Littlewood, 2010, p. 2), so if the classroom activities are interesting, enjoyable and relevant to students' needs and interests, the students will be involved in class activities and they will invest their time and effort in the course, leading towards learning more effectively. Strangely enough, this aspect of second language learning and teaching has hardly ever been discussed in

the L2 literature. In the following section a brief review of the existing literature on the issue will be provided.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Students' conceptions of an ideal English lesson have not been a controversial issue until recently. Upon the review of literature of some studies, students' ideas towards English class activities have been positive.

In 1988, Willing conducted a study on learners' preferred learning activities. The participants of the study, who were 515 migrant students in Australia, were given a survey about their ideal learning activities. The survey included 30 activities. The students' responses were analyzed on a 4-point scale (1 is low and 4 is high). The results indicated that the learners had positive perceptions towards more form-oriented activities like pronunciation practice, error correction by the teacher, teacher's explanations, learning new vocabulary, studying grammar and discovering their own mistakes (see Appendix A).

Conversely, another study by Nunan (1995), contradicted the results of the previous study, because 60 participants of this study who were ESL teachers in Australia, showed positive perceptions towards more communication-oriented activities. In the same vein, Peacock (1998) investigated the ideas of 158 learners in an institute in Hong Kong. In his study, the usefulness of eleven activities was explored. The findings suggested that the learners believed that more non-communicative activities were more useful than communicative activities for their learning (see Appendix B).

One of the most promising and challenging areas of research in this field is that of Littlewood and Liu (1996). 2156 students were asked to answer a twelve-item questionire. It is worth emphasizing that this study had one advantage over the previous studies, because it made a distinction between liking an activity and its usefulness. But similar to the other studies, the activities in this study were rank-ordered. The findings suggested that the learners perceived communicative activities as the most enjoyable and non-communicative activities as the most useful for their own learning (see Appendix C & D).

In support of Littlewood and Liu's study, Green (1993) investigated learners' conceptions of 17 classroom activities as enjoyable or effective. The results were in the same line with the previous studies and communicative activities were considered enjoyable and non-communicative activities were considered useful by the learners (see Appendix E). In Li Li's study (2007), students' opinions and expectations of class activities were explored through a 17-item questionnaire. The students' (who were 245 first-year non-English majors) responses showed that the majority of the students preferred participating in group discussions to the other activities

Later on, Bremen and Capel (2007) conducted a study on students' views of the ideal English lesson, based on Westhoff's Penta Pie (2003). The study was carried out at Cornerstone College in South Africa and the United World College of the Adriatic in Italy. According to the results in both countries, there was not a significant difference in the students' visions of the ideal English lesson.

Finally, in newest recent study in this field, Littlewood (2010) explored the students' ideas regarding classroom activities in four different countries (Hong Kong, Japan, Singapore and China,). Firstly, students were interviewed about their ideal English lessons. Thereafter, a questionnaire consisting of 10 items was designed based on the initial interviews. A group of 410 tertiary students gave their opinions on their ideal classroom lesson on a four-point scale. The final analysis through factor analysis indicated that the students' responses reflected a difference between characteristics of communicative and non-communicative activities and three kinds of lessons were concluded; communication-oriented lesson type, consisting of items such as: 1. relaxing atmosphere, 2. plenty of active discussion, 3. using authentic materials, 4. lots of enjoyment; form-oriented lesson type, consisting of items such as: 1. teacher teaching new language items (e.g., grammar and vocabulary), 2. teacher correcting most of the grammatical mistakes, 3. revision of grammar; and control-oriented lesson type, consisting of items like: 1. teacher paying a lot of attention to correct pronunciation, 2. teacher guiding most of what students do, 3. teacher correcting most of the grammatical mistakes (Littlewood, 2010, pp. 14-15). It was also found that there were significant variations between countries regarding the learners' conceptions of ideal English lessons.

Considering the importance of learners' involvement in class activities and exploring their conceptions of ideal English lesson, leading to learners' engagement and their effective learning and also because of the scarcity of such studies in an Iranian context, this paper aimed at investigating the Iranian students' conceptions of the ideal English lesson. Further, this study intended to determine the difference between male and female students' conceptions of an ideal English lesson.

Thus, the present study is an attempt to investigate the following questions:

1. Do the Iranian students prefer communicative-oriented activities or form-oriented activities?
2. Are the students' conceptions of an English lesson gender sensitive?

III. METHODOLOGY

1. Participants: In this study, a sum of 100 (50 males and 50 females) advanced English language learners of a language institute in Hamedan were randomly selected to complete a questionnaire, reflecting their opinions regarding the ideal activities in the English language class. They ranged in age from 17 to 25 and participated in the study voluntarily.

2. Procedure: The subjects were assigned to two groups; each group consisted of 50 male and 50 female students. Thereafter, through purposive sampling, 10 language learners were opted for the interview sessions during which the participants expressed their opinions on ideal English lesson. The themes of the interviews consisted of the role of a good language learner, the role of a good language teacher, the main characteristics of an ideal English lesson, acceptable rules of classroom behavior and acceptable rules of classroom management (see Appendix F). Because of the similarities between the themes of the interviews with those in Littlewood's study, his questionnaire was adapted and used by the present researchers (see Appendix G).

The questionnaire comprises 10 items (5 items related to communicative and 5 items related to non-communicative categories) on a four-point scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" and they were coded as strongly disagree=1, slightly disagree =2, slightly agree=3, strongly agree=4.

Since the participants were advanced English language learners, the questionnaire was administered to the participants in the target language (English). First of all, the purpose of the questionnaire was explained and during the completion, the researchers were present and guided the students whenever it was necessary. It was recommended that 5 minutes for completing the questionnaire would be enough. The participants were aware that their answers would be used just for research purposes and the questionnaires would be kept confidential.

IV.   DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

A.   Qualitative Analysis

As it was previously mentioned, 10 language learners were opted for the interview sessions during which the participants expressed their opinions on ideal English lesson. Each interview was transcribed and the transcriptions were sorted out and analysed to seek patterns which emerged from the data. A framework including 5 categories was generated. They were the themes of the interviews consisting of the role of a good language learner, the role of a good language teacher, the main characteristics of an ideal English lesson, acceptable rules of classroom behavior and acceptable rules of classroom management (see Appendix F). Here, two examples from the transcribed interviews are provided:

Example 1:

I like English classes, because we have lots of fun; we play games, sing songs, tell jokes; we laugh a lot. We are really happy. There is a friendly atmosphere in the classroom. The teacher is like our friends, not an authority who controls all our behaviors. I can talk about my feelings and emotions because my English teacher and classmates understand me and help me (A female language learner, March 15, 2012).

In the example above, a female language learner mostly talks about the affective aspects of an English class from her own point of view and puts a strong emphasis on relaxing atmosphere and having fun (e.g., singing happy songs, telling jokes and playing games). She does not mention any pedagogical and learning aspects of her experience in the class. It is clear for this student's words that the ideal English lesson for her is the one which can primarily help her relax and socialize with her classmates and teacher. As to the strong influence of the affective factors in learning a foreign language, such a student may be quite ready to learn whatever is being taught in the class in the friendly and relaxing atmosphere. Because   when the so-called 'affective filter' is low, the flow of information in the learning and teaching situation is smoother (Krashen, 1981). The fact that she does not refer to any form-focused exercise, does not necessarily mean that she considers the class as a place for mere fun, socialization and leisure activities; it just indicates her preference for communicative and real life activities over more mechanical form-focused exercises in the class.

Example 2:

In my ideal English lesson, I like to watch lots of films, listen to music, talk about my favorite topics; but always we don't have enough time. Our teacher just focuses on the book. She says we are pressed for time. I don't enjoy learning English in such classes. Although I am studying English [sic] for a long time, when I watch a film at home, I can't understand even a word. Instead of just practicing grammar and grammar and grammar, we can learn lots of vocabulary items by watching films. (A male language learner, March 17, 2012).

In this example, it can be clearly seen that the language learner is not satisfied with the way things are in her English classes. Use of real-life materials (e.g., TV, newspapers, and magazines) and having lots of active free discussions are of utmost significance to her. Additionally, he mentions his strong lack of interest in form-focused activities like practicing grammatical forms (grammar, grammar and grammar!) In contrast, he prefers learning vocabulary items by watching films, substantiating and supplementing form-focused activities within communicative activities.

B.   Quantitative Analysis

The data were fed into the computer and then analyzed by The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 19). A paired-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate whether the participants' orientations were towards communicative-oriented activities or form-oriented activities. As it is shown in table 1, the results indicates that the mean score for communicative activities (M =15.62, SD =2.14) is higher than the mean score for form-focused activities (M =14.35, SD =2.79). Therefore, the participants preferred communicative activities more than form-focused activities.

TABLE 1
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	com	15.6200	100	2.14514	.21451
	form	14.3500	100	2.79384	.27938

A paired-samples t-test was also conducted to investigate the effect of gender on learners' perceptions. The following table shows that there isn't a significant difference between males (M=13.78) and females' (M=13.92) preferences regarding form-focused activities.

TABLE 2
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

		Paired Differences					t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
Pair 1	form - male	13.78000	2.69762	.38150	13.01335	14.54665	36.121	49	.000
Pair 2	form - female	13.92000	2.79825	.39573	13.12475	14.71525	35.175	49	.000

But according to the following table, considering communicative activities, males (M=14.38) preferred these kinds of activities more than females (M=13.86).

TABLE 3
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

		Paired Differences					t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
Pair 1	com - male	14.38000	2.32019	.32812	13.72061	15.03939	43.825	49	.000
Pair 2	com - female	13.86000	1.94842	.27555	13.30627	14.41373	50.300	49	.000

Finally, the Iranian students' perceptions of an ideal English lesson can be summarized in the following table:

TABLE 4
THE IRANIAN STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF AN IDEAL ENGLISH LESSON

	Communicative activities	Non-communicative activities (form-focused activities)
High	1. Relaxing atmosphere 2. Use of real-life materials (e.g., TV, newspapers and magazines). 3. Lots of active free discussions. 4. Some time spent for having fun (e.g., singing happy songs, telling jokes and playing games). 5. Spending a lot of time to work individually or in groups teacher-independently.	------------
Low	--------------	1. New grammatical points and vocabulary items are taught by the teacher. 2. Most of the time, correct pronunciation is emphasized by the teacher. 3. Spending some time revising grammar. 4. Grammatical mistakes are corrected by the teacher. 5. Teacher guiding most of what students do.

V. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The findings of the study present a picture on the Iranian learners' opinions of the ideal English lesson. In fact, the present study set out to investigate the learners' conceptions regarding form-focused and communicative lesson types through a 10-item questionnaire. Also, the current study focused on the learners' preferences by considering their gender. The results indicated that Iranian students preferred communicative activities such as having lots of active free discussions, working teacher-independently, doing funny activities (e.g., singing happy songs and telling jokes) and using real-life materials (e.g., TV, newspapers and magazines) more than form-focused activities such as teaching new grammatical points and vocabulary items, correct pronunciation, revising grammar, correcting most of the grammatical mistakes and guiding most of what they do. It was also found that male learners were more inclined towards communicative activities than females. Considering the form-focused activities, the differences between males and females were not statistically significant.

The implications of the current study for teachers and materials developers are rather tantalizing. It is exceedingly significant to note that the role of learners' ideas, opinions, preferences and needs in syllabus design, materials productions and teaching is of utmost significance. Because as it was previously mentioned, if the types of materials and the way of teaching them are compatible with the students' interests and preferences, students' engagement will increase and learning process may be more effective. As such, the investigation of the learners' opinions and preferences

is worthy of attention.

It is also important not to overlook that the findings of this study should be interpreted within certain limitations and reservations. For one thing, the limited number of participants and statements of the questionnaire is worthy of attention. Another limitation of the current study pertains to the fact that it doesn't distinguish between learners' preferences based on usefulness and learners' preferences based on enjoyability. Put differently, some learners preferred lessons because they were useful and the others' preferences were related to enjoyablility of activities.

However, it is clear that the teacher, the class atmosphere, the course contents and materials, as well as personal characteristics of the students will have an influence on the learners' ideas of the ideal English lesson. There is much work to be done before researchers, teachers and language learners to substantiate the findings of the current study.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

APPENDIX A.   STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF USEFULNESS OF LEARNING ACTIVITIES IN WILLING'S STUDY (1988)
(ADOPTED FROM LITTLEWOODS' STUDY)

Learning Activity	Mean Response
1. Pronunciation practice	3.54
2. Error correction by teacher	3.51
3. Learning by conversation	3.42
4. Teacher explanations	3.40
5. Learning new vocabulary	3.38
6. Learning in small groups	3.14
7. Studying grammar	3.10
8. Listening to and using cassettes	2.77
9. Discovering own mistakes	2.76
10. Learning by pictures, films, videos	2.72
11. Talking in pairs	2.63
12. Learning by games	2.35

APPENDIX B.   STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF USEFULNESS OF LEARNING ACTIVITIES IN WILLING AND PEACOCK'S STUDY
(1988) (ADOPTED FROM LITTLEWOODS' STUDY)

Learning Activity	Mean (Willing)	Level (Peacock)
1. Pronunciation practice	3.54	high
2. Error correction by teacher	3.51	very high
3. Learning by conversation	3.42	very high
4. Teacher explanations	3.40	medium high
5. Learning new vocabulary	3.38	high
6. Learning in small groups	3.14	medium
7. Studying grammar	3.10	high
8. Listening to and using cassettes	2.77	medium high
9. Discovering own mistakes	2.76	medium high
10. Learning by pictures, films, videos	2.72	medium high
11. Talking in pairs	2.63	medium high
12. Learning by games	2.35	--

APPENDIX C.   RANK ORDER OF METHODOLOGY PREFERENCES IN UNIVERSITY ENGLISH CLASSES IN LITTLEWOOD AND
LIU'S STUDY (ADOPTED FROM LITTLEWOODS' STUDY)

A lot of attention is paid to listening and speaking
Learning focuses on the importance of fluency
A lot of attention is paid to the use of everyday language
Materials contain a lot of communication exercises, e.g. role plays, discussions, etc
Students do most of the talking
Teacher corrects most of the mistakes that students make
A lot of materials from real life (e.g., TV, radio) are used
There is a lot of pair work and group work
Teacher helps students to find out for themselves the language they need to get things done
Learning focuses on the importance of correct grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation
Teacher explains the learning purpose of class activities
There is a lot of teacher guidance and explanation

APPENDIX D.   STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE ENJOYABLENESS AND EFFECTIVENESS OF CLASS ACTIVITIES IN
LITTLEWOOD AND LIU'S STUDY (1996) (ADOPTED FROM LITTLEWOODS' STUDY)

	How well students liked these activities	How much students think the activities improved their English
High	Reading comprehension Listening comprehension Listening to teacher Watching videos	Reading comprehension Listening comprehension Listening to teacher Grammar exercises
Medium	Role play/ Drama Answering teachers' questions Writing essays Group discussions	Answering teachers' questions Writing essays Error correction Vocabulary exercises
Low	Pair work Error correction Vocabulary exercises Grammar exercises	Pair work Group discussions Role play/ Drama Watching videos

APPENDIX E.   STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE ENJOYABLENESS AND EFFECTIVENESS OF CLASS ACTIVITIES IN GREEN'S
STUDY (1993) (ADOPTED FROM LITTLEWOODS' STUDY)

	How well students liked these activities	How effective students think the activities are for learning
High	Listening to songs Small group discussion Pair work: questioning Teacher-led class discussions Singing songs Teacher responding to journal entries	Grammar explanations in English Teacher-led class discussions Teacher correcting mistakes in journal entries Small group discussion Pair work: questioning Looking up words in a dictionary
Medium	Circulating and asking for information Reporting on articles selected by students Grammar explanations in English Oral transformation drills (individual responses) Oral transformation drills (whole-class responses) Teacher correcting mistakes in journal entries	Singing songs Teacher responding to journal entries Students correcting written errors Written gap-filling exercises Interviewing native speakers and reporting Reporting on articles selected by students
Low	Students correcting written errors Interviewing native speakers and reporting Written gap-filling exercises Looking up words in a dictionary Grammar explanations in Spanish (= students' L1)	Oral transformation drills (individual responses) Oral transformation drills (whole-class responses) Circulating and asking for information Singing songs Grammar explanations in Spanish (= students' L1)

APPENDIX F.   QUESTIONS OF INTERVIEW

1. What is your idea about an ideal English lesson?
2. How do you define communicative activities?
3. What kind of communicative activities do you like the best?
4. What kind of communicative activities are more useful for improving your learning process?
5. How do you define non-communicative or form-focused activities?
6. What kind of non-communicative or form-focused activities do you like the best?
7. What kind of non-communicative or form-focused activities are more useful for improving your learning process?
8. What are authentic materials?
9. Who is an ideal English teacher? What are the main characteristics of a good English teacher?
10. What is the role of a good teacher in learners' learning process?
11. Who is an ideal language learner? What are the main characteristics of a good language learner?
12. What are some acceptable rules of classroom behaviour?
13. What are some acceptable rules of classroom management?
14. What is an acceptable classroom atmosphere?
15. What is your idea about having plenty of active discussion in classroom?
16. What is your idea about having lots of fun (e.g., singing songs and playing games) in English classes?
17. What is your idea about working independently of the teacher, e.g., individually or in groups?
18. What is your idea about teaching new language items (e.g., grammar and vocabulary) by the teacher?
19. What is your idea about insisting on correct pronunciation?

20. What is your idea about revising grammatical points?

21. What is your idea about correcting most of the grammatical mistakes by the teacher?

22. Do you like to be guided by the teacher in most of the class activities that you do?

APPENDIX G.   QUESTIONNAIRE

Please fill in the following details:

Age:_____   **Institute:**_____

gender:_____   **Level:**_____

The researchers will use the answers to get a general idea of the students' ideal English lesson, and all your answers will be treated confidentially.

Please read each statement and mark your ideas on your answer sheet; It will take you approximately 5 minutes to fill in the questionnaire.

In my ideal English lesson:

1. The atmosphere is relaxed.

2. Some of the materials we use are from real life (e.g., TV, magazines).

3. There is plenty of active discussion.

4. We spend some time 'having fun'(e.g., singing songs and playing games).

5. A lot of time is spent working independently of the teacher, e.g. individually or in groups.

6. The teacher teaches us new language items (e.g., grammar and vocabulary).

7. The teacher insists, most of the time, on correct pronunciation.

8. We spend some time revising grammar.

9. The teacher corrects most of our grammar mistakes.

10. The teacher guides most of what students do.

	Strongly disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Strongly agree
1	1	2	3	4
2	1	2	3	4
3	1	2	3	4
4	1	2	3	4
5	1	2	3	4
6	1	2	3	4
7	1	2	3	4
8	1	2	3	4
9	1	2	3	4
10	1	2	3	4

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On the Versatility of the Competence Acquired through Immersion Program

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Abstract—In this study it was attempted to determine whether the students learning a second/foreign language through an 'immersion program' can use the acquired competence in a versatile manner or their use of the acquired competence is subject dependent and subject-specific. To find the answer, two groups of students from two immersion schools in Mysore, India were chosen. Having secured their homogeneity through a standard proficiency test (Flyers) developed by Cambridge University, the researcher administered the appropriate tests to measure their ability in using the acquired second language at two levels of comprehension and production in two different situations: *Met* - their educational setting - and *Unmet* - the real life situation. The obtained data were analyzed through the application of *t*-test and the results revealed that the difference between the learners' ability in using the acquired competence in second language in different situations is not significant. So, the researcher could conclude that 'immersion program' can help learners use the acquired competence in second language in a versatile manner.

Index Terms—immersion program, learning, acquisition, SLA, versatility of language, competence

I. INTRODUCTION

Experiences have proven that some of the second or foreign language learners having studied a language for about four or more years at schools, when attended the target community were not able to communicate with the native speakers efficiently. A lot of instances of the case are available. For example, it was researched that students, who have studied French at high school for four years, when they attended Paris, they could not communicate with French people. As another instance, in Iran the students study English for about seven years at school - three to four hours in a week-besides at least two years in university – two to three hours in a week, but they cannot communicate in English effectively. They gain just some passive competence in skills like reading and writing and more or less in vocabulary and grammar. It seems the main cause of the problem goes back to the methods of foreign/second language teaching which have been implemented; as, most of the methods mostly focus on teaching forms.

Immersion program can alleviate the mentioned problems created by the aforementioned approaches. As it has been experienced by many countries such as Canada, Australia, Japan and so on, through immersion program the learners can get both linguistic competence as the knowledge of language form empowering them to use language form correctly and communicative competence as the ability to use language correctly and appropriately. Metaphorically speaking, the competence which is obtained through the approaches other than immersion approach is like a dry and porous sponge. The pores are the deficiencies in ability to use the acquired knowledge properly. But the competence acquired through immersion approach is a sponge which is saturated and without the mentioned pores. It means that through immersion program learners acquire not only the knowledge of language form i.e., linguistic competence but also the appropriateness of language use i.e., communicative competence.

A. Operational Definition of Versatility

"Versatile use", as used in this study, refers to the ability to use the acquired second language for purposes other than their academic ones; that is, using second language for communication with people out of their school milieu or around subjects other than their subject matters. Following this assumption, the researcher divided the situations in which the learners may need to use the second language into 'met' and 'unmet' ones. By 'met' situations, he means using the second language in the classroom to answer or ask questions around the subjects covered in the target language or using the second language orally or in written form when they are taking their routine tests and quizzes.

The other use to which the acquired second language can be put is its use out of their classroom environment and around the subjects which have not been covered in their classes. Using the acquired second language for a live communication with others in written form or orally, participating in discussions on topics other than those they had already covered in their textbooks and in their classes, reading and comprehending texts such as newspapers, magazines, novels, etc. are some instances of using the acquired second language in 'unmet' situations. So, by 'unmet' the researcher means the ones which are new, novel and not already experienced by the learners.

B. Objective of this Study

The main goal of most approaches and methods of teaching a second/foreign language is to help their learners to use the acquired/learned language for the purpose of communication in situations out of their educational milieu.

Researches have shown the goal is not gained that satisfactorily. The main purpose of this study is to determine the extent to which the students are able to use the acquired second language in a versatile manner. Naturally, the learners who study their school subjects through medium of a second language gradually acquire the second language associated with the subjects they are instructed such as math, science, and so on. The question posed by the researcher is whether they are also able to use the acquired competence in second language in a 'versatile' manner – both in *met* and *unmet* situations - or their use of the second language is strictly subject -dependent. To get an even more elaborated answer to the question, the students' ability in comprehension and production separately was studied.

C. Research Questions and Hypotheses

To survey the effect of immersion program on versatile use of the acquired competence in second language, one major and two minor research questions were posed and their corresponding null hypothesis and sub-hypotheses were formulated.

The major question: Can learners use the acquired competence in a versatile manner – *in met* and *unmet situations* – or is it subject dependent and subject – specific?

The first minor question: Is there any difference between the learners' ability in the comprehension of the acquired second language in a versatile manner – in *met* and *unmet* situations?

The second minor research question: Is there any difference between the learners' ability in the production of the acquired second language in versatile manner -in *met* and *unmet* situations?

Following the above questions the related null and sub hypotheses are formulated as:

The null hypothesis: There is no difference between the learners' ability in using the acquired second language in 'met' and 'unmet' situations.

The first sub-hypothesis: There is no difference between the learners' ability in the comprehension of the acquired second language in versatile manner – in *met* and *unmet* situations.

The second sub-hypothesis: There is no difference between the learners' ability in the production of the acquired second language in versatile manner – in *met* and *unmet* situations.

II. THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

A. Definition of Immersion Program

Immersion program is defined as a method of foreign or second language instruction in which the regular school curriculum is taught through the medium of the target language.

One of the main characteristics of this program is 'at least 50 percent of instruction during a given academic year must be provided through the second language for the program to be regarded as immersion. Programs in which one subject and language arts are taught through the second language are generally identified as an enriched second language programs." (Fred Genesee, 1987)

Jim Cummins (2009) tries to look at 'Immersion Program" from a different perspective and believes it is used in two different ways. He claims,

In the first sense 'immersion programs' are organized and planned forms of bilingual education in which students are 'immersed' in a second language instructional environment with the goal of developing proficiency in two languages. First language instruction is typically introduced within a year or two of the start of the program and forms an integral part of the overall plan. In its second sense, the term 'immersion' refers to the immersion of immigrant or minority language children in a classroom environment where instruction is conducted exclusively through their second (or third) language. He adds immersion program is a form of bilingual education that immerses students in a second language instructional environment for between 50% and 100% of instructional time with the goal of developing fluency and literacy in both languages.

Unlike a traditional language course where the target language is the subject material, language immersion uses target language as a tool. In other words, in this method the target language is not the subject of instruction, but it is the vehicle for content instruction as well as the object of instruction. For example, in English immersion program, English is not the subject of instruction; rather it is the medium through which a majority of school's academic content is taught.

B. The Origin of Immersion Program

There is a general agreement on Canada as the birth place of immersion program. For instance, Walker and Tedick (2000), believe that language immersion program originated in Canada about 40 years ago and is today "a language education program model used for a variety of purposes and across a wide range of social, cultural, and political contexts" (p. 6).

Mike Bostswick (2001) states that although bilingual education can be traced back to 3000 BC, the form of bilingual education called immersion education that they use at Katoh is generally accepted to have started in Quebec, Canada. Melikoff et al. (1972) also believe that the origin of immersion program is in Canada. They argue that the origins of publicly-funded immersion education in Canada were in St. Lambert, Quebec, in the 1960s. An initial group of 12 parents in St. Lambert met in October of 1963 to discuss their concerns regarding the failure of the existing education system to produce graduates with a communicative knowledge of French. Their concerns were expressed within the

context of growing recognition by Quebec Anglophones of the importance of the French language in Quebec and in Canada. Olga Melikoff, one of the founding members of the St. Lambert parents group, reported that in 1963, the St. Lambert parents believed that "their children were being shortchanged and should have the opportunity to become 'bilingual' within the school system since it was so difficult to achieve this outside of school." After two years of meeting with other parents, of lobbying their school board, and of consulting language learning and teaching experts, the parents group finally obtained the reluctant permission of the school board to set up one experimental French immersion kindergarten class in September, 1965. The initial years of the 'experiment' were not easy, but the idea caught on and has subsequently spread across Canada (Stern, 1990) and to languages other than French.

So it can be claimed that Immersion education is most widespread and long – established in Canada. In Canada a Full immersion program means a bilingual program in which a second language (SL) is learned through other areas of curriculum and the two languages share equal time – and which includes an initial period of total immersion in which the entire instruction is in L2. Total immersion, the initial language 'bath' which begins a full immersion program, is thought to be a necessary component of program design if the proper immersion effect is to be experienced (Melikof et al, 1972).

C. Characteristics of Immersion Program

The very outstanding characteristic (some take it as an advantage) of immersion program is the teaching of a second language along with its culture and content without the application of the learners' first language.

Johnson and Swain (1997) mention eight characteristics of immersion programs as follows:

- The L2 is a medium of instruction.
- The curriculum is the same as the local L1 curriculum.
- Overt support exists for L1.
- The program aims for additive bilingualism.
- Exposure to the L2 is largely confined to the classroom.
- Students enter with similar (and limited) levels of L2 proficiency.
- The teachers are bilingual.
- The classroom culture is that of the local L1 community.

Immersion program is not an easily employed method. In comparison to other modern or innovative methods, this program needs the committed supports of many to be characterized as a successful program. So implementation of this program may create some struggles on the side of learners, teachers, or even parents. In general, according to Myriam Met (1987) a successful immersion program can be characterized by 1) administrative support 2) community and parental support 3) qualified teachers 4) appropriate materials in the foreign language 5) time for teachers to prepare instructional materials in the language 6) ongoing staff development.

D. Types of Immersion Program

Since the first immersion program in Canada, a number of different immersion programs have been implemented all over the world. Immersion programs are categorized in different categories based on two factors: age and extent

► *Age:* It refers to the time at which the program is initiated. In terms of time of initiation, immersion program is classified into four groups:

- *Early Immersion:* In this type of immersion commencing at the age of 5 or 6, students begin learning a second language in pre – school, kindergarten, or first grade of primary school.
- *Middle Immersion (delayed immersion):* It is initiated at the age of 9 or 10 when the students are at the later primary school.
- *Late Immersion:* It starts some time between the ages of 11 and 14 when the learners are at the secondary school.
- *Late Late immersion:* It begins at the university level.

► *Extent*: It refers to the percentage of curricular content covered in the L2. Based on this factor immersion programs can be divided into two types:

- *Total Immersion:* The programs in which the entire curriculum is taught in the L2 are classified as *total* or *full* immersion. In this type of immersion almost 100% of class time is in the foreign language. Subject matters are taught in foreign language. Target language is the only medium of instruction. In situations where comprehension is hampered, the teachers apply some techniques like dramatization, demonstration, definition, and use of realia, to resolve incomprehensibility.
- *Partial Immersion:* In partial immersion program about half of the class time is spent in teaching the subject matters in the foreign language. In other words, at least 50% of the curriculum is delivered through the target language.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Design and Sampling

In terms of research method, this study falls into the category of "quantitative" research and its design is a longitudinal.

In terms of sampling, it is both 'availability or convenience sampling' and 'purposive sampling'. It is 'availability sampling' since the samples selected from two schools in Mysore, India for this study are the most convenient and available ones for the researcher. It was neither economically nor logistically possible for the researcher to choose samples from other cities in India. On the other hand, it is 'purposive sampling' since the subjects were chosen based on the purpose of the study.

B. Participants

In this study, in order to provide a logical and data-based answer to the research questions, two homogenous groups of students of two genders, male and female, from two immersion schools named St. Joseph's Primary and St. Joseph's Central schools in Mysore, India were selected. They were nominated as group one (GI) and group two (GII). Having eliminated the outliers from the groups, the researcher could finally select 40 students from each class i.e. 80 altogether from the two aforementioned immersion schools as the main participants of the study. Both groups were studying in English-medium schools and were learning English as a by-product of school instructions. It is worth mentioning that the participants were not aware of the research procedures.

C. Instrumentation

In this study three 'paper and pencil' tests were used for different purposes: homogeneity determination, measurement of the extent of the subjects' ability in using the acquired second language in 'met' situations, and determination of the learners' ability in using the acquired second language in 'unmet' situations. To achieve the first goal, the researcher applied the YLE (Young Learners English) series produced by Cambridge University. It is at three different levels: "Beginners", "Movers", and "Flyers". To secure the homogeneity of the participants, considering the level of the participants, the researcher used the "Movers". It was composed of two main parts: "Listening" and "Reading & Writing".

To achieve the other two goals, the researcher constructed two new tests on two aspects of *production* and *comprehension*. Having constructed the tests, he gave them to parallel classes to the target classes as pre-test to determine the appropriateness of each item. After scoring the papers, he analyzed each item in terms of item facility, item difficulty, and item discrimination.

Like any other newly developed test, these tests also required to be validated and their reliability needed to be estimated. Since they were Norm - Referenced Tests (NRT), their validity could be determined through **criterion-related validity**. So the researcher used 'Flyers' the standard test produced by Cambridge University to calculate the coefficient validity of the newly developed tests. The obtained coefficient validities ($r_{xy} = 0.73$) and ($r_{xy} = 0.68$) confirm the validity of the tests. The reliability of these tests was estimated through applying the **KR 21** formula. The estimated reliability of these tests ($r \approx 0.65$) and ($r \approx 0.71$) show that they can be regarded as reliable tests, too.

In these tests the students' ability in comprehension and production of grammar, vocabulary, reading and collocation in met and unmet situations was measured.

D. Procedure

To carry out this study, the following procedures were followed:

First, two groups of second standard students from two immersion schools were selected randomly. It was ascertained that all subjects had already passed Lower Kindergarten and Upper Kindergarten in English medium centers and being non-native English speakers. Being from two different educational centers, the participants were definitely required to be homogenized. Therefore, they were given a standard test namely YLE produced by Cambridge University as pre-test to secure their homogeneity. For this purpose, the "Movers" was applied. To test the homogeneity of the two groups, the researcher applied a *t*-test analysis the results of which appear in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
T - TEST FOR PRE-TEST SCORES FOR HOMOGENEITY OF TWO GROUPS

Groups	N	M	S	df	t. observed
G I	40	45.075	6.054		
G II	40	44.90	8.198	78	0.913
P < 0.05			t. critical= 2.000		

According to this table, the obtained *t* - value (*t* observed) was 0.9139 with concern of the degree of freedom of 78 and the level of significance of 0.05, is smaller than the *t*-critical (2.000). So, it was concluded that the two groups of students of the Primary and Central St. Joseph's Schools, were homogeneous.

After the groups were proved to be homogenous, the researcher administered the two tests on second language to measure their ability in using and comprehending the acquired second language in two *met* and *unmet* situations with an interval. The obtained scores were compared and interpreted to achieve the final result.

E. Data Collection

The researcher collected data by attending some classes in two immersion schools in Mysore, India personally at different times. At first he distributed the proficiency test papers. Later on, he distributed the two other tests with an interval measuring their ability in using the acquired second language in two different situations (met and unmet).

F. Data Analysis

Following the collection of data from the participants, the researcher condensed all the items into two categories of comprehension and production. Each category included items on grammar, vocabulary, reading, and collocation. The data obtained from the participants were tabulated and transferred to Excel spreadsheet for descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. To verify the hypotheses, the data obtained from the whole participants was subjected to the t-test method to compare the means obtained from the two groups. All statistical procedures were carried out applying the *t*-test formula with alpha set as 0.05. The primary aim of this study was to examine carefully the versatility in learners' second language competency acquired through an immersion program. In fact, the researcher wished to determine whether the learners can use the acquired second language in versatile manner or it is subject dependent.

IV. RESULTS

Having scored the papers, the researcher put the obtained data in three different categories as follows.

A. The Comparison of the Learners' Ability in "Using" the Acquired Second Language Competence in 'Met' and 'Unmet' Situations

Having computed the means and standard deviations of the two sets of scores of two tests through the Excel software, the researcher could make a comparison between the learners' ability in using the acquired second language in different situations. So, the scores of the two different tests measuring the learners' ability in using the acquired second language in two different 'met' and 'unmet' situations (versatile manner) were subjected to t – test formula and the results are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
T – TEST FOR VERSATILE USE OF THE ACQUIRED SECOND LANGUAGE

Situation	N	M	S	df	t. observed
Met	80	65.44	7.89		
Unmet	80	61.93	11.68	158	0.031
P < 0.05				t. critical= 1.98	

According to the Table 2, the *t*. observed equaled 0.031 which is far too less than the *t*. critical which is 1.98 with the level of significance of $P < 0.05$. It shows that the difference between using the second language in two different situations i.e., 'met' and 'unmet' is not statistically significant. So, it can be claimed that the learners who acquire a second language through immersion program will be able to produce and understand it in both 'met' and 'unmet' situations. In other words, their ability in comprehension and production of the acquired second language is not subject dependent. Consequently, the researcher can confirm his null hypothesis about the learners' ability in versatile use of the acquired second language which said *'There is no difference between the learners' ability in using the acquired second language in 'met' and 'unmet' situations'*.
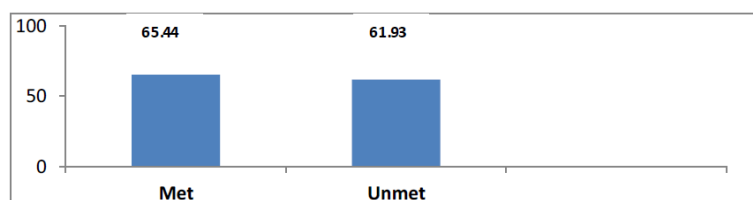

Figure 1: Means of using the acquired second language in 'met' and 'unmet' Situations

B. The Comparison of Learners' Ability in Versatile "Comprehension" and "Production" of the Second Language

In the previous section (4.1) the researcher made a comparison between the subjects' mean scores through the application of the *t*-test formula to determine their general ability in using the acquired second language. As we observed, since the *t*. observed (0.031) was smaller than the *t*. critical (1.98), no difference between second language use in two situations was found. In addition to this outcome, the researcher was interested in finding out whether there is any difference in the comprehension and production of the acquired second language in 'met' and 'unmet' situations or not. To meet this goal, the scores of the tests on versatile use and understanding of the second language were broken into 'comprehension' and 'production'. Then they were put in the *t*-test formula; the results are displayed in the following tables. In table 3 the learners' ability in versatile comprehension of the acquired second language is shown.

TABLE 3:
T − TEST FOR VERSATILE COMPREHENSION OF THE ACQUIRED SECOND LANGUAGE

Situation	N	M	S	df	t. observed
Met	80	71.83	8.74		
Unmet	80	67.01	12.72	158	0.010
P < 0.05			t. critical= 1.98		

As Table 3 shows, the *t.* observed (0.010) is much less than the *t.* critical (1.98). So the difference between the learners' ability in the comprehension of the acquired second language in the two 'met' and 'unmet' situations is insignificant. Thus the related sub hypothesis which was saying *"There is no difference between the learners' ability in comprehension of the acquired second language in 'met' and 'unmet' situations"* is supported.
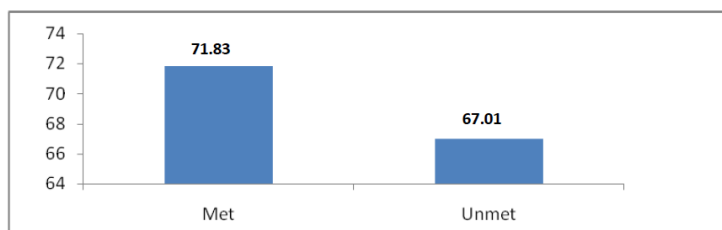

Figure 2: Means of scores in versatile comprehension of second language

In table 4 the learners' ability in versatile production of the acquired second language is shown.

TABLE 4:
T − TEST FOR VERSATILE PRODUCTION OF THE ACQUIRED SECOND LANGUAGE

Situation	N	M	S	df	t. observed
Met	80	59.30	9.73		
Unmet	80	57.03	12.66	158	0.252
P < 0.05			t. critical= 1.98		

This table also reveals an insignificant difference between the learners' ability in producing the second language in two different - met and unmet – situations since the *t.*observed (0.252) is smaller than the *t.* critical (1.98). So the sub hypothesis about the versatile production of the acquired second language is confirmed. As it said *"There is no difference between the learners' ability in producing the acquired second language in 'met' and 'unmet' situations."*
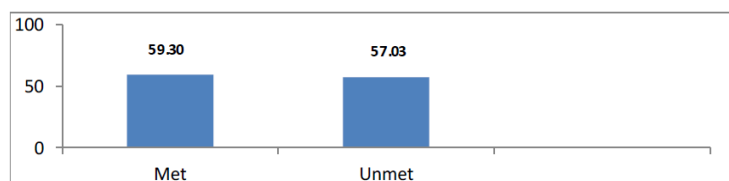

Figure 3: Means of scores in versatile production of second language
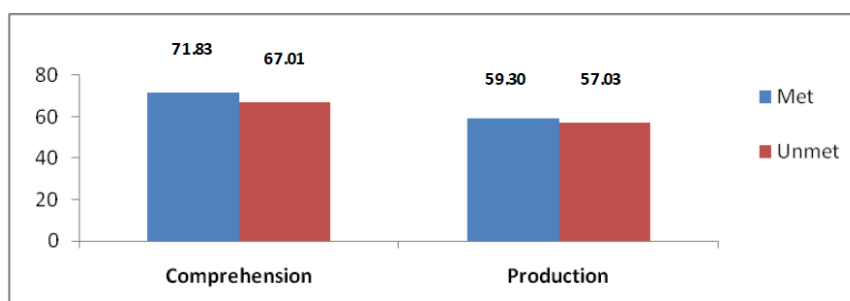

Figure 4: Means of versatile comprehension and production in met and unmet situations

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The main question of this study 'Can learners use the acquired competence in a versatile manner or is it *subject dependent and subject-specific?* investigated the students' ability in using the acquired second language in the 'met' and 'unmet' situations. As it was previously clarified, by 'met' situations, the researcher meant those in which the learners were exposed to a second language or they had already experienced it such as school milieu, classroom, and subject materials. By 'unmet', he meant the situations out of the school milieu. The ones in which the students will require to use the target language (the medium of instruction) 'receptively' and 'expressively'. According to Table 2, the obtained

t. observed (0.031) computed through the application of the *t*-test formula on the means of the two tests is less than the *t*. critical value (1.98). It shows the difference between these two situations is not significant. Thus, the researcher accepted his null hypothesis: *There is no difference between the learners' ability in using the acquired second language in 'met' and 'unmet' situations.*

This finding can be considered as one of the most significant results of this study. All methods and approaches attempt to teach the learners a foreign/second language in a way that they can use the learned language in the real life situations. As the review of most of such methods shows, a large number of them failed in achieving this goal. One of the main reasons can be the gap between the environment in which the learners are taught the language and the real life environment in which they use the language, i.e., the educational environment may not match the characteristics of the real one. The other reason might be the contents through which the target language is presented. As it is quite normal in language teaching process, any new language is presented through content. The contents selected to bear language may be contrived and unreal.

On the contrary, the finding of this study shows that immersion program is successful in providing second language learners who are proficient both in educational setting and in real life situations. The result related to the main question tells us that what portion of the second language a learner has acquired in his class along with his learning the subject matters, he can use in the real life situations as well. It happens so in immersion education because the environment in which they are exposed to the target language is very close to the real environment. Further, the contents are not fake since they are the subject matters and the text books.

It can be justifiably claimed that the goal of language acquisition by immersion program is directly in line with the learners' future needs to a second language in their future life. Second language is presented in contexts and frameworks which are directly correlated with the contexts in which they will need to use the acquired language.

One of the ultimate goals in teaching/learning a second language is to make learners proficient enough to use the acquired/learned target language in the real life communication. Unfortunately the outcomes of many researches don't prove such success. Contrary to the expectations, most of the learners fail in establishing a successful communication when they are located in the target language community.

As it was shown in this study, the difference in the students' ability in producing and comprehending the acquired second language in two 'met' (their educational milieu) and 'unmet' (out of their educational milieu, real life) situations are not significant. It denotes that what the students acquire of the target language along with learning the regular subject matters can be used in classroom, in interaction with the peers and teachers, and out of their educational settings for a live communication as well. For instance, in Indian community the researcher finds educated people with a high proficiency in English as a second language who experienced no formal specific instruction in English except in their schools and universities in the light of immersion program implementation, either total or partial.

So, through immersion program, achieving the very important goal of second language acquisition can be guaranteed. In this case, the researcher can claim that the learners' competence in SL through immersion program in relation to second language acquisition is generalizable enough.

The outcome of this study can prove the claim that immersion program can be entitled as a second language acquisition approach (method). Since through the application of this method, the students can gain a kind of competence in second language which enables them to use it for communication properly.

In comparison to other methods which normally focus on teaching an SL, immersion program is quite successful to make the learners proficient in SL as well as to help them to gain mastery on the content.

One of the main distinctions of immersion program from the other methods is in having the learners proficient both in their general English and ESP. Instruction of all subjects in SL (English) provides an opportunity for them to learn ESP along with acquiring general English.

VI. IMPLICATIONS

► One implication can be not recommending the immersion program to be used in any context (school or institute) with similar assumption and expectation. So implication of this program in EFL context is not supported because studying on limited number of students selected from two educational complexes in ESL context cannot provide sufficient evidence for the adequacy of immersion program in EFL context.

► Immersion program can be applied as the only instructional program by the teachers for the purpose of second language teaching, not mixed with other school program(s). Unlike some educational centers where the students receive the instruction half day in L1 and in another half in L2. In the two chosen schools where the researcher has done his study, students were exposed to the *total* immersion program and had all their school programs only in the target language (L2). However, in the combined L1 and L2 situations, it might make students feel tired and they could not benefit from the immersion program. The program will be successful and of benefit to the language learners, if it is used as an individual and independent program.

► Based on what the researcher found in this study and his own long experience as an EFL instructor, he recommends that for the EFL learners, the partial immersion program or communicative language teaching method with an active approach to grammar can be more beneficial than the total (full) immersion. However, an explicit teaching of grammar would be of benefit to the EFL students because they can learn and use it along with the activities they do

around the syllabus. In an EFL environment, especially where learners are not exposed to the second language outside the class, communicative courses of language instructions can also be successful because learners pay attention mostly to language and not to the content and learn the second language by doing related tasks in the class.

A. Implications for English-medium Schools

The results of this study clearly showed that studying school subject matters through English is a very effective way of developing competence in English. The implications of this finding is that establishing English-medium schools both in EFL and ESL situations can serve the important purpose of teaching English as a by-product of schooling. Government educational organizations as well as Private educational institutions can adopt the immersion program which involves the teaching of school subjects through English.

B. Implications for Securing the Cultural Safety of ELT Program

Many Eastern countries in general and Islamic countries in particular are seriously concerned about the cultural consequences of teaching English in its western cultural context. This concern is accentuated by the profusion of western culture in the internationally- marketed ELT materials. The implication of this study for the cultural safety of ELT programs is that immersion program can be a very effective way of blocking these unwanted influences as the locally designed school textbooks can be free from the western cultural influences and reflect the ideals of education in the countries where they are used. Many subjects like Math and science are by their very nature totally free from unwanted cultural issues and many other subjects like social studies and history can be designed in such a way that the content of the courses are in line with the ideal goals of the educational systems in question. Helping the students achieve versatile competence in English without getting exposed to the unwanted cultural content of internationally-marketed ELT materials is an ideal for many educational policy makers around the world and this is what can be achieved through immersion program.

C. Implications for Further Research

The present research was concluded in Idea where English is used as a second language. The versatile competence achieved by the subjects of this study might be partially attributable to the reinforcement they received from the English speaking people in the social environment. Similar studies can be done in EFL situations where English is not used in the social context to see is the English-medium school students can achieve the same level of versatility in the use of English they learn in English-medium schools.

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On FL Learners' Individual Differences in Grammar Learning and Their Grammatical Competence Training

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Abstract—In FL grammar teaching field, there are many researches concerning about students' English grammatical learning and grammatical competence improvement, but the previous researches are mainly about foreign language learners' grammar level as a whole, very few researches are about the individual differences in learners' grammatical knowledge acquisition and competence improvement. This paper analyzes the individual differences that influence FL learners' grammar acquisition and grammatical competence improvement through interview, questionnaire and observation, four college students majoring in English participated in the study. Then, basing on the Study of FL learners individual differences in grammar learning and the integration between explicit grammatical knowledge and implicit grammatical competence in grammar acquisition, this paper constructs an FL learners' grammatical competence training model according to different students' individuality, aiming at narrowing down the gap between top students and ordinary students' grammatical competence in non-native context and the gap between FL learners' English grammatical knowledge and their grammatical competence. The results, to a certain degree, will be beneficial to the improvement of FL grammar teaching quality.

Index Terms—individual differences, motivation, strategies, internalization, grammatical competence training model

I. INTRODUCTION

In acquiring a foreign language, grammar has long been an early obstacle to overcome. As we know, English grammar acquisition in non-native context is not only an indispensable part but also a complex process which remains to be further explored. Nevertheless, the role of grammar has been undervalued in the field of SLA in the early part of the 20th century. During the past decades, though there has been a growing interest in foreign language learners' grammar acquisition among second language teachers and researchers, and the research stockpile has expanded in scope and complexity at a remarkable rate in and abroad. And a lot of researchers (like: Skehan, 1989; Larsen-Freeman and Long,1991; Ellis,1994) have proved the individual differences among learners' foreign language learning, but the studies by far mainly concern foreign language learners' grammar level as a whole, while neglecting the individual differences of foreign language learners' grammar learning. Thus, we still do not know whether, and to what extent, their findings work in FL learners' grammar learning or not. In this paper, we will study grammar learning from the perspective of FL learners' different individuality.

English grammar acquisition in non-native context is a complex mental process which needs to be further studied. Though the existing researches have broadened the scope of English grammar study, the research on how to help FL learners internalize their explicit grammatical knowledge into their grammatical competence in non-native context is still in its infancy. During our foreign language grammar teaching, we are usually puzzled by the problems like, why most students have grasped the systematic knowledge of grammar while cannot output them freely in their writing or speaking? Why students' grammar levels are quite different even under the same learning environment? What kinds of individual differences mainly influence foreign language learners' grammar learning and grammatical output competence? And how to help FL learners narrow the gap between their grammatical knowledge and grammatical competence? In order to settle these problems and help FL learners improve their grammatical competence in non-native context, we divide the 160 English majors of Zhengzhou University into 4 different groups (excellent, 40; good, 40; ordinary, 40; poor, 40) according to their final grammar exam scores, and randomly select one college student from each of the 4 group (their grammar final scores are: student A, 88; student B, 82; student C, 76; student D, 58).

The main methods of this study are: semi-open interview, questionnaire and observation.

II. METHODS OF RESEARCH

Student A, B, C and D respectively come from countryside, city, city and countryside. Their ages are: 19, 19, 18 and 20. Student A and C are female, B and D are male. They came to the same University in the year 2010 and studied grammar with the help of the same teacher for a whole year. From their present test score, we can easily find that student A and B's grammatical knowledge are better than student C and D's. Data collection was mainly conducted

through interview, questionnaire and observation. The question forms are mainly semi-conducted and are designed before the interview. The allocated time to each student is 30 minutes. The whole process was recorded and taken down item by item by the interviewers. In addition, the four students' English level, their notes, and outside exercises are also included in this research. In order to get a better result, the interviewees' expressions and their methods of answering questions are also observed and taken down by us.

To the data analysis, we mainly adopt the qualitative methods.

III. THE RESULTS ANALYSIS

According to the analysis of the data from the interview, questionnaire and observation, a lot of individual differences have been found in foreign language learners' process of grammar acquisition. Such as: motivation, language aptitude, personality, previous educational background, learning strategies and even gender. This finding coincides with the findings of individual differences in language learning research, which, to a certain degree, proves that most of the findings that have been found about individual differences in language learning can still work in the learning of pronunciation. Among all the differences, motivation, learning strategies and the learners' previous educational background are the most influential factors that influence their grammar learning effect. This article will discuss them respectively in detail.

A. Motivation

Harmer (1983) argues that motivation is an internal drive which encourages language learners to pursue a course of action. That is, when a learner perceives an attractive goal that he wishes to achieve, he may do whatever is necessary to realize it. Gardner (1972) defines motivation as referring to a combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language. He also makes the famous distinction between integrative and instrumental orientations in motivation. The former mainly happens when a learner is studying a language because of his wish to know the culture of that language; while the latter describes a series of factors about motivation resulting from external goals such as passing exams, getting rewards, or gaining promotion. Of course, the motivation that Gardner refers mainly correlates with the language achievement. Through the interview and observation, we think that this distinction also works in the process of learners' grammar learning. That is to say, motivation is also an important factor in FL learners' grammar learning and their grammar competence improvement.

With the focus of foreign language grammar teaching shifting from teacher-centered to student-centered, one of the prime problems cannot be neglected is learners' individual motivation. Only by studying learners' motivation to grammar learning, can we give a more reasonable explanation of the gap among different learners under the same learning environment.

Among the four learners, student A's grammar score is the highest, and her grammatical competence is also relatively higher than the other three during the interview. During the process of interview, we find that her motivation mainly belongs to instrumental one. She says that she wants to be an excellent English teacher after graduation. "Only have a good command of grammar, can I become a qualified English teacher", says she. With this purpose, she persuades herself to love English, to imitate every good structure from the textbook or newspaper, to pay attention to the different forms and sentence patterns that she's met. As a future teacher, she requires herself to remember the grammatical items such as passive/ active voice, nonfinite verbs (infinitive, including bare/ naked infinitive, split infinitive; gerund and participles), superlative degree, comparative degree and different names for English tenses. In fact, integrative motivation also more or less exists n her learning, because in order to realize her dream of becoming an excellent teacher, she tries to cultivate her interest in the learning of English grammar.

Student B says, "I like English, and I want to be an interpreter after graduation.' 'It is my English that helps me to be confident and proud of myself, I really love English. And if possible, I want to go abroad to study further." Obviously, his motivation mainly belongs to integrative one. Interest is the most important factor that impels him to study English, and great interest helps him to study hard and get good achievements. Though his grammar score is not the highest, his all- round ability is the best among the four. He says, "Besides the contents that teachers ask me to grasp, I also like business English, tourist English, and something like western cultures and all that I'm interested in." From the interview, we can find that integrative motivation usually correlates with higher achievement in foreign language learning, while to the learning of grammar, it may not always work.

Student C is the youngest one among the four. From the observation to her notes and exercises, it is easy to find that she is not a diligent student. During the interview, she says, "I can not say I like English grammar. But, I think it is interesting, and I especially like to know the differences between Chinese grammar and English grammar. Frankly, I'm not sure whether grammar is useful in my future job or not." To the way of studying English grammar, she mentions that she has no good method of grammar learning, but she wants to know some grammar learning strategy. "I seldom review or prepare for my grammar lesson, but I prefer reading English novels and poems. Besides, I think grammar cannot be learned." From what she says, we can find that: only interest cannot help a learner to be successful, and the role of motivation in foreign language learning should not be neglected. Without clear goal and strong motivation, to a certain extent, hinders student C's grammar improvement.

To student D, before I asked him questions, he told me frankly, "my parents ask me to choose English, while my interest is history." He also said, "I want to be an archaeologist in the future. English can only be a tool, and I think it's no need for me to study English grammar." When I ask him, "How do you usually study English grammar, and what's the most difficult problem that you come across in your grammar learning?" He answers, "Sorry, I seldom study grammar. The only purpose I study English grammar is to pass the exam, but I failed. I have a lot of problems in grammar learning, such as why to study and how to study." Obviously, He is not so cooperative with the interview. Lacking of motivation in grammar learning, even the English learning is the main factor that hinders his improvement of grammar level. Student D represents a kind of learners in English learning----they study English with their parents' hope, not their own motivations.

From the analysis of the four typical students, we can find that: integrative motivation includes learners' interest, but only interest itself is not enough to draw the conclusion whether a learner has integrative motivation or not. Student C is a good example. Student A's high score depends on her strong motivation---to be an excellent English teacher. Though instrumental motivation has been found to be a weak predicator of foreign language achievement, it appears to be much more effective in foreign language learners' grammar learning.

B.   Learning Strategies

Rubin (1975) uses learning strategies to mean the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge. Basing on this definition, the learning strategies in grammar can be defined as: the effective techniques that can help the learner to improve his grammatical competence by freely using his grammatical knowledge in language output.

Oxford (1990) points out the two reasons for which learning strategy is important. One is that strategy is a tool for self-study, especially for improving communicative ability; the other is that learners who use appropriate learning strategies are more confident and efficient in learning process. Grammar is one essential part of language learning, therefore, there is no denying that appropriate learning strategy is a guarantee for effective grammar acquisition.

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), "learning strategy can be divided into: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies" (P. 118). And each strategy includes different subcategories. Respectively, cognitive strategies refer to the steps or operations used in problem-solving that require direct analysis, transformation or synthesis of learning materials. Metacognitive strategies make use of knowledge about cognitive processes and constitute an attempt to regulate language learning by means of planning, monitoring and evaluating. While social/affective strategies concern the way in which learners select to interact with other learners and native speakers (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, P. 118-121). According to the interview and the observation, all the four learners have used cognitive strategies. For examples: student A usually makes some cards on which the grammatical rules or items are written; student B and D like to use imitation in grammar learning. They usually consciously apply what they have learned into their daily practice, such as using newly-learned structures or phrases in their speaking or writing. Except cognitive strategies, in the application of grammatical knowledge, student A and B also prefer social/affective strategies. Especially student A, she has the habit of practicing English in pairs or groups, they talk about what they have learned in English, and they often correct each other's mistakes. Student B likes to go to the English Corner and make foreign friends. Student C and D seldom use social strategies in grammar learning. Student A adopts more strategies in realizing her dream of becoming a qualified English teacher. To the total amount of strategies, student A: 12; B: 11; C: 8; D: 6 kinds. By observation, we found that some cognitive strategies such as repetition, memory, note-taking, looking up dictionaries and reference books may be most preferred by students, and affective strategies may just serve to regulate emotions, motivation and attitudes. (e.g. strategies for reducing anxieties)

When they were asked "What's the most important factor that influences your English grammatical competence improvement?" Student A said, "More practice"; B said, "Maybe language aptitude can determine one's language competence"; student C agreed with student B; while D said, "interest". Statistical analysis of strategy use indicates that there are significant differences between effective practicing and ineffective practicing. The students who have good grammatical competence usually use more strategies than the poor learners. Research on practicing style also indicates that cognitive strategies are the most influential strategies in grammar acquisition.

C.   Previous Experience

The data collection of this part mainly comes from the learners' answers to the prepared questions and the Questionnaire about personal information. Basing on their answers, the following three aspects are the most influential factors that influence their grammar learning and grammatical competence.

1.   Growing Environment

Student B and Student C come from cities, while student A and D come from the countryside. This finding seems contrary to the traditional concept—the students who come from cities usually have good command of English while students from the countryside are relatively poor in English learning. Students A's high score in grammar final test and her way of answering questions indicate that her grammatical competence is relatively higher than the other three. Though student C comes from city and has good learning environment, her grammar is still poor. The results of this interview indicates that a learner's grammatical competence has little connection with his birth place and living environment, but has close relationship with his efforts, motivations and other non—intelligent factors.

Both of student A's parents are primary teachers. They know little of English, but they are very strict with their daughter. When student A was only in primary school, they began to ask her to listen to English nursery songs and some simple English fairy tales, all this greatly influenced student A's interest in English learning. Greatly influenced by her parents, student A decides to be an English teacher after graduation.

Student B's father is a Russian interpreter, while his mother is a nurse. He admires his father since childhood and decides to be an interpreter when he grows up. Student C comes from a rich family. Her mother is a successful entrepreneuse and her father is an artist. She never thinks more about her future, because her mother 'thinks' instead of her. Student D's parents are peasants. They don't know of English, but they believe that English will be more and more important in the future. That's why they go against their son's will and 'order' him to choose English major.

The research indicates that family environment plays an important role in the learners' grammar learning. Student A's parents build up effective learning environment for her, and her grammar is the best of the four. Therefore, only studying those changeable factors such as what motivations they hold, what learning strategies they adopt and how they attribute their successes and failures is far from enough in helping learners improve their language competence. Successful teaching is not only a matter of teaching strategies, it also involves in the study of students' non-intelligence factors. This finding is consistent with Brown (2001) and Ellis's (2003) research that non-intelligence factors affects learning process and can even affect learners' achievements.

2. Educational Background

Student B and Student C study in the key schools in cities since childhood; and student A and D study in the countryside before Junior Middle School. Then, student A becomes a member of Foreign Language School, while student D enters a key school of his county. It seems that there is no clear relationship between their previous studying schools and their present grammar level, which is, to a certain degree, contrary to the general conception that the Educational background will influence one's future learning.

3. Conclusion of the Study on FL Learners Grammar Individual Differences

The above analysis indicates that individual differences not only exist in learners' foreign language grammar learning, but also have great influences in the improvement of their grammatical competence. From the interview, we also find that: in order to improve students' grammatical competence, great attention should be paid to foreign language learners' individual differences. Only the teacher knows much about the learners' individual differences in grammar learning, can he use flexible methods to improve the learners' learning enthusiasm according to their personalities, and at the same time, help the learners to improve their grammatical competence efficiently.

Basing on Chinese College English Teaching Syllabus (2000), the goal of English grammar teaching is to help students improve their competence of using English grammar in different context, not just to grasp grammatical knowledge, which clearly shows that how to help FL learners internalize their grammatical knowledge and improve their grammatical competence is the real aim of English grammar teaching in non-native context. Basing on FL learners' individual differences in grammar learning and the integration between explicit and implicit grammatical Learning, we'll construct an FL Learners' Grammatical Competence Training Model, aiming at helping FL learners' improve their grammatical competence in non-native context.

IV. The Construction of FL Learners' Grammatical Competence Training Model

Only knowing FL learners' individual differences in grammar learning is far from enough in helping them improve their grammatical competence under non-native environment. Under the pressure of entrance examination, most Chinese FL learners have grasped the relatively systematic grammar knowledge, but they don't know how to use them in their language output, and some even have a vague idea of the differences between grammatical knowledge and grammatical competence, needless to say, to improve their grammatical competence. Therefore, helping them gain a clear idea of the differences between explicit grammatical knowledge and implicit grammatical competence is the precondition of improving their grammatical competence and narrowing down the gap between the high-achieving learners and the poor ones.

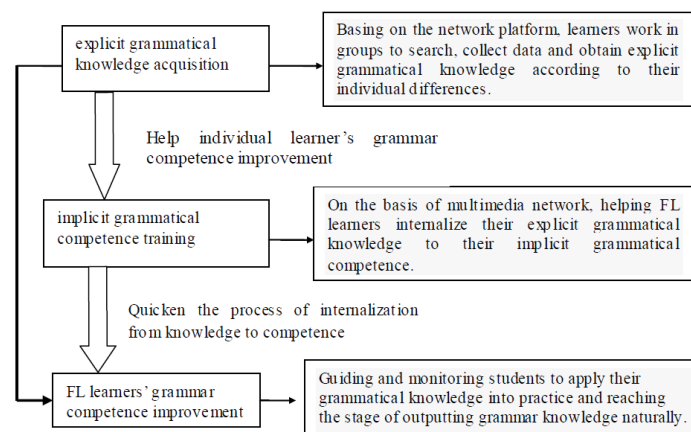*A. Relationship between Explicit Grammatical Knowledge and Implicit Grammatical Competence*

"The relationship between explicit grammatical knowledge and implicit grammatical competence is similar to the interrelationship between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge. The declarative knowledge is equivalent to the knowledge concept we traditionally have, while the procedural knowledge mainly refers to the knowledge used to answer question like how to do" (Du Xiaohong, 2013, P.30). English grammar rules are similar to declarative knowledge, while how to apply grammatical rules during language output belongs to the category of procedural knowledge. According to Pi Liansheng (2004), "the first stage of procedural knowledge is declarative knowledge acquisition, that is, declarative knowledge is the basis of procedural knowledge; the second stage of procedural knowledge is achieved through applying rules from procedural knowledge to declarative knowledge; and the highest stage of knowledge development is to achieve the degree of automation in language output" (P.92-93). For example, after acquiring related rules of "present perfect" tense, students only obtain the declarative knowledge of the tense "present perfect", namely, the grammatical rules and concepts of this tense, if they don't internalize the related knowledge, that is, don't apply it in daily communication or writing, they still cannot have the competence of outputting

this tense in their language output.

B. Construction of FL Learners' Grammatical Competence Training Model

With the advent and popularity of Internet, a growing number of new teaching equipments can be applied to help foreign learners improve their grammatical competence according to the individual differences of their grammar learning. "The introduction and application of multimedia technology to FL teaching can not only provide students with "real" or native-like contexts, but also can help them understand the abstract grammatical knowledge by using pictures and other animation or cartoons" (Du Xiaohong, 2011, P. 28). On the basis of multimedia and network environment and the relationship between declarative and procedural knowledge, FL learners' grammatical competence training model under non-native environment can be illustrated as:

According to the above diagram, if grammar learning only stays at the stage of explicit grammatical knowledge acquisition, foreign language learners can only get declarative knowledge. With the help of multimedia network environment, organizing and prompting learners to create native-like grammar acquisition context and providing learners with more opportunities to use grammatical rules will, in a way, quicken the internalization from their explicit grammatical knowledge to their implicit grammatical competence. Implicit grammatical knowledge is not easily visible and expressible, and is often acquired unconsciously or naturally. So, creating "real" or native-like learning contexts is very essential in FL grammar teaching.

Celce-Murcia (1992) state that any formal grammar instruction is more effective if it is discourse-based and context-based than if it is sentence-based and context-free. In order to improve FL learners' ability of internalizing their grammatical knowledge, we should provide students with various native-like contexts to stimulate their grammar autonomous learning, and thus help them combine their grammar learning strategies with the contexts provided, including both semi-contextualized and fully contextualized environments, such as film clips, TV programs, broadcasting, newspapers, difficult sentences in the novels. For example, in order to help students internalize and output past tense automatically, I asked them to freely output some vivid examples such as "I liked pop music", "I was a top student when I was in senior school." (In certain context, they mean "I don't like pop music now" and "I am not a top student now).

In order to evaluate whether students have grasped the comparison between "past tense" and "present tense", I ask them to analyze the conversation:

Husband: Do you love me?

Wife: Yes, I loved you.

Obviously, the wife used the past tense to express her feeling that in the past she loved her husband but now she doesn't love him.

Then, encourage them to distinguish the differences between "You studied very hard last year" and "You study very hard this year". This kind of semi-contextualized or fully contextualized environments can not only arouse students' learning enthusiasm, but also can help them reduce the time of their grammar automatic input and output.

V. CONCLUSION AND FURTHER RESEARCH

According to the analysis of individual differences that influence FL learners' grammatical competence improvement through interview, questionnaire and observation, we find that individual differences not only exist in learners' foreign language grammar learning, but also have great influences in FL learners' grammatical competence improvement, which, in a way, leads to the obvious gap between students' grammatical knowledge and their competence. Then, on the basis of FL learners' individual differences in grammar learning and the integration between explicit grammatical knowledge and implicit grammatical competence in FL learners' grammar acquisition, we construct an FL learners' grammatical competence training model, aiming at improving students' grammatical competence in non-native context.

Obviously, this model will, in a way, benefit students' grammatical competence improvement. However, we still have no relatively appropriate textbooks for FL grammar teaching. Compiling an ideal English grammar textbook to help foreign language learners improve their grammatical competence in non-native context is another problem which needs our further studies.

APPENDIX

Interview questions:
Question 1: What's your purpose or motivation of grammar learning?
Question 2: What kinks of learning strategy do you usually use to improve your English grammar? Question 3: How do you usually study English grammar? What's the most difficult problem that you come across in your grammar learning?
Question 4: What's the most important factor that influences your English grammatical competence improvement?
Questionnaire about personal information:
1. Your name_____
2. Your gender_____
3. Your grammar final score this year _____
4. Your birth place _____
5. The place you received you junior education _____
6. The place you received you senior education _____
7. Your mother's job_____; 8. Your father's job_____
8. Your purpose of learning grammar is_____
9. When did you start to learn English?
   A. from Junior Middle School   B. from Senior Middle School
   C. from Primary School   D. before Primary School
10. How much do you agree with the statement "Grammar learning is very important"?
   A. Strongly disagree   B. Disagree   C. Comparatively agree
   D. Agree   E. Strongly agree

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Empirical Study on the English Listening Learning Anxiety*

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Abstract—College student always feel anxious in doing listening comprehension. Scholars have had research about the anxiety. But empirical research is rare, so this research is about the relationship between learning anxiety and study strategies, anxiety level of different students and so on. Conclusions are made based on the results.

Index Terms—listening comprehension, listening comprehension anxiety, learning strategies, cognitive strategies, socioaffective strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

In listening practice, different students have different learning anxiety. It is considered that most students with high anxiety level will have low learning efficiency. The occurrence of listening anxiety either in education settings or in communication settings most likely prevents listeners from comprehending the messages effectively. Hence we need to know whether students learned to actively and strategically participate in listening process, what causes anxious feelings to them and what strategies they can employ to cope with listening comprehension anxiety.

Classroom activities such as speaking and listening prove to be most anxiety-provoking and problematic for foreign language learners (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). It can be further assumed that the improvement in learners' learning performance might enhance their self-confidence in language learning. More self-confidence and self-fulfillment will probably result in less anxiety, fear or sense of frustration.

Take children's language acquisition as an example, it seems that children acquire their mother tongue in a very natural way, mainly depending on listening, repeating and talking.

II. DEFINITIONS OF LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY

Scovel (1978) defines anxiety as "a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only directly associated with an object" (p.131). Spieberger (1983) describes anxiety from a neurobiological perspective, defining anxiety as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with an arousal of the automatic nervous systems" (p.482). Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) examine anxiety related to foreign language learning and assert that foreign language learning anxiety is "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p.126).

Bergoon (1983) pointed out that apprehension of communication varies according to the mode of communication. Therefore, in the late 1990s, the awareness of language-skill-specific anxiety generated a new trend in foreign language anxiety studies, which focused on speaking anxiety (Kitano, 2001), reading anxiety (Saito, Horwitz & Garza, 1999), writing anxiety (Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert, 1999), and listening anxiety (Vogely, 1998; Kim, 2000).

A. The Effects of Anxiety on Language Learning

Early researches on the effects of anxiety in foreign language learning fail to provide any clear-cut relationship between anxiety and learners' performance in a foreign language (Aida, 1994). For instance, Chastain (1975) studies the relationship between anxiety and course grades of three foreign language programs. The results indicate that there exists a significant negative correlation between course grades and test anxiety only in French audio-lingual class. In regular German and Spanish classes, however, students who experience a higher level of anxiety receive better grades than those with a lower level of anxiety.

B. Controversies on the Role of Foreign Language Anxiety

On the one hand, some researchers suggested that language anxiety was helpful or facilitating in some way. Because it motivated the learners to "fight" the new learning task and geared the learners emotionally for approach behavior (Ellis, 1994). Kleinmann (1977) studied the Spanish-speaking and Arabic-speaking ESL students and found facilitating anxiety correlated with students' oral production of difficult English structures.

On the other hand, most language researchers claimed that anxiety played a negative part in SLA (Chastain, 1975). It caused the learners to "flee" the learning task in order to avoid the sources of anxiety (Ellis, 1994). Bailey (1983) explored the correlation between anxiety and learners' performance and concluded that a high level of anxiety could have adverse effects on students' foreign language performance. Depending on the individual, anxious foreign language learners may express their feelings through avoidance behavior, such as skipping language class, failing to prepare for class or avoiding eye contact with the instructor.

Chen Yanjun (2005) investigated the relationship between foreign language listening anxiety and listening strategy in his dissertation for Master's degree. He found students' listening anxiety had a significant negative correlation with listening strategies, especially with cognitive strategies. However, it is still questionable whether the causation relationship between the two existed. It is also likely that students' listening anxiety prevent them from effectively employing listening strategies.

In this study, the author will continue to test the existence of listening anxiety and contrive to find out the effective ways to lower students' anxiety.

So we have the following questions to answer:

1) What is the state of listening comprehension anxiety experienced by non-English majors?

2) Is there any significant correlation between listening comprehension anxiety and use of listening learning strategies?

3) Is there any significant difference in listening comprehension anxiety levels and use of listening learning strategies between male learners and female learners?

III.   EMPIRICAL STUDY AND THE RESULTS

A.   Subjects

Subjects participating in the present study were 186 second-year students of two intact classes from the College of Gardening at Southwest China Agricultural University. Most of them have been exposed to listening comprehension class ever since they were in junior middle school even when in primary school. By the time of their second year in college, these students might have developed their own way of dealing with listening exercises and may probably have consciously or unconsciously employed a series of strategy. Eight of the 186 students failed to properly finish both of the two questionnaires, were eliminated from analysis. Finally the participants selected for this study were 178 students, including 96 male students and 82 females.

B.   Design of the Questionnaires

First they are asked the following questions for a pre-survey, and then do the questionnaire. According to the needs of this study, the oral interviews focused on the following questions:

(1) What is your reason for studying English?

(2) What has influenced your listening most?

(3) Do you feel anxious when listening to English? If yes, can you describe what your listening anxiety is like?

(4) What do you think has caused your discomfort and anxiety in listening to English?

(5) What measures do you usually adopt to make yourself less stressful while listening to English? And what do you think the teachers could do to help you to debilitate anxiety?

The sources of this questionnaire could be located in other influential scales like foreign language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Some adaptations and modifications were made so as to ensure the questionnaire could reflect Chinese English learners' actual feelings in listening activities. In addition, the present researcher supplemented a couple of items, drawing on her own experiences with English teaching.

This questionnaire consisted of 14 items written in Chinese version to make sure that all the students can fully understand. Each item was to be answered on a 5-point Likert scale, including "strongly agree", "agree", "neither agree nor disagree", "disagree", "strongly disagree".

The questions about anxiety level include:

1. I am confident when listening to the tapes.

2. I like English listening class.

3. l like all kinds of listening materials, such as tapes, songs, news, etc.

4. I feel relaxed when having English listening class, and I am satisfied with my listening abilities.

5. I always answer questions in listening class for I don not fear the negative comments of the teacher and student.

6. My brain will be in a mess when I listen to the tape, so I can not remember the content.

7. I will be fearful when I know that I will listen to an English tape.

8. I will feel nervous when I find out that the topic of the tape is not familiar.

9. I think English learning is the hardest part of study.

10. I will feel anxious when the speed of the passage is too fast.

11. I always think that the other students study English better than me.

12. I always feel anxious when I meet the long sentences with complicated grammar.

13. When I heard something about the western culture, I may feel nervous because I am not familiar with it.

14. When I miss something in listening practice I will feel nervous.

15. When I meet someone who has weird accent, I will not like to listen any more.

For question 1 to 5, the five responses of such items were assigned the value of 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 respectively. For the rest of the 14 items, whose statements indicated that a learner was anxious, stressed or distracted, responses were assigned the value of 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively.

Another vital questionnaire was the English Listening Learning Strategy (ELLS), used for measuring the frequency of listening learning strategy use. The design of ELLS counted on many sources, including the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1990) and some listening comprehension strategies obtained from other researchers' investigations.

It was composed by 15 strategy items, including 11 cognitive strategies items, 4 socioaffective ones. In choosing the strategy items, a framework of three broad categories was adopted. Cognitive strategy items cover note-taking, auditory presentation, summarization and so on. Socioaffective strategy items involved self-encouragement, seeking cooperation from others, and direct way of lowering anxiety. Still some subtle modifications were made so that the questionnaire can better reflect the situations of Chinese English learners. Meanwhile the questionnaire was translated into Chinese so as to guarantee greater accuracy of the results, especially with the less proficient students. Like the design of Listening Comprehension Anxiety Scale (LCAS), each item in the ELLS were to be answered on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "never use", "some times use", "half of the time use", "most of the time use" and "always use".

C. Results

1. Listening Anxiety Scores of All the Subjects

Since the LCAS consisted of 18 question items and the score of each item ranged from 1 to 5 points, the potential score of each student's anxiety should range from 18 to 90 points.

As Table 3.1 revealed, among the 178 subjects, the maximum score and the minimum score of LC anxiety were 84 and 25 respectively. The low anxiety level group consisted of 39 students whose anxiety scores ranged from 25 to 46, while the medium anxiety level group included 91 students whose anxiety scores varied from 47 to 66. As for the high anxiety level group, it was composed by 48 students whose anxiety scores were between 67 and 84.

TABLE 3-1
STUDENTS' LISTENING ANXIETY SCORES

	N	Mean	Minimum	Maximum
	178			
High anxiety group	48	71.6	67	84
Medium anxiety group	91	52.9	47	66
Low anxiety group	39	37.2	25	46

The Post-hoc LSD tests of listening comprehension (LC) anxiety scores for each group indicated that the differences between any of the two anxious levels were significant, though the intermediate anxious group remarkably outnumbered the other two levels.

2. Relationship between LC Anxiety and Strategies

TABLE 3-2
COGNITIVE STRATEGY ITEMS SHOWING SIGNIFICANT NEGATIVE CORRELATIONS WITH LC ANXIETY

Anxiety	Cognitive strategy items										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Pearson correlation	-.278	-.398	-.367	-.212	-.478	-.398	-.211	-.263	-.287	-.243	-.209
Sig.	.001	.000	.000	.007	.000	.001	.025	.006	.003	.016	.022

The questions include:

1. Guessing the meaning of an unfamiliar word from the context.

2. Skipping the unknown word and going on with listening task.

3. Distinguishing the implications of the same sentence spoken in different intonations.

4. Applying different methods to different types of listening materials.

5. Remembering the main ideas read in English version without doing translation.

6. Focusing on the overall meanings rather than on every single word or sentence.

7. Summarizing the main ideas from what was caught in listening contents.

8. Taking notes of an event with the key words like the time, the person and the process etc.

9. Using abbreviated verbal, numeral, or graphic forms to take notes.

10. Listening to the contents failed to understand in class and trying to find out reasons.

11. Accumulating frequently used words and expressions in listening materials.

TABLE 3-3
SOCIOAFFECTIVE STRATEGY ITEMS SHOWING SIGNIFICANT NEGATIVE CORRELATIONS WITH LC ANXIETY

Anxiety	Socioaffective strategy items			
	1	2	3	4
Pearson correlation	-.175	-.235	-.329	-.358

Sig.	.046	.003	.002	.000

Socioaffective strategy items showing significant negative correlations with listening comprehension anxiety. They are the followings:

1. Comforting oneself by saying that it is unnecessary to catch everything in a listening task when failing to grab some words or sentences.

2. Telling oneself not to worry when the listening task are unfamiliar and difficult.

3. Encouraging oneself by saying that one will do well in the listening task.

4. Relaxing oneself by breathing deeply when feeling nervous before listening.

Then why did they demonstrate such significant differences in listening anxiety levels? The individual differences such as intrinsic characters, use of learning strategies, self-beliefs about listening comprehension and commitment to listening tasks most likely contributed to the great differences in learners' listening anxiety. All these factors might more or less exert influence on learners' listening anxiety.

3. Gender Differences in Learners' Listening Anxiety Levels

As for the difference in LC anxiety level between male students and female students, it could be detected via t-test. From Table 4.4, we could see that although the mean LC anxiety score of male students was higher than that of female students, the mean difference wasn't statistically significant (t=1.164, p=.176). In other words, the male students and the female students experienced the similar degree of LC anxiety.

TABLE 3-4
RESULTS OF T-TESTS FOR THE GENDER DIFFERENCE IN LC ANXIETY SCORES

Gender	N	Mean	T-value	P
Male	96	57.38	1.164	.176
Female	82	55.65		

Kitano (2001) investigated the anxiety of college learners of Japanese and found that male students felt higher anxiety than their female counterparts when they perceived their spoken Japanese less competent than that of others.

D.   Summary

According to the pre-survey, students' status of study is quite obvious. Most of them has the LC anxiety more or less.

In general, the above results revealed that students' use of listening learning strategies had a significant negative correlation with listening anxiety. Cognitive strategy showed strong correlations with listening anxiety than the socioaffective category. More specifically, 11 cognitive items and 4 socioaffective items were significantly and negatively correlated with listening anxiety.

As for socioaffective strategy category, however, no significant differences were found between any of the anxiety levels, though they showed a marginally significant negative correlation with anxiety levels.

IV.   CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

A.   Conclusion

The above discussions centered on detailed interpretations concerning the research questions including: the correlations between LC anxiety and the use of listening strategies, differences in the use of individual strategy items among the three anxiety levels and gender difference in LC anxiety level and use of listening strategies. With the previous results and discussions in hand, conclusions of this research could be drawn.

The analysis of 178 subjects' data is as following:

1) In general, the non-English majors under investigation experience considerably high level of LC anxiety.

2) Students' LC anxiety has a significant negative correlation with their use of listening learning strategies, especially with their use of cognitive strategies.

3) The cognitive strategy category show significant difference in use across the three anxiety levels, while with socioaffective strategy no significant differences in use are found across the three anxiety levels.

4) There exist significant differences in the use of 15 individual strategy items among the three anxiety levels, especially between students at low anxiety level and those at high anxiety level.

5) There exists no significant difference in LC anxiety level between male and female learners. Female students demonstrate significant differences in the use of cognitive strategies from male students.

B.   Suggestions

The finding that listening anxiety is negatively correlated with use of listening learning strategies implies that use of effective listening strategies may play an important role in lowering listening anxiety. Hence teachers should put strategy instruction into regular classroom activities in an explicit way. For example, teachers can help students be conscious of the background knowledge of the topic, knowledge about the type of text and relevant cultural information. Teachers should also teach students how to make predictions on the basis of the assigned listening tasks and questions.

In light of the negative correlation between listening anxiety and use of listening learning strategies, further research is needed to examine the effects of listening strategies use on listening anxiety. In doing so, we can better understand to

what extent listening strategies can help students reduce listening anxiety.

First, teachers should acknowledge the existence of listening anxiety and consider the possibility that listening anxiety is responsible for the students' poor performance before attributing it solely to the low levels of language aptitude or weak motivation. Then they can explain to the students the fact that listening anxiety is shared by nearly everyone, most of the other students experience similar fear of failure. Teacher's sympathetic attitude towards the problems and fear of students would motivate them to overcome their own anxiety.

Second, English teachers should help students build up self-confidence. The results of this study show that, for Chinese university students, self-confidence is a most important determination of the listening anxiety and actual performance. Self-confidence is an attitude which allows individuals to have positive views of themselves and their abilities. People who are confident trust their own abilities, have a general sense of control in their lives, and believe that, within reason, they will be able to do what they wish, plan and expect. People who are not self-confident depend excessively on the approval of others. They tend to avoid taking risks because they fear failure and generally do not expect to be successful. Teachers can help students by bring students into discussions of the language learning listening process, ensuring that teaching goals are appropriate and attainable, helping students recognize that they can be successful.

Increasing opportunities for students to experience small successes will also be a way to help reduce students' listening anxiety. During the process, teachers need not correct every error the students make. Vogely (1998) suggested using appropriate practice exercises tailored for each skill level, as a means of permitting students to experience success.

Besides, positive feedback and continued encouragement may lower the level of the students' anxiety and frustration and enable them to develop greater self-confidence.

Third, considering male students have higher anxiety when listening, and use less listening strategies, improving males' engagement in listening remains essential in order to ensure that all students realize their potential. For instance, male students can be organized to form different English listening-interest groups consisting of mere roommates. Each group member is encouraged to share his views or difficulties with others based on his comprehension of the listening materials, then seminar can be held each week to exchange their experience, reactions and comments after listening. All this could be done in a friendly, relaxed, helpful and harmonious atmosphere. In addition lectures concerning successful listening strategies should be accompanied to solve the problems encountered.

Fourth, regarding the facilitating effect of listening anxiety, in order to make listening less stressful, English teachers need to do more exploration of facilitating anxiety level, especially of strategy training. From the interview with the participants, the author has learned that their lack of effective listening strategies is one important cause for them to feel frustrated and nervous in listening. Even though some language teachers mentioned that in the students' textbooks some strategies about listening have been introduced, but these are not enough. There is no systematic, comprehensive and practicable instruction about listening strategies.

Fifth, in listening teaching, teachers should not only to improve the English proficiency levels of but also introduce the history, geography and customs etc. of English speaking knowledge in the learner's minds countries and those of our own culture. Background is in the memory and they need to be activated, so in listening comprehension classes, teachers should help students to make full use of the information received to mobilize the schema or background knowledge stored in their minds, so that they can process the information thoroughly. So listening to passages of all types is useful. In addition, teachers can encourage students to get the knowledge of the world including the cultural knowledge of their own after class, such as taking lectures, distributing leaflets on this kind of knowledge. Furthermore, it is necessary to read in large amount after class. By these means, students accumulate such kind of knowledge consciously, broaden their views and then become sensitive to intercultural communications.

C. Further Study

First of all, the sample of the present study was limited to the sophomores of non-English majors in Qingdao University of Science and Technology. Therefore, the present author recommends that in future studies, the scope of the participants should be expanded to the students of English majors or to the students from other universities so as to expend the current findings and deepen our understandings of the phenomenon of listening anxiety.

Secondly, because time is limited, the present study is only static and it does not trace the participants' development processes. However, anxiety may vary by changing experience and language proficiency. Therefore, in the future, longitudinal studies need to be undertaken for a better understanding of the variations of the foreign language learners' listening anxiety.

Thirdly, using only one listening test of CET-4 may not be sufficient to accurately learners' listening proficiency. Therefore, future study should use multiple measurements for English listening proficiency.

Fourthly, further research can also look into the potential interactions between listening anxiety and other individual characteristics, such as self-confidence, beliefs about listening comprehension learning and commitment to extracurricular listening training.

In addition, in order to decrease the test anxiety of listening in Chinese context, both teachers and students could adopt a proper attitude towards test. It is only a means of assessing students' recent achievement rather than their competence. So we should make further study in the future consistently to get more confirmed results.

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Use of Podcasts in Effective Teaching of Vocabulary: Learners' Attitudes, Motivations and Limitations

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Abstract—**Whether e-learning in the form of podcasting helps learners with their attitudes and motivations toward learning English vocabulary is investigated in this article. It also gives voice to them and investigates whether they address limitations in podcasts' access on the net. In our study, a group of 30 university students who were not very familiar with English vocabularies and were estimated as intermediate level English students received some video podcasts through e-mail. After a week a five-point Likert scale questionnaire also was sent to each or was given to them in paper, asking them some questions about their experience. The data were analyzed using SPSS. The findings suggested that learners had very positive attitude toward podcasts and had very high motivation to continue learning English vocabularies with the help of podcasts. Learners also pointed to difficult access, low internet speed and filtering as the limitations.**

Index Terms—**e-learning, podcasting, limitation, video podcast**

I. INTRODUCTION

The advent of computer networks, and later the Internet, paved the way for the delivery of e-learning. E-Learning promised to allow learners to study at their own time and pace, with a reduction in or elimination of on-campus attendance requirements. Lee & Chan (2007) state that learners can be helped to make efficient use of their time, by harnessing the idle moments in their day waiting or travelling on public transport, so they can undertake learning in conjunction with other tasks. Many of people are 'continuously connected' by mobile phones, laptops and hand-held devices.

Podcasts can be transferred to a variety of electronic portable devices such as laptops, and then can be watched or listened to at any time or any place (Evans, 2008).

The term 'podcast' is the combination of the popular brand name of ('iPode') and 'broadcast' (Evans, 2007). It is now a general term which refers to audio or video recordings posted online or downloaded to computer or mobile (Kennedy, Hart & Kellems, 2011). Video podcasts refer to podcasts that contain visual information either in the form of still images, animation, or video (Dupugne, Millette & Grinfeder, 2009).

Since modern learners have to take advantage of their unexpected free time (Evans, 2008) the use of podcasts to disseminate instructional materials online has elicited considerable interest among colleges and universities (Dupugne, Millette, & Grinfeder, 2009). Internet has brought new ways for teachers to connect their learners. Therefore, e-learning is being included in teaching programs by institutions because e-learning allows learners to choose (with some limits) how, where, and when to study (Evans & Fan, 2002).

Positive attitudes toward and higher motivations for using podcasts can lead to students' better learning (Oliver, 2005; Fernandez, et al 2009; Heilesen, 2010; Bolliger, et al., 2010; Walls, et al., 2010). But, there are some studies that show no benefit of using podcasts to students (Weatherly, Grabe & Arthur, 2002). More investigations are needed to establish podcasting as an effective learning tool (Evans, 2008).

Despite institutional enthusiasm, relatively little formal research has examined how students respond to this instructional technology. To the best of the researchers' knowledge no studies until now have tested the effect of using podcasts on learning English vocabulary and on the probable generated learners' motivations.

Iran with the population of 72 million has had a great progress in access to information and communications Technology. But insufficient research has been done on technology users' needs, their problems in using technological tools, their perceptions and attitudes toward new developmental technologies, their learning preferences, and the type of tools they use more frequently (Rahimi & Asadollahi, 2011).

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Distance education has progressed and evolved from pencil-and-paper correspondence courses to the use of analogue audio-based and video-based educational technologies (Keegan, 2002). Podcasts can be downloaded to laptops and handheld computers, tablet PCs, digital cameras, mobile phones and personal digital assistants as portable electronic devices. Therefore, the appropriate size and the suitable storage capacities of these electronic devices help e-learning to happen in special forms (Lee & Chan, 2007).

For the first time, some students who were in their first year at Duke University in the United States were given some iPods. Then their use and satisfactions were assessed via surveys and focus groups (Duke University, Office of Information Technology, 2005). The findings suggested that the students expressed considerable enthusiasm and pointed to their fine perceptions and their positive learning results. Scholars mention that when students' enjoy their learning, they can have positive learning outcomes. Then they might engage in that learning activity again and again.

For diverse educational subjects Salmon and Edirisingha (2008) explained a lot of pedagogical applications for podcasting. They gave importance to podcasting as what brings to the learners motivation, speed and good engagement. Moreover, some other scholars also suggested the beneficial effect of podcasting on learner's learning because of the students' higher motivation and their positive attitudes toward learning through podcasts (Oliver, 2005; Fernandez, et al., 2009; Dupagne, et al., 2009; Heilesen, 2010; Bolliger, et al., 2010; Walls, et al., 2010). With regard to podcasting as an educational tool, Heilesen (2010) in a study came into conclusion that students generally show very good attitudes towards podcasting and "reports of rejection of podcasting are rare" (p.3). Fernandez, et al. (2009) in another study made judgments about the feelings, understanding, and the reactions of some participants who used podcasts during one semester. According to their findings, they stated that podcasting was not a substitute for traditional learning system in the participants' opinions; it just increased the participants' motivation.

Bolliger, et al. (2010) did a research in online environment in order to understand the students' level of motivation when they applied podcasts as their learning tool. They reported in general that the participants liked to use podcasts: although, prior experience of some participants and their gender made some minor differences. Walls, et al. (2010) also evaluated students' access, familiarity, experience, and attitude to use podcasts by conducting a survey. They stated that students are not as motivated or as eager to use educational podcasts as educators think they are. In their study Rahimi and Asadollahi (2011) did a research on one hundred and twenty Iranian university students' access, familiarity, and experience towards using the technology of podcasting. The results revealed that many of the students owned a portable device and were very familiar with podcasts but only a small number of them had never downloaded or used any podcasts. They considered podcast as a suitable educational tool in university courses, although they rarely had had classes in which podcasts had been effectively used.

Although the studies above confirm the positive attitudes toward using podcasts, some others have revealed no effect on students' learning or attitude after using podcasts (Weatherly, Grabe & Arthur, 2002; Daniel & Woody, 2010).

In recent years, the use of podcasts to disseminate instructional materials online has elicited considerable interest among colleges and universities (Dupugne, et al., 2009). An example is Lee & Chan (2007)**'s** study in which distance learners, who were studying an information technology subject, were given some podcasts for performing additional listening activities. At the end of the semester the results of the survey which was done on the effectiveness of the podcasts in helping the students get their subject matter better, revealed that the learners had very positive feelings about their experience. Huntsberger and Stavitsky (2007) created a series of audio podcasts to review materials in a large mass media and society class. Students were overwhelmingly satisfied with the podcast content, length, and style. Of 209 surveyed students about 80% said they found podcasting very he1pful but 13% reported technical difficulties when downloading and listening to the podcasts. Evans (2008) conducted a survey in which about two hundred undergraduate students obtained some podcasts which were designed to be applied as study guides. According to the results of the survey, the students were much more satisfied with studying and reviewing their subject matter by podcasts than be reviewing their course notes. Another survey study on the effectiveness of podcasts was done by Fernandez et al. (2009). The participants of the study said that the podcasts were supplementary for learning their course subjects but they were not a substitute for classroom teaching procedures. Fernandez et al., (2009) also stated that their participants via the frequent application of podcasts experienced the feeling of close connection to their teachers. In line with the studies on podcasts' effectiveness, McKinney et al. (2009) did an experimental research in which the control group of the students was given PowerPoint slides of their class lecture and the experimental group received the podcast of that lecture material and the PowerPoint slides. When both groups were assessed, the experimental group which had received the podcast did better than the other group on the test.

Despite obvious institutional enthusiasm, relatively little formal research has examined how students respond to this instructional technology and, perhaps more important, whether podcast use has beneficial effects on overall student learning and performance (Dupagne, et al., 2009).

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the theoretical and empirical rationales which were explained in detail, the following research questions were investigated:
1. Is using podcasts effective in learning English vocabularies?
2. Does podcast use, motivate learners to learn more English vocabularies?

3. Does podcast use, make learners interested in learning new English vocabularies?
4. What are the probable limitations in using podcasts?

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants were thirty students from university of Isfahan. Their majors were not English. Their knowledge of the language was limited to their majors' specialized vocabularies and they were not familiar with English language daily vocabularies as they were asked about, before being given the podcasts. They were all female and their age ranged from 22 to 27. In fact a much larger number of the university students accessed the provided podcasts of this research, but did not fill out the questionnaires.

B. Materials

1. Questionnaire:

Regarding the research questions, a seventeen item questionnaire was designed (see Appendix A). The items were categorized under three major sub-scales: students' access, motivation, and attitude. The questionnaire was reviewed by our professor so the content validity was confirmed by the expert's judgment. The students' ideas and feelings of podcasting use were evaluated through asking them about the experiences they had with podcasting. The reliability of the questionnaire was calculated using SPSS with cronbach α value (significance) of 0.721.

2. Podcasts:

Four Video podcasts on kitchen appliances, sport tools, weather and shapes were sent to volunteers. They were found and downloaded on the net by the researchers. They were free to download and had been provided for learning new English vocabularies.

C. Procedure:

Some students with majors other than English from university of Isfahan were asked about their knowledge of English vocabulary and whether they liked to learn new vocabularies by video podcasts. Since dormitory students had access to high speed internet in their rooms, it was preferred to collect the data in the dormitory of the university. At the beginning, the students were asked about their knowledge of English. Candidates, who were found to have limited knowledge in daily English use and only did have knowledge of their majors' specialized vocabularies, were given through flash memories or were sent the video podcasts through e-mail. In order to watch and use the podcasts students had to connect to internet. They watched four Video podcasts on kitchen appliances, sport tools, weather and shapes. After a week a 5 point Likert scaled questionnaire was sent to the candidates through e-mail or was given directly to them in paper. Twenty candidates answered the questionnaires and sent them back.

The questionnaire was designed according to the research questions. For validating and having expert's judgment, the questionnaire was sent to our applied linguistics professor at University of Isfahan.

For reliability the answer of the questions was categorized according to three categories: attitude, motivation and limitation. The statistical analysis were performed with an α value (significance of 0.721. The data was analysed using SPSS.

V. RESULTS

The obtained results from the questionnaires are illustrated in tables below:

TABLE 5.1
THE RESULTS

subjects / questions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1	4	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	4	5	4	4	5	4	4	4	5	4	5	5
2	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	4
3	4	3	3	4	1	3	4	5	3	1	4	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	4	3
4	2	3	4	3	1	2	3	2	2	2	1	4	2	1	4	4	2	2	2	2
5	1	3	1	2	1	1	2	2	4	1	1	3	1	1	2	2	3	4	1	1
6	4	5	4	5	3	5	4	3	4	4	4	2	3	4	4	4	3	4	5	4
7	4	5	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	4	5	4	5	5
8	4	5	5	5	2	5	5	3	4	3	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	4	5	5
9	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	2	1	1
10	1	1	3	4	1	3	1	2	4	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	1	2
11	4	3	4	4	3	5	4	3	4	4	4	5	5	4	4	4	5	4	5	4
12	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	5
13	4	4	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	4	4	5	5	4	5	5	5	4	5	3
14	4	4	3	2	4	3	5	4	4	2	2	1	4	2	2	2	4	2	4	4
15	2	3	1	2	5	3	3	2	2	4	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	3	2	1
16	4	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	5	4	5	5

TABLE 5.1
THE RESULTS

subject question	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
1	4	4	4	5	4	4	4	5	4	4
2	4	3	4	5	4	4	5	5	4	4
3	1	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	2
4	4	3	2	1	4	2	2	2	2	1
5	4	4	2	4	4	3	4	4	2	1
6	1	4	2	4	2	4	2	2	3	4
7	1	4	5	3	2	4	4	4	5	4
8	1	5	5	1	2	5	5	5	5	4
9	4	5	4	3	1	1	2	2	2	1
10	4	5	4	2	1	1	1	2	1	2
11	4	1	4	2	1	4	4	5	5	4
12	4	1	1	4	1	4	4	4	5	4
13	4	3	3	5	4	5	4	4	5	3
14	2	3	3	5	4	2	2	4	4	2
15	2	2	4	4	3	2	2	2	1	1
16	4	2	4	4	3	4	5	5	5	4

TABLE 5.2
QUESTION 17 RESULTS

subjects	Question 17
1	Podcasts are good substitutes for books in English institutes. But the problem is that the institutes can't afford it.
2	Podcasts generally are attractive and amusing. Images remain in mind.
3	Being short, podcasts motivate learners a lot.
4	I absolutely agree with short educational images. But the need to have laptops or professional cell phones limits the use of podcasts.
5	Podcasts help learning not to be boring. They improve the quality of learning. The limitation is related to internet speed in our country.
6	They are very helpful in learning new vocabularies.
7	They are helpful and more attractive than English books.
8	Access to podcasts is a limitation. But they are attractive and helpful.
9	Using podcasts make the vocabularies stay in long-term memory.
10	Podcasts are attractive, motivating, amusing and effective. But access to them is difficult.
11	They are very applicable. They make learning happen fast. But access to them is a limitation.
12	Spelling is necessary in podcasts.
13	Podcasts have to include all subjects not just vocabulary learning.
14	They are useful and attractive but low internet speed and not having access to laptops and professional cell phones are the limitations.
15	Podcasts are helpful and I don't see any limitations.
16	Podcasts are not boring. They are effective. I don't see any limitations.
17	The access is difficult.
18	Access to high speed internet everywhere is a limitation.
19	Low internet speed and the need to have laptops or professional cell phones is a limitation.
20	Filtering is a problem for downloading podcasts.
21	Use of podcasts is not applicable. I do not have the electronic equipments.
22	Simple podcasts are good for elementary levels.
23	Video podcasts are more effective than audio podcasts.
24	I didn't know anything about podcast before this experience.
25	I can be relax and just watch them as if I'm watching a cartoon.
26	I really enjoy the podcasts.
27	Of course I inform my friends to see these podcasts.
28	I was already familiar with podcasting.
29	I tried to download those podcasts 3 times but it was not possible because of the low internet speed.
30	It is a kind of unconscious learning.

The results showed that all the 30 students agreed with the usefulness, effectiveness and attractiveness of the given podcasts. Except 5, all were not aware of podcasts as educational tools. Out of 30students, only 8 of them did believe that using podcasts was possible everywhere and every time. Others had pointed to different problems they might have for downloading and having access to podcasts including: low internet speed, not being able to afford professional cell phones or laptops and filtering.

20 learners out of thirty found the working with podcasts easy and all decided that, the podcasts had helped them learn new English vocabularies to a great extent, although 7 of the learners were already familiar with about fifty percent of the vocabularies provided in the podcasts. 26 students said they were motivated to learn English through podcasts again in future and 21 liked to suggest their friends watching the given podcasts. Being short, 27 learners found the podcasts more effective and applicable.

VI. DISCUSSION:

The aim of this study was to know whether the use of podcast was effective in teaching new English vocabularies. And to check learners' attitudes toward podcasts, their motivations and the limitations they would probably confront.

The findings suggested that the sample did not have an unlimited access to podcasts for some justifications such as low internet speed, filtering and not owning professional cell phones, laptops or other portable devices. Results also showed that students' use and awareness of podcasts for educational purposes were very limited.

In regard to attitudes, the students' feedback suggested that they had positive attitudes towards using podcasts for learning English vocabularies. They judged the podcasts as attractive, amusing and helpful. Some pointed to better and faster learning. Since the podcasts were short and interesting, learners were motivated to learn English through podcasts in future too.

In regard to the effectiveness most of the learners judged the podcasts as effective and engaging. They all were satisfied with their learning through podcasts. This result is consistent with those of Baird and Fisher (2006) and Edirisingha and Salmon (2007). The participants in these studies reported that the podcasts were successful in attracting and keeping their attention and interest.

Taken together, the results of this study provide good evidence to suggest that the students thought that podcasts were effective and were capable of enhancing their vocabulary learning.

APPENDIX A

1= strongly disagree
2=disagree
3= no idea
4= agree
5=strongly agree
1. The given podcasts are useful in learning new English vocabularies
    1   2   3   4   5
2. The given podcasts are attractive and amusing.
    1   2   3   4   5
3. Using podcasts is simple and it is possible everywhere and every time.
    1   2   3   4   5
4. I usually have access to high speed internet
    1   2   3   4   5
5. Access to podcasts is easy in our country
    1   2   3   4   5
6. Working with podcasts is generally easy
    1   2   3   4   5
7. The given podcasts helped me a lot in learning new English vocabularies.
    1   2   3   4   5
8. Being short, podcasts are attractive and applicable.
    1   2   3   4   5
9. Using podcasts is waste of time.
    1   2   3   4   5
10. Before watching the podcasts related to this research, I had knowledge about podcasts.
    1   2   3   4   5
11. I am motivated to use podcasts for learning new English vocabularies in future.
    1   2   3   4   5
12. Podcasts are effective in learning new English vocabularies.
    1   2   3   4   5
13. I will suggest my friends to use these given podcasts.
    1   2   3   4   5
14. I knew less that 50% of the vocabularies before watching podcasts.
    1   2   3   4   5
15. I prefer books more than podcasts in learning new English vocabularies.
    1   2   3   4   5
16. I have watched all the given podcasts for this research.
    1   2   3   4   5
17. Generally, what is your idea about podcasts? Briefly write bout advantages and limitations of using podcasts.

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Promoting Knowledge Construction and Cognitive Development: A Case Study of Teacher's Questioning

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Abstract—Teacher questioning is one of the indices of the quality of teaching. It plays an essential role in promoting students' knowledge construction and cognitive development through classroom interaction. In the meanwhile, teacher questioning reflects to what extent authority is shared between teacher and students. Through an analysis of teacher questions in an Intensive Reading class in a China university, this article investigates how language knowledge and authority relationship are co-constructed through the interaction between the teacher and students. It aims to identify the teaching methods embedded in the ways of teacher questioning that enables students to gain knowledge and reasoning ability.

Index Terms—teacher questioning, knowledge construction, cognitive development, authority relationship, communicative language teaching, task-based language teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

Teacher questioning is an important component of classroom talk. It plays a critical role in promoting students' meaning-making and cognitive engagement through classroom interaction. Teacher questioning may simply check students' understanding, seek for information, help students recall knowledge and experience, or even discourage them from articulating their thoughts by posing some "guest-what-is-in-my-mind" questions. Otherwise, teacher questioning can go beyond requiring a pre-determined short answer to assist students to construct knowledge, elicit students' ideas, and scaffold their reasoning (Chin, 2007).

On the other hand, teacher questioning reflects to what extent authority is shared between teacher and students. The kinds of questions that teachers ask show whether they treat "students' utterances, and their own statements as either 'thinking devices' or a means for transmitting information" (Nystrand, Gomoran, Kachur, & Prendergast, 1997, p.9). Thereby, students are regarded as constructed knowers or received knowers (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986). Teachers who treat students as constructed knowers are more likely to share authority with students, encourage them to contribute personal life experiences and feelings, and try to foster a sense of agency in knowledge construction; while teachers seeing students as received learners have a tighter control of authority and tend to transmit knowledge by asking some factual questions (Johnston, Woodside-Jiron, & Day, 2001).

Teacher questioning is one of the indices of the quality of teaching. It is meaningful to examine teacher questions in the English classrooms for a better understanding of how teacher questions facilitate university students to construct language knowledge, develop productive thinking, and learn to value their own competence and experience in language learning. In addition, this kind of examination gives an insight into the teaching methods adopted by the teacher to achieve particular learning outcomes.

This essay, focusing on questioning-based discourse in one Intensive Reading class for English major students in tertiary education, investigates how language knowledge and authority relationship are co-constructed through the interaction between teacher and students. It aims to identify the teaching methods embedded in the ways of teacher questioning that enables students to gain knowledge, reasoning ability, and agency.

II. THEORETICAL UNDERPINNING

The theoretical orientation to this research on teacher questioning is sociolinguistic approach. The sociolinguistic perspective takes into account of specific purposes and local contingencies when a question is posed, and sees the question and feedback as part of a dynamic process that has an impact on subsequent ones and work cumulatively in fostering student learning. Carlsen suggested that three features of questions be considered when doing research on questioning in classrooms: "the context of questions, the content of questions, and the responses and reactions that teachers and students have to questions" (1991, p. 159). Hence, this study will examine teacher questions over a stretch of discourse, and explore how the questions in successive discourse build progressively on students' response and guide

students towards constructing language knowledge.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The lecturer is a 52 year-old female professor with 25 years' teaching experience. She has experience in giving lectures on Applied Linguistics, Discourse Analysis to graduate students, and Intensive Reading to undergraduates. The students attending the class are sophomores of English major in a key university in northwest China. There are 8 male students and 24 female students ranging from 20 to 22 years ago. They have 8 to 14 years' experience in English learning, with more than 2 years specifically for learning English as their major by the time of data collection.

B. Data Collection

The data was collected by video recording an Intensive Reading class. The lecturer and students were informed of the purpose of video recording, and all of them gave consent for video recording. The recorded lesson lasts 45 minutes, which is usually the length of a period in China.

C. Data Analysis

The video clip of the observed lesson was independently transcribed by the author and another researcher. The interrater reliability is 98.6%. Since the focus on this study is on teacher questioning, only the spoken discourse is analyzed. Questions are defined in terms of their function rather grammatical form, because interrogative form alone does not make a question. For example, if the teacher answers his or her own question with no intention of inviting a response from students, then the utterance has the form of a question but the function of a statement. The analysis of questions will take into account the context, the content, and the responses and reactions to questions as suggested by Carlson (1991).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis of the classroom interaction between the teacher and students shows that different types of questions were used by the teacher in different stages of the lesson for particular purposes. In the episodes below, italic sentences are the original utterances in Chinese pin yin form, and the English translation is given within the square brackets [ ]. Three dots "…" indicate the omission of irrelevant words or sentences. "S" with a number refers to an identifiable student, and "Ss" refers to a group of students or the whole class. For the sake of convenience, teacher's questions are underlined.

A. Opening up the Lesson and Introducing the Topic

In Excerpt 1, the teacher opened up the lesson with an indication that students are going to report their research on paradox in this period, so she used factual questions "what is the function of paradox or definition?" and "In Chinese what does it mean?" to seek for information about the topic "paradox". As the definition and Chinese translation of paradox are somewhat fixed and within the teacher's knowledge scope, these questions invited for predetermined answers. Then speculative questions "And can you offer some examples?" and "Can you give us an example?" immediately followed to elicit answers building on content. In other words, students were invited to provide more information about the topic. Since the examples students gave are unknown to the teacher, the two questions are speculative questions with no predetermined answer. All of these questions are of lower-order cognitive level because students were asked to present some factual information, however, they are effective in opening up the lesson and introducing the topic.

T	And last time I didn't find enough time for you to present to report what you have discovered through your research. So based on your personal research, <u>what is the function of paradox or definition?</u> <u>And can you offer some examples?</u> So one paradox. S1, so you found your your notes, Okay?
S1	Paradox is apparently self-contradictory statement.
Ss	…
T	Okay. So that's the definition. <u>In Chinese what does it mean?</u> Paradox. <u>In Chinese what is the meaning?</u>
S1	*zi xiang mao dun* [self-contraditary].
T	*zi xiang mao dun* [self-contraditary]. Okay? <u>Now anyone have some kind of addition something to add up? Can you give us an example ?</u>
S1	Example. Less is more.

Excerpt 1

B. Scaffolding Students' Thinking

Excerpt 2 is what happened after Excerpt 1 where S1 offered an example of paradox (less is more) under the

teacher's request. Upon this example, the teacher opened up the participation opportunity for all the students by saying "Can anybody paraphrase it?". As to this question, the teacher possibly had had a pre-determined answer, but wanted to check whether students understand the denotation of this paradox. After one student gave a vague paraphrase "To get less to get more", the teacher did not make evaluation immediately, but repeated what the student said and further posed questions "What does that mean? What is the implied meaning?". By asking about the implied meaning, the teacher tried to move S2's idea forward. When S3 produced a wrong Chinese translation, the teacher did not negate her answer right away, but repeated it in a rising tone, indicating that this answer is problematic. The teacher's repetition successfully made S3 get suspicious about her own answer, and S3 sought confirmation from the teacher by asking "*bu shi ma* [Isn't it right]?". Then the teacher delayed her evaluation, and used a rhetorical question "is it" as feedback, and then posed another question "So in your life have you been ever in such kind of situation". Here the teacher continued to build on students' thinking, explicitly requiring students to bring in their personal experience in understanding the paradox in question. This question is effective in provoking thought, as one student (S4) did contribute a good interpretation. What is laudable about the teacher's questioning is that she constantly adjusted questioning to accommodate students' contributions and responded to students' thinking in a neutral rather than evaluative manner. Moreover, when students' experiences are encouraged to be taken into classroom discourse, the authority of the teacher is partly shifted to the students. The teacher is not deemed as the only source of knowledge, and students are made to realize that they themselves can be the source of knowledge as well.

T	Less is more. <u>Can anybody paraphrase it?</u> Less is more.
S2	To get less to get more.
T	To get less to get more? <u>What does that mean? What is the implied meaning?</u>
S3	*you she you de* [The hand that gives gathers].
T	*you she you de* [The hand that gives gathers]?
S3	*bu shi ma* [Isn't it right]?
Ss	((Laugh))
T	*bu shi ma* [Is it]? ((laugh)) Less is more. Yeah, that's really a good example. Now think about it. Less is more. To to get less means to get more. (3) Now use use your imagination to think about it! <u>So in your life have you been ever in such kind of situation? Have you ever been in such kind of situation?</u> Now S4.
S4	I think this situation depends on different subjects. Such as if you have less desire you may have more happiness.
T	If you have less desire of your life, if you do not desire so much, you would feel happy, you are so satisfied with your present situation. That might be a good interpretation.

Excerpt 2

C. Throwing the Responsibility of Thinking Back to Students

Teacher questioning plays a critical role in facilitating productive and higher-order thinking, and developing students' agency in learning. Excerpt 3 is an exclusive interaction between the teacher and S1. The successive discourse below displays how the teacher scaffolded the student's reasoning and helped him make meaning of the paradox "less is more". In this episode, S1, who offered the example "less is more", was enquired about his interpretation. When he failed to interpret this paradox and just pointed out that the sentence was full of connotations, the teacher adopted the strategy of posing "reflective toss" questions to guide him think further. Reflective toss refers to teacher questions that "'catch' the meaning of the student's prior utterance and 'throw' responsibility for thinking back to the students" (van Zee & Minstrell, 1997, p. 229). The teacher started from asking about the student's own connotation; after the student gave a general answer "I think that is a kind of philosophy of life", the teacher threw the question back to him by asking "What kind of philosophy of life? Can you tell us?", which encouraged the student to elaborate on his previous answer and extend his opinions. Then S1 replied "It's a kind of attitude towards life", which is not specific enough to show his clear understanding of the paradox. On the basis of this, the teacher narrowed down the question and threw it back to the student again by asking "So do you think it's a good attitude or bad attitude?" and "Is it positive or negative?". The last two questions finally led S1 to understand that the paradox shows a positive attitude towards life. The teacher questioning may have expected student responses of greater complexity than what is displayed here, but S1's language proficiency may be a potential obstacle for him to produce more elaborated and complex answers as an EFL learner.

This episode is enough to show that teacher's questions need to build on students' offering and guide their thinking towards answers which are not merely guesses or displays of bits of knowledge but based on solid reasoning and evidence. In addition, by throwing the questions back to students, the teacher conveyed to them the message that they have responsibility for thinking and constructing knowledge, instead of counting on the teacher to transmit the knowledge.

T	Now S1 when you pick up this sentence as an example <u>what would be your interpretation</u>? Less is more.
S1	I think this sentence is full of connotations.
Ss	((laughter))
T	Yeah of course it is full of connotations. ((laughter)) So yeah just like S4 said it depends on in different situation that would be different connotations. <u>So what would be your connotations when you pick up this sentence as an example?</u> That's very good example.
S1	I think this is a kind of philosophy of life.
T	<u>That's a philosophy of what?</u>
S1	Of life.
Ss	((laughter))
T	<u>What kind of philosophy of life? Can you tell us?</u> And we can learn something from you. It's a kind of attitude towards life.
S1	((laughter))
Ss	<u>So do you think it's a good attitude or bad attitude?</u>
T	Er.
S1	<u>Is it positive or negative?</u>
T	Positive.
S1	It's a positive. Don't you notice what S4 has said? According to her she said that if you
T	have less desire you would be more happier. Is it that the attitude? Yes, only she said in a different way. That's very good.

<div align="center">Excerpt 3</div>

D. Enabling Peer Evaluation

Teacher questions can also make students facilitate each other in knowledge construction, and incorporate students' ideas into subsequent dialogue. The use of peer assessment in evaluating students' answer, in the episode below, enables students to learn from each other's answers and co-construct knowledge with each other in an accountable way. The authority is shared among the teacher and students, as the teacher plays the part of a facilitator in students' knowledge construction instead of knowledge giver.

In Excerpt 4, S4 provided another example "If you wish to preserve your secret, wrap it up in frankness", and the teacher stimulated students' thinking to find out its connotations. She first posed a speculative question "So what's the connotation?" to gather students' ideas. Then she avoided evaluation on S5's wrong translation, and threw the question back to all the students by asking them "Is that right?". This question allows the teacher to shift authority for evaluating answers from herself as the teacher (van Zee & Minstrell, 1997) to all students who need to make sense of what their classmates say for the purpose of knowledge construction. Then the lesson diverged a short while from this question to student S6's responses to this question.

S6 proposed another interpretation "It's something like the public secret", which itself contains a paradox "public secret" that needs to be unpacked. Therefore, the teacher's next question focused on "public secret" and requested the student to explain what public secret means. Based on S6's explanation "If the secret is known in public so it's not secret at all", the teacher assisted him to think deeper with question "If everyone knows it, nobody will what?". This question gave clues to answer, and successfully guided S4 to arrive at a more mature understanding of public secret. What is salient in this episode is the teacher's flexibility in questioning as discussion proceeded. It is necessary that teachers take students' input seriously and adapt questions according to the constantly changing context, rather than strictly move through a series of questions in accordance with a planned agenda.

The divergence to "public secret", as an analogy to "wrap the secret up in frankness", facilitated other students' thinking and made S4 easily grasp the connotation of this paradox "If you wish to preserve your secret, wrap it up in frankness".

S4	Yes. If you wish to preserve your secret, wrap it up in frankness.
	…
T	In frankness. <u>Understand this sentence? Understand? So what's the connotation?</u> (4) If you wish to preserve your secrets, wrap it up in frankness.
S5	*zui wei xian de di fang jiu shi zui an quan de di fang* [the most dangerous place is the safest place].
T	In Chinese you mean *zui wei xian de di fang jiu shi zui an quan de di fang* [the most dangerous place is the safest place]. <u>Is that right?</u>
S6	It's something like the public secret.
T	It's something like public secret. <u>What does it mean, public secret?</u>
S6	If the secret is known in public so it's not the secret at all.
T	If everyone knows it, <u>nobody will what?</u>
S6	Talk about the secret.
T	Talk about and so curious about. I agree with you. But S4, when you pick up this sentence whenever you pick a sentence you might have some interest in that, is that right? <u>What make you pick up this sentence?</u>
S4	If you make a lie to others, some day in future you must the lie must be revealed must be realized. So if you don't want the lie to be realized by others just don't don't make the lie.
T	Don't make the lie. <u>So you mean the connotation in the sentence is what? What is the connotation of this sentence?</u>
S4	Be frank.
T	Be frank. Be honest.

<div align="center">Excerpt 4</div>

E. Moving Students' Thinking towards a Higher Level

   The "interpretation-oriented" (Nystrand et al., 1997, p. 9) ways of questioning in this episode shows that the teacher is not just transmitting knowledge to students, but stimulating them to go beyond right-and-wrong answers (Nystrand et al., 1997) for a higher-level thinking. In Excerpt 5 below the teacher formulated questions to develop students' productive thinking and helped them make sense of the paradox "the child is the father to the man" in complexity and depth. Most of the questions were pitched at higher-order cognitive level. For instance, when S9 gave her connotation "Man can learn a lot from a child", the teacher proposed process questions "why" and "what men can learn a lot from child" to ask for explanation of their thinking. Then when S10 used vague words "some factors" in her explanation "Because child has some factors which are not indulged by the adults or and", the teacher threw the responsibility of clarifying this "some factors" back to her by asking "Yeah he may have some kind of". Although S10 did not give a specific explanation to "some factors", her short answer "pure" indicates that her thinking is on the right track, as evidenced by the teacher's elaboration followed. The teacher's abandonment of her "transmission-oriented" role helps students deem themselves as the source of knowledge, thus fostering students' agency and promoting their self-confidence.

T	Okay. Next one is very interesting. The child is the father the child is the father to the man. <u>What is the connotation?</u>
	Man can learn a lot from a child.
S9	Man can lean a lot from a child. <u>Why?</u>
T	Some some maybe man has lost some personalities or some
S9	characteristics of child.
	<u>But what is the philosophy contained in this sentence?</u> Yeah man
T	can learn a lot form child. <u>Why? Why man can lean a lot from child?</u>
	To recover.
S9	Yeah child is the father to a man. What she is right means man
T	means father can teach a lot of things. Is that right? And you can learn a lot from child. <u>Why?</u>
	Because child has some factors which are not indulged by the
S10	adults or and.
	<u>Yeah he may have some kind of?</u>
T	Pure.
S10	Pure way of doing things pure way of thinking something that's
T	not influenced by the adult society.

Excerpt 5

F. Teaching Methods Embedded in Teacher Questioning

Communicative-Language-Teaching-guided teacher questioning

   The analysis of teacher questioning above shows that the teacher-student interaction in the observed lesson is dialogic and interactive in the following ways: First of all, there were no predetermined answers for most of the teacher's questions. Thus, these questions "allow an indeterminate number of acceptable answers and open the floor to students' ideas" (Nystand et al., 1997, p.38). In this regard, the interaction is dialogic as it recognized more than one point of views (Mortimer & Scott, 2003). Second, the teacher managed to include students' voice in the classroom interaction by accommodating to students' responses and encouraging them to draw on their own experience in knowledge construction. From this perspective, the interaction between the teacher and students is interactive as the teacher valued students' views and took account of them (Mortimer & Scott, 2003). Third, the teacher questions shifted the authority for evaluating answers to students, and made students directly respond to each other's answers. Hence, they create a dialogic and interactive atmosphere in the classroom interaction.

   The teacher formulated questions in ways that are in line with some of the features of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) method. In the first place, with regard to instructional objectives, the observed classroom interaction achieved the "integrative and content level", and the "linguistic and instrumental level" (Piepho, 1981). In other words, students used English as a means of expression and saw English paradoxes an object of learning. Next, as students are expected to interact with other people according to CLT (Richards & Rodgers, 2001), students were expected to articulate their thoughts and thinking with effective and appropriate linguistic resources for the purpose of getting opinions across to the teacher and fellow students in the observed classroom interaction. Then, in accordance to Howatt's (1984) "weak" version of CLT which suggests an integration of communication activities into a wider program of language teaching, the observed teacher-and-student interaction is embedded in the larger classroom instruction of paradox. Though the interaction described above is not targeted at developing communicative competence (Richards & Rodgers, 2001), its dialogic and interactive nature created opportunities for students to use English to communicate with the teacher and peers. It is through communication that students learned to interpret and use paradoxes.

Task-based-Language-Teaching-oriented teacher questioning

   The teacher questioning analyzed above shows how the teacher engaged students in the task of comprehending of paradoxes through successive questions. In this sense, the lesson is based on Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT)

method, which defines task as "classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language" (Nunan, 1989, p.10). What is special for the observed lesson is that English is both the content of learning and the media of learning. In other words, English was used as the means of learning the content — the lexical knowledge of the English language. This is because the lesson was given to English major students, whose goal is not only mastering English as communication tool, but also learning the linguistic knowledge of the English language. The other task-based feature reflected in the observed lesson is that it focused on meaning rather than form (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In the interaction students made grammatical mistakes. For example, S10 used adjective "pure" as an answer to the teacher's elicitation question "he may have some kind of", which actually requires nouns or noun phrases. Students produced semantically inappropriate sentences like "I think this situation depends on different subjects". However, all these grammatical mistakes and semantic ambiguities were not corrected by the teacher, as they did not prevent the teacher and students from exchanging meanings. Thus, its focus on meaning but not form aligns the lesson with TBLT. Moreover, the teacher's efforts in building students' thinking in higher-order level instead of eliciting one pre-determined short answer at lower-order thinking make the lesson correspond with TBLT, which suggests a focus on process rather than product (Feez, 1998).

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The Application and Significance of Discourse Cohesion and Analysis in Practical Teaching of Foreign Language

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Abstracts—**The text cohesion and analysis have an important meaning in the practice of English teaching. It is the essential basis to get the clue of the text developing, deepen the understanding of the article, cultivating the students' ability of logical thinking, and do a good job at the important foundation to improve the quality of foreign language teaching. So, it's not an ignored strategy to master the theory of discourse cohesion and discourse analysis in the foreign language teaching, and the dependable guarantee to raise the quality of the foreign language teaching.**

Index Terms—**grammatical cohesion, lexical cohesion, discourse, reading teaching, writing teaching, translation teaching**

I. THE BASIC CONCEPT OF DISCOURSE COHESION AND ANALYSIS

Cohesion is the basis of an article, is also the important form of showing the style and characteristics. It is linked to all kinds of term relationships, cohesion method generally includes two types, there are: grammatical and lexical cohesion.

Cohesion is a main steps of linking appropriate terms or grammar form into an article. In foreign language teaching, through the exploration and analysis of discourse, looking for the language in the form of cohesion and its regularity, to grasp the characteristics and the skills of the discourse cohesion, in order to let the learners to master the discourse context and ideological significance; familiar with the micro contact in discourse, improve the quality of foreign language teaching and learning efficiency and language application ability. Discourse is the language form of terms and sentences. It has the characteristics of the semantic coherence and tight logic. It shows the relative functions of the semantics, and makes the ingredients of discourse complement each other, constructing the unique aesthetic feeling of the language.

A. Grammatical Cohesion

The grammatical cohesion can be divided into four kinds of forms; (Hu Zhuanglin, P, 68-69) "such as reference, substitution, ellipsis, and connection. Care expresses the semantic relations with the grammar of pronouns speech etc," generally divided into personal care, instructive care and competitive care. Personal care is mainly used to reflect with possessive determiners and possessive pronouns. Instructions care is mainly composed of demonstrative pronoun and indicating adverbs, and comparative reference often reflect by the comparative of adjectives and adverbs. The textual features of reference across the sentence boundaries when it connects, allows author to use the short form of the demonstrative pronoun to express the objects with once mentioned or to be mentioned in the context of the content, so that the discourse can be concise and compact. Alternative means with indefinite pronouns, such as; "do", "one", "so" etc, to take place ingredients occurring in the context. The index relationship between substitution and replacement parts can make the sentences in discourse closely linked together. Omitted is a special form of alternative, alternative terms have been omitted. Effect of substitution and omission is to highlight the main meaning, to avoid duplication, maintain close relationship between contexts. Connection is a means which using connection components reflect what logical relationship between different components in discourse. The connection components often use the transitional words with some logical relationship such as: time, cause and condition etc. Connecting words like road signs, will guide readers to understand the semantic relationships between sentences, and grasp the connotation of the discourse.

B. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion appearing in discourse just means some semantic relationship between partial terms, including reproducibility and co-occurrence. Reproducibility relationship of the vocabulary refer to a particular word in the original word, synonyms, approximate meaning word, antonyms, hyponyms, general word and other forms reappear in the discourse. Sentences in a discourse link each other by this relationship of reproducibility. Co-occurrence relationship of words means the tendency of the common occurrence, such as: "University", and "professor", "Spring" and "Flowers", and so on. Lexical cohesion is the most prominent, the most important form of convergence. They are the major means of creating discourse forms, about account for more than half of quantity of discourse cohesion.

Accurate understanding of the discourse is also inseparable from the analysis of the discourse. Discourse analysis should pay attention to two aspects: First, the structure of the text, the second is function of discourse components. The discourse is the language unit which structured with sentences, structure is very complex; discourse is a semantic unit, its relationship with sentences is relationship of embodiment, which means the structure of the sentences come to embody the semantic content. In the teaching practice of translation, if we want to form a discourse that fit the need in the target language society, it should choose the language resources from top to bottom and with a goal, in order to rewrite the whole article. The description must focus on the semantic convergence between the structure and characteristics of sentences and the different components.

We know that any language has its own voice system, syntax system and semantic system. English is a form of "shape-legitimate" language of Indo-European, commonly used in various forms of conjunctions, phrases, clauses and subordinate clause, focusing on the dominant convergence and sentence form, focus on structural integrity. But Chinese is "legal meaning" language, rarely use or never use the means of "shape-formed", always use the hidden meaning to link with others. Especially pay attention to the orders of logic affair, the functions and its meaning. It should say that English stresses on well-formed, and Chinese stresses on the form of meaning formed, we must pay more attention to this feature when we carry on the discourse analysis.

From the form of cohesion, "shape legitimate" of English link up the sentences with conjunctions by syntactically. The "legal meaning" of Chinese relies on the sense of convergence, but not necessarily dependent on the conjunctions. So, conjunctions used in English have a very high frequency.

The grammatical cohesion way in English is phenotype, and Chinese is stealth. Chinese expression flexible, many logical relations rely on meaning rather than grammar. The omitted sentence is just to convey its ideas, without thinking of grammar or the logical means, the omitted words were used less than English. Chinese always use the repetition of original words to realize the textual cohesion.

II. THE DISCOURSE COHESION AND ANALYSIS IN TEACHING OF READING

In the traditional English teaching of reading, teachers have more emphasis on vocabulary, sentence structure, grammar, and pay less than the analysis of discourse structure and coherence, lead to students to master the only fragmented knowledge, it's difficult to grasp the article content and structure as a whole. Discourse theory suggests that cohesion is the clue of discourse coherence, through analyzing the text, we can make students to accurately grasp the main thinking and structure of the article. Statement smoothly between smoothly lexical chain between sentences and words is advantageous to complete paragraph meaning, also be the assurances that students can understand the article well.

Discourse is a component of sentence connections, it is not a simple arrangement of works, but in a certain language style to each part of the article using the skill originally combined into a whole. Mode plays an important role in the discourse construction, and discourse analysis can solve many problems that they are not solve with grammar. Reading, therefore, should not only pay attention to the words, phrases, sentences, grammar structure, also from discourse level, giving a macro analysis of the content of the article structure, cultivate students' logical thinking, improve their comprehensive reading ability.

Reading teaching only analyze the words and sentences is not only obtain a good result, only seize the discourse form and content, combining with environment of language usage to understand and grasp the discourse can seize the essence. Clearly explained in the form of the language knowledge, to analyze use of cohesive devices, to create discourse coherence method, combined with the learned articles related to the cultural and social knowledge, analysis, together with the students in the process of cognitive inference, induction, summarizes the knowledge of the discourse and training the students' ability of thinking and language use. Teachers should earnestly practice more, provide students with more opportunities to explore and exchange knowledge. Usually the process for imparting new knowledge is: to inspire interest in ways to import new lesson, speculate clue of the story development, let the students read the text quickly, and understand the content and structure of the article, find out the related problems classify each section of the story and summarizes the central idea, give the overall understanding exchange activities such as organization and retelling, discussion, to deepen understanding of the article do the training of language skills, discuss the cohesive devices and writing skill of articles, style and rhetoric, to understand passages with valuation. This is good for student's ability to obtain overall information, improve their subjective initiative and the ability of independent thinking, and the communicative ability with foreign language.

In teaching of discourse analysis, "teachers should fully mobilize students' learning enthusiasm and subjective initiative, treating the language analysis as the key step in the training students' language ability to grasp."(Jia Lijuan, P, 54) It can inspire students' thinking, but also can help students analyze cohesion and coherence between sentences, understanding communication function of discourse. In text reading, students should analyze, reasoning, and summarize the process of writing the text actively, focusing on the learning content. In this way, it can help to improve the students' ability and communication skills. Teachers ought to explain the important vocabulary and grammatical structure in learning, and try to create good communication atmosphere for students, exercise their ability of language application.

Reading teaching in classroom should stimulate students' interest and the language training should pay attention to the language content and development of communication skills. In reading teaching, considering the actual situation of

language knowledge level, the knowledge of language, we must give detailed explaining, especially to the obstacles of understanding the grammar and sentence structure. As far as possible use the learned language to skim through knowledge and capture the important language clues in discourse teaching, have an overall impression to the article, segment the article into some sections and find the central idea and important information. We should be good at understanding the intention of the article, carries on deep analysis to each other, so that the students based on the content, speak out their own opinions, and evaluative understanding.

English articles have all kinds of different styles and characteristics: generally speaking, the narrative is to pay more attention to the experience of the event. Description lays particular stress on description of emotion. Its language is vivid, and exposition especially notices the organized, more objective and concise language style, thesis lays stress on logic rationality in the development of things.

"The meaning of the statement understanding depends on discrimination of word and rhetorical devices."(Zeng Qingyong, P, 23-24) The emergence of new words will reduce the speed of reading, hinder the understanding of sentence meaning and discourse. Teachers can guide students by means of word formation or use context to a ascertain meaning, inspire the student from the part of speech, the rhetorical features, comparison of statements, restatement, the word with the relationship of context, to differentiate and analyze words according to the author's style and aims of selecting words. In the use of rhetorical figures is also a difficulty. The rhetorical use of English and Chinese have some similarities and intersection, but sometimes, English and Chinese speakers have completely different cultural schemata, lexical connotation and denotation is a big difference. In rhetoric teaching, the teacher not only requires students to identify and right understanding of the rhetoric meaning, still should guide students to compare Chinese and Western cultural schemata, to improve the sensitivity of cross-cultural communication. At the same time, we should help students analyze the rhetoric of the ideographic function, the connection function and aesthetic function in the discourse.

Discourse analysis in reading teaching emphasizes the discourse, as a whole, content, significance, complied with people's cognitive process of thinking, to improve students' reading comprehension ability and cultivate students' ability in all aspects of language use. It narrowed the dominant position of the teacher in the classroom, the whole teaching process centered on student activities. Practice has proved, through discourse analysis teaching, teachers can train the student quickly and accurately grasp the basic content of discourse and the central idea, find out the author's thinking, to understand how the author is expressed the ideological content through the language structure. Discourse analysis teaching plays a very important role to improve students' reading ability, cultivate the students' analysis, induction, integration and inference ability and the ability of preliminary language communication, it is the benefit on helping students to develop good reading methods, to improve their reading comprehension level, improve the quality of reading teaching.

III.   THE DISCOURSE COHESION AND ANALYSIS IN WRITING TEACHING

In the current writing teaching of foreign language, we noticed that the students' grammar in writing is basically correct, sentences are also reasonable and smooth, and the structure of article is disorder, poor works, lack of logic with the statement and paragraphs, the lack of discourse coherence. In writing teaching, therefore, do not think highly of the learning and use of discourse cohesion theory, and improve students' ability in discourse construction, it is difficult to train out a high level of writing skills.

To do this, first we should realize the importance of textual study, and teach theory of the discourse cohesion systematically, and applied to the student the teaching of writing. Make students attach importance to the overall structure of the article and the analysis of the ideological content, making clear to the clue of text development, realize the entire train of thought, comprehend the specific role of cohesion in discourse construction. Also, enlarge students' vocabulary, guide students to use a variety of terms, such as: the original words, synonyms and approximate meaning words, hyponyms and summary words etc, all kinds of ways in lexical cohesion to express, to improve language dull phenomenon. Teachers should systematically, in a planned way to do more training of writing coherence knowledge. Just as; design filling blanks, make sentences, interference into paper and other special exercises, imitation of creative writing, such as rewriting, repeat, copy writing, paying special attention to composition of overall planning and the use of cohesive devices.

It is the basic skills of foreign language learning in English writing, attaches great importance to the discourse of knowledge learning, enable students to master the article of the entire building and writing skills.

Students' errors of discourse also include the lack of discourse knowledge, the influence of traditional grammar teaching mode and the lack of various factors, such as the side effects of their mother tongue. Students don't have knowledge of discourse, don't know how to construct the discourse; Superficial understanding for word cohesion and composition mode, misuse and abuse related vocabulary; Coupled with the interference of mother tongue, and could not clearly differentiate the use of punctuation in English and Chinese, result in the sentence structure is chaos. The traditional foreign language teaching too much emphasis on accurate grammar, ignoring the students' creative ability and logic of discourse coherence, the composition expression became a vocabulary list and packing. Therefore, in teaching of English writing, we should pay special attention to: (1) the differences of two cultures, we ought to strengthen the cultural comparison education, avoid the misunderstanding of awareness brings the error use of culture.

English culture is expressed directly and Chinese culture has many hidden song. (2) Arouse the students' creative consciousness, cultivate the continuity thinking of foreign language application. (3) Cultivate macro overall consciousness in discourse, avoid writing indiscriminately according grammar. (4) Reform the standard of evaluation, strengthen the ability of discourse coherence. "In the writing teaching should fully understand the theory of discourse coherence and cohesion means, in-depth study of the teaching methods, to explore the students' awareness of discourse and the expression and rules of discourse errors, find out the countermeasures to solve the problem." (He Xuegui, P,56)

Any type of discourse have specific stylistic features, stylistic analysis focus on the language description of text, analyzing the appropriateness of the selected language ingredient as well as the effect of specific problems, so as to achieve the aim of appreciation on text. Stylistic analysis carred on is in pronunciation, writing, vocabulary, grammar, discourse structure, and other aspects. The focus is the language characteristics of analysis of stylistic significance and aesthetic value, from the perspective of the typical features of language, explore the author's pragmatic intention and pragmatic effect, in order to achieve the purpose of appreciation and follow, improve their writing level. So, analyze the appropriateness of language elements selected by author and its specific stylistic rhetoric effect is also an important part of the writing teaching.

In the teaching of English writing, teachers also need to use discourse analysis method, from the perspective of textual macro, pays attention to the subject of essay writing, paragraph structure, sentence relations and the writing features, let the student maximum master the links and skills in writing. Writing teaching is a process of continuously explore. We must constantly explore the teaching ideas, new methods, cultivate students' logical thinking, independent thinking and innovation ability. Practice has proved that the guidance of discourse analysis in writing teaching, can strengthen the students' interest in learning, improve their writing skills and application ability. Greatly promote the students' learning and mastery of the language and culture.

IV. COHESION AND ANALYSIS IN TRANSLATION TEACHING

In translation teaching practice, the traditional habit in sentences is as basic unit, we find out the fusion point through the real meaning of terms and expressions of two kinds of culture, corresponding to the translation of sentence by sentence, word for word. Researching of discourse theory can help us out of error place from the discourse context and words of translation. Familiar with cohesion theory, translation teaching can more accurately convey the original meaning. In translation teaching, teachers should consider the following factors:

(1). Selecting material of translation should pay attention to discourse as the unit, before translation you should read the whole text, and then use the cohesion theory to analyze, form the overall consciousness of discourse, and grasp the original essence, guarantee the translation faithful to the original one. (2). First, choose the model translation to analyze, comparing the difference between the cohesive ties in both Chinese and English, make out the measures to deal with the differences. Such as: English pronouns is in textual cohesion are often in the former, the parts that stood for is at the last. And the Chinese is just the opposite. The orders must adjust when we translate them. Mastered the comparison and analysis may improve the translation skills. (3). You should pay attention to the core words of cohesion when reading the original article, if some words are difficult to understand, you can be through the analysis of repetition of words and co-occurrence relations to master its precise meaning. In translation, English and Chinese different patterns of lexical cohesion ought to do appropriate conversion, reappearance original text rhetoric effect as far as possible, to keep language style of the original.

When reading the original and the translation, you should analyze the discourse. After analysis of the results, we can compare them, lay a foundation for the accurate translation. Therefore, translation should have the consciousness of discourse. The discourse awareness can make us pay attention to the integrity and indivisibility of the chapter in translation research and practice, achieve the function of discourse communication and communicative intention, governance the observation and study of discourse level. "Translation despite the style difference, but the translation by understanding and convey associated composition is out of question." (Yu Gaofeng, P, 41-42) In the process of translation, and understanding, grasping of discourse cohesion to the translation of the original has a vital role.

On the original analysis, we should delve into the syntax and discourse structure. Analysis of the discourse structure is an important part of the translation, and in the link mode is also easy to make mistakes, translator can complete understanding of the original exactly, if you want to avoid the structure in vague or logical confusion when translation, must hold the discourse structure of the article well both in English and Chinese.

Transmission is the center of the translation purpose. In understanding, concern the core is the author, in the process of conveying, attention of the object is the reader, you should always think of using acceptable language which the readers can admit to express the author's intention and the original content. Therefore, the translator should consider of cohesive devices in both Chinese and English languages, pay attention to the differences between the two kinds of cohesion, ensure of the translation conforms to the habits of target language.

Discourse translation is the current trend on translation study, in discourse translating, cohesion is the important features and forming conditions. In Chinese-English translation, the cohesion exchange making semantic coherence is the key step in the translation. Cohesive devices between English and Chinese has a big difference, therefore, we need to in-depth study of cohesive devices and means, grasp its regularity, for translation accurately convey the original ideas. Therefore, cohesion and analysis are very important in understanding the source and formation.

V.   THE SIGNIFICANCE OF DISCOURSE ANALYSIS IN TEACHING PRACTICE

In traditional foreign language teaching in the past, we only attach importance to language forms, rarely stand in the Angle of discourse or context of article to make a detailed analysis, the students don't grasp the thread of the article and implied meaning. They only read and understand the article word by word, the comprehensive ability of students' foreign language learning cannot be formed. If they have learned the cohesion theory, they can make full use of the skills on the learning of discourse. Thus, their basic language knowledge and the abilities of comprehensive application can be improved significantly.

M. Halliday (P, 99), British linguist points out that discourse analysis is the interpretation of the discourse, to the discourse genre, central idea and structure do first assumption in advance, give an analysis to the discourse style and structure; Compare our prediction with the author's entire agreement, tell their different advantages and disadvantages. Pay attention to the discourse of cohesion, before and after the echo, coherently of the logical relationship, combined with the cultural background, a comprehensive grasp the profound meaning of the text, so as to make comprehensive evaluation to discourse.

When we learn the genre analysis that we should let students understand the knowledge of article genre, such as: classification, characteristics and components, then to forecast the discourse genre, speculation of overall planning to reveal the central idea, again carries on the contrast and analysis, find out the argument.

Theme is the enrichment and generalization of full text content, expresses the author's writing intention, especially in the topic sentence of a paragraph. You should think to find it out when reading, in order to get to know the theme idea of the discourse exactly.

Structural analysis is influenced by discourse genre, theme; the structure is not the same. British linguist Michael Hoey divided the discourse into many varieties: include general type - points above, (after summary set example; detail explanation after whole); Contrast - match type, (in contrast similarities and differences to highlight the central issue.) ; Problem - solving. (put forward the existing problems first, and then choose solution). In practical teaching, referring to the mode of discourse, inductive each paragraph and hierarchical to the title, understand the overall structure of the article by different administrative levels, comparing with contrast methods, pave for the theme to highlight the structure of the discourse.

Halliday and Hasan believed that cohesion is the language resources in each of language, and it can associate with this or that portion of the discourse. At the same time, they divided the cohesion into such grammatical tapes: the reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction etc, and lexical cohesion can be divided into the methods: recreate and collocation.

When we read and analyze the relationship of sentence, we should pay an attention to the use of conjunctions. Conjunction can reflect all kinds of the logic relationship in discourse, the logical relationship is a link to form the discourse network. We usually have four patterns: adding, turning, causal and time.

Liu Chensheng (P,199) pointed out that language is the carrier of culture, it is not independent existence. Therefore, if you want to master a foreign language, you must consciously understand and accept the rich culture of a language. Discourse is the product of social and cultural context, it reflects a certain social intention and cultural characteristics. Therefore, discourse is associated with a particular cultural significance. In the discourse analysis, combining with the cultural background of the article, is more advantageous to the students for understanding the theme of the thought and moral that reveals in the article.

In a word, to cultivate students' ability in discourse analysis, in class, we should train students' abilities of summarizing the ideas of article, retelling, paraphrased, rewrite the plots of text and the expression ability of content; Outside the classroom, students are encouraged to read all kinds of genre of materials; meanwhile, you should pay attention to the forecast and analysis of the cohesion relationship, thematic structure and cohesion genre, consciously train the ability of discourse analysis. Strengthen students' understanding of the social culture, economic development and historical origin in the target language, and expanded the aspect of knowledge; improve the discourse analysis and language application ability.

VI.   CONCLUDING REMARKS

To sum up, the theory of discourse cohesion and analysis is an important means of textual research. In the teaching, rationally use the theory of discourse cohesion and analysis, you can better help students grasp the chapter structure of the article in general, improve the level of the students' reading, writing and translation. This way of teaching for teachers also put forward the corresponding requirements. Teachers must have a comprehensive and thorough understanding of this theory and consciousness of discourse analysis. And we should be good at exploring the teaching method in teaching and applied to the practice. Continuously explore and improve them, then you can comprehensively improve the student's application ability of foreign language in the teaching.

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The Effect of Negotiated Syllabus on EFL Learners' Writing Ability and Self-efficacy

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Abstract—Language curriculum and syllabus play crucial roles in finding some ways to develop and facilitate the process of learning English. Learner involvement based on variety of mechanisms has recently received momentum in ESL/EFL education in line with this, this study attempted to unravel the effects of negotiation syllabus on both skill acquisition and affection change: writing ability and writing self-efficacy based on data gathered following the treatment to 62 Iranian EFL adult learners. Exercising conventional writing instruction to a control group and negotiation syllabus- based one to an experimental group, the study unraveled that skill acquisition (i.e., writing ability) was more significantly affected in light of the treatment than the self-efficacy trait. The general language proficiency was not also much affected following the experiment. Impressionistic analyses proved that the negotiated syllabus leads to more learner autonomy though.

Index Terms—syllabus, negotiated syllabus, self-efficacy, writing skill, writing self-efficacy

I. Introduction

Etymologically syllabus means a label or table of contents. White (1988) viewed syllabus as the specification and ordering of content of a course. However, the foundation for a good course is a good syllabus.A course syllabus can serve as a highly efficient facilitator of student learning (Grunert, 1997; Pastorino, 1999) .Moreover, a well-designed syllabus can increase the likelihood of student success in class.

Several distinct types of language teaching syllabi exist, which may be implemented in various teaching situations. The traditional interpretation of syllabus focuses on outcomes rather than process and it was the role of the teacher to make decisions (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000). The traditional syllabus was a teaching plan, usually based on a textbook, which defined how the course was to be instructed. The classroom was seen as a closed system with its books and a fixed program (Blackman, 2008). The teacher chose the program content and imposed it to the students. However, according to (Clarke, 1991), "the communicative era of the language teaching has seen enormous developments in the area of syllabus design" (p.13). Modern education places great value on the development of the learners' humanistic qualities and the associated affective factors. The syllabus designer, instead of prescribing learning content, provides teacher and learners a frame work to build their own on-going syllabus in the classroom and the students are responsible for their own learning. They tend to give students control, choice, and a more active role in their learning process. Therefore, the negotiated syllabuses were proposed as a reference point for teachers who wished to engage students into the classroom.

Theoretically, syllabuses are of two types: product-oriented syllabus and process-oriented syllabus. Product-oriented syllabus focuses on what the learners will know as a result at the end of instruction session. Nunan (1994) states that "product-oriented syllabuses aiming at knowledge and skills which learners should gain as a result of instruction" (p. 27). Compared with the product syllabuses, the process syllabuses have attached more importance to the process of language learning and focus on the pedagogical processes leading to the language outcomes. An important characteristic of the process syllabus is that "it is an infrastructure rather than a learning plan, with the syllabus designer no longer pre-selecting learning content, but providing a framework for teacher and learners to create their own on-going syllabus in the classroom" (Breen 1987a, p. 166),and learners are engaged in evolving the syllabus. Student-teacher and student-student negotiation of content and direction is an essential section of the process approach, but negotiation of meaning within that process is also a critical characteristic (Long & Crookes 1993; Stevick, 1976, 1980). Breen (2000) explains that process syllabus see learning as interactive, negotiated, and reflective. Negotiation provides a context for learners to articulate and refine their prior understandings, purposes and intentions for new learning.

Negotiated Syllabus and Writing Skill

Over recent years, interest in the concept of negotiation has come in the language teaching. Negotiated syllabus means regularly involving the learners in decision making regarding the goals, content, presentation, and assessment of the course (Breen 1987; Clarke 1991).In this kind of syllabus, learners learn through democratic decision-making. In negotiation-based approaches, teacher and learners come to agreement on what to learn and how to learn (Tuan, 2011). Proponents of this innovation believe that the syllabus which comes out from the negotiation process is more flexible

and relevant to learners' needs and hence more motivating and allows learners to play a more informed and self-directive purpose in their learning (Bloor & Bloor, 1988; Boomer et al., 1992; Breen & Littlejohn, 2000; Nunan, 1992, 1999; Nunan, 1988; Tudor, 1996). Meanwhile, "negotiation provides a context in which opportunities exist for learner to articulate and, thereby, refine their prior understanding, purposes and intentions as reference points for new learning" (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000,p. 24) and allows for changing the perceptions in the learners, without specifying particular content, methodology, structure, or grammar.

In relation to writing domain, Lo and Hyland (2007) suggested that "one way of enhancing students' motivation and engagement to write is to provide opportunities for them to engage at a more meaningful level with the language through refocusing their writing classes to make them relevant to their social and cultural context as well as designing writing tasks which have meaning and interest to them and offer opportunities for social interaction and self-expression" (p.221).

Self-Efficacy and Writing Skill

Self-efficacy is ''people's beliefs about their capacities to produce performances that affect events affecting their lives'' (Bandura, 1995, p. 434). It is the beliefs one has about their capacities to direct and execute the courses of action needed to produce given attainments (Bandura, 1997). More than two decades of research have clearly shown that self-efficacy influences academic motivation, learning and achievement (Pajares & Schunk, 2005; Zimmerman, 2000). Recently, self-beliefs about writing have received more attention. Writing self-efficacy is self-beliefs that underlie student motivation in writing. In other words, it is defined as the belief in one's ability to write.According to Hayes (1996) in writing skill; cognitive components are associated with affective and motivational factors which can affect the students' writing. Writing self-efficacy is one's personal belief in his ability to write. Within the motivational component, self-efficacy has a significant effect on writing (Pajares&Valiente, 2006). Learners with high self-efficacy see difficult writing tasks as challenging and work attentively to master them (Lavelle, 2005; Lavelle, 2006). Failure, self-doubts, learned helplessness, poor self-efficacy and poor motivation will negatively affect a student's ability to write well (Sawyer, Graham & Harris, 1992).

The Problem and Purpose

Contrary to commonality of various syllabuses, the problem is which syllabus works most effectively. What usually happens in EFL classes is that teachers make decisions and determine what students are supposed to do and how they are expected to do them without almost any negotiation with and involvement of students. Since improving writing skills has usually been a major concern for EFL learners, the present study reasoned that implementation of a negotiated syllabus would likely improve writing achievement and learner's self-efficacy because students would be allowed to make choices. It was assumed that a direct negotiation in a writing class would enhance enthusiasm on the part of students for practicing writing and, accordingly, develop a more favorable attitude to learning English in general, and more positive perceptions of their own writing ability in particular.Considering the interrelationship of EFL negotiated syllable and writing self-efficacy and the effects of the first variable on the second, this study was designed to verify the reported cases of interrelationship and to respond to a fraction of doubts and concerns in the literature by investigating the relationship between negotiated syllabus and writing self-efficacy, and more specifically exploring the effect of using negotiated syllabus on Iranian EFL learners' both writing ability and writing self-efficacy. To tackle these issues, the study designed in the form of quasi-experimental research to address them in the form of two separate research questions converted into respective null hypotheses assuming that a negotiated syllabus does not have any significant effect neither on developing EFL learners' writing ability nor their writing self-efficacy.

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

Sixty two Iranian male and female intermediate-level Iranian EFL learners ranged 20-30 in terms of age took part in this study. They were doing their associate diploma at Iranian University of Applied Science in Translation of Legal Deeds and Documents. The participants were intact groups. However, the PET was administered prior to treatment to make sure of their language proficiency.

Materials

Four sets of materials were employed for the purpose of this research.

1. The Preliminary English Test (PET): before and after the treatment, The PET was administered in order to prove that the two groups enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency and compare learners' language ability.

2. Writing Self-Efficacy Questionnaire: Before and after the treatment writing self-efficacy questionnaire was conducted in order to evaluate individuals writing self-efficacy. (The reliability indices for the Pretest and posttest of self-efficacy are .88 and .81 respectively.)

3. Writing Tests: Three writing tests administered to the experimental group in the sessions 4, 6 and 8 for observing any changes in the learners' writing achievement.

4. Researcher-made Writing Post-Test: a researcher-made writing test administered to all the groups at the end of the course.

Procedures

Having received the pre-treatment instruments, both experimental group and control group attended an English writing course which lasted for 10 educational sessions (1hour and a half a day, two days a week). The control group received conventional writing instruction while the experimental group received the treatment, which was based on the negotiated syllabus. The learners in experimental group were allowed to express own ideas and goals about the course. The students were asked to comment on the learning program (including the activities and the way of assessment), their achievements and progress, the way of teaching and learning. The content of the materials and methodology were also negotiated. The teacher and learners came to agreement on what to learn. Teacher' main goal was to encourage learners to learn cooperatively and learners should be actively involved in this process. Along with the teacher allowed students peer correction. After the treatment, the PET was administered to measure the change in participants' language proficiency. Then, the writing self-efficacy questionnaire was administered to measure the change in participants' writing self-efficacy. Meanwhile, researcher-made writing post-test administered to evaluate the participants' writing.

III. RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

Preliminary Analysis (normality check)

As displayed in Table 1 all of the ratios of skewness and kurtosis over their respective standard errors are within the ranges of +/- 1.96. Thus, it can be concluded that the tests employed in this study do not show any marked deviations from normality, hence the results were justified to be analyzed parametrically.

TABLE 1:
NORMALITY TESTS

GROUP		Skewdness			Kurtosis		
		Statistic	Std. Error	Normality	Statistic	Std. Error	Normality
EXPERIEMNTAL	PRETEST	-0.48	0.46	*-1.06*	0.83	0.89	*0.93*
	POSTTEST	-0.65	0.46	*-1.43*	0.19	0.89	*0.21*
	TEACHERMADE	-0.40	0.46	*-0.89*	-0.68	0.89	*-0.76*
	PRE SELF-EFFICACY	0.02	0.46	*0.03*	-1.01	0.89	*-1.14*
	POST SELF-EFFICACY	0.29	0.46	*0.63*	1.24	0.89	*1.40*
CONTROL	PRETEST	-0.48	0.40	*-1.22*	-0.88	0.78	*-1.13*
	POSTTEST	-0.42	0.40	*-1.06*	-1.12	0.78	*-1.44*
	TEACHERMADE	-0.06	0.40	*-0.14*	-1.43	0.78	*-1.84*
	PRE SELF-EFFICACY	0.48	0.39	*1.23*	-0.81	0.77	*-1.05*
	POST SELF-EFFICACY	0.23	0.39	*0.58*	-0.64	0.77	*-0.83*

Language Proficiency Measure

An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the PET in order to prove that the two groups enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency prior to the administration of the negotiated syllabus to the experimental group. As displayed in Table 2 the experimental group with a mean score of 10 performed better than the control group (M = 8.95) on the PET.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PET BY GROUPS

GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EXPERIEMNTAL	26	10.0077	2.01374	.39493
CONTROL	36	8.9539	2.67102	.44517

The t-observed value of 1.69 at 60 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical value of 2 at .05 levels of significance (Table 3). Based on these results, it can be concluded that there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the PET. Thus, it can be claimed that both groups were homogenous in terms of their general language proficiency prior to the main study. It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met. The probability associated with the Levene's F = 2.45, i.e. .12 was higher than .05.

TABLE 3:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST BY 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
Equalvariances assumed	2.45	0.12	1.69	60.00	0.10	1.05	0.62	-0.19	2.30
Equal variances not assumed			1.77	59.86	0.08	1.05	0.60	-0.14	2.24

Self-Efficacy Measure

An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the pretest of self-efficacy in order to prove that the two groups enjoyed the same level of self-efficacy prior to the implementation of the negotiated syllabus to the experimental group. As displayed in Table 4, the control group with a mean score of 74.57 performed better than the experimental group (M = 80.11) on the pretest of self-efficacy.

TABLE 4:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF SELF-EFFICACY MEASURE BY GROUPS

GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	26	74.5769	10.13577	1.98779
Control	36	80.1111	6.96020	1.16003

The t-observed value of 2.55 at 60 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical value of 2.66 at .01 levels of significance (Table 5). Based on the results it could be concluded that there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the pretest of self-efficacy. Thus, it can be claimed that both groups were homogenous in terms of their self-efficacy prior to the main study. It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met. The probability associated with the Levene's F = 5.73, i.e. .02 was lower than .05. That is why level of significance (alpha level) is reduced from .05 to .01.

TABLE 5:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF SELF-EFFICACY MEASURE BY 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	5.73	.02	2.55	60	.013	5.53	2.16	1.19	9.87
Equal variances not assumed			2.40	41.49	.021	5.53	2.30	.88	10.18

Investigation of the First Research Question

In order to answer the first research question "Does a negotiated syllabus have any significant effect on developing EFL learners' writing ability?", an independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the writing in order to investigate the effect of the negotiated syllabus on the improvement of the writing ability of the experimental group. As displayed in Table 6, the experimental group with a mean score of 12.76 performed better than the control group (M = 9.49) on the writing test.

TABLE 6:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF WRITING TEST

GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	26	12.7692	1.40876	.27628
Control	36	9.4972	2.99480	.49913

The t-observed value of 5.17 at 60 degrees of freedom is higher than the critical value of 2.66 at .01 levels of significance (Table 7). Based on these results it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the writing test. Thus, the first null-hypothesis as the negotiated syllabus does not significantly affect Iranian EFL learners' writing ability **is rejected**. The experimental group – following the negotiated syllabus treatment – outperformed the control group on the writing test. It should be ,however, noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met. The probability associated with the Levene's F = 13.13, i.e. .000 is lower than .05. That is why the level of significance (alpha level) is reduced from .05 to .01 when reporting the results of the independent t-tests.

TABLE 7:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST POSTTEST OF SELF-EFFICACY BY 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	13.13	0.00	5.17	60.00	0.00	3.27	0.63	2.00	4.54
Equal variances not assumed			5.74	52.79	0.00	3.27	0.57	2.13	4.42

Investigation of the Second Research Question

In order to answer the second research question "Does a negotiated syllabus significantly affect Iranian EFL learners' writing self-efficacy?" the following steps were taken:

Post Test

For comparing the performance of the participants, the following test was administered to both groups.

Self-Efficacy measure

An independent t-test was also run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the posttest of self-efficacy after administering the treatment of negotiated syllabus to the former group. As displayed in Table 8 the experimental group with a mean score of 66.92 performed better on the posttest of self-efficacy than the control group (M = 64.63).

TABLE 8:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF SELF-EFFICACY MEASURE

GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	26	66.9231	7.95449	1.56000
Control	36	64.6389	6.04343	1.00724

The t-observed value of 1.28 at 60 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical value of 2 at .05 levels of significance (Table 9). Based on these results it can be concluded that there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the posttest of self-efficacy. Thus, the data failed to reject the second null-hypothesis, as far as the self-efficacy notion was concerned. It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met. The probability associated with the Levene's F = .60, i.e. .44 is higher than .05.

TABLE 9:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF SELF-EFFICACY MEASURE BY 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	.603	.441	1.285	60	.204	2.28	1.77	-1.27	5.83
Equal variances not assumed			1.230	44.64	.225	2.28	1.85	-1.45	6.02

PET as a Post-test

An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the PET as a post-test in order to prove that the effect of the negotiated syllabus to the improvement of the general proficiency of the experimental group. As displayed in Table 10 the experimental group with a mean score of 11.82 performed better than the control group (M = 10.85) on the PET as a post-test.

TABLE 10:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PET SCORES BY GROUPS

GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EXPERIEMNTAL	26	11.8269	1.96439	.38525
CONTROL	36	10.8542	3.31252	.55209

The t-observed value of 1.34 at 60 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical value of 2.66 at .01 levels of significance (Table 11). Based on these results it can be concluded that there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the posttest PET. Thus, it can be claimed that the negotiated syllabus does not have any significant effect on the improvement of the general language proficiency of the experimental group. Then, similar to the self-efficacy, the participant's general proficiencydid not much change in light of the treatment. It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was not met. The probability associated with the Levene's F = 7.69, i.e. .01 is lower than .05. That is why the level of significance (alpha level) is reduced from .05 to .01).

TABLE 11:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF PET SCORES BY 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	7.69	0.01	1.34	60.00	0.19	0.97	0.73	-0.48	2.43
Equal variances not assumed			1.45	58.10	0.15	0.97	0.67	-0.37	2.32

Writing Tests

A repeated measures ANOVA was run to compare the mean scores of the three writing tests administered to the experimental group. In order to observe any changes in the learners' writing achievement, three writing tests administered in the session 4, 6, and 8. The topics were selected through negotiation and the evaluation was done by the teacher. As displayed in Table 12, the F-observed value for comparing the mean scores of the students on the three writing test, i.e. 1.26 is lower than the critical value of 3.25 at 2 and 36 degrees of freedom.

TABLE 12:
REPEATED MEASURES ANOVA THREE WRITING TESTS

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
WRITING	Sphericity Assumed	2.772	2	1.386	1.267	.294	.066
	Greenhouse-Geisser	2.772	1.920	1.443	1.267	.294	.066
	Huynh-Feldt	2.772	2.000	1.386	1.267	.294	.066
	Lower-bound	2.772	1.000	2.772	1.267	.275	.066
Error	Sphericity Assumed	39.395	36	1.094			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	39.395	34.566	1.140			
	Huynh-Feldt	39.395	36.000	1.094			
	Lower-bound	39.395	18.000	2.189			

Based on these results it can be concluded that there are not any significant differences between the mean scores of the students on three writing tests. As displayed in Table 13 the mean scores for the three writing tests are 15.76, 15.39 and 15.92 respectively.

TABLE13:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS THREE WRITING TESTS

Tests	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
WRITING1	15.763	.607	14.487	17.039
WRITING2	15.395	.542	14.257	16.532
WRITING3	15.921	.428	15.022	16.820

The reliability indices for the Pretest and posttest of self-efficacy are .88 and .81 respectively.

TABLE 14:
CRONBACH ALPHA RELIABILITY

Self-Efficacy	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Pretest	.889	28
Posttest	.816	28

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

Much has been written on the practicality of syllabus negotiation in EFL education (e.g., Huang, 2006; Boomer et al., 1992; Breen & Littlejohn, 2000; N. T. Nguyen, 2010; V. H. Nguyen, 2006).Similarly, studies have shown that classroom negotiation helps make the teaching program more responsive to learners' needs and wants (Nunan, 1988). Furthermore, many studies have shown a great relationship between self-efficacy and writing performance (e.g., Pajares& Johnson, 1993; Pajares& Johnson, 1996; Pajares, Miller, & Johnson, 1999; Pajares&Valiante, 1997; Wachholz& Etheridge, 1996). In line with this trend, the results of the analyses revealed that in the area of writing there is a significant relationship between negotiated syllabus and writing ability. The negotiated syllabus has significant effect on learner's writing ability. This finding is consistent with the study done by Boomer et al. (1992), Breen and Littlejohn (2000), Candlin (2001), Hall (1999), Huang (2006), Neguyen (2011), and Nunan (2001) findings.

Contrary to the findings on the first research hypothesis, the results of the analyses revealed that in the area of writing there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the posttest of self-efficacy.Surprisingly, the results also indicated that there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the posttest PET. Thus, it can be claimed neither the general language proficiency nor the self-efficacy was significantly affected in light of the negotiation-based instruction. These findings are partially in contrast to those of Bandura (1986, 1997), who strongly believes that students' beliefs about their academic potentialities, or self-efficacy beliefs, are good prognosticators of their academic accomplishment and of their later career choices and decisions. Similarly, the result is different from what reported by Pajares' (2003) which concluded students' beliefs about their own writing competence, or self-efficacy beliefs as instrumental to their ultimate success. This state of affairs could also be attributed to unfamiliarity the syllabus to Iranian students who are by nature more in favor of and at ease with teacher-centered class. On the other hand, it is still a mystery whether the problem derive from the approach itself or from the teacher's and student's lack of experience. Moreover, one possible reason for such results may be partially attributable to the limitation of the time in this study as well. It is assumed that a bit longitudinal study employing some other types of introspection might generate different outcomes.

In short this study showed that those students who were under teaching with the help ofnegotiated syllabus had better retention of writing ability. As a matter of fact, negotiated syllable is one of the effective ways that can be applied in writing classrooms. Although the research literature strongly recommends that the self-belief about writing capabilities had a direct effect on writing outcomes, as the resultant statistics indicted that the two groups had no statistically significant difference on their writing self-efficacy and their general language proficiency at the intermediate level of language proficiency.

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The Study on the Relationship between English Self-concept and Significant Others

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Abstract—This study investigate the role of significant others in shaping the academic self-concept of Chinese college students with a questionnaire research. The questionnaire research was implemented with thirty second-year college students of two classes. For each class, the questionnaires were administered in two sessions. They include a self-evaluation scale and an other-evaluation scale. The subjects evaluated themselves and at the same time were evaluated by the other four. Statistical analysis of the Questionnaire yields the finding that the inferred English self-concept (Others' perceptions) is highly correlated with the English self-concept. The finding suggests a chain of relationships between Pronunciation self-concept, others' perceptions and English self-concept. Implications are then discussed with the affective problem and language teaching and learning in SLA.

Index Terms—self-concept, academic self-concept, inferred self-concept, significant others

I. INTRODUCTION

Second language researchers generally agree that academic performance is not merely a cognitive activity. It may involve a tangled skein of variables, many of which could be non-cognitive, like cultures, society, learners' age, IQ, aptitude and personality. With this in mind, some researchers begin to look at non-cognitive factors for explanations of the mysteries of language and language learning. In recent years, there has been mounting research on the role of affective factors on language learning (Krashen, 1985; Gardner, 1985, 1993; Schumann, 1994, 1997; Stevick, 1976, 1980, 1986, 1990, 1998; Arnold, 1999). Among the intertwined and interrelated elements in the affective domain, self-concept, "that dynamic and motivating set of attitudes held about oneself" (Burns, 1979, p.83), is receiving more and more attention in education.

Based on the fact that "self-concept" is multidimensional and hierarchical, most of the contemporary work in this aspect has focused on the relationship between academic self-concept and academic performance, and has evoked the hot chicken-or-egg-first issue. Few researchers have inquired into what contribute to the formation of individual self-concept. Special attention is paid to the role of significant others in English language learning, but unfortunately rarely addressed in literature, let alone being empirically studied. The writer sets out to examine the formation of the English self-concept of Chinese learners by exploring the role of significant others in the construct of "self-concept".

The notion of "significant others" has been construed as part of the construct of "self-concept". However, even in the research history of psychology, few empirical studies have been conducted to investigate how significant others influence the formation of one's self-concept, not to mention second language learning.

In short, the issue of self-concept is important to language teaching and learning. English self-concept largely remains an uncharted land to explore. This article tends to examine one of the factors affecting the formation of English self-concept of Chinese learners, namely, significant others (English teachers and peers).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

It is not until recently that the psychological construct of "self-concept" has been introduced into second language pedagogy. This change is in conformity with the current research interest in individual differences in second language acquisition, the contribution of the individual learner to the learning process (Williams &Burden, 2000). Nevertheless, scant empirical research along this line has been reported in second language area.

A. Self-concept

The definition of self-concept varies widely with different theories of the self. Some viewed it basically as a cognitive construction—"a ratio of individual's successes to one's pretensions" (Keith & Bracken, 1996, p. 91). Others focused more on the behavioral component of the self, like Bandura; still others, like Cooley (1902), Mead (1934), Baumeister (1990), emphasized the affective dimension of the self, relating it to others' evaluation and depressed affect. Besides, there are specially made definitions for a specific purpose of a single study.

Nevertheless, extensive data, especially factor-analytic studies, have revealed that a multifaceted model of self can better explain relative phenomena. In Shavelson et al's (1976) classic proposal of a multidimensional and hypothetical model of self-concept, they defined self-concept as "a person's self-perceptions formed through experience with and interpretations of his or her environment", which are "influenced especially by evaluations by significant others,

reinforcements, and attributions for the individual's own behavior" (p. 413). This study, taking self-concept as an affective domain, could explicate better its role in language learning and teaching than a cognitive perspective for which the internal factors rather than the external ones in shaping one's self-concept being the focus.

B. Academic Self-concept

Global self-concept can be divided into non-academic (physical, social, emotional) and academic self-concepts, which can then split into even more specific components, like mathematics self-concept, English self-concept, and history self-concept. Strein (1993) claimed that the construct of academic self-concept bears two fundamental characteristics. First, it reflects descriptive (e.g., "I like English") as well as evaluative (e.g., I am good at English) aspects of self-perception. Second, it tends to "focus on scholastic competence, rather than attitude" (Byrne, 1996, p. 290). Two outstanding models, the Shavelson Model and the refined Marsh/ Shavelson model have marked such an endeavor to clarify the structure and nature of academic self-concept.

These differentiated self-concepts are not at the same level and of the same importance. Rather, they are hierarchically structured. As Shavelson et al hypothesized, self-perceptions of more specific competence, like English self-concept can impact the general academic competence, which in turn, influences the overall global self-concept (1976, p. 440). Some components play more important roles than others in shaping the global self-concept. Previous findings and modified Shavelson model suggest that it is reasonable to divide subject self-concept into more refined and specific self-concepts. Our assumption is supported by Lau et al's (1999) study which found the global English self-concept comprises and accounts for four skill-specific self-concepts, i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing. Besides, research in psychology has pointed to two main sources of academic self-concept: academic achievements and significant others.

C. Significant Others

Early in the 1900s, the well-known self psychologist William James proposed three dimensions of the Me-self, namely, the material self, the social self and the spiritual self. For James, the social self refers to "people's evaluations of their acceptance by specific groups of other people" (Berndt & Burgy, 1996, p. 172). This laid the foundation of the multidimensionality of self-concept in contemporary self psychology, and anticipated the importance of evaluations by significant others that clearly voiced by scholars like Cooley (1902) and Mead (1934). Roche and Marsh (2001) found in their research on university teachers' self-concept—self-conception of their own teaching effectiveness by using multitrait-multimethod analysis that feedback from significant others (students) influences teachers' self-concept.

From the definition, we can see that significant others play an important role in forming one's self-concept. What is more underscored is its role as a frame of reference. This is especially so with academic self-concept. Festinger (1954) argued for his social comparison theory that people use significant others in their environment as frames of reference in forming self-assessments. For example, for students, teachers and fellow students serve as the most important significant others in the formation of their self-conceptions. The classic model of "internal/ external frame of reference" proposed by Marsh (1986) goes one step further to demonstrate the role of a referential standard of significant others.

"Significant others" is also a part of the language learning process. For social constructivists, learning takes place within a certain social context through interactions with others (Donato & McCormick, 1994). According to this, language learning in the classroom setting is primarily a process of interaction with language teachers and classmates. The popular CLT approach has this very view as its theoretical rationale.

D. Inferred Self-concept

Inferred self-concept is an alternative measurement of self-concept in response to the problem of socially desirable responding in self-reports. Studies find that right into adolescence, one's self is differentiated into multiple selves. Among them, some are true selves; some others are false selves. From a social psychologist's perspective, false selves will be presented in place of true selves to win others' acceptance or approval (Snyder, 1987). This distinction between true selves and false selves reminds us of the problem of validity in self-report used to study one's self-concept. This problem appeals to some more objective measurement of self-concept, for example, inferring self-concept from ratings by others, like teachers, observers or peers, comparing the results with self-ratings to see the discrepancies. Reasons for the discrepancies should "illuminate our interpretation of self-evaluations" (Harter, 1996, p. 28). This is also why we asked the English teachers to do the questionnaires separately in our study. The aim is to achieve objectivity of response.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

Subjects were 20 second-year students from two classes in Foreign Language College of Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities. The writer selected 5 top students and 5 low achievers from each class as subjects according to both their English scores from a most recent final Examination and the English teachers' ratings. There were 38-50 students in each class, with about 30 girls and 20 boys on average. The rest of the students in each class, together with their English teacher, were to evaluate the 10 subjects. These students who performed evaluation were taken as

important others.

B.   Method

The self-report questionnaire was adopted to measure the subjects' self-concept and the inferred self-concept.

The self-evaluation scale (42 items) used in the study is an academic self-concept instrument. Following the theory of self-concept, it is adapted from Investigation of Academic Status Quo of Middle School Students (Pan, 2003), which is substantially based on the Self Description Questionnaire II (SDQII)(Marsh, 1992) and consists of 76 items, 9 subscales (General self-concept, Physical Appearance, Mathematics, Chinese, English, Oral English, English Pronunciation, English Teacher Relations, General Status in School). Each subscale contains 8 items except those of Mathematics and English which contain 10 items. There are six response categories for each item: false, mostly false, more false than true, more true than false, mostly true, true. The total score ranges from 76 to 456. To focus on English academic self-concept and English pronunciation, the present academic self-concept scale adopted the subscales of General/Global self-concept (8 items), English (10 items), oral English (8 items), English Pronunciation (8 items) and English Teacher Relations (8 items), thus contained 42 items altogether.

To examine whether self-evaluation and other-evaluation are consistent, we selected the four subscales of General self-concept, English, Oral English and English Pronunciation from the self-concept scale, and made an other-evaluation scale containing 34 items that was readable to teachers and students. Each item in the other-evaluation scale corresponds to that in the above academic self-concept scale. We change the person from "I" to "he/she", and modified some wording. The items were likewise randomized on the questionnaire for the students. The structure of this questionnaire is basically the same as the self-evaluation questionnaire except that in the instruction, the students were required to evaluate others according to their knowledge of them.

Analyses were conducted with SPSS (11.0).

IV.   ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The correlation between self-evaluation and other-evaluation variables was generally significantly high. Table 1 provides a complete correlational matrix for all the correlations between the variables. Self-evaluation and other-evaluation were significantly correlated as expected, which was clearly shown by the correlation coefficients between total scores of self-evaluation and mean scores of other-evaluation (r=0.756, p<0.01, see the 6th column and the 2nd row from the bottom of Table 1); between scores of self-evaluation and other-evaluation of general self-concept (r=0.625, p<0.01, see the 1st column and the 7th row of Table 1), English (r=0.774, p<0.01, see the 2nd column and the 8th row of Table 1), oral English (r=0.739, p<0.01, see the 3rd column and the 4th row from the bottom of Table 1), English pronunciation (r=0.770, p<0.01, see the 4th column and the 3rd row from the bottom).

Since our focus in this study is English pronunciation and English self-concept, we singled out the two relevant subscales in the questionnaires for a detailed analysis. The correlations between self-evaluation of pronunciation, self-evaluation of English, other-evaluation of pronunciation, other-evaluation of English were statistically significant and moderately high. Among them, self-rating of English pronunciation is highly correlated with subjects' English self-concept (self-rating of English) (r=0.882, p<0.01, see the 2nd column and the 4th row), indicating that English pronunciation self-concept does bear on foreign language learners' English self-concept. Besides, it was also correlated with other-evaluation of English pronunciation (r=o.770, p<0.01), other-evaluation of the subjects' English self-concept (r=0.729, p<0.01, see the 4th column and the 5th row from the bottom of Table 1), and their spoken English (r=0.750, p<0.01, see the 4th column and the last row but three). Moreover, self-rating of English pronunciation was found to be significantly correlated with English achievement (r=0.736, p<0.01, see the last row), and even self-concept of the relations with English teacher (r=0.405, p<0.01, see the 4th column and the 5th row), although the correlation coefficient was only moderated. What is worth mentioning is that the correlation between English pronunciation self-concept and general self-concept (r=0.770) was the highest among all the correlations between general self-concept and the self-evaluation variables (see the 1st column and the upper part of Table 1).

The correlations of other-evaluation of English pronunciation were strikingly high with the remainder of the other-evaluation variables-0.946 for other-rating of general self-concept (see the 7th column and the 3rd row from the bottom of Table 1), 0.964 for that of English (see the 8th column and the 3rd row from the bottom), 0.980 for the inferred oral English self-concept (the 9th column and the 3rd row form the bottom). Other-rating of English pronunciation was moderately linked with general self-concept (r=0.660, the 1st column and the 3rd row from the bottom), highly linked with self-rating of English (r=0.760, the second column and the 3rd row from the bottom), the oral English (r=0.744, the 3rd column and the 3rd row from the bottom).

Self-rating of English was highly correlated with all the other-evaluation variables-0.738 for general self-concept, 0.765 for oral English, 0.760 for pronunciation (see the 2nd column and the lower part of Table 1).

TABLE 1
CORRELATIONS AMONG SELF-EVALUATION AND OTHER-EVALUATION VARIABLES AND ENGLISH EXAM SCORE

	Self-Evaluation						Other-Evaluation					Score
	Gen	Eng	OrE	Pro	Rel	Totl	Gen	Eng	OrE	Pro	Totl	
Gen	1.000 (30)											
Eng	0.749** (30)	1.000 (30)										
S-E OrE	0.759** (30)	0.929** (30)	1.000 (30)									
Pro	0.770** (30)	0.882** (30)	0.946** (30)	1.000 (30)								
Pro	0.770** (30)	0.882** (30)	0.946** (30)	1.000 (30)								
Rel	0.434** (30)	0.606** (30)	0.446** (30)	0.405** (30)	1.000 (30)							
Totl	0.764** (30)	0.940** (30)	0.920** (30)	0.894** (30)	0.500** (30)	1.000 (30)						
Gen	0.625** (30)	0.738** (30)	0.699** (30)	0.695** (30)	0.351** (30)	0.723** (30)	1.000 (30)					
Eng	0.639** (30)	0.774** (30)	0.740** (30)	0.729** (30)	0.373** (30)	0.755** (30)	0.963** (30)	1.000 (30)				
O-E OrE	0.663** (30)	0.765** (30)	0.739** (30)	0.750** (30)	0.369** (30)	0.757** (30)	0.953** (30)	0.977** (30)	1.000 (30)			
Pro	0.660** (30)	0.760** (30)	0.744** (30)	0.770** (30)	0.361** (30)	0.759** (30)	0.946** (30)	0.964** (30)	0.980** (30)	1.000 (30)		
Totl	0.656** (30)	0.768** (30)	0.740** (30)	0.747** (30)	0.367** (30)	0.756** (30)	0.960** (30)	0.977** (30)	0.985** (30)	0.973** (30)	1.000 (30)	
Score	0.585** (30)	0.781** (30)	0756** (30)	0.736** (30)	0.394** (30)	0769** (30)	0.811** (30)	0834** (30)	0.827** (30)	0816** (30)	0.826** (30)	1.000 (30)

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

Note. S-E: self-evaluation; O-E: other-evaluation; Score: English exam scores in the last year's final examination; Gen: General self-concept; Eng: English; OrE: Oral English; Pro: English Pronunciation; Rel: English Teacher Relations; Totl: total score of self-evaluation or mean score of other-evaluation.
N=30

Another noteworthy phenomenon is that correlations between self-rating of relations with English teacher and the rest of self-evaluation and other-evaluation variables were generally low, though significant (r is around 0.3-0.4). Interestingly, the correlations between other-evaluation variables and English exams scores were much higher than between self-evaluation variables and English exam scores. Compare the figures in Table 2.

TABLE 2
COMPARING THE CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ENGLISH EXAM SCORES AND SELF-EVALUATION VARIABLES AND OTHER-EVALUATION VARIABLES

	Self-Evaluation					Other-Evaluation				
SCORE	Gen	Eng	OrE	Pro	Totl	Gen	Eng	OrE	Pro	Totl
	0.585**	0.781**	0.756**	0.736**	0.769**	0.811**	0.843**	0.827**	0.816**	0.826

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

The questionnaire research generated the following results: English self-concept and the closely related inferred English self-concept are both significantly correlated with English achievement; English pronunciation self-concept is significantly correlated with all other-evaluation variables, English self-concept and English achievement, suggesting that pronunciation has a part to play in English language learning. Caution should be taken in interpreting the role of pronunciation because pronunciation self-concept does not equal the actual performance in pronunciation. Meanwhile, since the questionnaires, especially the other-evaluation scale used in this study, had not gone through repeated tests of their validity and reliability, a simple correlation between one variable and the other would not make us feel secure. To confirm the results from the questionnaire investigation we need to carry out interviews with subjects from the same classes.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The analysis of the questionnaire enables us to conclude that English self-concept is significantly highly correlated with English achievement. The correlations between inferred English self-concept (other-evaluation), English self-concept, and English achievement scores suggested the role of significant others in language learning. Pronunciation presumably has a role in the formation of English self-concept when we look at the high correlation among pronunciation self-concept and the rest of the self-evaluation and other-evaluation variables. This is also manifested in the interview data, which shows that pronunciation may be a mediating factor bearing on one's efforts, motivation, confidence and the whole self-concept in language learning. The additional finding that pronunciation is related to English achievement score affords further evidence for the role of pronunciation in English learning.

The present study is an examination of the role of pronunciation and significant others in English language learning

in relation to the formation of English self-concept. Through two scales (one self-evaluation scale and an other-evaluation scale), the study demonstrated a strong link between pronunciation (self-concept), other-evaluation and English self-concept. The results show that pronunciation is closely related to other-evaluation, which in turn impacts on one's English self-concept. Another finding is the low but significant correlations of social self-concept (relations with the English teacher) with English self-concept, English pronunciation self-concept, other-evaluation etc.

VI. LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

The whole study was conducted only among the college students of two classes. This is an over-reliance on data from a single school, which calls into question of the generalizability of results to all college students. This might be determined by the research nature of the current study. Additional research could hopefully have larger samples from more sources to test the generalizability of the findings in this research.

The study did not address the issue of whether there are difference between teachers' responses and peers' responses. No careful examination of the students' pattern of responses to sets of items was carried out either, which must contain a lot of information about individual learning. Since there is no unitary success in foreign language learning, it is deemed of greater importance to probe into individual differences and factors contributing to them, rather than simply grouping learners according to certain attributes as the traditional psychometric research approach does in language learning (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 95). Further studies could "go beyond simply relating the two constructs: "academic self-concept and academic achievement" to detect the "key determinants" in different self-concepts across individuals (Hatti & Marsh, 1996, p. 440).

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Translator's Horizon of Expectations and the Inevitability of Retranslation of Literary Works

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Abstract—**Horizon of expectations, as a core concept in Reception Aesthetics, provides a new methodological basis for literary translation. Owing to this theory, literary translation is no longer a one-way process which is text-centered and transmitted by a translator with readers passively accepting everything, but an ever-going dialogic process between translator and the literary work, and between translator and implied readers, which results in the necessity, possibility and even sometimes inevitability of retranslation of literary works. Horizons of expectations widen people's space of cognition for retranslation of literary works.**

Index Terms—**horizon of expectations, literary translation, translator, inevitability of retranslation**

I. THE DEFINITION OF RETRANSLATION OF LITERARY WORKS

Literary translation first appeared as an independent concept in western translation theories. Most westerners tended to treat literary translation as creation of literary work of art. They refer to literary translation as the translation of literary works (novels, short stories, plays, poems, etc.). If the translation of non-literary works is regarded as a skill, the translation of fiction and poetry is much more of an art. Many consider some forms of poetry to be almost impossible to translate accurately, given the difficulty in rendering both the form and the content in the target language.

Considering the artistic, creative characteristics of literary translation, retranslation of literary works can be then defined as: Retranslation of literary works, in practice, is the translator's attempts to further explore the artistic value of the original work (including the form, style, meaning, image, culture, etc). In fact, it is the result of inadequate dialogue between the author of the original literary text and the translator, between the translator and his implied readers, between past and present. Historicity and subjectivity of the three entities---the author, the translator and the implied readers, are the major factors which influence the forms of TL texts. To reach the real meaning of the SL text and to meet his implied readers' need, a translator, at his work, tries to compromise with both sides but his translation is merely a perfect one provisionally because everything changes with the time going on. Every attempt to explain the original text produces a new translation, which is retranslation.

This definition points out two causes to the retranslation of literary works: firstly, inadequate dialogue; secondly, historicity and subjectivity of three entities in translation. Retranslation of literary works has become a more and more common phenomenon in our society, but what is the real reason behind it? The two causes mentioned above are not systematic theories or ideas. With regard to this deficiency, I tentatively utilize horizon of expectations as the theoretical basis to attract people's attention from practical activities to theoretical arguments.

II. THE MATURATION OF HORIZON OF EXPECTATIONS

In the 1960s, on the basis of phenomenology and hermeneutics, Constance School, represented by Hans Robert Jauss and Wolfgang Iser, established "reader-centered" Reception Aesthetics, which aimed at readers' reception in the literary work (Hu & Wang, 2001). As the core concept of Reception Theory, Horizon of Expectations refers to the set of expectations against which readers perceive the text. It claims that people within the culture share a common set of understandings about what's possible, probable, impossible, etc.[1] It is our shared "horizon of expectations" that make our mutual understanding possible, and even people out of different cultures can communicate with each other because they have the similar horizon of expectations for the same thing though they use different languages. How to express distance is a case in point. Though English-speaking people apply "meter" while Chinese people employ "mi", they show no difference in communication because both "meter" and "mi" are the measurement of units shared within people's horizon of expectations, with the help of which, it is easy to translate one into the other. Owing to horizon of expectations, people of different languages can communicate easily. However, horizon of expectations does not always play a positive role in communication. Sometimes it may block people's understanding and even result in misunderstandings.

There are mainly two kinds of "horizon of expectations": firstly, the narrow horizon of experience, the horizon of literary expectation, which includes presumed artistic or literary norms and conventions of a particular period. It is related to genre, style, and form of the literary texts; while secondly, the wide horizon of experience, the horizon of

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[1] http://faculty.goucher.edu/eng211/readerresponse_theory.htm

experience of everyday life, includes the assumptions of the whole socio-cultural world of a community or of an individual, whether as the author, the initial reader or the later reader. People out of different periods and experiences will have different horizon of expectations, no matter it is the literary horizon or the wide one.

Jauss further distinguishes three basic experiences: a productive aesthetic praxis, a receptive praxis, and a communicative praxis, and he claims that a detailed study of these three elements can help literary history steer a course between an exclusively aesthetic and an exclusively sociological perspective. The most important one for Jauss is the third, communicative aesthetic praxis, which is defined as the "enjoyment of the affects as stirred by speech or poetry which can bring about both a change in belief and the liberation of his mind in the listener or the spectator" (Jauss, 1982). When readers reads a work, their horizons can arouse their previous experiences, bring a certain feeling to them, and make them have various expectations for the work's development and the end.

III. The Close Relationship between Horizon of Expectations and Retranslation of Literary Works

A reader's understanding cannot escape from the constraints of historicity which refers to the historical society he lives in or the reader's own previous experiences. A literary work can be regarded as special history with its own relations to general history. "It is not a monument that mono-logically reveals its timeless essence. Probably it satisfies, surpasses, disappoints, or refutes the expectations of its first audience. A literary work does not offer the same view to each reader in each period that makes possible its ongoing, developing meaning; a literary work may evoke certain expectations of a reader which are then varied, corrected, altered or even just reproduced in the course of reading" (Jauss, 1967). A literary work calls for the participation of reader's horizon of expectations. Literary translation, in which translators do readings and interpretations, surely cannot be realized without the participation of translator's expectations, which, are continuously modified and changed over time and bear great personal distinctions. The updated horizons are of slight or great difference and will be able to guide perceptual exploration more efficiently in the future. That is, horizons are both historically restricted and subjectively confined. Historicity and subjectivity should be the basic characters of horizons.

Undoubtedly, there should be a certain connection between horizons and retranslation of literary works because both of them have historical and subjective characters. Rather than evaluate different TL texts, this paper tends to prove the possibility, acceptability and inevitability of retranslation of literary works microscopically, especially in terms of the roles translators play in the translation process.

IV. The Contribution of Translators' Horizon of Expectation to Literary Retranslation

A translator at his work is guided by horizons of expectations from three sides: the original author's horizons, his own horizons and the implied readers' aesthetic expectations. Ideal translation should be the successful dialogic process and result between the horizons of these three entities.

In translation, "the translator stands at the centre of this dynamic process of communication, as a mediator between the producer of SL text and whoever are its TL receivers. The translator is first and foremost a mediator between two parties for whom mutual communication might otherwise be problematic" (Hatim & Mason, 1990: 223). Therefore, we cannot ignore the translator's mediator status---firstly as the reader of SL text; secondly as the producer of TL text. These two identities determine that a translator mainly has two jobs: firstly reading, then interpretation. Through him, the mediator, two different languages and cultural norms negotiate. The translation, virtually, should include the negotiation activity and process, not merely is a product which aims at conveying the meaning of an original message of SL text to readers across language and culture (Xu, 2004). The translator's mental conception of the SL text is important for his production of TL text.

The translator's role in literary translation shows that he is an actively independent agent. Out of different experiences as well as different cultural backgrounds, different translators have different horizons which will affect the their mental conception of the SL text---Textx proposed by Ma Xiao who says Textx is an invisible variable in translator's mind that changes with different translators who participate in the communications as well as changes in time and space (Ma, 2000). It is common for translators to exert their imagination and creativity to interpret a SL text. Textx is the translator's mental production before he creates the TL text. However, their different horizons affect their Textxs which cause their different interpretations for the SL text.
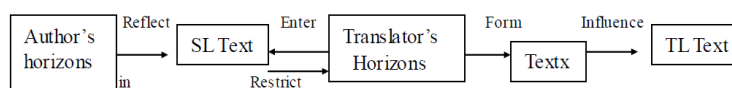

Fig. 1

Gadamer has said, "No translation can replace the original work. The translator's task is never to copy what is said, but to place himself in the direction of what is said (i.e. in its meaning) in order to carry over what is to be said into the direction of his own saying" (Newmark, 2001: 79). This means different translators out of different horizons have the rights to make different understandings and interpretations of a same work. Surely, the different interpretations come up with different TL texts. Because of the influence of translator's horizons, retranslation is inevitable.

A. Historicity of the Translator's Horizons of Expectations

According to hermeneutics, every translator is a finite, historical being with a history he can never get rid of. As a human being living in society, he has various connections with the social and historical context. He cannot avoid explaining the language, culture, society and history of foreign countries from his own cultural background, no matter how strong critical consciousness he has, he cannot completely deviate from the restrictions of his unconsciousness (Zhang, 2002).

The potential meaning of a literary work cannot be fully recognized by a particular reader or readers of particular time. It is gradually unfolded through constant chain of readers' reception. No reader can come to a vantage point outside the course of history and surpass all the previous readers and stay away from their objective influences. In translation, a translator, as the reader of SL text, cannot come to a vantage point outside the course of history to fully recognize the potential meaning of the work. The historicity of his horizons restricts his understanding. Every one who reads an original text tries his best to get the meaning of the text, but ends up by getting only some parts of the meaning. No one can confidently claim that he has got all of the meaning of the text. With the development of culture, succeeding translators may be able to discover features and implications of an original text which previous translators neglected or distorted.

Proper study of any narrative, Jauss argues, involves a reconstruction of the horizon of expectations of its original audience. Narratives should not be seen as reflections of a historical moment, or imitations of "reality", but as actually intervening in historical struggle, and perhaps changing people's perceptions of the world in which they live.

A translator in translation, his role as the reader is somewhat the same as the original audience mentioned by Jauss. However, compared with the author and the original audience of the literary work, he is generally living in different periods or different cultures, owing to which, his horizons are of difference because any horizon is a historical one. Therefore, a translator's understanding of the work actually is not the mere reflection of the author's historical horizons, or imitation of the SL text "reality", but is the combination between his horizons which are historically controlled and the author's expectations which reflect the historical features of the author's period.

The historicity of horizons predestines any version is a historical one which can only satisfy its contemporary readers' needs. When history steps into a new period, the translator's present horizons changes, and the dialogue between original author's horizons and those of the translator alters as well. New horizons yield new dialogue which provides more likelihood to the new interpretation of the SL text. That is retranslation. Here, one sentence in Gone with the Wind can be taken as an example:

SL sentence: Seated with Stuart and Brent Tarleton on the cool shade of the porch of Tara, her father's plantation, that bright April afternoon of 1861, she made a pretty picture. (Margaret Mitchell, 1998)

Translation Version I: 一八六一年四月一个晴朗的下午，思嘉小姐在陶乐垦殖场的住宅，陪着汤加那一对双胞胎兄弟——一个叫汤司徒，一个叫汤伯伦——坐在一个阴凉的走廊里。这时春意正浓，景物如秀，她也显得格外标志。（Fu, 1979）

Translation Version II: 一八六一年四月一个晴朗的下午，思嘉同塔尔顿家的孪生兄弟斯图尔特和布伦特坐在他父亲的塔拉农场阴凉的走廊里，她标致的模样儿使四周的一派春光显得更明媚如画了。（Dai, 2003）

Firstly Gone with the Wind was treated as a love story, in which characters are the most important part. Therefore, in Version I, Fu Donghua employed the dashes to emphasize the name of Stuart and Brent Tarleton, and also drew on the idioms like "春意正浓", "景物如秀"to present the beautiful pictures to his readers. But with time going on, people realized that this work was more like the description of American civil war and they wanted to see the real story. Then, the succeeding translators' translations became more objective. In Dai Kan's version, this sentence was translated with more objective features.

Literary work, which stands for the development of a country's language, culture, thought, politics, etc, bears great historical features rather than is just a passive reflection of the real world. Translators' changing horizons directly influence their understandings of the work. Even the same translator may have different understandings while rereads the work. Historically situated translators with historically restricted horizons create diverse interpretations which are filled with historical features. New era requires new interpretations which can reflect its characters. At this time, it is necessary for translators to make new TL texts.

B. Subjectivity of the Translator's Horizons of Expectations

A Translator with different knowledge structure, psychology structure, properties, aesthetic values and appreciation tendency, namely his horizons are rather changeful and full of subjectivities. It is evident that he will be actively involved in the translation process, but not passively making copies of the original work. He is easily influenced by his respective horizons and thereby holds different translation purposes or strategies. "The interpretation of the SL text is one of the linguistic activities which are not only the means to manifest oneself and the reflection of one's own specific view of the world, but also the reflection of one's mental activities" (Tu，1996: 587). As a mental activity, a translator's interpretation of the SL text of course bears great subjective features which are usually influenced by his horizons.

In contrast to the author-centered and text-centered theorists who believe the meaning of a literary text have already existed before the act of reading, Jauss provides more freedom to readers. For Jauss, a frequently neglected element of

the meaning of any narrative is their audiences, who already have experience in consuming other narratives.

A literary work, even if it seems new, does not appear as something absolutely new in an informational vacuum, but predisposes its readers to a very definite type of reception by textual strategies, overt and covert signals, familiar characteristics or implicit allusions. It awakens memories of the familiar, stirs particular emotions in the reader and with its 'beginning' arouses expectations for the 'middle and end', which can then be continued intact, changed, reoriented or even ironically fulfilled in the course of reading according to certain rules of the genre or type of text. …The new text evokes for the reader (listener) the horizon of expectations and rules familiar from earlier texts, which are then varied, corrected, changed or just reproduced. Variation and correction determine the scope, alteration and reproduction of the borders and structure of the genre.

As a reader of SL text, a translator has his own familiar memories or particular emotions which arouse his different assumptions or expectations for the "middle and end" of the literary work. He brings to the work his own assumptions based on previous experiences of the world, which influence his understanding of each successive portion of the work and about the likely development of the text.

In the process of literary translation, what a translator faces is the SL text with artistic characters resulting from the author's historical and subjective horizons. When reading the SL text, the translator is having a dialogue with the author. The translation process is the ever-going dialogue between the two entities---author and translator. "Reading is a two-way process. For one thing, readers bring to texts their own sets of assumptions based on previous experience of the world, so that each successive portion of text is processed in the light of these assumptions, and predictions are made about the likely development of the text. For another, text items are analyzed in themselves and matched against each other, a process of syntactic and lexical decoding which results in the gradual building up of composite meaning as reading proceeds" (Hatim & Mason, 1990: 226).

Xu Jun says as an aesthetic agent, the translator obviously will be constrained by various factors, such as his own interests, needs, knowledge, experience, appreciation of literature, habit, even his individual beliefs. All of these factors make his understanding as well as interpretation bear subjective characters (Xu, 2003). The subjectivities of the translator's horizons result in his subjective understanding of the work which yields subjective interpretations of the work. In other words, translator can only understand those particular ones which have already existed in his mind. Any understanding depends on his depth of experience. That is why translations always remain to some extent irrational and subjective.

For example, Hong Lou Meng, as a great work, has several translated versions, among which A Dream of Red Mansions by Yang Xianyi and Dai Naidie, and The Story of the Stone translated by David Hawks are the most influential. Hawks, though seemed to know everything about China, could not understand all the images of Chinese culture, especially some particular ones. His translation reflected his expectations for the culture, language of this book and there existed many subjective interpretations. Here, I not want to judge which one is better by comparing the two translated versions; instead, I just propose some simple examples to illustrate that the subjectivity of the translator's horizons cannot be neglected. To approach the real meaning of the SL text, succeeding translators should and must retranslate the work time and again.

"'潇湘馆', the place with a lot of bamboos in Cao Xueqin's work, is translated into 'the Naiad's House' by Hawks. Naiad, a fairy living by the river in Achaean fiction, never means bamboo in English. Therefore, Hawks' translation is not suitable. On the contrary, Yang Xianyi's 'Bamboo Lodge' is much better. Translator's horizons, which are restricted by his education, culture, habits and so on, cannot avoid the subjectivity that will influence translator's understanding and interpretations of the work, sometimes even resulting in misunderstandings. In western culture, being a plant, bamboo means nothing to them, whereas in China, it stands for a fortitudinous character. Hawks will never have the same feeling as we have. Thus, it is impossible for him to understand the connotative meaning of bamboos" (Zhang, 2002: 48). Here, retranslation should be done for the sake of correcting misunderstandings.

Another example, "'世上只有神仙好，惟有功名忘不了', Hawks translation was 'Men all know that salvation should be won.' In his version, '神仙' was translated into 'salvation' which means "拯救" in Chinese. It is a word in Bible, means deliverance from the power or penalty of sin. However, '神仙'which means free from death, is a word used in Taoism in our culture" (Zhang, 2002: 49). Hawks must know the denotation of"神仙", but deeply influenced by Bible, he cannot escape from misunderstanding it as something like deliverance from the power or penalty of sin in the Bible.

Every translation has its advantages and disadvantages because the subjectivity of horizons does not always perform a negative role in translation. The author of the SL text just finishes the form or the structure of the literary work. It is the translators' turn to make it flourishing. Hamlet, the famous tragedy of Shakespeare, with translators' active participations, presents a more and more vivid world to its readers. The form of the work is in 16th century's style, but with the unceasing dialogue between succeeding translators' horizons and those of the author, the work's life is always full of new blood which attracts different readers out of different periods or backgrounds. Without the subjectivity of translators' horizons, I do not think Shakespeare's work can come down to us from 16th century.

Compared with idea, which is the key point of culture transmission, language is just a tool. Ideas change all the time which lead to the change of horizons. Therefore, retranslation, not only is the reconstruction of language, but also is the reconstruction of ideas. New ideas generate new horizons which influence translator's translation strategies. Generally

speaking, the more understanding of the original work, the further concretization they do. Retranslation, hereby, is unavoidable.

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Definiteness Effect (DE) in English as a Second Language

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Abstract—The definiteness restriction or definiteness effect (DE) is one of the cross-linguistic variations, influencing the syntactic distribution of definites and indefinites. Generally speaking, sensitivity to definite determiner phrases (DPs) where definites are favored over indefinites is called definiteness effect and such an effect has been observed in a number of constructions (Abbott, 2006b).This study tries to take a look at the major lines of research with respect to the notion of definiteness and its effect (DE) in different languages as well as L2 studies which have focused on DE in second language acquisition. The paper raises a number of questions the investigation of which might shed some further light on the nature of L2 implicit knowledge and/or L2 linguistic processing.

Index Terms—definiteness, definiteness effect (DE), second language

I. Introduction

The claim as to the existence of various kinds of "existential constructions", with different conditions on the internal DP, is not new (Huang, 1987; Abbott, 1993; Li, 1996; Lambrecht, 2002; Paducheva, 2003; Beyssade, 2004; Leonetti, 2008). There are two basic ingredients required in dealing with DE: first, a theory of definiteness and second, some assumption concerning the conditions imposed on the postverbal DP by existential context. Accordingly, each of these elements is briefly reviewed first and then the studies conducted on DE in second language acquisition are introduced. Finally, this study raises a number of questions the investigation of which might illuminate further the nature of L2 implicit knowledge and/or L2 linguistic processing.

II. Definiteness

It has been a matter of dispute as to what exactly differentiates definite from indefinite NPs. One tradition comes from Bertrand Russell's classic work on denoting phrases (Russell, 1905). According to Russell, it is **uniqueness** which distinguishes *the* from *a/an*, that is, the existence of one and only one entity which meets the descriptive content of the NP. While Russell's analysis might seem to be applicable only to singular NPs, his concept can be extended to definite descriptions with plurals or mass heads (Hawkins, 1978). Russell also believed that both definite and indefinite NPs are quantificational expressions.

Russell's idea remained unchallenged for almost 50 years. However, since then a number of issues have caused many researchers to question or even reject it. For example, Strawson (1950), among others, believed that definite NPs are referential and that the uniqueness and existence of a referent is presupposed. Fewer researchers (e.g. Heim, 1982, 1983) also believe that indefinite NPs are referential. Another criticism against Russell's analysis is 'incomplete description' according to which in a great number of cases the descriptive content of a definite NP is not sufficient to single out a unique referent from the world on the whole. Two approaches have been proposed in dealing with this problem (Abbott, 2006b): A syntactic solution which proposes that "there is sufficient additional descriptive material tacitly present in the NP" (p. 393) and a more plausible approach which suggests that the uniqueness in definite NPs is to be understood relative to a context of utterance. These solutions, however, have been challenged (Abbott, 2006b; McCawley, 1979). Another approach has also been proposed by Lewis (1979). He claims that definite descriptions represent the most salient entity which meets the descriptive content.

The main competitor for the uniqueness approach to explaining the meaning of definiteness has been an approach in terms of **familiarity** or knownness (in Bolinger's terms, 1977). This approach is generally attributed to the Danish grammarian Paul Christophersen (1939). He claimed that what distinguishes definite from indefinite NPs is whether the hearer is supposed to be familiar with the referent of the NP. Heim (1982, 1983) also argued that a definite can only be used when the existence of the referent has been established in the particular discourse. While the familiarity notion can account for a number of uses of definite descriptions, there are cases where it seems that it cannot cover very well. For instance, there are cases where, regardless of the context, the descriptive content of the NP is sufficient to point out a unique referent. And even when the descriptive content is not sufficient, there are examples where the content of the

sentence may single out a unique referent in context. Advocates of the familiarity theory often raise the idea of accommodation where the acceptance of a definite description by hearers depends on their ability to determine the intended referent.

While the prototypes of definiteness and indefiniteness in English are singular noun phrases (NPs) accompanied by the definite article *the* and the indefinite article *a/an,* these notions have been extended. From these two categories, definites have received rather more attention so that more than one researcher has characterized them by enumerating NP types (e.g. Westerståhl, 1985; Prince, 1992; Birner & Ward, 1998; Ariel, 1988, 1990; for an extended list of definites and indefinites, refer to Abbott (2006a)).

There is no common agreement on the essence of definiteness or indefiniteness. Therefore, the need for some kind of diagnostic for these features has been felt. Many authors (Milsark 1974; Safir, 1985; Reuland & ter Meulen, 1987; Lasnik, 1992, inter alia) have proposed that there is a definiteness restriction that inhibit the appearance of definite NPs in postverbal position in *there* constructions. Consequently, the definiteness effect, the ability of NPs to occur naturally in a locative existential, in existential constructions is usually considered one of the basic and the most direct way of assessing whether an expression is definite or not (Leonetti, 2008; Abbott, 2006b).

III. DEFINITENESS EFFECT (DE)

Certain constructions are usually characterized by a non-definiteness requirement on the theme argument, namely definiteness effect (DE). In other words, in some constructions sensitivity to definiteness, or more specifically to definite determiner phrases (DPs), has been observed across languages so that there is a tendency for definite DPs not to appear in these constructions. However, there are exceptions to this restriction where both definites and indefinites are allowed. There is evidence to believe that DE is present in some way in most, if not all, languages, although its manifestation may be obscured by a combination of lexical and syntactic factors (Leonetti, 2008).

In English, the DE occurs in a number of constructions. The construction with which the DE is typically associated in English is the existential construction (For the DE in *have* sentences refer to Tham (2006) and in attributive comparatives refer to Beil (1997)). These constructions start with an expletive (*there*) followed by a verb and a DP and sometimes a propositional phrase. The restriction is that a definite DP cannot typically appear in these constructions (with the exception of some certain cases) (details below).

As mentioned above, the DE is present in other languages of the world as well, such as Sardinian (Bentley, 2004), Chinese (Liejiong, 1995), Danish (Mikkelsen, 2002), Icelandic (Norris, 2011), Finnish (Chesterman, 2005), Korean (Chang & Mikkelsen, 2005), Austronesian languages (Chung, 2008), Hungarian (Szabolcsi, 1984), Japanese (Kuroda, 2008), Italian and Catalan (Leonetti, 2008), Persian (Ghaniabadi, 2009) and Turkish (White, Belikova, Hagstrom, Kupisch & Özçelik, 2012).

According to White *et al.* (2012), in languages without an expletive in existentials, it has been argued that an existential interpretation is only possible in a word order with the subject following the locative. On the other hand, in a word order where the locative comes after the subject, we will have a predicate locative (e.g. Freeze, 1992). However, White *et al.* (2012) believe that not only sentences with the locative first are existential but also existential interpretations are possible on constructions with the locative after the subject, as in Turkish and Russian.

IV. EXPLANATIONS FOR THE DE

According to Leonetti (2008), there are currently two basic lines of thought with regard to the DE: the first one is based on the presuppositional nature of strong or definite determiners and the conflict between the felicity conditions[1] for existential contexts and this presupposition (Lumsden 1988; Zucchi 1995); the other one is based on the non-referential, property-denoting predicative nature of weak determiners, as a way of fulfilling the required conditions imposed by existentials (Milsark, 1977; McNally, 1992, 1998; Zamparelli, 1996; Van Geenhoven, 1998; Bende-Farkas & Kamp, 2001; Landman, 2004).

Besides the above classification, there seem to be three basic trends of analysis in the literature, namely pragmatic, sematic and syntactic. Each of these trends is to be dealt with briefly in the following sections.

A. Pragmatic

Leonetti (2008) believes that the prevalence of DE in different languages of the world supports the accepted view that the phenomenon is a semantic/pragmatic constraint "involving something broader than grammatical definiteness" (Lyons 2003, p. 246). Leonetti (2008) believes that this restriction is derived from the principles of information structure, being "only a small part of a broader mechanism connecting reference and grammar" (159). Abbott (2006a), adopting a pragmatic perspective, also believes that the constraint cannot be expressed merely in terms of definiteness. Abbott believes that this is an illusion which is caused as a result of the close similarity of the constraint on the postverbal NP in a *there*-sentence and that on definiteness (Ward & Birner, 1995; Birner & Ward, 1998).

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[1] "the felicity conditions of *there*-sentences require that the common ground be neutral about the (non)emptiness of the intersection of the set denoted by the DP constituent with the set denoted by the coda" (Leonetti, 2008, p. 154)

Although the pragmatic accounts of the DE differ in details, they all share the assumption that only DPs that do not presuppose the existence of their referents are accepted in existential constructions. It means that the subject must be non-anaphoric, in focus, hearer-new or novel[2] (e.g. Abbott, 1993; McNally, 1992; Rando & Napoli, 1978; Ward & Birner, 1995). Informally speaking, there is one essential requirement for DE in existential sentences and that is "that the referential or denotational properties of the internal DP are provided by the existential predicate, and cannot be independently obtained by the DP itself" (Leonetti, 2008, p. 133).

Specificity is a notion used by some researchers to account for the phenomenon. Adopting the notion of post-specificity from Wacha (1978), Szabolcsi (1983) tries to account for the observed exceptions in existentials. She considers the definite DPs which can appear in existentials as post-specific where they are not only introducing a new persistent discourse referent but also non-specific. En ç(1991), mentioning there-constructions in passing and presenting a pragmatically motivated account of specificity, also provides a pragmatic functional analysis of the DE. She equates strong DPs with specific ones where specificity is considered to be an information structural notion rather than truth-conditional.

Peredy (2009) defines DE-constructions as "neutral, perfective sentences including a post-specific, or a definite but presentationally used internal argument" (p. 201). Going back to Hetzron's (1975) work, Peredy uses the term presentation to introduce "a new and persistent discourse referent without any reference to the definiteness or scope of the presented expression" (p. 202). She actually proposes an antilexicalist view towards presentation (introducing a discourse new entity) and definiteness effect by not holding any lexical requirement responsible for the phenomena. Agreeing with the types of links suggested by En ç (1991) between discourse referents and previously established discourse referents in definiteness and specificity and following Lambrecht (1994) in distinguishing the text internal and text external worlds, she defines specificity and definiteness with slight modification:

Specificity: A DP is specific iff its discourse referent is (assumed to be) linked to a previous discourse referent (i.e. linked discourse internally) by the inclusion relation (p. 213).

Definiteness: A DP is definite iff its discourse referent is (assumed to be) linked either to a previous discourse referent (i.e. discourse internally) or directly to a discourse external entity (via deixis or unique identification) by the identity relation (p. 213).

She believes that reference to a known but previously unmentioned entity (Deictic reference) establishes non-specific, but definite (i.e. discourse internally non-linked) reference. Consequently, the definite DPs of deictic constructions which are non-specific in this sense can be considered as post-specific[3] (Peredy, 2009).

As mentioned above, pragmatic accounts of the DE all share the assumption that only DPs that do not presuppose the existence of their referents are accepted in existential constructions. However, White *et al.* (2012) argue that the absence of presupposition, although working for languages like English, cannot account for the restriction in languages like Turkish and Russian where definite expressions are permitted in negative existentials. In return, they propose a syntactic account of the DE, accounting for the restriction in those languages (see section 5.3).

B. Semantic

Another line of thought, started with Milsark (1977), is semantically based. Semantic accounts of the DE have centered on two cross-linguistic semantic properties consistently associated with existential constructions. The most important one is the DE on the DP and a second one is a restriction on the coda, asserting that the coda must describe an accidental property and not a permanent or essential property. In other words, it must be a stage-level predicate and not an individual-level predicate.

Semantic analysis, generally speaking, focuses on the kinds of determiners available in there-constructions. Milsark (1977) observed that while some English there-constructions prohibit the determiner phrase (DPs) which were called 'strong', others license the DPs which were called 'weak'. In a first step toward a more moderate information structural account, also accepted by Szabolcsi (1986), Barwise and Cooper (1981) concluded that strong determiners result in contradictions or tautologies rather than ungrammaticality.

Zucchi (1995) took the second step by defining strong determiners through the property of presuppositionality. Zucchi proposed Coda Condition according to which the domain of evaluation of there-sentences is provided by coda. This idea was formalized by Keenan (2003)[4]. Zucchi and Keenan emphasize that since the determiner phrase and the coda do not form a constituent in syntax, their analysis is valid only on the level of semantics. In Zucchi's analysis strong determiners are strictly ungrammatical.

Purely semantic approaches (including Keenan), rule out the problematic cases in existentials (the appearance of definite DPs in existentials) via the radical assumption that strong determiners[5] lead to ungrammatical sentences.

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[2] This is also known as Novelty Condition.

[3] "A DP is post-specific iff the discourse referent it introduces refers to an actual entity that is identified with an intentional one in the sentence" (Peredy, 2009, p 220).

[4] According to this formalization, weak determiners have the following property: for every A and B subset of the domain E: $D(A,B) = D(A \cap B, B)$.

[5] According to Keenan (2003), a determiner is strong if non-intersective. A determiner D is intersective if for all A, A', B and B' subsets of the domain E: if $A \cap B = A' \cap B'$ then $D(A,B) = D(A',B')$.

Semantic accounts, as is the case for pragmatic explanations, appear no to be able to account for the cross-linguistic variation observed in negative existentials in Turkish and Russian (White *et al.,* 2012).

C. Syntactic

Although syntactic accounts (notably, Safir, 1987) have generally been rejected in recent years, White *et al.,* (2012) believe that the cross-linguistic differences observed can best be explained syntactically. However, asserting that there is no reason to consider only one kind of underlying explanation for the phenomenon, they believe that pragmatic and/or semantic explanations, along with syntactic accounts, can be the source of the DE. To this end, they assume that there is a close connection between syntactic structure and semantic interpretation. Following Diesing (1992), they consider a DP as indefinite if it is inside the domain of existential closure and vice versa. They argue that, in English existential constructions, subject DPs "cannot reach an interpretation position outside the domain of existential closure, and thus only DPs allowed within the domain of existential closure are allowed in existential constructions" (p. 83). And to account for the exceptions observed in Turkish and Russian negative existential, they attribute the availability of definite subject DPs in these constructions to the subject's escaping the domain of existential closure prior to interpretation.

V. DEFINITENESS EFFECT IN ENGLISH

Whereas the preposing of a discourse-old link through preposing constructions[6] places relatively familiar information in preverbal position, postposing constructions[7] present relatively unfamiliar information in postverbal position, hence preserving the old-before-new information-structure paradigm (Abbott, 2006a). These postposing constructions in English are represented by *there*-insertion existential sentences. The basic syntactic structure of these constructions is as follows:

$[_{IP}... [_{VP} V [DP^8] [PP^9]]]$

As can be seen the above representation, these constructions consist of four units: 'there', the verb, the determiner phrase and the adverbial represented by a PP. Two current typologies of these constructions are presented below.

In the first classification, Abbot (2006a) divides these constructions into two types, namely existential *there* and presentational *there* constructions where they move the canonical subject into postverbal position and fill the subject position by non-referential *there,* preserving the given-before-new information structure in cases where canonical word order would be otherwise. These constructions are similar in that they have both non-referential *there* in subject position while the canonical NP subject appears postverbally. Presentational *there*-insertion constructions[10] differ from existential *there* constructions, however, in having verbs other than *be* (come, exist, die, etc.). Besides, the specifics of the constraint on the PVNP (postverbal noun phrase) in the two constructions differ slightly (Abbott, 2006a): Existential *there* requires PVNPs with hearer-new information, while presentational *there* requires PVNPs with discourse-new information.

As the second classification, Leonetti (2008) proposes that there are three basic types of existentials, each of which are explained briefly bellow. The first one is **Proper or Pure existentials**[11]. These sentences are the typical instance of rhematic/ thetic structures, they typically have a locative adjunct (which is not obligatory) and the interpretation of the internal DP does not depend on the contextual information from outside the construction (it does not have autonomous reference). The requirement of non-autonomous reference can be satisfied in two ways: first, by expressions, like indefinites, which only encode information about quantities and not any referential procedure and whose interpretation relies solely on the surrounding sentential elements and, second, by expressions, like definites, which, although encode some kind of referential procedure, do not rely on contextual information for their interpretation (they encode a uniqueness condition) but the linguistic information that is accessible in the sentence (the case of "weak" definites and "cataphoric" definites).

The second type is the **eventive existential**. These constructions include a small clause in which the DP acts like an internal topic. Instead of a new entity, they introduce a new event into the discourse where the event is presented as focal information. Obviously, in these constructions, the coda is obligatory. Both definites and indefinites are allowed in these constructions where they act as subjects of the embedded small clause, hence no definiteness effect is expected in them.

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[6] The constructions that place canonically postverbal constituents in preverbal position, hence marking the preposed information as familiar within the discourse.

[7] The constructions that place canonically preverbal constituents in postverbal position, hence mark the postposed information as new.

[8] The DP is sometimes referred to as the 'pivot'

[9] The phrase is usually referred to as 'coda'

[10] In this construction, There can have a second referential reading where it will receive an H* pitch accent and will be coreferential with the place in the previous discourse.

[11] These constructions are also called locative existentials. In these constructions, the prepositional phrase following the focus NP is a separate constituent which locates the item in question (Abbott, 2006b).

Finally, the third type is the **enumerative existential**. These constructions have a classical "reminder" or "list"[12] reading (Rando & Napoli, 1978). In these constructions, definite DPs are allowed, the coda is absent or implicit and there is no definiteness effect.

VI. DEFINITENESS EFFECT IN ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

There has been relatively little examination of the L2 acquisition of the DE (White *et al.*, 2012). The research has mostly been conducted on spontaneous or relatively spontaneous production data. White (2003), in a case-study of an adult native speaker of Turkish learning English as a second language, reported no DE violations, although the subject did make errors in the form of article omission. Lardiere (2004), in a case-study of a steady-state L2 speaker of Chinese (a language without articles), also found no DE violations. White (2008) conducted another study on intermediate level Turkish-speaking and Chinese-speaking English learners through elicited production data. In this study again, she did not report any DE violations. And in the most recent study, White *et al.* (2012) investigated whether native Turkish and Russian L2 learners of English in advanced and intermediate levels of proficiency show knowledge of definiteness effect or not. To this end, they devised an acceptability judgment task where the subjects were required to judge some contextualized sentences as natural or unnatural. The results of the study showed that learners in both levels responded the items like English native speakers, hence having acquired the DE in English.

Some recent studies have tried to find out whether there are any ERP effects relating to the DE. King, Steinhauer and White (2006) conducted an ERP study to investigate the DE in low and high intermediate Chinese-speaking L2 learners of English through a grammaticality judgment test. According to the result, the low intermediate subjects did not show any signs of the acquisition of the DE and no ERP effects were also reported. On the other hand, the high intermediate learners, distinguished between DE violations and equivalent grammatical sentences and P600 effects[13] were reported as well. Drury, E. White, L. White and Steinhauer (2009) similarly investigated the DE in advanced and low proficiency native French and Chinese L2 learners of English. While they found evidence for P600 effects in advanced learners, no such effect could be found in low proficiency groups.

In summary, the results from previous studies suggest that second language learners become sensitive to definiteness restriction in English as their linguistic competence grows more and more.

VII. CONCLUSION

Leonetti (2008) believes that the origin of the DE cannot be simply associated with some conditions, such as the Novelty Condition, regarding *there*-insertion constructions. He asserts that a number of factors are to be taken into consideration in the DE: (a) the role of the internal structure of the existential construction, particularly the role of coda in final position; (b) the effects of various lexical predicates competing for conveying presentative or existential meanings; (c) the possibility that the existential verbs cancel the conditions for the DE through selecting an eventive small clause and finally (d) attributing the contrasts linked to the DE both in existential sentences and in inverted subject constructions to the crosslinguistic variation in information packaging and Focus structure. Accordingly, much work is still needed to develop a theory which ties all these factors together (Leonetti, 2008).

Considering the studies on the DE in second language, a question could be posed, suggesting the need for further investigation on the DE in second language acquisition. Considering the general structure of *there*-insertion existentials (see section 4), other existential verbs (unaccusative verbs) than the typical *be* are allowed in these constructions. While these constructions with these verbs are grammatically well-formed, they are much less frequent than the typical verb *be*. Theoretically speaking, language learners who have acquired the DE are expected to distinguish between DE violations and equivalent grammatical sentences in these cases, that is, existential constructions with unaccusative verbs. Practically speaking, on the other hand, L2ers might not be able to distinguish between the two. In this case, the failure can be attributed to the nature of our implicit linguistic knowledge and the related cognitive processing than the notion of definiteness or definiteness effect.

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[12] Also called list existentials, these constructions are typically used to offer entities which fulfill some role or purpose (Abbott, 2006b). These constructions do not permit the focus NP to be followed by a locative prepositional phrase. However, the NP modifier prepositional phrases are allowed.
[13] These effects are generally associated with the recognition of grammaticality violations.

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The Jane Eyre in Charlotte's Heart—Appreciation of Song Zhaolin's Translation of *Jane Eyre*

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Abstract—*Jane Eyre* **has won worldwide reputation owing to Charlotte's skillful writing and the inspired feminist rebellious spirit. This paper mainly focuses on the analysis and appreciation of Song Zhaolin's translated work of** *Jane Eyre* **based on the dynamic equivalence strategy he used. The author of the original work Charlotte Brontë put a lot of her own experiences into** *Jane Eyre*, **which can also be shown in Song's translation. He also combined free and literal translation strategies in the translating process, which results in both faithful and expressive effect.**

Index Terms—**Charlotte Brontë,** *Jane Eyre*, **dynamic equivalence, combined strategy**

I. INTRODUCTION

Jane Eyre has enjoyed wide popularity ever since its first publication in1847, and for myself, I've always been a fan of Charlotte Brontë not only because she was a renowned novelist, but more importantly, a brilliant woman. To me, *Jane Eyre* is more than merely a love story between a governess and her master. It is an encouraging and inspiring story for any girls who are keen in going after what she desires in spite of all the possible blocks and setbacks in front of them. I myself, with no doubt, should be no exception.

After reading a biographical novel entitled *The Secret Diaries of Charlotte Brontë* (James, 2012), through which I've learnt that she and her equally talented siblings have been the real and timeless treasure in the literary world, my interest in her and her personal emotion development has grown along with my knowledge of them. Just like the character of Jane she created, Charlotte herself has led a life full of hidden passion and pain. She might be weak in every other way people could notice about her, but the real power she possessed was her indisputable underlying spirit inside.

Through this paper, I want to pay my earnest respect to this brilliant and outstanding woman and her wonderful work. Also, the translated version of *Jane Eyre* by Song Zhaolin has been a most well-received one among Chinese readers. The delicate sentiment and various grotesque imagination of Jane have been handled well by the translator, which proves to be the predominant reason for the success of his translation work. The focus of this paper would be the appreciation of various descriptive scenes in *Jane Eyre*, psychological and physical, including the connection between the novel and Charlotte's real life, the imagination and hallucination of Jane Eyre shown in her paintings and the emotional clash and concord between Jane and her master.

II. ORIGINAL WORK OF *JANE EYRE*

A. Main Story

Jane Eyre was brought up in Gateshead by her aunt Mrs. Reed who was nothing but mean to her after her uncle died. She spent her poor bleak childhood there without an ounce of sympathy from her aunt. Later, she was sent to Lowood Institution, where she learnt many skills, which prepared her to be qualified for being a teacher. After eight years both as student and teacher there, to fully avail her of all the advantages she owned and satisfy her wish to see the world outside Lowood, she advertised to be a governess in the newspaper.

So she ended up becoming a governess for a little girl in Thornfield, where her romance finally began. Falling in love with her master was never something she ever expected. However, love has the propensity to strike someone with least caution. That's perhaps how Jane and Rochester fall for each other in the first place. However, just when they were getting married, the cruel truth got revealed that Rochester already had a wife and he had been keeping his mad wife in the attic. So Jane fled from Thornfield to a place she barely knew.

Heartbroken and desperate, she almost got herself killed during the escape. Luckily, the inmates of Moorhouse took her in and made her a comfortable shelter, and as it turned out, Jane found herself not alone but with relatives and became an heiress of quite a large fortune from her uncle. Then she couldn't resist the desire to see Rochester and find out how things were for him after a year because she could somehow hear him call her names. Like Rochester once said, he had a queer feeling with regard to Jane. It is as if he had a string of communion tightly and inextricably knotted to a similar string situated in the corresponding quarter of Jane's heart. She returned to Thornfield only to find it burnt down

in a conflagration and her master blind and crippled. And who knows, after all they had been through, they finally got married and lived together happily after.

B.   Reflection of Charlotte's Real-life Experience

As it turns out, many of the scenarios depicted in *Jane Eyre* can be traced back to the real-life experience of Charlotte Brontë, which is quite common in writers' creation of their works. And based on my reading of some biographic books about Charlotte, there're quite a few of the similarities between Jane's life and that of Charlotte's. There're legends about the specters and monsters in the woods, story about maid marrying her master, myths about mad woman locked in the attic and sayings about ominous dreams of children, etc, all of which have been woven into the story of *Jane Eyre*. Deeply buried in Charlotte's heart is her affection of the Moorhouse, or her actual home back in England, where she and her siblings have spent most of their lives reading, studying and most importantly, writing and the renowned Brontë sisters were born. Whilst Mary and Diana from the book simply took their images from Emily and Anne Brontë, Charlotte's two sisters, Jane's nanny Bessie actually is the replica of Charlotte's old house servant Tabitha. Such overlapping between fiction world and real life has also confronted us with a fact that literary works, as a means of art, derived greatly from our everyday life.

C.   Feminist Element in the Novel—Rebellious Spirit of Women

Charlotte was brought up in a family with heavy religious roots with her father being the local clergyman and later her husband curate to her father. They were both supporters of Puseyism, which decided the destined job for women was in the kitchen cooking or in the bedroom sewing. So revealed in Jane Eyre's book is her long-restrained rebellious spirit against wide-accepted ideas and status of women. She and her sisters tried hard to prove to the world that women can concern themselves with more than casseroles or embroideries, but can be well-cultivated and well-informed like any men would do at that time. As a matter of fact, Charlotte herself and her two sisters was quite the model of new, independent woman and made a good example of woman writer. Such spirit has helped Charlotte through all the barriers and blocks on her way to become a published writer, which she succeeded at last even though the novel was published under the male name of Culler Bell to avoid unnecessary prejudices against authoresses. So in this perspective, Charlotte Brontë can really be seen as a pioneer of feminist writing in Britain.

Like Jane was commented by Rochester, Charlotte herself was seen a bird behind the close-set bars of a cage, a vivid, resolute, restless captive, who, given the chance, would soar cloud high. And Jane did by making her own choice of leaving Thornfield, away from her deceptive master. Despite her feelings for him, she chose to get away from such immoral union with her loved one, thus liberating her from the tie of her master's pleading. Judging from her affection of Rochester, it was agonizing to be torn apart from him like this. Yet, she managed to make the right decision under that messy circumstance. Later, after a year, she decided to follow her heart's will and return to her master trying to mend things with him. So instead of being a girl absorbed in blind love, she took control of her own destiny and earned herself a rather different future.

III.   THE TRANSLATION WORK BY SONG ZHAOLIN

A.   Translation Strategy

1. Translator's personal view on the translation theory

Influenced by Nida's functional equivalence theory, Song Zhaolin has put his priority in achieving dynamic functional equivalence between his translated text and the original one, which focuses on making the target reader react to the translation work the same way source language readers would react to the original work. In simpler word, Song attempts to create the closest natural Chinese equivalent to *Jane Eyre*. And to polish his translation work further to appeal to the taste of target Chinese readers, he used many Chinese idioms and popular phrases of that time. Also, for the purpose of preserving the exotic element of the original text, he did combine the method of literal and free translation. Judging from the reception of his translation work here in China throughout these years, it's quite certain that he managed to bring the truest English culture in front of Chinese readers without causing reading difficulties among receivers of different levels of education. And his role as a translator is established by recreating the exotic scenes in Chinese cultural surroundings, which proves to be a successful strategy.

2. Particular approach in the translation of *Jane Eyre*

Following his usual translation principle, Song Zhaolin employed the linguistic approach of dynamic equivalence in the rendering of Charlotte's *Jane Eyre*. As a result, his translated work of this classic novel proved to be very much fascinating for Chinese readers with a vivid depiction of characters and dramatic description of dialogues. Under his exquisite touch of account, readers can basically live through the beaten and battered life of Jane Eyre and relate themselves with Jane's emotional ups and downs, which is exactly the ultimate goal of dynamic equivalence approach. Through combined strategy of free and literal translation in the rendering of Jane's psychological activities and wandering imaginations, he did convey to readers the subtle and delicate affections Jane had for Rochester, those twists and turns of which would be the main clue discussed in the following part.

B.   Practice of the Translation Approach

1. Appearance and personality of Jane

As the old saying goes, "beauty lies in lover's eyes", Jane, as an average poor girl in want of freedom, was seen differently in the eyes of different people, as by her merciless aunt Mrs. Reed, her devout companion Helen and her beloved master Mr. Rochester. Differently as she might be viewed, there's one opinion about her physiognomy that was shared by all of them. That, in Jane's own words, was her plain looking and small figure. "平凡" and "矮小" were actually two exact simple words to describe her, as Song Zhaolin did in his translation.

She was a discord in her Aunt Mrs. Reed's eye, a troublesome burden left on her hands. As is interpreted by Song Zhaolin, she was "给她带来许多麻烦的大累赘". (Song, 2007, p. 206) The word "累赘" was more localized and familiar with Chinese readers and better than the word "负担", which is the formal equivalence to "burden". In this way, Chinese readers can also relate themselves with such expressions and thus understand Mrs. Reed's hatred for Jane Eyre.

However, Jane looked totally differently according to Mr. Rochester's statement. Apparently in his eyes, Jane was a childish and slender creature. Song translated it as "多孩子气、多小巧的人儿" (Song, 2007, p283) using the literal meaning of those two words as well as paraphrasing them into authentic Chinese expressions. Perhaps in Rochester's eye, Jane's presence was a refreshingly beautiful thing to catch in his rather degradation life. Like a spring breeze, Jane entered Rochester's life, bringing not just freshness, but his long lost enthusiasm for life ahead of him. It was Jane who saved him from the fire in his chamber. It was also Jane who helped take care of Mason's wound from his mad wife. And it was Jane still who stayed by his side and swore to keep him company for the rest of his life after the conflagration consumed Thornfield into ruins and himself crippled and blind. I think it's safe to say that Rochester was lucky to have Jane as his life partner and they made up for each other's flaws with Rochester's sophistication and Jane's innocent integrity.

2. Her imagination and psychological activities

Owing to her personal experience and her upbringing, Charlotte put a lot of her own character into the establishment of Jane's image. In simpler words, Jane was her reflection, a poor, small, obscure woman. But be it that might, she's got more talent than what she actually presented to others. And in the book, Jane's talent and imagination can be shown through her paintings. Here is the passage of Jane's explanation about the idea and design of her painting. Jane's painting, in a way, is also the fainted portrait of her confused and lost inside, from which Rochester was able to tell that she has been a cold, lonely and poorly expressive girl in desperate need of passionate love. She may appear to be carefree, but when it comes to love in the guise of light, she ought to go for it at whatever cost.

"As I saw them with the spiritual eye, before I attempted to embody them, they were striking; but my hand would not second my fancy, and in each case, it had wrought out but a pale portrait of the thing I had conceived." (Brontë, 1999, p.109)

Song's translation is:

"当我心灵的眼睛刚看见它们，还没试图把它们表现出来以前，它们确实是非常动人的。可惜我做不到得心应手，每次画出来的，不过是我构思出的图景一个苍白无力的写照。" (Song, 2007, p.110)

This passage is a quintessential display of his combined application of different translation strategies, which has attended to the loyalty to both the original author and the readers of his translation. The translated phrase "心灵的眼睛" clearly follows the literal translation strategy, while "得心应手" practically used the dynamic equivalence approach. His rendering does, in a way, produce an effect of the compromise between exotic taste and Chinese authenticity.

3. Dreams and their symbolic meaning

There're many places in the novel where Jane had ominous dreams with bad premonition, which proved, as it turned out, to be true. The depiction of these dreams was also a highlight of this book along with their symbolic meaning. Here's an example.

"…and that to dream of children was a sure sign of trouble, either to one's self or one's kin." (Brontë, 1999, p.193)

"……而梦见小孩肯定是个不祥之兆，不是自己有灾，就是亲属有祸。" (Song, 2007, p.197)

Despite the fact that ominous dreams maybe superstitious, we could, through Song's rendering, sense a connection between English and Chinese culture. The separate use of the Chinese word "灾" and "祸" is surly brilliant, making the target text both fluent and sound.

In the novel, Jane has altogether had about three weird dreams about child; one and each time has foreseen an unfortunate accident to either her relatives or herself, like her cousin John Reed's death, her aunt Mrs. Reed's severe sickness and her wedding drama with Mr. Rochester. Those dreams proved her steadfast belief that dreaming of a little child was never a good sign, which is the exact belief of Charlotte herself.

And the last time was just when Jane and Rochester were getting married, she had another bad dream involved with a little child, which in the next day, proved to be bad luck for their wedding. Also in their wedding, Jane found out that Rochester had already had a wife, who was a mad woman locked in the attic of Thornfield by her beloved master. Shocked by such treacherous cheat, Jane finally gathered enough courage to flee from her master to an unknown future. From this perspective, Jane's dreams not only foretold bad events, but also helped promote the development of the whole story, serving as a catalyst for emotional outbreak.

4. Charlotte's idea of an ideal marriage

Charlotte, through her popular novel *Jane Eyre*, made the feminist declaration "…we stood at God's feet, equal,—as

we are." (Brontë 1999, p.223) Song translated "as we are" into "因为我们本来就是平等的" (Song, 2007, p.226), adding the justified meaning of equality between women and men. It was Jane's immovable belief in equality that made her what she was and attracted Rochester. She made it clear that even though she merely was a governess in his house, she was capable of love and only love on the basis of equality. And in her short yet somehow legendary life, she did marry a man in earnest respect and faithful love with her. So she made herself Jane Eyre, the model of what she thought was the independent and wise woman in her time.

In the end of the book, Charlotte described the happy marriage of Jane and Rochester, which reflected her own opinion of a happy marriage based on equality and mutual understanding. Her words are "To be together is for us to be at once as free as in solitude, as gay as in company." (Brontë 1999, p.399) The Chinese equivalent according to Song Zhaolin is: "对我们来说，守在一起既像独处时一样自由，又像在伙伴们中间一样欢乐。" (Song, 2007, p.409) Obviously, the original sentence and the translated equivalence share the same pattern thus creating the same reading effect; besides, the accurate comprehension of "solitude" and "company" does produce on his target readers the same effect Charlotte did on her English readers. Like she portrayed, the truly complete marriage should be able to make the couple feel like they've got all the bliss and joy in the whole world anyone could ever have.

The happy couple from the novel certainly has enjoyed a better and longer married life than Charlotte's. She died less than a year after she married her husband Arthur Bell Nicholls, leaving him alone in sorrow and grievance without a child. But during the days when they were together, they were truly happily married despite the fact that her husband was nothing but a poor and obscure curate in the village and her father despised him. It was his honesty and integrity that touched Charlotte and got her accept his proposal. After they married, they would talk all day sharing thoughts and huddle at night dreaming about their future together. Guess happy times always tend to pass faster; such sweetness didn't last long before death took her away from her beloved ones. Thus, her novel was actually an honest epitome of her own experience and her desire of an ideal marriage established with love just like Jane and Rochester's.

C.   Translation of Classic Paragraphs

In this novel, there're many places where the outbreak of emotions is so intense and mysterious that it strikes me as both exiting and intriguing to read it. Here're the examples.

1. Jane's confession

Rochester made Jane think that Miss. Ingram and him were about to get married and Jane had to make a full confession to Rochester about her secret affections before she had to leave him. Here are Jane's words:

"I'm not talking to you now through the medium of custom, conventionalities, nor even of mortal flesh; —it is my spirit that addresses your spirit." (Brontë 1999, p.223)

Song's rendering goes:

"我现在不是凭着习俗、常规，甚至也不是凭着肉体凡胎跟你说话，而是我的心灵在跟你的心灵说话。"

The use of four-word Chinese phrase "肉体凡胎" to translate "mortal flesh" is brilliant, both accurate and neat. Furthermore, it creates a sharper contrast between the words "mortal" and "soul". (Song, 2007, p.226)

2. Emotional clash

The climax of the whole novel was Jane's confession to Rochester about her cryptic admiration and affection to him. After their heart-to-heart conversation, Jane struggled hard in his arms because she was incredulous about the fact that her master should love her just like she did him. Here's an extract:

"Jane, be still; don't struggle so, like a wild frantic bird that is rending its own plumage in its desperation." (Brontë 1999, p.223)

"简，安静点，别这么挣扎了，像只绝望中狂躁的小鸟似的，拼命抓扯着自己的羽毛。" (Song, 2007, p.226)

The translated text is both faithful and expressive, which would bring the readers to the most vivid image of Jane's restless struggle accompanied with awkward ecstasy. Charlotte compared Jane to a bird here because of two similarities they share, one of which is that they both longed for freedom and the other that they both sought for a nest to perch on.

After Jane finally believed Rochester's love for her, she kept him waiting for the answer of his proposal. Here is the countenance of Rochester:

"His face was very much agitated and very much flushed, and there were strong workings in the features, and strange gleams in the eyes." (Brontë 1999, p.224)

"他脸上神情激动，满脸通红，五官在抽搐，眼里闪现着奇怪的光芒。" (Song, 2007, p.228)

Judging from the description, we can very much feel the intense and contradicted emotions suffered by Rochester during this torturing waiting. The use of four-word phrases like "神情激动", "满脸通红", "五官抽搐" not only helps create the mind-numbing tension, but also conveys such feeling with most acceptable and familiar Chinese equivalence.

3. Mysterious summons

Charlotte's novel of *Jane Eyre* is also characterized by another feature involved with mystery, which is the mysterious summons and calls between Jane and her master Mr. Rochester. It was when Rochester was extremely down and desperate that he called out Jane's name. However, miraculously, Jane heard him and replied in a house far away from him. Rochester thought that it was Jane's soul wandering from her cell to comfort his. "灵魂飞出了躯壳" (Song, 2007, p.407) was Song's rendering of such phenomenon replacing "cell" with the word "躯壳", which is the common

expression in Chinese. "躯壳" to "灵魂" is like what "cell" is to "soul". Such mental calls between lovers showed that charlotte was a believer for soul mate, because only soul mates can connect and communicate like that.

IV. CONCLUSION

The novel of Charlotte Brontëencourages women readers in the western world to pull up strength to pursue their true love, while its translation work by Song Zhaolin helps bring the spirit here into China. We may learn different knowledge from this book, ranging from British literature to celebrity anecdotes. But whatever you know and how much you learn should not stop you from reading both the original work and the translated work, through which you can see the cultural and linguistic differences, and most importantly, the efforts and workings translators put into their translating. My respect and reverence to the original writer and the translator is hopefully paid through this paper, which I know touches only but a tip of the literary translation essence.

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On the Cultivation of Cross-culture Communication Competence of Second Language Learners

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Abstract—The main significance of language lies in communication exchanges. English as a kind of language is a tool for people to communicate. At the same time, language is an important and prominent part of culture. The languages of different nations are not only restricted by the social cultures of their own but also reflect their specific cultural content. So to learn the language well, it is necessary to understand the culture. The level of our learning can not be judged just from the mastery of the vocabulary and grammar. English teaching should strengthen the cultural sense education, making clear the relationship among language, culture and teaching. The paper has proposed the necessary conditions to cultivate cross-cultural communication competence and the English teachers' roles based on the current status of English teaching. So it is easily to explore how to guide students to value the input of the second language acquisition and then enhance their basic knowledge of English language, nonverbal communication skills and cross-cultural communication competence.

Index Terms—SLA, cultivation, cross-cultural communicative competence

I. INTRODUCTION

Culture, in a broad sense, means the total way of life of a people, including the patterns of belief, customs, objects, institutions, techniques, and language that characterizes the life of the human community. As culture is so inclusive, it permeates virtually every aspect of human life and influences predominantly people's behavior, including linguistic behavior. Language is the carrier of culture. Any kind of language reflects its corresponding culture. Over the years, the relationship between language and culture has not been given sufficient attention in English teaching. In teaching practice, it seems that as long as the abilities of listening, speaking, reading and writing are trained, the learners can master the pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar rules and communicate in English influently. In fact, because it is difficult for us to understand the cultural background of the language and the differences between Chinese and western culture, the phenomenon of ambiguity, misunderstanding and pragmatic failures appears frequently. For example, the expression "How much can you earn in a month" represents the interest of foreigners, which violates the privacy of others and will offend the other side. The Chinese people take humility as a virtue. When foreigners praise the talent of a Chinese, the Chinese people usually answer "you are overpraising me", (I'm flattered.) which often makes the speakers feel that you are doubting his judgment. It has repeatedly been found that learners who lack sufficient knowledge about the target culture can hardly become active and appropriate language users in their target language. For these reasons, the information concerning cultural differences has rightly been introduced into language classrooms of different kinds for enhancing learners' cultural consciousness and improving their performance in cross-cultural contexts of communication.

This paper will try to explore the conditions of cultivating the cross-culture communication competence of the second language learners. The thesis consists of six parts. Part one focuses on the previous achievements and studies on the second language acquisition, with the emphasis on the subject matters and approaches. Part two will focus on the relationship between the language and culture. Language not only reflects culture but also is part of culture. Part three states the principles of culture-guiding. With these principles, the culture study could be guided more scientifically. The fourth part serves as the main body of this paper which concerns the conditions of cultivating the cross-culture communication competence. The last part tells the role of the teachers. Their helps will be very helpful.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

When globalization becomes a fact, the importance of cross-cultural communication is further highlighted. On the one hand, different countries and cultures are interacting with each other more than any times. On the other hand, it is observed that more and more miscommunication occurs in international society. Carl Rogers (1961) a great psychologist, states that real communication takes place when we listen with understanding. By analogy, it may be equally said that communication collapses when people listen with misunderstanding. More specifically, it may even be stated that cultural stereotypes and conflicts come in when speakers communicate with no real understanding. As is well

known, language plays a decisive role when we communicate with others but the diversity in language and culture makes cross-cultural communication a highly risky mission. The domestic second language acquisition and second language / foreign language teaching and research scholars explored the inspiration the main theories of second language acquisition give to our language teaching, the application problems of the research findings of second language acquisition in language teaching and the mutual relationship between theories and application from the macro point of view. Meanwhile, they discussed the inspirations and directive significance of the theories and models of second language acquisition to the teaching of all the language skills in the micro point of view. Mr. DaiWeidong and ShuDingfang explored the main factors that affect foreign language learning, contrastive analysis, error analysis, interlanguage and communicative strategies systematically based on the inspiration of the second language acquisition theories. Mr. WangChuming tried to design foreign language well according to their learning characters and study environment. But the cultivation of culture in cross-culture communication of the second language learners is not paid much attention to. This thesis will discuss the conditions to cultivate the competence of cross-culture communication of the second language learners which may help the learners to study the foreign language better.

III. IMPORTANCE OF THE CULTIVATION OF CROSS-CULTURE COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

Language and culture has always been an inseparable unity. Language contains extremely rich cultural connotations, which not only have the history and culture heritage, but also mirror the reality of the culture (Zhang, 2007). Language itself is the product and component of culture. Also is the carrier of culture, which mutually penetrates and interacts with culture. Language reflects the characteristics of a nation, including its history and cultural background, people's thinking models, social behaviors and social ways. Some sociologists say that language is the cultural keystone - there is no culture without language. Meanwhile, language reflects and is restricted by culture.

The relationships between language and culture have widely been acknowledged. When it comes to language teaching and learning, the influence of cultural knowledge on the linguistic performance of language learners has been identified and highlighted. The English teaching syllabus of our country explicitly requires that: "teaching activities should be conducive not only to the training of language skills but also to communicative competence. The activities should not only attach great importance to language training on the sentence level, but also gradually develop the communicative competence on the discourse level." That is to say, the purpose of teaching and learning in language teaching activities includes not only the basic language knowledge --- pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar but also the competence of communication appropriately with these basic knowledge. For a long time, there is a common phenomenon in English learning that the students strive to remember a lot of words, phrases and grammar knowledge, do many exercises, and then take and pass various tests. But once they come into the language context, most people feel that their communicative competence is poor. This shows that great importance has to be attached to the cultivation of the students' actual listening and speaking abilities, particularly in terms of cross-culture communication competence should be valued and strengthened.

Because of the cultural differences, foreign language learners in the learning process may face such situation: they know every word appearing, but they can not understand the meaning of a phrase or sentence case. For example: "Every dog has his day". Learners whose native language is Chinese may be difficult to comprehend the meaning. In fact, if one knows well the culture of the English-speaking countries, they may know that in English, dog's image is generally not bad. It often refers to individuals. The meaning of the sentence is: Everyone has his day.

Similarly, the English people learning Chinese may also make cultural deviations and errors due to the culture difference. For example, they can not understand why those people who are very successful and popular can be described as "红的发紫". In fact, "红" and "紫" here do not mean the color of "red" and "purple", but rather refer to popularity and very popular. As to why it is expressed in this way, it is difficult for any one to explain clearly. It has become part of the whole system of Chinese and Chinese culture. Therefore, language learning can not be confined to pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, idioms and other language systems themselves. We should learn from the native people how to look at things, how to observe the world and how to use language to reflect their thoughts and behaviors.

IV. PRINCIPLES OF CULTIVATION OF CROSS-CULTURE COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE IN TEACHING

The leading-in of culture communication is to master and use language easily. Language is used for communication in vocal or non-vocal forms. Language is the product of culture, and the principle of cultivation of cross-culture communication competence is to respect the distinctive cultures of different countries and regions. Therefore, culture knowledge should be put into the first place. It can not only enhance the understanding of language but also accurately grasp the background of language use. So it is necessary to strengthen the teaching and explanation of culture involved. Of course in language teaching, the leading-in of culture should follow some principles:

A. Principle of Unity

Language and culture has always been an inseparable unity. Language is the carrier of culture. Culture cannot exist without language; the language can also not be divorced from the culture. So to learn the language well, the leading-in of culture should run through the language teaching. Language and culture should be unified.

B. Principle of Difference

Language reflects the corresponding culture of a nation. Different nation has different culture, especially the culture of eastern and western countries. Therefore, in the process of the second language learning, teachers should always remind students that the understanding of language should be based on the level of cultural understanding, especially bearing in mind that the national culture can not be used indiscriminately on other languages. Otherwise it is likely to cause unnecessary trouble and misunderstanding. The students should gradually develop cross-cultural awareness and promote the ability of language use.

C. Principle of Objectivity

Cultures are only different in content. It cannot be said that the culture of one kind of language is good or bad. It is necessary to take the principle of objectivity when imparting and using language. Firstly, the teachers can not compare subjectively the merits of cultures and influence the students with this point of view. What's more, the students cannot use their own or others' subjective ideas to understand one kind of culture when they accept the new culture information. In order to truly realize the cross-culture communication, we have to avoid the subjectivity, one-sidedness and arbitrariness on the understanding of culture.

Culture competence should be cultivated on some specific conditions and environment. Next chapter will elaborate these elements.

V. CONDITIONS FOR CROSS-CULTURE COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

A. Basic English Language Skills and Non-verbal Ability

HuWenzhong (1999) said: "The communicative competence will be like a tree without root if they are not based on language competence."(p.62) The second language acquirers are often good at vocabulary and grammar. However, they are short of pronunciation. Even if they make it through constrainedly, once they enter into the actual communication, they cannot speak influently and smoothly enough. Although their heads are full of words, they do not know how to start in oral communication. On the other hand, the second language acquirers have little opportunities to communicate in English in our daily life. So the level of oral communication can be imagined.

The non-verbal ability generally refers to the body language .It is a kind of language with the actions of our body parts to convey information. According to the study, the expression of non-verbal communication accounts for 70% of our daily communication (Wen, 2003). Visibly, the role of non-verbal expression should not be underestimated. But the second language learners are rarely involved in this kind of knowledge. It can easily lead to communication errors. The same figure gesture may have different meanings in different countries. For example, if the thumb and index finger are rung to the shape of"0", it is an expression of praise in the United States but contempt and disdain in France. Different cultures have so many interpretations to this gesture. If the language learners do not understand these, how can they have the successful communications?

The basic English language skills and non-verbal ability reinforce each other. They jointly contribute to a successful communication.

B. Knowledge of Traditional Culture and Customs

Culture is a very broad concept which penetrates the field of religion, law, morality, customs, traditions, politics, economy and other aspects in our society. To really learn a language well, one must know the rich cultural deposits and traditional customs involved in the target language. For example, it is a long history of China to be modest while it is the principle of Americans to be frank. Based on different cultural backgrounds, the hospitable Chinese masters would deny the praise of the American guests modestly when they invite the American friends to come to their homes; In the case of hunger the Chinese will refuse to eat much out of courtesy and hospitality in American friends' home. In this case, the reason of misunderstandings does not have anything with the communicators' pronunciation, words use and sentence-making. Thus, the simple vocabulary, grammar and voice are not enough for the successful communication. The second language learners should also strengthen the learning of the traditional culture of the target language, and thus grasp the language on the whole.

C. Certain Knowledge of Social Pragmatic Communicative Principles

According to Austin's Speech Act Theory (1975), a speaker might perform three acts simultaneously when speaking: locutionary act, illocutionary act, and perlocutionary act. Locutionary act is the act of conveying literal meaning by means of syntax, lexicon and phonology. Illocutionary act is the act of expressing the speaker's intention; it is the act performed in saying something. Perlocutionary act is the consequence of, or the change brought about by the utterance. If the listener does not work according to the speaker's intention, that is to say the illocutionary acts do not happen, it will lead to communication failure. The communicators should be adept at comprehending the deep meaning of words and response according to the situation.

Grice's Cooperative Principle (1975) suggests that the successful communication should observe the following four criteria: the maxim of quantity, the maxim of quality, the maxim of relation, the maxim of manner. Sometimes, however, in order to achieve a particular purpose, the communicators will deliberately violate the four criteria. They will response

to the speaker's illocutionary acts implicitly. Such as the following dialogue:

A: The boy is an unwelcome guest.

B: Well, ah, it is a fine day today.

In this dialogue, B said something irrelevant to A's question. It is apparently to violate the maxim of relation. However, this deliberately lacking of cooperation has intimated an illocutionary act: he did not wish to comment on this topic. Therefore, understanding certain social pragmatic principles will contribute to the successful communication among people of different social culture.

D.   Ability of Roles Transition

In our daily communication, different people have different social roles in different situations. Everyone should be good at transiting their roles depending on the circumstances. It is necessary to overcome ethnocentrism, ethnic prejudice. Meanwhile, the learners have to prevent the blind copying regardless of the situation. "When in Rome, do as the Romans do." In the process of Cross-cultural communication, our students need to develop their own sense of cross-cultural communication, distinguish their own cultural environment, and then transform the role correspondingly.

VI.   ROLES OF TEACHERS IN THE CULTIVATION OF CROSS-CULTURE COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

Teaching is a complex project. The teaching effect depends largely on the teaching ways of the teachers. In teaching activities, teachers should not only act as directors to guide students to participate in classroom activities but also have the abilities to perform to attract students to follow the teachers. Recently the national reform of English teaching has also proposed that teachers should improve the cultivation of the students' abilities of listening and speaking through communicative-based teaching model. In order to realize the purpose, the teachers should obey the following aspects.

A.   Encouraging and Cultivating the Students' Interests

Strong interest and motivation are driving forces for success. For a considerable number of students, English language learning is time-consuming and boring. The reason is that the effect of language learning is not obvious in a short term. The students cannot get the sense of accomplishment which thus affects the learner's interest in learning.

To stimulate the interests of students, teachers should strengthen the communication with the students, realizing the difficulties they face, helping them to establish the confidence. For example, teachers in their class tell some inspiring stories and convey the message that: there is no shortcut to language learning for cultural communication, and only those who pay more efforts will reap more. Or teachers could choose some students who have a high proficiency in English study, and make reports for class. Then students will discover that learning models are around, and the face-face communication will strengthen the autonomous learning awareness and promote their learning enthusiasm. In this way, students can have enough interest to learn the basic culture knowledge out of the basic language knowledge of English and strive to improve their listening and speaking levels. They can actively participate in classroom activities, and fully display their merits. Therefore, teachers' encouragement has a great impact on students' learning interest.

B.   Giving the Students Reasonable Guidance and Input

According to Krashen's Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), learners advance their language learning gradually by receiving "comprehensible input". He defined comprehensible input as "i + l", i represents learners' current state of knowledge, the next stage is a i+1. This indicates that the information the teachers input to the students should be acceptable to the students. It cannot be so excessive to impede the input of the knowledge; neither can it be very little to make the students boring. Language is the carries of culture. Culture was contained in language. In language teaching, teachers may supply the relevant cultural knowledge for the students according to different study contents to strengthen the culture guide in language input. And require the students to recite the cultural notes in their own words or work in pairs. In this way, student's knowledge on different cultures will be solid. Using comparison method, guide their attention to the cultural difference between western and Chinese culture to enhance their understanding of basic language knowledge and the cultivation of the sense of the cross-culture communication. For example, teachers could start the lesson of color meanings between China and western countries by presenting some real instances. We choose the "green" color as an example. In China, green is the color of new hope and life, so is in western cultures. But there is an exception that is "a green hat". Western cultures take it easy to take a green hat or red hat, nor of it in China. In oriental cultures, "a green hat" means that a man's wife has an affair with other man, so it is a humbling matter to an honorable man. Another example is the black leather shirt. In diplomatic event, ladies are forbidden to wear the black leather shirt, because in western cultures that costume is the symbol of prostitute (hooker). Anyone who wears black leather shirt to other foreign countries will be laughed and suspected. Furthermore, to facilitate the absorption of knowledge, teachers can use English films, television, video and other multi-media teaching methods to make the culture input more visual and understandable. In class teaching, teachers will guide students to heed some culture elements while watching, or ask some to detect the cultural difference between China and western countries, or ask them to show their own voice on cross-culture competence. In this way, students are immersed in culture knowledge and will have a clear mind on culture awareness cultivation.

C.   Assessing the Students Reasonably

The teachers' evaluation of students can significantly affect the students' interest in learning. This is especially important for oral expressions. Most linguistic experts thought that in communicative activities, errors are natural. Students are tolerant to make errors. However, some few experts argued that if the students received only positive feedback and lacked negative feedback or error correction, then the students will lose recombination mechanism of the brain. The previous incorrect input will be a fossil which can no longer be corrected. Thus, teachers should make a reasonable assessment for the students. They cannot just give positive feedback to the students due to the concern that the enthusiasms of the students are attacked. Meanwhile, the teachers cannot correct all the errors which may make the students feel too nervous and worried to open their mouths and affect the improvement of their communicative ability. For example, teachers should make positive assessment to some introversive students. As teachers' encouragement and positive remarks are the driving forces for their study. Once they have overcome their worry in language learning, they will be confident to accept right or wrong. While for those extroversive students, teachers' negative assessments are more meaningful. They lack the carefulness in learning and take every mistake as natural. For those students, a sharp criticism is more practical for them. In short, teachers should be good at evaluating different students in different situations and guiding students to judge themselves correctly. Encourage them to avoid weaknesses in the study and enhance the strong points.

VII. CONCLUSION

Language is the carrier of culture. Language can not be divorced from culture. The significance of language learning lies in communication. Learning and communication integrate with each other. The world is a global village and no country or people will be isolated from others. On the cross-culture communication competence, learners and teachers both should share some responsibility. On the one hand, in language learning, the learners should be fully aware of cultural factors on the learning effect. By means of the input of the culture of the target language, the learners can enhance the overall understanding of the language. On the other hand, with the development of the integration of the world and more and more cross-cultural communication exchanges, language learning should liberate from the "dumb foreign language". Thus, the students should make full use of the conditions of cultivating the cross-culture communication competence. Strive to advance the basic English language skills and non-verbal ability. Master the knowledge of traditional culture and customs. Learn certain knowledge of social pragmatic communicative principles and train the ability of transiting roles. The basic element in communication is to respect each culture and adhere to the maxims of communication. Meanwhile, the teachers should play great importance in language and culture teaching. Teachers should encourage and inspire the students, and offers great help in their language study. And then give them the reasonable guide and assessment and try to make the assessment reasonable and applicable. In class teaching, teachers should make the class culture involved, and make students experience the cross-culture communication and cultivate the cross-culture awareness. As long as students and teachers put in the same efforts and interest, cross-culture communication competence will surely be improved.

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The Impact of Extensive Reading Programs on the Pronunciation Accuracy of EFL Learners at Basic Levels

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Abstract—This experimental study aimed to investigate the effect of extensive reading on the pronunciation ability of EFL learners at basic levels. The proposed hypothesis predicted that the use of an extensive reading program, such as Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading (USSR), Drop Everything and Read (DEAR), or the Book Flood Approach, while nurturing a lifelong reading habit, leads to fossilization of incorrect pronunciations at basic levels. To this end,100 EFL students attending English language courses at Azad University of Kermanshah were selected using convenient sampling. Pretests were administered before the application of experimental and control treatments. The equivalence of the groups was provided by random assignment of subjects to experimental and control treatments. Also a post test was administered after the treatment. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used for data analyses. The mean test scores of both groups was subjected to the test of statistical significance which was a t-test. Based on the use of descriptive and inferential statistics, it was concluded that the use of extensive reading programs leads to the fossilization of incorrect pronunciations at basic levels among EFL learners.

Index Terms—extensive reading, intensive reading, SLA, pronunciation

I. INTRODUCTION

In many second or foreign language teaching situations, reading receives a special focus. There are many reasons to this, chief among them are the pedagogical purposes served by the written texts, students' goals and teachers' emphasis. Students want to read for information and pleasure, for their career and for educational purposes. Appropriate reading materials also provide good models for writing as well as chances to introduce new topics, to create discussion opportunities, and to study different skills and sub skills of the language. In other words, reading is an invaluable skill for both students and teachers. In fact, beyond powerful gains in language proficiency, reading offers more. It offers a richer understanding of the worlds around us. It represents a lifelong habit, a habit that brings with it the power and wealth that language offers in such large quantities. Motivating students for reading extensively and helping them in how to do so will help learners in their reading proficiency.

A number of advances have been made in research on reading, both in first and second language. Richards (2002) states that although the advances in the first language contexts have led to a number of improvement in reading instruction, the corresponding research in second language contexts has not made as much headway (p.273).In fact, despite improvements that have been achieved in research on second language reading, there are still many problems to be addressed before research findings can be applied in the classroom. The most crucial problem, Grabe (1995) maintains, lies in the fact that research in second language reading tends to be short term and less programmatic. Therefore, we don't have enough evidence to enable us to say with confidence what works best in which second language context. Richards (2002, p.274) states that "if second language reading research is to have any significant impact on instruction , it is imperative that we encourage more systematic and programmatic research studies that examine aspects of reading instruction under a variety of contexts and over a longer period of time. Results of longitudinal studies of this nature are likely to reduce the gap between theory and practice.

Dilemmas for second language reading instruction

William Grabe, (1995) believes that "there are fundamental dilemmas for L2 reading which need to be discussed, explored and resolved" (p.3). He states that the most obvious dilemma for second language instruction is the many different contexts for second language reading instruction. The second dilemma derives from U.S- based generative linguistic foundation of most research in SLA and the subsequence irrelevance of much of SLA for L2 reading research. He believes that readers can improve their reading comprehension and inferencing ability through being familiar with formal aspects of language and genres structures. He also emphasized the role of having access to large vocabulary knowledge not only for enhancing reading ability but also for all language skills. In addition, social context of the

students' home environment, not enough emphasis on reading strategies and the uncritical acceptance of schema theory represent other dilemmas for language reading instruction.

Implications of reading strategy research

Reading strategies can be defined as "plans for solving problems encountered in constructing meaning" (Duffy, 1993, p.323). A number of reading strategies and techniques have been developed by researchers in the field of second language teaching ranging from bottom up vocabulary strategies to more comprehensive actions such as connecting what is being read to the readers' background knowledge. However, many applied linguists, today, are concerned with describing language pedagogy that is based on principled understanding of second language research. Brown (1992) has suggested a set of teaching/learning principles to which any good language pedagogy should conform. "These principles include providing a rich linguistic environment, respecting and capitalizing on learners' contribution to the learning process, and emphasizing fluency over accuracy"(Richards.2002)

Types of reading

Generally, there are two types of reading. Extensive reading(ER) is different from intensive reading (IR). It is important to note that these two approaches to teaching reading –intensive and extensive- should not be seen as two different ways of reading which are in opposition, since both have complementary purposes. In intensive reading, students work with short texts with close guidance and help of a teacher in order to understand every part of the reading in detail, improve reading skills, and develop vocabulary and grammar knowledge. According to Carrell and Carson(1997,pp.49-50) "extensive reading… generally involves rapid reading of large quantities of material or longer reading(e.g. whole book) for general understanding with the focus generally on the meaning of what is being read than on the language". Renandya and Jacobs (1999, p.1) state that "Extensive Reading(ER) with its emphasis on encouraging learners to read self selected large amount of meaningful language, fits well with current principles for good second and foreign language pedagogy". Davis (1995, p.329) believes that "Students will compete against themselves and it's up to the teacher to provide motivation and monitoring to ensure that the maximum number of books is being read in the time available". While different ER programs come under different names, they all have a common purpose: learners read large quantity of books and materials in an environment that nurtures a lifelong habit.

Although extensive reading is not new, many students are not aware of the possible advantages that it can have for improving their ability in second language. According to Day& Bamford (1998) one of the most important reasons is that many teachers believe that intensive reading alone will produce good , fluent readers. Extensive reading is seen as offering many advantages (Day& Bamford, 1998; Krashen, 1993; Nation, 1997) some of which are as include:1-better reading and writing skill 2-positive attitude toward the process of learning 3- more enjoyment in reading 4- better knowledge of the world 5- improved reading habits 6- enhanced language proficiency

While the truth of none of these advantages is questionable, unfortunately, nothing has been said about the impact of extensive reading on students' pronunciation. Unfortunately, absence of systematic instruction for pronunciation at basic levels may result in Fossilization which is "a process in which incorrect linguistic features become a permanent part of the way a person speaks or writes a language. Aspects of pronunciation, vocabulary usage and grammar may become fixed or fossilized in second or foreign language learning."(Richards, Jack C &Schmidt, Richards, 2002). As the learners' focus on getting the meaning increases they are less likely to pay intensive attention to the way they pronounce new words they encounter while reading.

Teaching Pronunciation

Over the past half century, pronunciation has received different degrees of emphases by different language teaching methods and there are many factors affecting the acquisition of pronunciation. Researchers and practitioners' have different views to the practicality of teaching pronunciation to the second or foreign language learners. Some believe that the help provided to the learners on their pronunciation is of no value or at most a little change may happen because the learners follow their own pattern of developing their pronunciation accuracy. other theorist believe that teaching pronunciation is of great help as it leads into accurate pronunciation as well as enhancing learners attitude toward pronunciation development(Richards and Renandya, 2002, p.176).Julie Herbert, (1993) outlined four steps with which teachers can introduce learners to some of the prosodic features of L2.she believed this can be done with low-level learners through "setting the context, diagnosing learners spoken English, selecting the content, and incorporating phonology into ESL lessons".

Empirical Studies

There is a large number of researches about the role of extensive reading in first language, for which there are different names like "pleasure reading," "sustained silent reading" [SSR], or "uninterrupted sustained silent reading" [USSR] (see research cited in Krashen, 1985, p. 91; Krashen, 1988; Vaughan, 1982, p. 69). This corresponds more or less to FL/ESL/EFL extensive reading (see Bamford, 1987; Dubin & Olshtain, 1977, pp. 77ff; Grellet, 1981, p. 4; Krashen, 1982, pp. 164-167, 1985, pp. 89-94; Olshtain, 1976, pp. 39ff). However, in a research on the literature of FL extensive reading, Brumfit (1978) claimed that "the role of the extensive reader in the curriculum has been surprisingly little studied" (p. 178); and "the discussion of teaching methods is conducted at a low theoretical level if it is conducted at all" (p. 179). MacLean's (1985) bibliography of reading in a second or foreign language lists only four items on extensive reading. None of the 99 items in ERIC computer search #200, "Reading Strategies in Second Languages" (October 1987) is about extensive reading. Swaffar's (1988) survey of FL reading research mentions only one article on

extensive reading out of 221 items. Oddly enough, one conclusion Swaffar reaches after examining 220 items not about extensive reading is that teachers in the future "may well be asking students to do extensive reading on a longer text or in a particular field of study" (p. 141).

Also a number of scholars have investigated the influence of extensive reading on different skills in second language learning. In a study, Chao and Krashen (1994) concluded that extensive reading results in an increase in reading proficiency, oral fluency, vocabulary knowledge, attitude and motivation. Moreover, Pitts, White, & Krashen, (1989) conducted a research on ESL adults in the United States and concluded that extensive reading resulted in an increase in vocabulary knowledge as well as reading comprehension. Another study conducted by Elley & Mangubhai (1981) on EFL primary students in Fiji showed that extensive reading resulted in an increases in reading proficiency, general language proficiency including listening and writing, and an increase in attitude and motivation.

The relationship between extensive reading and grammar has also been investigated by Aaron Mac Coon, (2011). He stated that "the chief contention advanced in objection to a comprehensive grammar course was, naturally, that it absorbs too much time that ought to be occupied in extensive reading. In addition, some scholars have conducted research on the attitude of students toward extensive reading. As an example Dupuy, Beatrice, C. (1997) in a article titled '*Voices from the classroom: intermediate-level French students favor extensive reading over grammar and give their reasons*' surveyed 49 intermediate-level French-as-a-Foreign-Language college students to determine whether they preferred extensive reading or grammar instruction for language acquisition and practice, and why. Students overwhelmingly preferred reading as more pleasurable and more beneficial for language acquisition. They considered grammar instruction dull with small, short-lived effects. Also, Thomas N. Robb and Bernard Susser, (1989), studied extensive reading vs. skills building in an EFL context. They concluded that extensive reading may be at least as effective as skills-building with the important advantage that it is more interesting for learners.

Purpose of the study

While countless advantages of using an extensive reading program in a language course have been outlined by different scholars, almost nothing has been said about the impact of reading large quantity of materials extensively on the pronunciation of the students at basic levels and that it may have a detrimental effect on their pronunciation as far as they may be encouraged to pronounce new words incorrectly which in turn leads to permanent fossilization of these forms. To this end and to fill the stated gap, this study aimed at investigating the relationship between an extensive reading treatment course with pronunciation accuracy of the EFL learners at low-levels.

The following research questions were raised in this study:

1. Does the introduction of an extensive reading course have any impact on the learners' pronunciation ability?

II. Method

A. Participants

The participants in this study were 100 EFL learners in Azad University in Kermanshah, Iran. The participants, who were within the age range of 18-30, consisted of 55 females and450 males. The participants, who were all at basic levels regarding their mastery of English language, were studying English for general purpose. They were all studying *Active Reading, Book 1* Written by Neil J. Anderson (2007) which was prescribed by the university decision makers. The classes met two times a week for 25 sessions.

B. Materials and Instruments

Different reading materials were used in this study. The book entitled '*Active Skills for Reading, Book 1*' written by Neil J. Anderson (2007) was the main textbook introduced in the course on which students and the teacher worked intensively. In addition, other reading materials were used in the experimental group in order to provide opportunities for extensive reading. These books, mainly short stories, are entitled:

Carroll, Lewis, (2000), Alice's Adventures in Wonderland, level 2, Pearson Education Limited
Bassett, Jenifer, (2002) One-Way Ticket, level 1, Oxford Bookworm Collection
Pullman, Philip, (2000), Aladdin and the Enchanted Man, level 2, Oxford University Press
Wilde, Oscar, (2003), The Coldest Place on Earth, level 2, Oxford University Press
Tense, Walker, (2001) The Elephant Man, level 1, Oxford University Press

Moreover, this experimental study also took advantage of a pretest in order to make sure that participants were equal before treatment. It also used a recorder to record students' performance on the observation session for further analysis.

C. Procedure

To conduct the study, the participants were randomly assigned to each group to provide for control of the equivalence of experimental and control groups and exposure to treatment. The participants in the experimental group were encouraged to read large quantity of reading materials extensively along with the main reading textbook which was taught intensively by the teacher. The reading materials provided for extensive reading were mainly short stories whose difficulty levels were a little above the students' competence in order to provide comprehensible input. While the participants in the experimental group received the treatment, the students in the control group followed the usual procure studying the main course book intensively.

At the end of the treatment, a post test which was based on the student oral performance was administered to both groups and observation of their performances were recorded for analysis. Each participant was asked to present a summary of a story orally and was given a score on a scale of 1 to 5 indicating the degree of accurate pronunciation, with 1 indicating that the student's presentation had more than 20 pronunciation mistakes, 2 indicating 15-20 mistakes, 3 indicating 10-15 mistakes, 4 indicating 5-10 mistakes and 5 indicating that the presentation had fewer than 5 mistakes. In this experiment which was based on treatment-non treatment comparison, observations were made to determine what differences appears or what change or modification occurs in the experimental group as contrasted with the control group.

D. Design

In order to have a comprehensive view of the research findings, this study implemented a mixed method approach, applying qualitative and quantitative procedures in conducting the experiment and reporting the results. As Zoltan Dornyei (2007) maintain "in most educational settings random assignment of students by the researcher is rarely possible" therefore we have to resort to a Quasi-experiment design. The pretest-post test equivalent-groups design provides the advantage of pretesting before the application of experimental and control treatments and post test at the end of the treatments. Pretests scores were used in the analysis of covariance to statistically control for any differences between the groups at the beginning of the study.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis was the most challenging section of this study as far as multiple analyses were required. To this end, the data gathered from the students observations and records were coded and inserted into SPSS software 16.0 for analyzing. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were run. Descriptive and inferential statistics included frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation and t-test.

Results and discussions

Descriptive studies

The aim of the question raised in this study was to investigate if the introduction of an extensive reading course has any impact on the learners' pronunciation ability. The investigation of this question was followed through descriptive statistics such as percentage and frequency. As mentioned earlier, the participants were a given a score on a rating scale of 1 to 5 based on their presentation performances on the post test. In order to make sure about the rating consistency and reliability, each score was specifically defined with 1 indicating more than 20 pronunciation mistakes, 2 indicating between 15 to 20 pronunciation mistakes, 3 indicating between 10 to 15 pronunciation mistakes, 4 indicating between 5 to 10 pronunciation mistakes and 5 indicating fewer than 5 pronunciation mistakes.

Table 1 displays the frequencies and percentages of the number of pronunciation mistakes in the students' presentations in both experimental and control groups.

TABLE 1:
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS' SCORES IN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP

		Scores					Total
		1	2	3	4	5	
Experimental group	N	12	15	11	7	5	50
	%	24%	30%	22%	14%	10%	100%
Control Group	N	4	5	10	17	14	50
	%	8%	10%	20%	34%	28%	100%

As shown in Table 1, 30 percent of students in the experimental group had between 15 to 20 pronunciation mistakes in their presentations and only 10 percent of them had fewer than 5 mistakes. On the contrary, 34 percent of students in the control group had 5-10 pronunciation mistakes and only 8 percent of them had more than 20 pronunciation mistakes.

Figure 1 demonstrates the percentages of the students' pronunciation mistakes in both experimental and control groups.
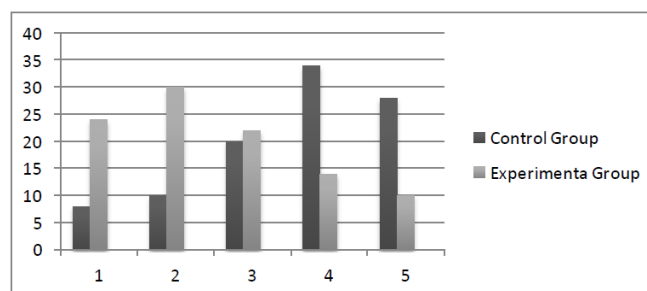

Figure 1: Frequencies and Percentages of Students' Scores in the Experimental and Control Group

As it is demonstrated, it can be expressed that the students in the experimental group, who were encouraged to extensive reading in addition to intensive reading, had more pronunciation mistakes. While a total 30 percent of them had between 15-20 mistakes in their oral presentation recording, only 10 percent of the students in the control group had 15-20 pronunciation mistakes.

Table 2 summarizes the result of descriptive statistics. The mean score obtained from the two groups, shows that the individuals in experimental group had more difficulty in pronouncing the words correctly.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	50	3.20	1.26	.1784
Experimental	50	2.54	1.32	.1878

To ensure that the obtained difference is statistically significant, an independent-samples *t*-test was used. Table 2 shows that there was a statistically significant difference between the experimental group (*M*= 2.54, *SD*=1.32) and the control group (*M*=3.20, *SD*=1.26), *t* (98) =2.54, *p*= .00. Results suggest that introducing basic learners to extensive reading could be a predicator in wrong word pronouncing fossilization procedure. Learners in the control group reported to be more accurate in pronouncing the words than those in experimental groups.

TABLE3:
INFERENTIAL STATISTICS (RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST)

Independent Samples Test

		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
VAR00001	Equal variances assumed	.374	.542	2.548	98	.012	.66000	.25906	.14591	1.17409
	Equal variances not assumed			2.548	97.744	.012	.66000	.25906	.14589	1.17411

IV. CONCLUSION

As stated before, the aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of extensive reading on students' pronunciation mistakes. The results revealed that, in general, reading large quantity of materials extensively can lead in more pronunciation mistakes fossilization in students at low-levels of proficiency due to absence of instruction to ensure pronunciation accuracy. While countless advantages of using an extensive reading program in a language course have been outlined by different scholars, (Chao and Krashen (1994), Elley & Mangubhai (1981), Pitts, White, & Krashen, (1989)), reading large quantity of materials extensively can lead in fossilization of incorrect pronunciation mistakes, mainly due to absence of any instruction on the pronunciation accuracy. It can be inferred that, while students at low levels can improve their command of vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension as a result of maximum exposure to large quantity of material consistent with their interests and motivation, they usually do nothing while faced with a new word whose pronunciation is not known by them. In other words, although students can use contextual clues successfully to guess the meaning of new word or to comprehend a sentence, they can not guess how a new word may be pronounced correctly. Eventually, this article paves the way for further analyses and researches about the role of extensive reading on learners' pronunciation at other levels of proficiency.

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The Impact of Task Presentations on Chinese EFL Learner's Writing Performance—From a Perspective of Practical Paperwork[*]

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Abstract—This study is devoted to the writing performance of Chinese EFL learners in EPPW (English Practical Paperwork Writing) course within the framework of task-based language teaching, focusing on the investigation of the influence of modes of task presentation upon the textual metafunction in the aspect of coherence, cohesion and accuracy. Three common modes of task presentation were then chosen as subject: a traditional approach- in full Chinese version and a context- situation approach in Chinese or English respectively. Three homogenous groups of college students from our college who were taking their EPPW course participated in the study and task presentation was achieved by 3 aforesaid modes respectively for 3 tasks of various genres, which stood for high, medium and low level of complexity respectively. Contrastive textual analysis and survey revealed that the context- situation approach of task presentation was more effective in the teaching of EPPW compared to FC in enhancing the writing behavior for modest Chinese learners; furthermore, the results also showed that ES outperformed CS in mean scores and implementation of high complexity task.

Index Terms—modes of task presetation, writing performance, Chinese EFL writing

I. INTRODUCTION

As an indispensable and most difficult part of language acquisition, writing has been long and widely acknowledged as an "intricate" and complex task as well as the "most difficult of the language abilities to acquire" (Allen & Corder, 1974, p. 177). But as one of the primary skills of communication, writing has always held a very important place in language acquisition. However, the present situation of writing teaching and learning is not satisfying even in the first language and worse in foreign or second language. In addition, the effect of writing teaching is widely acknowledged as being inefficient and time-consuming. As a universal language, the importance of English writing has been intensified by the economic globalization and internet revolution (Warshauer, 2000). But the effect of worldwide English writing teaching turns out to be frustrating, of which China is one of the most severe disaster areas according to previous statistics of international and national language test analysis, such as IELTS, TOFEL, CET band 4 and 6 (Xiping Li, 2013).

Consequently, many researchers have been conducted to reveal the reason for low-efficiency in writing teaching based on distinct theoretical frameworks and learning effects in different aspects, of which the exploring of more effective ways and methods in the teaching of language writing is a heated focus. Previous studies showed that the implementation of scientific classroom-teaching design is crucial in motivating and developing the writing skills of EFL learners and hence enhancing the quality and efficiency of teaching practice (Melor Md Yunus et al, 2012). Moreover, task presentation is a must teaching procedure of task-based approach within a communicative framework, which is very popular in the teaching of EFL writing in China. This approach requires the learners to fulfill a meaning-focused task rather than to concentrate on language features during performance. Moreover, task presentation serves as the introduction of the teaching content; nonetheless, its significance is mostly ignored or underestimated in most EFL researchers because it was widely regarded as an unimportant interfering factor on learner's writing behavior. Therefore, the present study aims to investigate whether different modes of task presentation have correlation to writing performance on the level of composition in a Chinese EFL context.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Task-based Approach

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 223), task-based approach must base on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching. It is gradually widely recognized and accepted among applied

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linguistics researchers and teachers since 1980s and "holds a central place in current second language acquisition (SLA) research and language pedagogy" (Ellis, 2003). The soul of this approach lies in the belief that "language is primarily a means of making meaning"- meaning is crucial in language use, and language acquisition can only achieved through language practice. What's more, it also holds "lexical units are central in language use and language learning", and "conversation" is the central focus of language and the keystone of language acquisition (Sarani, 2012). Therefore, it promotes that the learners should fulfill task activities for a communicative purpose by using the target language in order to achieve an outcome (Willis, 1996) while teachers must guarantee that the teaching task is effectively arranged, implemented and assessed grounded upon the systematic components including goals, input, setting, activities, roles and feedback (Ali Panahi, 2012).

B.   Procedures of Task-based Approach

In order to make full use of task-based approach, the teachers must be well aware of its procedures and instructions before the design of the task-based lesson in EFL writing teaching. It involves the consideration of both of the classroom teaching stages and procedures. The former consists the teaching phases while the latter regards how to perform the task (Ellis, 2003; Willis, 1996). Although there are lots of procedures and stages devised so far in different aspects, the typical task-based teaching process consists of three principle phases: pre-task, during task, and post-task (Ellis, 2003).
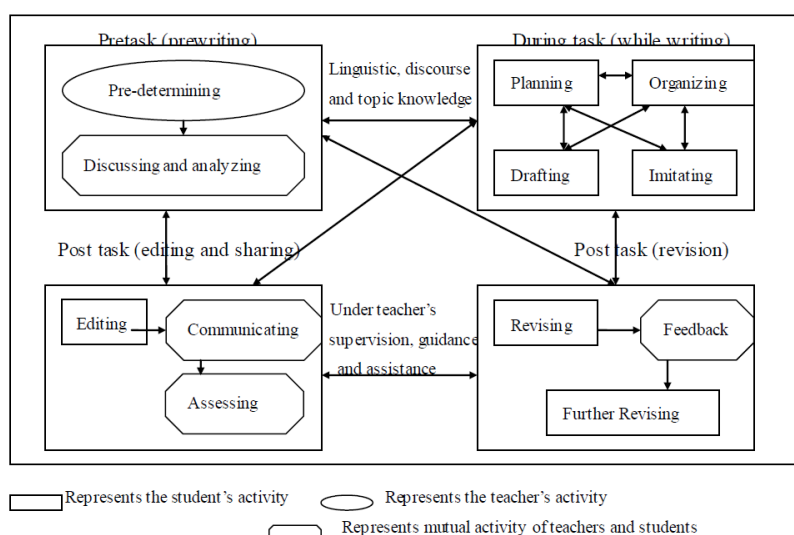
Figure 1. Teaching Procedures of Various Stages of Tasked-based Aprroach (Xiping Li, 2013)

In the pre-task/ prewriting phase, the overall purpose is to help to cultivate the learner's interest and get good preparation for the next phase. It usually has two main functions -the presentation of topic-related information and task, which would arouse the learners` task-related interest on the chosen topic and activate topic-related language knowledge in the aspect of words, phrases and target sentences. A third, optional function is to help students communicate as smoothly as possible during the task cycle (Sarani, 2012). Respectively, there are two main teaching activities in this stage- predetermining the task environment as well as analyzing and discussing (see figure 1). First the communicative task and its environment (including communicative purpose, target readers and interpersonal relationship) is pre-determined. Consequently, the discussion and analysis of the communicative tasks and its environment (including role of author, form of text, topic of the task) as well as characteristics (such as field, model and tenor) of the model genre is implemented to help learner fulfill the following   activities (Richard Badger and Goodith White, 2000): summing up the writing structure and language characteristic of a certain genre→determining the situation of the target task →establishing the writing purpose of such target task → considering the language region of the article (ibid)). Therefore, pretask phase lays a foundation of specific composition and task presentation is just a prologue or starting point.

In the "during task/ while writing" phase, the learner's utmost task is to accomplish the independent construction of the first drafting of the target discourse under the teacher's supervision, guidance and assistance. It usually involves the following steps (see figure 1): planning or generating the outline of the target discourse→ collecting and organizing relevant information→imitating writing after provided model→composing the first draft ((ibid)).

The post-task phase includes two writing process: revision, edition and sharing. The author's main task is to further revise and resubmit their target discourse by experiencing a series activities (see figure 1): self revision →self or peers feedback →further revision and editing→ trial communication→ overall assessments on the writing performance (ibid).

C.   Task-related Factors

In recent years, L2 writing tasks have aroused attention in SLA research as they can potentially create the

circumstances for learners to restructure their interlanguage until they reach target-like level. So L2 writing tasks can be manipulated for researchers to observe students' development and to test different theoretical constructs in various L2 writing contexts. What's more, the task is also a crucial factor causing cognitive load in complex learning (Kirschner, 2002), thereby affecting learners' performance (Cai Yanling, 2009).

The task-related factors such as task types (Cumming, et al., 2005), task structure (Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005) and prompts or prompt designing (Polio & Glew, 1996; Reid & Kroll, 1995) have studied mainly in the writing testing or assessing environment. Recently, L2 writing task studies begin to be carried out in terms of the information processing. For example, Ellis and Yuan (2004) explored the effects of L2 writing task in different planning (pre-task planning, unpressured on-line planning, and no planning) conditions. Kuiken and Vedder (2007, 2008) investigated task complexity and linguistic performance in L2 writing. Hamid Reza Haghverdi (2013) explored the impact of task-planning and gender on the accuracy of narrations composed by Iranian EFL learners.

As for task presentation mode, Cai Yanling (2009) has investigated the effects of text and pictorial task presentation mode on EFL writing by students of different English levels and drew the conclusion that the presentation mode made a significant difference when interacting with English proficiency level. For the subjects with higher level, text task promoted their L2 writing significantly than pictorial task. Whereas for the subjects with lower level, though it was not significant, pictorial task worked better because it helped them in translating ideas into written words.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A. The Present Situation of EFL Writing in China

Writing has long remained to be one of the poorest language abilities among Chinese learners according to previous statistics of international and national language test analysis, such as IELTS, TOFEL, CET (a standard test as the nation-wide College English Test in China) band 4 and 6. Zou Shen (1998) and Sun Suping (2004) investigated the writing performances in exam of CET-4 and stated ever since 1987 the average scores of writing throughout the country has remained quite low, about half of the full score 15, with 5.8 in the exam in June, 1991, 5.88 in January, 1994, and 7.52 in June, 1997. A large number of students are tired of English writing and are scared of it; many teachers regard writing teaching as a hard work and are reluctant to do it.

Many scholars and researchers have carried out different studies to find out the reasons for this unsatisfactory condition of writing. Li Changzhong (2001) and Shu Xiaoyu (2000) made a sample analysis of students` writing performance on CET-4 and found the overall effect of these compositions was incoherence, while learners' writing proficiency was closely related to their textual coherence.

B. The Present Situation in Task Presentation in China

Since Chinese teaching system is examination-oriented. The test form of writing section of CET has greatly influenced the mode of task presentation in teaching practice in EFL writing because it is regarded as one of the most authoritative and extensive examinations in China. Nearly all the writing task in CET band 4 and 6 are presented in Chinese situation (with exception in November 2012 in CET-4, it is a chart description) - a given entitled topic, an outline of the body with three topic sentences. E.g., the topic for the composition in June 2012 CET-4 is "Online Shopping"; three topic sentences are: 1) Online shopping is popular now. 2) There are many advantages and problems of online shopping. 3) My suggestions. Many teachers follow suit in teaching practice- to provide an outline information or situation in Chinese in task presentation in teaching practice.

However, compared to literature and academic writing, the present situation in task presentation in the teaching of EPPW in China is much different because many genres have its own fixed format and patterns (e.g. report, memo, etc.), some even have fixed expressions (contract, certificate, etc.). Therefore, they are less space left to the author to compose freely. Therefore, in teaching practice most such tasks are designed as writing on specific situation (by either pictures or charts or text). Investigation shows that there are three modes of task presentation used in the teaching practice now: one is in full Chinese text version (hereinafter referred as FC, see sample 1) -that is to present a detailed Chinese version of a specific genre, all the students need to do is to convert or translate the information provided; another is in Chinese context-situation (hereinafter referred as CS, see sample 2)- providing an Chinese situation or information of the target assignment in outline and requirements, and the students must generate and organize their own thought to convey the main points provided in order to meet the needs; the third one is in English context-situation (hereinafter referred as ES, see sample 3)- providing an situation or information of the target assignment in English other than Chinese compared to CS. Little attention was paid to the effect of modes of task presentation on writing performance due to the complexity and diversity of teaching content, approach, facilities and level of teachers and learners.

C. The Research Questions

Based on all the above, this study intends to focus on the effectiveness of the modes of task presentation on the level of composition. The following questions were then proposed:
- Does the mode of task presentation influence the writing performance?
- If so, which one is more effective?

- From the teacher's point of view, what other aspect of task presentation can be improved to enhance writing performance?

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

This study employs a combination of survey and discourse evaluation to measure the modes of task presentation on the effectiveness of writing performance for Chinese EFL leaner's. The sample for the study consist 110 college sophomore, 7 (6.4%) males and 103 (93.6%) females, majoring in Business English in Hunan International Business Vocational College. The age of the participants ranges from 19 to 21 with an average age of 20.3. All of them have acquired at least grade A and above in PRETCO (Practical English Test for Colleges in China), so they can be categorized into competent or modest English learners in Chinese college students at the same level. They are assigned to 3 classes randomly: there are 39 students in class FC with 37 females and 2 males; 36 students in class CS with 33 females and 3 males; 35 students in class ES with 33 females and 2 males. The same series of teaching materials are used in all of these classes. Moreover, to avoid variation in teachers, the same teacher (the author) is in charge of the instruction of writing for the three classes alternatively.

B. Research Design

The research consists of two parts: discourse observation and questionnaire. Three genres of paperwork in various level of complexity are chosen in the research: a notice of sales promotion- representative of high level of complexity, letter of introduction- representative of low level of complexity, and memo- representative of medium level of complexity. The afore-cited three modes of task presentation are utilized: in FC (see sample 1) - providing a Chinese version of the target assignment; in CS (see sample 2) - providing a Chinese situation and in ES (see sample 3) - providing an English situation. Each mode is implemented in different class in order to collect comparative data. All the composition are required to be finished in limited time from 45 minutes to 30 minutes in class and hand in when time is over without hesitation in order to check the real state of level-very similar to a composition test. After class, the discourses are evaluated using an analytic scoring scale developed by the author. Simultaneously a questionnaire on the effectiveness of the above-mentioned modes is carrying out.

SAMPLE 1 TASK PRESENTATION IN FC OF NOTICE

开业酬宾启事

主营家用电器的ABC连锁超市定于明日（11月8日）开业，开业头三天所有商品一律八折，免费为所有顾客办理会员卡，前300名顾客送100元现金券，零消费可参加10万金砖抽奖。购买冰箱、洗衣机、空调、彩电、厨卫指定型号满1000元返150元起。购家电套餐可立减500-3000元，满6666即送32寸液晶(mplife,2013)。大型货物市内免费送货上门。

欢迎广大新老客户光临惠顾！

超市地址：XX市XX区XX路26号

联系电话：6665533

ABC连锁超市有限公司

11月7日

SAMPLE 2 TASK PRESENTATION IN CS OF NOTICE

请按下列提示，写一则启事。

主营家用电器的ABC连锁超市定于明日（11月8日）开业。为答谢各界的厚爱，特在开业头三天推出以下酬宾活动：所有商品一律八折，免费为所有顾客办理会员卡，来就送100元现金券（前300名），零消费抽10万金砖大奖；购买冰箱、洗衣机、空调、彩电、厨卫指定型号满1000元返150元起；购家电套餐，可立减500-3000元，满6666即送32寸液晶(ibid)；大型货物市内免费送货上门。

超市地址：XX市XX区XX路26号

联系电话：6665533

要求：1. 要写成意思连贯的不少于150字的启事。

2. 用自己熟悉的句子将要点表达清楚即可，不可逐词翻译。

Sample 3 Task presentation in context-situation in English of notice

SAMPLE 3 TASK PRESENTATION IN ES OF NOTICE

Name of the chain store: xxx Branch Store of ABC chain store Co., Ltd.

Reason for special offer: New opening of a chain store

Special Offer: 20% reduction for all goods; free membership card; 100 yuan cash vouchers

(first 300 customers), lucky draw program of 100,000 BRIC Award for zero consumption;

refund by 150 yuan over 1,000 yuan in specific model of refrigerators, washing machines,

air conditioning, color TV, kitchen; refund up by 500-3000 yuan in appliance package,

free 32-inch LCD for total price over 6,666 yuan; free delivery to door of large items within

urban area.

Activity Time: at first three days, from Nov. 8- Nov. 10

Address: 26, xxx Road , xxx district, xxx city.

Telephone: 6665533

C.   Procedures

The experiment was carried out in the normal classroom teaching in the 4th semester of Business English majors. The subjects had the same course book and followed the same syllabus. The experiment took up 18 class hours. That is, according to the arrangement of 4 hours of writing classes a week, the experiment lasted 4.5 weeks. Before the experiment, the subjects` scores of the writing section of CET-4 were analyzed through SPSS 16.0 and no distinctive difference was found among those three classes.

In experiment, the author gave instructions to the three classes in line with the procedures stipulated in literature review (see figure 1) almost the same way except various modes of task presentation and instructions on how to deal with it in different class. After discussing and analyzing the target task and feature of a specific genre, the students were required to compose the text in 30-45 minutes in class. The post task teaching activities were implemented as usual, and the final revised version of each task and its assessment was not in consideration of the experiment but served as a reference of the subjects` behavior grade of this course. Therefore, what I analyzed in this study is the draft of each task, not the final version.

D.   Data Collection and Analysis

The students` compositions were assessed by using a writing scale that was designed by the researcher based on a text analysis of the participants' writing samples in class. The rating involves four equally weighted subscales: 1) task achievement (content relevance), 2) coherence and cohesion, 3) grammar and spelling, and 4) language (appropriate use of vocabulary) (see Appendix 1) - it is the modified version of criteria of CET-4. After the participants completed 3 pieces of paperwork writing in their portfolio collection, a t test was used to compare the participants' scores in three groups of each genre to see if there was any significant difference among the three sets of scores (Chou, Mu-hsuan,2012).

In order to further the research , after experiment, I provided all three modes of the task presentation at the same time in teaching practice of three other genres such as "report, agenda and minutes" and ask the subject to choose one of them. Then a questionnaire focusing on the effectiveness of mode was given out in Chinese to the participants. The questions were the following: 1) which mode do you prefer in practice, why? 2) What do you think it is the most difficult thing you encounter in composition in previous experiment:① to convey ideas concisely, ②to organize the text well or ③to deal with language points? 3) Do you think the given time for each task in class in previous experiment is ① enough, ②nearly enough or ③not enough? The responses were collected, classified into similar categories, and then analyzed.

V.   MAIN FINDINGS

A.   The Questionnaire

110 questionnaires were distributed and 90 were received. The statistics to question 1 reveals 56% subjects prefer ES, 18% prefer CS and 26% prefer FC; Main reason for their choice of ES is as follows: it can greatly reduce the language difficulties; it provides an authentic environment in English; it leaves larger space for the author to convey his or her ideas. The statistics to question 2 and 3 shows different modes bring different result (see table 1). So it can be drawn that the task presented in English situation can reduce both the difficulty of the writing and the student's anxiety, hence it help the students develop confidence and a greater willingness to write. Therefore, ES is more beneficial than the other two in teaching practice.

TABLE 1
RESULT OF QUESTIONNAIRE

	Question 2(%)			Question 3(%)		
	①	②	③	①	②	③
C(FC)	58	10	42	27	36	37
C(CS)	47	13	40	31	35	34
C(ES)	27	35	38	48	24	24

B. Discourse Observation

TABLE 2
STATISTICAL DESCRIPTION AND T-TEST RESULT OF THE THREE CLASSES IN THREE GENRES

Complexity (level)	Genre	Class type	Number	Mean/SD	Compared Class types	DF	T values/ p values
High	notice	FC	39	56.69/11.476	FC V.S. ES	72	-3.842 / 0.000
		ES	35	68.17/14.195	FC V.S. CS	73	-0.945 / 0.348
		CS	36	59.25/11.960	ES V.S. CS	69	2.867/0.005
Low	letter	FC	39	70.69/8.733	FC V.S. ES	72	-4.285/0.000
		ES	35	79.54/9.024	FC V.S. CS	73	-2.887/0.005
		CS	36	76.17/7.588	ES V.S. CS	69	1.708/0.092
Medium	memo	FC	39	68.08/9.535	FC V.S. ES	72	-4.361/0.000
		ES	35	77.66/9.321	FC V.S. CS	73	-2.664/0.009
		CS	36	73.72/8.753	ES V.S. CS	69	1.834/0.071

The data is analyzed through SPSS 16.0 and the statistical description and T-test result of the three classes in three genres states in Table 2. We visibly notice that there is distinctive difference between the writing performances of group FC and ES in all three pairs of samples; there is also distinctive difference between group FC and ES in LETTER and MEMO; distinctive difference between group ES and CS is only found in NOTICE. Although it can be concluded that the difference between the mean of group ES and CS in LETTER and MEMO as well as the mean of group FC and CS in NOTICE is not significant, integrating the mean in all three pairs of samples and results of questionnaires, it can be observed that ES and CS (context-situation mode) is more effective in writing performance and ES outperforms CS.

This analysis of the result shows: context-situation mode is better in enhancing the overall level of composition than full Chinese version, and ES is more beneficial than CS in writing performance. Given the fact that many researches show the utmost shortcoming of Chinese EFL learns` writing inefficiency lies in textual level other than sentence level and grammatical level. It can be recommended in teaching practice of EFL writing, task presentation in English situation is the first choice in arousing the learner's confidence and learning interest, and task presentation in Chinese situation is the second, full Chinese version is the last one.

VI. CONCLUSION

The acquisition of writing proficiency is often perceived as one of the most challenging and difficult skills in EFL contexts. Many prevailing circumstance and different opinions on the solution to low-efficiency of writing teaching attract further investigation and debate of its practical effectiveness. All the general overview of this research is presented in this part.

A. Summary of the Research

This research aims to investigate the effectiveness of three common modes of task presentation based on the framework of task-based language teaching on writing performance in the teaching practice of EPPW in a Chinese context. Contrastive analysis of qualitative and quantitative data reveals the following facts: the mode of task presentation has correlation to writing performance; among the subject 3 modes, ES has the most positive effect on the writing performance. Nevertheless, up to now, nearly all the task presented in textbook or large-scale exam of EFL writing in China is either in FC or SC, so the present study may help us reconsider the necessity of shifting our usual modes of task presentation in teaching practice and exam to ES in order to enhance the students` writing competence.

B. Limitation of the Research

This research tries to investigate the effectiveness of the task presentations on the writing performance of Chinese EFL learners in EPPW. The reliability of the findings of this research is limited for the following reasons: Firstly, the experimental contend is in narrow range- only taking the practical paperwork into account other than other types of texts such as academic one. Secondly, the subjects of this experiment lack variety, they all come from the same major and college. Thirdly, numerous factors can affect the teaching effect. Fourthly, this research narrows the total scores of the composition as index, which cannot be equal to writing performance or competence. Therefore, further investigation should base on larger variety of subjects and genres, more detailed analyses of correlation of various factors. Moreover, the cognitive or psychological effect of task presentation can be taken into account as well.

APPENDIX 1.   ANALYTIC SCORING SCALE

Task achievement (content)	
20~25	All contents points elaborated without irrelevant or missing information; meet text type requirement.
14~19	Most contents points elaborated; some important information was missing or irrelevant to the content; some inconsistencies in text type requirement.
8~13	Some contents points elaborated; a lot of information was missing or irrelevant, which resulted in insufficient word length (less than half of the word length); many inconsistencies in text type requirement.
2~7	Major information was irrelevant to the task, or insufficient word length (less than one third of the word length).
0~1	The text was neither informative nor relevant.
Coherence and cohesion	
20~25	Transitions were used appropriately; ideas were well-connected; communication was effective.
14~19	A few transitions were used inappropriately, but the ideas were understandable.
8~13	Limited transitions; ideas were not well-connected and subject to misunderstanding.
2~7	Incorrect transitions which led to misunderstanding.
0~1	No coherence at all; sentences were fragmented; or transition was absent.
Grammar and Spelling	
20~25	Wide range of structure; almost no grammatical mistake.
14~19	Good range of structure; minor grammatical inaccuracy that hindered the understanding at lexical level.
8~13	Limited range of structure; Major grammatical inaccuracy that hindered the understanding at syntactic and semantic levels.
2~7	No range of structure; Frequent grammatical mistakes including major and minor inaccuracies.
0~1	Almost all grammatical patterns were inaccurate or no assessable language.
Language	
20~25	Wide range of vocabulary appropriate to its meaning and purpose; no signs of plagiarism.
14~19	Minor inadequacies of vocabulary appropriateness; no signs of plagiarism.
8~13	Moderate inadequacies of vocabulary appropriateness; or minor plagiarism.
2~7	Major inadequacies of vocabulary appropriateness; or excessive plagiarism.
0~1	Almost scatter vocabulary; no assessable language.

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Further Exploration of the Thought of Self-reliance with the Concept of Compensation and Vocation

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Abstract—**Ralph Waldo Emerson is a theorist of active self-reliance as the search for power and the energy; he is also a theorist of compensation. This is a complex idea on Emerson's version. The most relevant aspect of it for the way of life is compensation as the fate that must be endured by an actively self-reliant individual prone to repeated efforts of ever more ample self-definition. The net result of the law of compensation is that the adventurous or experimental person is overtaken. He or she is encircled, limited, thrown back. From one perspective, there is no progress, no ascendant movement, no breaking out. If what is circular is compensatory, it is not progressive.**

Index Terms—**self-reliance, individualism, compensation, vocation**

I. A COMPLEX IDEA OF SELF-RELIANCE--COMPENSATION

A. *The Theory of Compensation Reassuring that Every Wrong Done Is Paid for*

In *Compensation*, Emerson struggles to put forth the moral idea of compensation. Its preponderant effect is a qualification of his exuberance, even though it also attempts to convert despair into hope. Emerson includes within the theory of compensation the reassurance that every wrong done is paid for, just as every is rewarded, and every unlucky disadvantage has a corresponding strength. The world is a compensatory economy of inflexible justice. "Justice is not postponed. A perfect equity adjusts its balance in all parts of life" (Emerson, 1979, p.58). "Retribution is scarcely distinguishable from being. There is a crack in everything God has made" (Emerson, 1979, p.58). Yet at the same time, there is "the deep remedial force that underlies all facts" (Emerson, 1979, p.60). Emerson brings his point home in the language of business when he speaks of the subtle and inextricable compensation that attaches to property: "Everything God hath made has the two faces. Every cent in a dollar covers its worth and also covers its evil if so much property, then so much risk, if so much power, then so much danger, if so much revenue, then so much tax. All property must and will pay its tax. If it comes not by fair means, then it comes by foul."(Emerson, 1983, p.163)

The more pressing truth, the devastating truth, however, is that "line in nature is not found" (Emerson, 1979, p.62). Good turns into evil, or every gain is a loss. "Eternal compensation" means that every good thing has a "dark side" (Emerson, 1979, p.63). The nature of things is that "the varieties of condition tend to equalize themselves. There is always some leveling circumstance that puts down the overbearing, the strong, the rich, the fortunate, substantially on the same ground with all others." (Emerson, 1979, p.63)

This is a teaching of futility, or almost is. The futility here is not that which Emerson takes up in Experience, namely the frustration involved in attempting to touched experience and be experienced. Rather the effort to surpass oneself constantly, the effort to discover always new powers in oneself and to remain unpredictable to oneself, may lead one into self-repetition. It seems that progressive indefiniteness may only be a lifelong recurrence of the same, of going around in a circle. Defeat awaits every exertion, because every exertion has something inaccurate, excessive, in it "Every excess causes a defect, every defect causes excess" (Emerson, 1979, p.66). The circle of defect and excess seems close. Audacity is born to fail. Experimentation tends to the presumptuous because it is entwined with self-ignorance. The failure lies not only in natural impermanence but also in irresistible self-condemnation. Really, the will to succeed encloses a will to fail, and not only because one grows impatient with success. Even in *Circles*, Emerson points to the underside of the will to succeed: "The great moments of history are the facilitator of performance through the strength of ideas, as the works of genius and religion. 'A man,' said Oliver Cromwell, 'never rises so high as when he knows not whither he is going. Dreams and drunkenness, the use of opium and alcohol are the semblance and counterfeit of this oracular genius, and hence their dangerous attraction for men. For the like reason they ask the aid of wild passions, as in gaming and war, to ape in some manner these flames and generosities of the heart.'" (Emerson, 1979, p.414)

These words come right after the great sentence on abandonment and conclude the essay. But I find that they almost cancel the preceding celebration. The line between inspired abandonment and mere delirium is made faint. The circumstance to which Emerson points in order to explain the setbacks of exceptional exertion may finally be as much inside the person as in the constitution of the universe. Anyway, experimentation can become exhausting. Indefiniteness

may be too great a burden, or the wrong kind of burden, for the actively self-reliant individual to carry. The likely result, much more often than not, would be to find oneself lost in semblances and counterfeits of enlarging movement, with wild passions only aping the sincerity of self-pursuit. Why make yourself the work of your life? Why not make work the life of yourself? These questions are force on us by Emerson's theory of compensation, but may not be answered by it.

B.   Individual's Life Should Have Periods or Moods of Abandonment

No matter what one may say, however, about the precariousness of Emerson's commitment to the idea of active self-reliance as indefinite motion outwards, as change in the boundaries of identity, it is not rejected. And individual's life should have periods or moods of abandonment. Abandonment is best when fitful-then one is truly overcome. But Emerson has yet another idea of active self-reliance that I think he ranks higher than this one—in fact, ranks as the highest one of all in his writings: the idea of active self-reliance as finding and doing one's work. To be who you are is to pursue not an endless experiment but your vocation: "In pursuing one's vocation, one most certainly acts as an individual, as oneself, and also makes the greatest contribution to others, even if not always or not even usually mindful of one's work as a contribution, but rather thinking that in caring for one's work, one is caring for oneself as an object worthy of care, and caring for oneself nonegotistically. Let it be said that Emerson lived life as vocation: he remained as true to his vocation as anyone could desire while refusing experiments in living." (Kateb, 1995, p. 180)

One's work comes out of a purposive but not experimental or adventurous unfolding of one's powers. "By doing his own work he unfolds himself" (Emerson, 1979, p.78). Powers should be concentrated in the work one does. One stays with one's work; one does not abandon it after finding it, though abandonment to it is essential to performance. In doing one's work, one goes some way toward uniting what is most deeply present in oneself with what is most resistantly present in the world, while constantly being aware of the difference and the distance between oneself and the world. "The world is inchoate until one works on it human exertion is needed to make the world known; the world responds to the effort; and powers or limits" (Emerson, 1973, p.113). One's work is one's double, not as a friend or lover is or maybe, but as a deliberate externalization. Emerson says "The common experience is that the man fits himself as well as he can to the customary details of that work or trades he falls into, and tends it as a dog turns a spit. Then it he a part of the machine he moves; the man is lost. Until he can manage to communicate himself to others in his full stature and proportion, he does not yet find his vocation." (Emerson, 1979, p. 81-82)

Self-reliant individuals cannot be moved by their machine. They must be self-moved, and thus move in their own direction until they find their work to do. Society may set up constraints to self-choice in occupations, and then be, for a while, insensitive to the results of one's effort. "The shame is that the world is full of involuntary work and hence waste and routine" (Emerson, 1973, p.114). But some are lucky and face the difficulties of vocation. By "doing his work he makes the need felt which he can supply and creates the tasted by which he is enjoyed" (Emerson, 1979, p.84). Persistence is necessary. Emerson is aware that temporary defections from one's work are likely. In a general formulation that appears in his discussion of vacation, he says: "We side with the hero, as well read or paint, against the coward and the robber; but we have been ourselves that coward and robber, and shall be again --- not in the low circumstances, but in comparison with the grandeurs possible to the soul" (Emerson, 1979, p.84). If determination is needed to find one's vocation and remain with it, the rewards are immense. One shares the attribute of what Emerson calls the "Supreme Cause", namely, self-existence; no one is literally self-authored. One's being is transmitted, returning to oneself as oneself, even though no result, perhaps, is ever good enough in itself or adequate to express the mere fact of the ability to do work and create what did not exist before. Emerson says: "Self-existence is the attribute of the Supreme Cause, and it constitutes the measure of good by the degree in which it enters into all lower forms. All things real are so by so much virtue as they contain. Commerce, husbandry, hunting, whaling, war, eloquence, personal weight, are somewhat, and engage my respect as examples of its presence and impure action." (Emerson, 1979, p.42)

II.   ANOTHER COMPLEX IDEA OF SELF-RELIANCE--VOCATION

A.   The Idea of Vocation--The Highest Form of Practical Self-reliant Activity

Emerson says in *Spiritual Laws* that "Every man has this call of power to do somewhat unique, and no man has any other call" (1979, p.87). He tries to persuade his audience that each of us has something to do that is worth doing, and that if we do not do it, we die. Doing one's work until the end is the only linear forward movement; it is courage undamaged by the laws of compensation, unlike the audacities of immeasurable credulity inherent in always trying to draw a greater circle than the last one. "There is no tax on the good of virtue" (Emerson, 1979, p.68). The immense cost of doing one's own work counts for nothing because no price can be placed on being oneself.

The idea of vocation is therefore the highest form of practical self-reliant activity. Work is one's work but ones' work is also work on the self. Work exceeds the play, if you will, magnificently urged in *Circles*. And it is free of the contaminations of egotism or its simulacrum that afflict the projects of pursuing wealth and political power and social standing. I do acknowledge, however, that Emerson sometimes depicts these worldly pursuits also as vocations. But his characterizations of one's vocation as the work that emerges out of one's uniqueness do not typically correspond to worldly exertions, which are impure or low, or ruled by the world's discipline. What then are the best vocations?

Emerson blends divinity and humanity, divine creation and human works, celebration and discontent, in a few lines.

Thus, as with God, an individual's performance never ideally represents the performer. Yet if Emerson is to satisfy himself that self-reliance can show itself in enactment, then vocation, thought apparently always "impure action" (Emerson,1979, p.416), is the best way.

A person's vocation is the work that one can do well or do better than others can, or it is the work that no one else can do. Emerson's formulations vary. "There is one direction to every man in which unlimited space is open to him. He finds obstruction an all sides but one" (Emerson, 1972, p.1003). At the same time, he seems insistent that there is something to do that best suits each of us. What is best for us is therefore best for our work. "Society can never prosper," Emerson says, "but must always be bankrupt, until every man does that which he was created to do" (Emerson, 1972, p.1003). And neither can the individual prosper. Unless one does the right work one would not attain the human status. Persons must have a conscious feeling of their necessity if their existence is to be justified in their own eyes. Again, it is not that they must feel useful to others. That sentiment would only make them into instruments. Nor is it the case that their work must directly contribute to the world's welfare. But it must be work free of triviality. "Whatever games are played with us, we must play no games with ourselves" (Emerson, 1972, p.1122).

One must not let one's forces be scattered. By concentration one becomes distinctive. If the doctrine, the doctrine of vocation, entails that narrowness is necessarily involved in concentration, and that concentration surpasses continuous experimentation. Concentration is the best transmutation of one's incurable limitedness of sensibility and capacity to experience. "If you ask what compensation is made for the inevitable narrowness, why, this, that in learning one thing well you learn all things" (Emerson,1973, p.51). Though each person is "a partialist" (Emerson, 1973, p.51) in doing what he or she does through a "self-conceit" (Emerson, 1973, p.51), every person is also justified in such individuality because each is of an immense nature. "And now I add," Emerson says, "that every man is a universe also" (Emerson, 1973, p.51). "As our earth, whilst it spins on its own axis, spins all the time around the sun through the celestial spaces, so the least of its rational children, the most dedicated to his private affair, works out, though as it were under a disguise, the universal problem" (Emerson, 1983, p.214-215).

No account of Emerson's idea of vocation can, however, omit mention of the striking reflection on the division of labor in *The American Scholar*. It is not so much a counterweight to the idea of vocation as a reminder that, after all, contrary to the reassurances given, narrowness is narrowness. Emerson admires versatility because the division of labor has become so special that "if anything gets out of order," the workman is "helpless to repair it" (Emerson, 1975, p.48). "Now that the machine is so perfect, the engineer is nobody" (Emerson, 1975, p.49). An ancient fable instructs us, he says, that originally there was Man, not men, but the gods divided Man into men so that "he might be more helpful to himself." Now "You must take the whole society to find the whole man" (Emerson, 1975, p.53-54).

How does each one of us become whole again, become Man doing this or that, rather than remain an embodied function? Emerson does not give us an answer. Only when each of us is thinking is each of us Man. To be a professional thinker, however, is not the same as having the vocation of the hope that a worker in the world will, b an act of reconception, give "an ideal worth to his work" (Emerson, 1975, p.54) and not be "ridden by the routine of his craft" (Emerson, 1975, p.54) or allow his soul to be "subject to dollars" (Emerson, 1975, p.54)

The narrowness of one's work, in any case, reflects the fact that a person's very uniqueness or genius – the peculiar quality that differences him from every other – is "a selecting principle" (Emerson, 1975, p.57). Emerson refers to "that mysterious emphasis" (Emerson, 1975, p.57) that each person places on all events and situations and hence on his memory, and that "quite without any effort of his will" (Emerson, 1975, p.57) determines the choices of his life.

Notice that the work is dear to God, which can be another way of saying that the standard of usefulness is not directly social or even moral. The work contributes to preserving the sense of the world's possibilities, and it is a manifestation of what any one human being s capable of. Beyond that lies the simple principle, individualistic and not quiet egotistical notion that from doing work for its own sake one will derive a supreme pleasure. Emerson makes his point in two rhetorical questions: "is there no loving of knowledge, and of art, and of our design, for itself alone? Cannot we please ourselves with performing our work, or gaining truth and power, without being praised for it?" (Emerson, 1972, p.294)

B.   The Basis of Emerson's View of Vocation--Allowing One to Live Properly with Oneself

The basis of Emerson's view of vocation, as already indicated, is that every individual is unique. It is one's uniqueness that makes one indispensable to others, and irreplaceable, simultaneously allowing one to live properly with oneself. From one's uniqueness as an individual flows the uniqueness of one's work. Emerson formulates our newness in this way: "Every man, with whatever family resemblances, has a new countenance, new manner, new voice, new thoughts, and new character. Whilst he shares with all mankind the gift of reason, and the moral sentiment, there is a teaching for him from within, which is leading him in a new path, and, the ore it is trusted, separates and signalizes him, while it makes him more important and necessary to society. We call this specialty the bias of each individual. And none of us will ever accomplish anything excellent or commanding except when he listens to this whisper, which is heard by him alone." (Emerson, 1983, p 356-357)

The wise man ever finds himself conscious of knowing nothing but being just ready to begin to know. He is as if just born and ready to ask the first question. It is only when we persist in our work that we disclose our originality. "But there remains the indefeasible persistency of the individual to be himself. Every mind is different and the more it is unfolded, the more pronounced is that difference, and what is originality? It is being one's self, and reporting accurately what we see and are." (Emerson, 1983, p.360)

Emerson is trying to democratize greatness: "Greatness, -- what is it? Is there not some injury to us, some insult in the word? What we commonly call greatness is only such in our barbarous or infant experience" (Emerson, 1983, p.362)

The truly great are not the famous warriors. Greatness is faith in one's uniqueness; such faith is self-respect is the early form in which greatness appears" (Emerson, 1983, p.363). I must point out that whereas mental self-reliance requires only being "a guest" in one's own thought, active self-reliance in the form of vocation requires one to be at home with oneself. This difference of imperatives is another indication of the superiority of mental to active self-reliance.

It is hard to infer Emerson's meaning. "The soul," he says, "strives remain to live and work through all things. It would be the only fact" (Emerson, 1979, p.69). At the limit, this means that one transforms the world by one's activity in it. One remakes it in one's image. Who has come closest to doing so? Emerson's answer seems to be Jesus, though he does not name him in this context. About the life of Jesus, he says, "This great defeat is hitherto our highest fact." But Emerson contends, "the mind requires a victory to senses" (Emerson, 1979, p.69). Force of character would convert "judge, jury, soldier and king" (Emerson, 1979, p.69). But such strength not even Jesus had. What then? Emerson gives the prize to Jesus, nevertheless. "When that love which is all-suffering, all-abstaining, all-inspiring, which has vowed to itself that it will be a wretch and also a fool in this world sooner than soil its white hands by compliances, comes into our streets and house—only the pure and aspiring can know its face, and the only compliment they can pay it is to own it." (Emerson, 1971, p.32)

Jesus is the model of faithfulness in vocation, but he is hardly a model any of us can expect to follow, not because he is divine but because he is humanly perfect, not all-too-human. That aspect, too, is part of his defeat. Perhaps Emerson's teaching is that defeat is the inescapable destiny of activity in the world? No, that is not what he wants us to take as his final meaning, though it maybe what he feels. He says: "My work may be of none, but I must not think it of none, or I shall not do it with impunity. In like manner, there is throughout nature something mocking, something that leads us on and on, but arrives nowhere, keeps no faith with us. All promise outruns the performance." (Emerson, 1971, p.33-34)

It is hard to say what Emerson leaves for self-reliant work, given this radical dissatisfaction. What does it mean for a person to be all here?

The trouble is that his descriptions of vocation usually seem to make the most sense when they are read as referring to mental activity, which was Emerson's own vocation. Individual uniqueness is one's special power to see and to say; it is a power of observation and distillation. It is as if true expressiveness could only be mental, and what one expresses is not oneself but the world in which one finds oneself. We exist to produce the best possible sentences, to say the world as unegotistically or impersonally as possible; yet inevitably, and desirably, each one is new and meets the new. What we express comes out as a perspective. Each one of us has "some incommunicable sagacity" (Emerson, 1973, p.32). The incommunicable must inform the communicated.

I know that it may be exasperating to keep returning to mental activity as the only real domain of self-reliance. But I think that this is the point Emerson always makes in many different ways. Everyone's vocation is to philosophize. Nothing is like it. The gulf between success in thinking and success in doing is vast because the world is too hard for self-reliance to be shown with much success in anything but mental activity; yet the world is, of course, inconceivably wondrous and hence worth the exertions, which self-reliant mental activity makes, to receive and affirm it, and to do so being aware of its uncorrectable imperfections. But I do not intend to efface the significance for Emerson of active self-reliance. The temptation to efface it must be resisted by us just as strenuously as Emerson tries to resist it. Many kinds of engagement with the world certainly do show traces and more than traces of the qualities he thinks proper to self-reliant individuals. And the best activities will be those that the more they are pursued as vocations the more gratifying they become. They are the most real to the self and help to make the self feel most real.

I propose that mental self-reliance – thinking one's thoughts and thinking them through in the modes of perception, contemplation, and retrospection – is the model of active self-reliance. Acting self-reliantly is analogous to thinking self-reliantly. The link comes from the idea that thinking is close to prayer, is like prayer. But action can also be like prayer. In *Self-reliance,* Emerson says that it is open to us to see "prayer in all action" (Emerson, 1979, p.47). The prayer of the farmer kneeling in his field to weed it, the prayer of the rower kneeling with the stroke of his oar, are true prayers heard throughout nature, though for cheap ends" (Emerson, 1979, p.48). I here make use of this formulation, cited before, to suggest that any activity, any work, when done like prayer – when done after the model of concentrated self-reliant thinking – can be a vocation, even if it has no philosophical thinking in it, even if the thinking it contains is only practical thinking, even if it is done for meaningless ends. Similarly, any work can be done poetically. In words to which I have also already referred, Emerson suggests that any craft or trade can be "handled poetically" (Emerson, 1983, p.168), which means that the worker stands superior to facts and masters them, rather than "apprehending them through a sense of their beauty" (Emerson, 1983, p.168). Doing one's own works on and cares for oneself just by working for the sake of the work. One's work becomes oneself.

Finally, perhaps Emerson's suggestion is that one's ideal vocation is to build one's character and remain true to it for as long as possible. This work on the self does not proceed by continuous experiment or adventure but by an ever more intense search for integrity. "Be what your are" (Emerson, 1972, p.1122) is a precept of self-consistency amid tremendous resistances and obstacles, both in finding oneself and keeping oneself. The precept means that one should

try to be "what cannot be skipped, or dissipated, or undermined" (Emerson, 1972, p.1122). If one is oneself and not a socially constructed collage, one's uniqueness is revealed. At the same time, one stands for something. The world always needs examples of integrity. In seeing character as vocation, we avoid excessive intellectualism and we also repel delusions about the chances of an objective, substantive, monumental achievement that is truly one's own. One's character may show itself in any particular activity that one chooses or is driven to take up as especially appropriate for ones unfolding in one's specific vocation. Work exists for the self, provided the work is done for its own sake and on its own best terms; but the self exists for more than work. One's character is one's manner of being, one's continuous style. To work on it is to refuse to think that one just exists, like a rose in bloom. One must work to persist as oneself. One neither invites nor declines challenge to one's integrity. Identity is discipline. One takes the world seriously by taking oneself seriously. One wants to be the best one can. One's character is an offering to the world in the sense that an example of self-search and self-finding is being presented. To interpret Emerson I can do no better than quote a passage from an interview Foucault gave a few months before his death. "Let us take for example Socrates. He is truly the man who cares for others. That is the particular position often philosopher. But let us say it simply: in the case of the free man, I think one can say that the Greek who cares for himself should first of all care for others. One must not have the care of others precede the care for the self. The care of self takes moral, precedence in the measure that the relationship to self takes ontological precedence. (Howe, 1986, p.7)

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The Impact of Two Types of Vocabulary Preparation on Listening Comprehension, Vocabulary Learning, and Vocabulary Learning Strategy Use

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Abstract—Considering previous studies of the impact of vocabulary preparation before listening comprehension, this research investigated the impact of oral and written pushed output as two types of vocabulary preparation on listening comprehension, active and passive vocabulary learning, and vocabulary learning strategy use. Forty-one female adult Iranian EFL students at intermediate level participated in this study. As a treatment, they received two lists of new words which were learned separately through oral and written pushed output. This was followed by tests of active and passive vocabulary and listening comprehension. They also completed a vocabulary learning questionnaire before and after the treatment to detect any changes due to the treatment. We reached three pairs of scores for each participant including two active and two passive vocabulary test scores and two listening test scores for words treated through oral and written pushed output, separately. Statistical analyses indicated that vocabulary learning through oral pushed output was more effective in promoting listening comprehension and active vocabulary learning than vocabulary learning through written pushed output. Generally, vocabulary leaning through pushed output had a positive significant effect on vocabulary leaning strategy use. However, regarding passive vocabulary learning, the two types of treatment did not make any significant difference.

Index Terms—oral pushed output, written pushed output, vocabulary learning strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

In the past, vocabulary teaching and learning were not given much priority in second language programs. It was believed that vocabulary learning could look after itself during learning other language components (Richards & Renandya, 2002). However, the changing overview of the status of vocabulary in language learning was mentioned by Meara (2002) who stated that vocabulary learning has moved a long way from being neglected in SLA to be a crucial component in language learning. The value of vocabulary instruction was also recognized. For instance, Esquiliche Mesa, Bruton, and Ridgway (2007; cited in Lee, 2008) underscored that vocabulary learning makes demands on learners. Therefore, it needs greater teacher's support than other aspects of language learning. Laufer (1998; cited in De la Fuente, 2002) also put emphasis on the importance of vocabulary instruction and the role of teachers in provision of scaffolding. She recognized that learners' passive vocabulary is more developed than their active vocabulary and attributed this to the lack of elicitation exercises. Based on the findings, she claimed that learners should be given exercises and tasks which elicit the newly taught vocabulary items to make them more willing to use new words in their production.

Similar idea which received both support and disagreement is persuading learners to produce vocabulary items or emphasizing the role of output for vocabulary learning. For instance, Nation (1995/96; cited in Richards & Renandya, 2002) stressed that an essential aspect of vocabulary learning is learner's oral and written production. De la Fuente (2002) also refers to a study by Ellis and He (1999) as the first to provide evidence of the usefulness of output production for vocabulary acquisition. They found that learners who benefit output reached higher levels of both receptive and productive vocabulary learning. Henriksen (1999; cited in Lee, 2003) also argued for the importance of providing opportunity for the learners to actively use new words as a way of changing learner's receptive vocabulary into productive one.

However, different studies reached contradictory evidence about the usefulness of oral and written output. With respect to written output, while Barcroft (2004) mentioned the negative effect of sentence writing on vocabulary learning during initial stages of L2 lexical acquisition and Pressley, Levin, and Miller (1982; cited in Barcroft, 2004), and McDaniel and Kearney (1984; cited in Barcroft, 2004) found either no effect or even negative effect for sentence writing, Muncie (2002; cited in Lee, 2003) claimed that writing affects learners' vocabulary learning. Barcroft (2006) also found positive evidence for the impact of sentence writing on vocabulary learning.

Regarding oral pushed output, De la Fuente (2002) concluded that it promotes vocabulary learning and retention. Lee (2003) made reference to a number of L2 studies that supported the effectiveness of promoting phonological memory for vocabulary learning such as Kelly (1992; cited in Lee, 2003) and Hill (1994; cited in Lee, 2003) who put emphasis on oral modeling of pronunciation and Ellis and Beaton (1993; cited in Lee, 2003), and Service and Kohonen (1995; cited in Lee, 2003) who mentioned the importance of repetition aloud. As stated by Nation (2001; cited in Chang, 2007), students should know the spoken form of the word. It means that they should be able to recognize the word when it is heard and be able to produce the form orally to express a meaning. According to Webb (2010), teaching learners the meaning and the pronunciation of the words is of great importance.

While previously mentioned findings demonstrated different viewpoints about oral and written output, Graves (1987; cited in Lawson & Hogben, 1996) stressed the importance of encouraging learners to have personal plans for expanding their vocabulary. It is believed that students learn most of their vocabulary knowledge independently.   Scholars such as Rossini Favretti, Silver, Gasser, and Tamburini (1994; cited in Lawson & Hogben, 1996) endorsed the idea that EFL learners should develop autonomous learning strategies. Gu and Johnson (1996) posited that learners usually use variety of strategies together. They concluded that students adopt different types of strategies either in harmony with their beliefs about vocabulary and vocabulary learning (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Horwitz, 1987; cited in Gu & Johnson, 1996) or on the basis of congnitive and social factors. According to Sanaoui (1995; cited in Gu & Johnson, 1996), what contributes to the outcome of L2 learning is the consistent use of specific types of strategies that forms an approach to vocabulary learning.

At the same time, vocabulary learning is not just important in its own right. As Richards and Renandya put it, nowadays, vocabulary has become an important component in language proficiency because without adequate vocabulary knowledge learners cannot take enough advantage of opportunities around them such as listening to radio, listening to native speakers, and watching television. In fact, vocabulary knowledge determines learners' ability in speaking, listening, reading, and writing (2002). Advocates of vocabulary instruction addressed the effect of vocabulary instruction on developing different skills. In a study conducted by Duin (1983; cited in Lee, 2003), the researcher found that explicit vocabulary instruction leads to greater use of appropriate words in writing which is the result of word awareness. As Lee (2003) mentions, the importance of vocabulary instruction in reading has been emphasized in the literature. However, as Chang (2007), Webb (2010), and Farrokhi and Modarres (2012) pointed out, there is lack of evidence in the area of the effectiveness of providing vocabulary pre-task activities before listening comprehension.

According to Chang (2007), understanding spoken English is certainly not easy for EFL learners. Although their common difficulties include limited vocabulary, fast speech rate, unfamiliar accent, and listening only once (Chang, 2007), as stated by Boyle (1984; cited in Chang, 2007), Chang and Read (2006; cited in Chang, 2007), Goh (2000; Farrokhi and Modarres, 2012), Kelly (1991; Farrokhi and Modarres, 2012), and Rost (1990; Farrokhi and Modarres, 2012), lack of vocabulary is one of the primary reasons for listening difficulties. Regarding the effect of vocabulary preparation on listening comprehension, researchers have reached different results. Some studies have argued for the effectiveness of vocabulary preparation. As an example, Webb (2010) investigated the effect of pre-learning vocabulary items on comprehension of television programs and incidental vocabulary learning through watching television. The result provided evidence in favor of pre-learning vocabulary. Widdowson (1983; cited in Farrokhi & Modarres, 2012) also posited that providing vocabulary items before listening comprehension can compensate for lack of linguistic knowledge. However, other studies such as Chang and Read (2007) and Jensen and Hansen (1995; Farrokhi & Modarres, 2012) doubted the effectiveness of vocabulary preparation.

Because of this conflicting evidence about the usefulness of providing vocabulary support before listening comprehension and also contradictory evidence regarding the usefulness of oral and written output for vocabulary learning, this study investigated the impact of two types of vocabulary preparation by posing the following questions:

1-Is vocabulary learning through oral pushed output more effective than vocabulary learning through written pushed output for improving listening comprehension ability?

2-Is vocabulary learning through oral pushed output more effective than vocabulary learning through written pushed output for active vocabulary learning?

3- Is vocabulary learning through oral pushed output more effective than vocabulary learning through written pushed output for passive vocabulary learning?

4- What is the effect of vocabulary learning through pushed output on vocabulary learning Strategy use?

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants of the study were 41 Iranian EFL students between the ages of 16 to 24. They were female intermediate students studying general English in two different language institutes in Tehran. They were in four different classes taught by four teachers who were also responsible for data gathering procedures. Students participated in this study based on convenience or availability sampling. They were members of the classes that already existed in the institutes. All students who participated in this study underwent both types of treatments.

Instruments

The questionnaire. For eliciting participant's beliefs about vocabulary learning and vocabulary learning strategy use,

a questionnaire based on the Vocabulary Learning Questionnaire (VLQ version 3), which was used in Gu and Johnson's (1996) study, was employed. The questionnaire contained eight major categories each having certain subcategories. Because administrating a questionnaire with 107 items was rather impractical and would probably reduce response validity, we reduced the number of items in the questionnaire by omitting those items that were unrelated to the objectives of this study and would not seem to be affected by the two types of treatments we had. More specifically, items related to dictionary strategies, guessing strategies, and note taking strategies were eliminated. Then, we had a 69-item questionnaire including sixteen subcategories. Because of the proficiency level of the students and in order to enhance the accuracy of the answers, the questionnaire was translated into Farsi. The answers were marked on a Likert scale with five points.

The listening test of homogeneity. Listening test No.4 from Cambridge IELTS 5 was used to check the homogeneity of the group.

Vocabulary checklist test. As a vocabulary pre-test to ensure that target words were unfamiliar to the participants, a vocabulary checklist test was administered. This form of test was used in previous studies by researchers such as Herman, Andersen, and Nagy (1987; cited in Henriksen, 1999), Nagy, Herman, and Andersen (1985; cited in Henriksen, 1999), and Rott (2007). Vocabulary checklist test provided a list of words for participants. The students were supposed to show their knowledge of vocabulary items by providing synonyms or translations for the given vocabulary items.

The active vocabulary test. In this test, students were given sentences with blanks. They were asked to fill in the blanks with suitable words the first letters of which were provided. According to Laufer (1998), the reason for provision of the first letter of the target words is to avoid the elicitation of non-target items which might fit the context of the sentences.

The passive vocabulary test. This test was in the form of matching items including target items and their dictionary definitions. Words were presented in groups of six or seven with three or four definitions in front of them. This form of test was also used in other studies such as Laufer (1998) and Laufer and Paribakht (1998).

The listening test. This test was based on Interchange video activity book by Zemach (2005). In fact, all the target words of this study were drawn from the texts related to the movies in this book. Participants were provided with some excerpts from these texts with blanks. They were supposed to watch the movies and fill in the blanks with target words they hear.

Procedure

Three instruments including the listening test of homogeneity, the questionnaire, and the vocabulary checklist test were used before the treatment. After the treatment, we used active and passive vocabulary tests, the listening test, and the questionnaire. Based on the result of the listening pretest, which was considered the test of homogeneity in our study, we ended up with 41 participants whose scores were within plus and minus two standard deviation of the mean. They formed the only group of participants in this study.

After the homogeneity test was run, we first piloted the questionnaire with 13 participants who had taken the listening homogeneity test and were chosen as our subjects. Students were supposed to answer the items of the questionnaire and circle any item which was unclear to them. Then, the circled items were modified considering some of the students' comments which were elicited in informal subsequent interviews conducted for this purpose.

Before the treatment, we administered the questionnaire to understand the students' initial attitudes toward vocabulary learning and their vocabulary learning strategies. Then, the vocabulary checklist tests were given to the subjects. Students received a list of words chosen from the texts in the Interchange video activity book which was part of their course syllabus. Participants had to demonstrate their knowledge of vocabulary items by providing Farsi translation or English synonym. They could skip the words they didn't know. After this stage, we ended up with 69 target words.

At this point we started the treatment. Target words were divided into two groups, 34 words for oral output group and 35 words for written output group. Each session students were presented with a list of ten words, five from one group and five from another one, accompanied by their dictionary definitions to be studied at home. The following session, they were supposed to make written sentences by the first five words which belonged to the written output group. These sentences were corrected by the teachers and given back to students the subsequent session. They also had to make oral sentences with the next five vocabulary items belonging to the oral output group. In this way, they both produced the items and heard the pronunciation of the items by others. Teachers corrected pronunciation errors.

At the end of the treatment sessions, we administered the tests. The first administered test was the active test because we did not want students to remember the words by looking at the options available in the passive test. In her study, De la Fuente (2002) also used the productive test before the receptive one to avoid a test effect. The active test had 69 fill-in-the-blank sentences including 34 words belonging to the oral output group and 35 words from the written output group. Consequently, we had two sets of scores for the active test which we called active oral output test and active written output test. After the active test, students took the passive test. Again, we had a 69-item test, 34 items of oral pushed output and 35 items of written pushed output. This time we distributed the papers of the exam in five different parts to the students because we did not want them to answer questions by looking at previous items and going through the process of deletion. Teachers were asked to collect each section of the papers when the students finished them and to distribute the next section. Again we arrived at two sets of scores, namely, for the passive oral output test and for the

passive written output test. We administered both tests in one session.

The final test used was the listening test. We had four short movies and their total time was 27 minutes. Teachers were told to play movies twice to keep consistency. After the test, we separated the items of the two vocabulary groups and scored them separately. As a result, we ended up with two different sets of scores for the listening test which we called listening oral output scores and listening written output scores.

As a final step in data collection procedure, participants answered the questionnaire for a second time, but this time based on the ideas they had probably developed after both types of treatments, oral pushed output and written pushed output, to show how pushed output as a treatment generally affected participants' ideas about vocabulary learning and use of related strategies.

The Scoring Procedure and Data Analysis

Each item in the tests, including active, passive, and listening tests, had one point. We decided not to take into account grammatical mistakes. Spelling mistakes were also tolerated as far as they did not replace the word with another word indicating misunderstanding. Finally, we ended up with three pairs of scores for each student which were two active vocabulary scores, two passive vocabulary scores, and two listening test scores.

Paired-samples t-test was used to compare the mean score of the first and the second administration of the questionnaire and also for comparing the mean scores of two sets of the active vocabulary test, the passive vocabulary test, and the listening test.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Research Question 1

The students showed higher mean score on the listening test for the oral pushed output items (M = 21.95) than the items related to vocabulary learned through written pushed output (M = 20.33). The results of the paired-samples t-test, as displayed in Table 1, reveal that the difference between the two means was statistically significant (t (40) = 4.53, P = .000 < .05, r = .58). In fact, it showed a large effect size. The reliability indices (K-R21) for listening oral and listening written tests were .80 and .69, respectively, which were acceptable for a teacher made test.

TABLE 1
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR LISTENING COMPREHENSION

	Paired Differences					t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
LISTENINGORAL – LISTENINGWRITTEN	1.622	2.292	.358	.899	2.346	4.533	40	.000

Research Question 2

The students had higher mean scores on the active vocabulary test for the oral pushed output items (M = 23.15) than the items related to vocabulary learned through written pushed output (M = 21.75). The results depicted in Table 2 indicate that the difference between the two means was statistically significant (t (40) = 3.07, P = .000 < .05, r = .43) and there was a moderate to large effect size. The reliability indices (K-R21) for active oral and active written tests were .84 and .79 respectively which were even higher than listening tests.

TABLE 2
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST ACTIVE VOCABULARY LEARNING

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
ACTIVEORAL – ACTIVEWRITTEN	1.396	2.936	.459	.469	2.323	3.044	40	.004

Research Question 3

The students' had slightly higher mean score on the passive vocabulary test for the written pushed output items (M = 27.97) than the items related to vocabulary learned through oral pushed output (M = 27.37). The results presented in Table 3 show that the difference between the two means is not statistically significant (t (40) = 1.17, P = .240 > .05, r = .18). In fact, it represents a weak effect size. The reliability indices (K-R21) for passive oral and passive written tests were both .83.

TABLE 3
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST PASSIVE VOCABULARY LEARNING

	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
PASSIVEWRITTEN – PASSIVEORAL	.599	3.278	.512	-.436	1.634	1.170	40	.249

Research Question 4

The students showed a slightly higher mean score for the posttest of strategy use (M = 51.48) than the pretest (M = 49.82), indicating more use of strategies by the students after the treatments. The results shown in Table 4 indicate that the difference between the two means was statistically significant (t (40) = 2.52, P = .016< .05, r = .37). It represents a moderate to strong effect size. The reliability indices (Cronbach's Alpha) for questionnaire pre-test and post-test were .692 and .523 respectively.

TABLE 4
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST LEARNING STRATEGY USE

	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pretest of Strategy Use-Posttest of Strategy Use	1.666	4.227	.660	.332	3.000	2.524	40	.016

In order to have a more analytic view of the strategies tapped into in the questionnaire, its sixteen subcategories were separately considered by calculating the differences between the subjects' mean scores on different aspects of vocabulary learning strategy use before and after the treatment. The results are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5
MEAN DIFFERENCES FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRE'S SUBCATEGORIES

Categories	Mean differences
Words should be memorized	.01
Words should be acquired in context	.29
Words should be studied and put to use	-.04
Selective attention	.21
Self-initiation	.21
Using word list	0
Oral repetition	.69
Visual repetition	-.30
Association/Elaboration	.20
Imagery	.07
Visual encoding	.03
Auditory encoding	.51
Word structure	-.42
Semantic encoding	.14
Contextual encoding	-.06
Activation strategies	.20

The results indicate an increase in the mean scores in most of the subcategories after the treatment such *as words should be memorized, words should be acquired in context, selective attention, self-initiation, oral repetition, association, imagery, visual encoding, auditory encoding, semantic encoding,* and *activation strategies.* It seems that participants showed more tendency toward applying these vocabulary learning strategies after the treatment. Among them, oral repetition shows the largest mean difference, followed by *auditory encoding.* The results may be because of participants' tendency toward oral practice of new vocabulary items in the form of repetition and paying more attention to pronunciation. From this group of strategies, the category related to *word memorization* indicates the smallest mean difference, so the treatment caused the minimum degree of improvement for this strategy.

On the other hand, some categories depicted a decrease in their mean scores after the treatment including *words should be studied and put to use, visual repetition, word structure,* and *contextual encoding.* Therefore, it may be true that the treatment changed the participants' viewpoints toward these types of vocabulary learning strategies in a negative way. In this group of strategies, the largest mean difference was found in *word structure* category. The second position belongs to *visual repetition.* As it appears, these two groups of strategies were most affected by the treatment negatively. In this group of strategies, the category of *words should be studied and put to use* had the smallest mean difference. Consequently, it can be said that this strategy was the least affected one by our treatments.

Other noticeable points can be detected. For instance, no change is indicated in *using word list* category. It seems that the treatment did not have any impact on learners' tendency toward this vocabulary learning strategy. Another point is the same mean difference in *selective attention* and *self-initiation* categories. It seems that they were affected by the treatment quite similarly.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The results of analyses indicated that vocabulary learning through oral pushed output was more effective than vocabulary learning through written pushed output in promoting listening comprehension ability and active vocabulary learning. Furthermore, vocabulary learning through pushed output had a statistically significant effect on vocabulary learning strategy use. Although in the majority of the subcategories of strategy use it showed a positive effect, in some

cases a negative effect was detected. However, there was no difference between vocabulary learning through oral pushed output and vocabulary learning through written pushed output in terms of their effect on passive vocabulary learning.

Taking into account the results of the study, we can compare them with other research findings along three lines. The first line can be the impact of providing vocabulary pre-listening activity on listening comprehension ability. The second is the effectiveness of oral and written pushed outputs for vocabulary learning. The last one can be the influence of pushed output on vocabulary learning strategy use.

With respect to the first line, our findings seem to be contrary to some research findings such as Elkhafaifi (2005) who conducted a study to evaluate the impact of pre-listening activities, including vocabulary preview or question preview and repeated listening input on students' listening comprehension scores. The results indicated that although the participants who engaged in either pre-listening activity scored higher than the control group, the participants who received the question preview outperformed those who received the vocabulary preview. Similarly, Berne (1995) underscored that participants who underwent question preview outperformed those who received vocabulary preview activity, but the difference was not found to be significant. She concluded that although vocabulary knowledge is essential for listening, studying vocabulary lists before listening may not be an influential way to improve listening comprehension ability. However, a difference is noticeable between her study and ours. In her study, as she stated, the vocabulary preview activity was passive because the subjects were just asked to read the words and their English equivalents. Consequently, the effectiveness of this activity was reduced. Berne suggested that more engaging vocabulary pre-listening activities such as brainstorming possible English equivalents of the items may be more effective. In our study, we tried to use an engaging vocabulary activity by making learners have oral and written outputs.

In a study by Chang and Read (2006; as cited in Vongpumivitch, 2007), the limited role of vocabulary teaching before listening was verified. They found that giving background knowledge of the topic and repeated input was more effective than giving vocabulary instruction and question preview. In fact, the worst performance belonged to the group who received vocabulary instruction. Therefore, according to Berne (1995), Chang (2005), and Chang and Read (2006), from different forms of support for facilitating listening comprehension, the impact of vocabulary support is less clear (all cited in Chang, 2008). According to Change (2008), the impact of vocabulary support on facilitating listening comprehension was not conclusive.

Following the second line of research which is related to the impact of pushed output on vocabulary learning, there is a dearth of previous research focusing on the impact of either oral or written output on vocabulary learning. Barcroft (2006) mentioned previous studies that led to mixed conclusions about the effects of sentence writing on vocabulary learning such as Coomber et al. (1986; as cited in Barcroft, 2006), Pressley et al. (1982; as cited in Barcroft, 2006), McDaniel and Kearney (1984), Barcroft (1998, 2000, 2004), and Folse (1999). With respect to oral production, research confirms the positive effect of oral practice on vocabulary learning. We can refer to De la Fuente (2002), Speciale et al. (2004), and Hu (2003) in this regard.

In the area of vocabulary learning strategy use, which is the third line of research to be discussed in relation to our findings, Gu and Johnson (1996), who wanted to establish the relationship between Chinese English learners' strategy use and outcomes in learning English in terms of vocabulary size and general proficiency, had findings comparable to the findings of this study. Although one of the focuses of our study was the impact of output on vocabulary learning strategy use, not on vocabulary size, we may be able to assume that participants in our study indicated tendency toward strategies which they found useful for increasing their vocabulary size as well. They found activation strategies and visual repetition as positive and negative predictors of vocabulary size, respectively. We reached similar findings in our research. In fact, our participants' viewpoints about these two types of strategies were positive and negative, respectively. Another point of similarity is the oral repetition strategy. Although Gu and Johnson stated its positive correlation with general proficiency not vocabulary learning, in our research it was one of the vocabulary learning strategies toward which learners had positive attitudes.

On the other hand, some of our results were found to be contrary to Gu and Johnson's (1996) findings. In our study, participants indicated negative attitudes toward word formation strategies and contextual encoding after the treatment, but in Gu and Johnson's study these two types of strategies were positively correlated with vocabulary size.

Based on the results, we can conclude that first, as stated before, there were previous studies which highlighted the ineffectiveness of vocabulary preparation before listening in comparison with other forms of pre-Listening activities. The reason might be the use of vocabulary preview activities which were passive in nature such as giving participants lists of words to study. In our study, the effectiveness of oral pushed output as a vocabulary preparation activity before listening may be due to engaging learners in an active process of oral production and drawing their attention to the sounds of the words through sound production and hearing others' pronunciation. Mastering the sounds of the words may be one of the essential requirements during listening comprehension. Therefore, according to our findings, it may be influential to use a vocabulary pre-listening activity which is not only engaging and active, but also based on production of sounds and pronunciation. On the other hand, the ineffectiveness of written pushed output before listening comprehension can be attributed to different modality and inconformity of written shape of the word and its pronunciation.

Second, the usefulness of oral output for assisting the participants to develop active vocabulary, as supported by achieving higher scores in the active vocabulary test, may be the result of the powerful role of the phonological memory for word learning. Baddeley, Gathercole, and Papagno (1998; cited in Speciale et al., 2004) and Ellis (1996; cited in Speciale et al., 2004) also underscored the essential role of the phonological short-term memory in learning L2 words. Since developing active vocabulary knowledge or activating passive vocabulary has always been desirable, according to our findings, oral pushed output can be a plausible option in language instruction.

Third, participants' lower ability to use the knowledge of the words they gained through oral pushed output in the passive vocabulary test in comparison with the effective role of oral pushed output in active vocabulary learning may show that engaging participants in learning the shape of the word and making them write meaningful sentences without addressing its pronunciation is only useful for developing passive vocabulary knowledge. The reason may be that a passive vocabulary test is a matter of realizing the shape of the words and connecting them to their meaning, so oral modality of output does not seem more effective than its written modality to help learners in a passive vocabulary test. Therefore, applying oral and written output together seems to be a more reasonable procedure in the classroom.

Finally, regarding vocabulary learning strategy use, which was positively affected by output, it seems that output is successful in producing more strategic learners. Therefore, offering ways of vocabulary learning such as output which L2 learners find practical and their effectiveness are found to be obvious by the learners through experience may encourage learners to engage in the process of learning more insightfully and may motivate them to search for and experiment new ways of vocabulary learning. They may be encouraged to be more open-minded and welcoming to the new ways of vocabulary learning. It seems that this study provided further evidence for Swains' (1985) output hypothesis. It may be a good idea to implement pushed output in the classroom due to a number of reasons. For instructors, aside from providing variety in the classroom activities, implementing oral output tasks as a vocabulary pre-listening activity which can contribute to the learners' listening comprehension ability may be motivating for the learners because not reaching the desirable level in listening comprehension in spite of lots of efforts may demotivate learners. Aside from its motivating role, the engaging nature of the activity may convince instructors to decide to replace passive activities, which were found to be ineffective in previous studies, with more engaging activities such as output tasks if they want to provide pre-listening support for the learners. Instructors may also find it useful to accompany oral output with written output to enrich their instructions in order to make them suitable for the development of the learners' active and passive vocabulary knowledge simultaneously.

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Analysis on the Artistic Features and Themes of the Theater of the Absurd

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Abstract—**The Theater of the Absurd is a new form of drama after The Second World War. Playwrights of the Theater of the Absurd reveal the conditions of human beings' existence in modern society. This paper analyzes the artistic features and themes of the Theater of the Absurd.**

Index Terms—**artistic feature, theme, the Theater of the Absurd**

I. Introduction

As a new form of drama, the Theater of the Absurd originated from France after The Second World War. Its name was coined by Martin Iselin in his book *The Theatre of the Absurd*, which was published in 1961. The playwrights of the Theater of the Absurd engaged in creating extremely grotesque plays both in form and contents, which revealed the conditions of human beings' existence in modern society. With the efforts of these playwrights, the Theater of the Absurd reached its peak from 1960s to 1970s and became popular not only in France but also in other countries. This paper analyzes the artistic features and themes of the Theater of the Absurd.

II. The Artistic Features of the Theater of the Absurd

Artistic feature is an extensive category in literary field. It can be expressed in many ways by playwrights or writers. It is also a key point when we make a research on a literary work both at home and abroad. As a rule, every kind of theater has its own artistic features with regard to its special background and social demands. The Theatre of the Absurd is not an exception. In the Theater of the Absurd, multiple artistic features are used to express tragic theme with a comic form. The features include anti-character, anti-language, anti-drama and anti-plot.

A. Anti-character

In the Theaters of the Absurd, the characters are created with curious and grotesque personalities on the stages from the beginning to the end. It seems that the author specializes in shaping the characters with the sense of absurdity and tries to dig out their hopelessness to life and society. We know that in a traditional drama, characters are shaped with their own personalities in common sense. Their languages and behaviors should be reasonable and easy to understand. However, in the Theatre of the Absurd, people who abandon the normal sense and behaviors are completely shaped and described by the playwrights on the stages. Character, especially protagonist in the Theatre of the Absurd, has special personalities and nature. They sometimes talk to themselves continually or repeatedly. And most of the time their words and sentences are interrupted or disordered. There are not any regular rules to follow in their words. Therefore, common people will find that it is difficult to understand the character's words and behaviors. What's more, people in the Theater of the Absurd regard their own personalities as a formal case.

Let's take a retrospect in the typical example of *Waiting for Godot*. The two tramps are the protagonists in the play. From the beginning to the end of the drama, they speak continually. Sometimes they talk each other, and sometimes they talk to themselves. In addition, their words are difficult to understand for the readers and audience. Their conversations are messy without any regularity to obey. Sometimes they blurt out some words and sentences without any implication. They do not reveal any personalities or peculiarities to let us distinguish them, even without any distinction to identify them. We just know that they are two boys. We do not know other information about them, such as their homes, parents and even the times which they belong to. But if we compare them with other protagonists in other dramas, they are so extraordinary in personality. It gives us an illusion that they have not any personalities, but in fact, they are shaped with a kind of special personality by their authors (He, 1999). This kind of personality is different from that of the protagonists of traditional dramas. Sometimes when we read the Theater of the Absurd, we feel that we are confused by the protagonists.

To understand the Theater of the Absurd better, we may consider the definition of "absurd". The initial meaning of "absurd" is "out of harmony" in a musical context. Therefore its dictionary definition: "out of harmony with reason or propriety; incongruous, unreasonable, illogical". In common usage, "absurd" may simply mean "ridiculous", but this is not the sense in which it is used when we speak of the Theatre of the Absurd. In an essay on Kafka, Ionesco defined his understanding of the term as follows: "Absurd is that which is devoid of purpose….Cut off from his religious, metaphysical, and transcendental roots, man is lost; all his actions become senseless, absurd, and useless"(Chang, 2006).

The Theater of the Absurd focuses on the central points and scope in a fundamental lyrical, poetic pattern. By abandoning subtlety of characterization and plot in the conventional sense, The Theatre of the Absurd gives the poetical element an incomparably greater emphasis. The play with linear plot depicts a development that presents a special poetic image. The play's extension in time is purely casual. So it has a lot of differences with the traditional dramas on the personalities and peculiarities of characters. The characters always have inconstant words, capricious behavior and odd ideas in their minds.

B. Anti-language

Language is an important constituent of literary work. The use of language is regarded as criterion to evaluate a writer's style and ability. Different writers form their own writing styles in their literary career. In traditional dramas, language is usually used in a logical order. When someone asks some questions, other people will give their answers. No matter whether the answers are true or false, they must obey certain logical order. But in the Theater of the Absurd, language has no fixed or settled form and regularities. The protagonists usually speak or talk in disorder. What the character has said sometimes is not the words that his partner has asked or wanted to get. Sometimes a character asks his partner something, but the partner says another thing that is irrelevant to what they are talking about. That is to say, language has no regularity to infer or obey. What they have said can not be understood by the audience. Just several minutes ago, the characters argue on the question of who will come. A moment later, they change to another irrelative subject, and finally you can not follow their thoughts, which will lead you misunderstand their mind. This special feature has caused people to understand the Theater of the Absurd with many difficulties. But the Theater of The absurd is still popular among people because it reflects the darkness of reality in modern society (Criffith, 1993).

If you ever read a drama that belongs to the Theater of the Absurd, you must realize that the language in this kind of drama is obscure and disorderly. Meanwhile, it has no regular rules to follow. You can not guess what the character will speak in his next statement because their language is irregular and unpredictable. The most important thing is that it never obeys ordinary sense and thoughts. It seems that sometimes people who are speaking in their own points are difficult to understand by others with common sense. So when you read one of the Theaters of the Absurd, you must prepare enough energy and wisdom to understand the obscure language.

In the "literary" theater, language remains the predominant component. But in the anti-literary theater, language is reduced to a very subordinate role. The Theater of the Absurd has gained the freedom of using language as merely one component of its multidimensional poetic imagery. By putting a scene in contrast to the action, by reducing it to meaningless patter, or by abandoning discursive logic for the poetic logic of association or assonance, the Theater of the Absurd has opened up a new dimension of the stage. In its devaluation of language, the Theatre of the Absurd is in harmony with the trend of our time. As George Steiner pointed out in two radio talks entitled *The Retreat from the Word*, the devaluation of language is characteristic not only of the development of contemporary poetry or philosophical thought but, even more, of modern mathematics and the natural sciences. "It is no paradox to assert", Steiner says, "that much of reality now begins outside language….Large areas of meaningful experience now belong to non-verbal languages such as mathematics, formulae, and logical symbolism. Others belong to 'anti-languages', such as the practice of nonobjective art or atonal music. The world of the word has shrunk." Moreover, the abandonment of language as the best instrument of notation in the spheres of mathematics and symbolic logic goes hand in hand with a marked reduction in the popular belief in its practical use. Language appears to be more and more in contradiction to reality. The trends of thought that have the greatest influence on contemporary popular thinking all show this tendency. Apart from the general devaluation of language in the flood of mass communications, the growing specialization of life has made the exchange of ideas on an increasing number of subjects impossible among members of difficult spheres of life who have each developed their own specialized jargons. When Ionesco summarizes the views of Antonin Artaud, he mentions that our knowledge becomes separated from life because our culture forms a "social" context into which we are not integrated. So the problem is to bring our lives back into contact with our culture, making it a living culture once again. To achieve this, we shall first have to kill "the respect for what is written down in black and white"… to break up our language so that it can be put together again in order to re-establish contact with "the absolute", or, as I should prefer to say, "with multiple reality"; it is imperative to "push human beings again towards seeing themselves as they really are" (Wu, 2004). That is why communication between human beings is so often shown in a state of breakdown in the Theater of the Absurd. It is merely a satirical magnification of the existing state of affairs. Language has run riot in an age of mass communication. It must be reduced to its proper function --- the expression of authentic content, rather than its concealment. But this will be possible only if man's reverence towards the spoken or written word as a means of communication is restored, and the ossified clichés that dominate thought are replaced by a living language that serves it. And this, in turn, can be achieved only if the limitations of logic and discursive language are recognized and respected, and the uses of poetic language acknowledged. Language is an extensive category in literary field which extends from words or sentences to paragraph.

In different type of literary forms, multiple languages are used. Moreover, different writers have their own style to apply languages. In the Theater of the Absurd, playwrights usually apply language skillfully and adequately. In order to achieve the sense of absurdity, they often use multiple artistic techniques to describe characters, including their behavior, language and the plot of the theater.

C. Anti-drama

Drama usually has its own characteristics from its origins. Traditional dramas are easy to understand from its contents and themes, but the Theater of the Absurd is difficult to understand from many aspects. The Theatre of the Absurd appeared in 1950s, while traditional drama appeared several hundreds of years earlier. Traditional dramas and the Theater of the Absurd become popular in different times and the latter's emergence has its own special social background. They have their own representative playwrights respectively. Shakespeare and Bernard Shaw are the representative playwrights of traditional drama in Britain. While another group of playwrights, such as Beckett, Pinter and Albee belong to the Theater of the Absurd. The two different groups had formed different characteristics, but all of them obey the rules and forms of the ordinary drama. We cannot say that they are absolutely opposite. The two groups have intersections from language to artistic techniques. The Theater of the Absurd has some characteristics of the traditional dramas. Meanwhile, it has some unique characteristics, and all these characteristics hide beneath the surface of the absurd dramas. In traditional dramas, plot is clear and the contents are easy to grasp for common people. The main characters often are endowed with particular and typical behavior and personalities. So when you read or appreciate the drama, you will soon pick him or her up among the crowd. Another point is that the language in traditional drama is usually simple and suitable for common sense. For instance, though Shakespeare's plays were written many years ago, people can grasp their contents and enjoy them easily when they read them. That is why most people in our daily lives choose to read and appreciate traditional dramas. Though a lot of troubles and obstacles exist for people to understand the themes and language of the Theater of the Absurd, many researchers and specialists still try to explore it. In the Theater of the Absurd, the audience is confronted with characters whose motivations and actions remain largely incomprehensible. The more mysterious their actions and nature are, the less humanistic the characters become. Thus it is more difficult for us to understand the world from a normal point of view. The audience and readers fail to identify the characters in the play so it inevitably makes people feel humoristic and funny. If we identify a figure who loses his trousers, we feel embarrassed and shameful. However, if our tendency to identify has been inhibited by making such a character grotesque, we laugh at his predicament. We see what happens to the characters from the outside, rather than from their own point of view. With the incomprehensibility of the motivation, the unexplained and mysterious nature of the characters in the Theater of the Absurd effectively prevents us from identifying the characters. Such theater is a comic theater in spite of the fact that its subject-matter is somber, violent and bitter. That is why the Theater of the Absurd transcends the category of comedy and tragedy and combines laughter with horror.

D. Anti-plot

Plot is an indispensable constituent part of drama. Without it, a drama can not be called a drama in traditional dramas. Traditional dramas and the Theater of the Absurd have different plots. The difference is that the plot of the Theater of the Absurd is fractured and scattered. Generally speaking, traditional dramas are arranged in time, place or logical order. You can find the regular patterns and orders from time, place or logic in the theaters. Sometimes we can easily guess what the protagonist would do according to their words and sense. And sometimes the author will give us some hints to deduce the plot. Therefore, it is not difficult for us to read and enjoy the traditional dramas. What's more, sometimes you can guess the end of the drama. On the contrary, the Theater of the Absurd is surprising or obscure, and most of the time it has no end or results. For example, in *Waiting for Godot*, audience cannot guess the result of the play. They even do not know what the two boys will do or say in the next step. From the beginning to the end of this play, we do not know what they are waiting for and what they are talking about. We just know they are having an endless waiting and an endless talking. But we can not conclude that the Theater of the Absurd has no realistic essence because of its special plot. If we considered like that, there would no authors to continue to engage in this field to create new work for the eager readers. In *Waiting for Godot*, we can not get any essence and theme in it when we read it for the first time. In fact, emptiness in the characters' hearts is the essence of the play. Their words and behaviors without any exact purpose tell us the meaning of human being's existence. Nothingness is the essence. People are searching for their existence in modern society but in vain. It also observes the society in modern times from a special viewpoint. Therefore, it will bring us more consideration about our times with its themes and essence. Different themes and essence will form different types of dramas. The two different dramas appeared in different times in our society. In modern society, more and more people can not find their own status. Emptiness in their heart has formed an atmosphere. Thus anti-plot is an important feature of the Theater of the Absurd (Dietrich, 1989).

III. THE THEMES OF THE THEATER OF THE ABSURD

By analyzing the features of the Theater of the Absurd, I get a clear understanding about the theme. The existence of human being is full of suffering, cruelty and danger. Such existence forms an atmosphere of the devaluation of life in modern society. Facing this atmosphere, human beings lose themselves in it. Gradually, they feel lonely, frightened and despairing. Emptiness therefore becomes the true essence of their daily lives. Isolation and absurdity gradually fill their minds. The Theater of the Absurd actually reflects the reality of life in a bleak society. From it, we find that people in their daily lives are tired, obscure and aimless. The Theater of the Absurd is the product of modern society. People do not know the real meaning and destination of their lives. Some advanced writers have an insight in it and write it in a special form, which is called the Theater of the Absurd. At the beginning, it is difficult for the public to accept. When

people appreciated the *Bald Soprano* on the stage for the first time, only several people were left in the theater. As time goes by, more and more people think highly of this kind of theater and consider that it is suitable for their lives.

Theater originally is used to show the reality on the stages. But everybody knows that reality is serious and full of dangers and adventures and it usually gives us tragic effects. Using comic form to end a play is a relative comfortable and moderate way. It can be accepted by common people more easily after comparing with other forms. When you begin to read the play, you may laugh at the characters and their words and behaviors. But after you finish reading the play, you may change your mind and consider its theme once again. You will consider that it is worthwhile to regard the play as a tragicomedy. Degradation and oppression should have been part of the tragic theme, but many playwrights in the Theater of the Absurd describe them in a happy and comic form. When you read this kind of play, you may feel ridiculous about them.

A.   The Crisis and Cruelty of Human Beings

In the Theater of the Absurd, playwrights try to explore the crisis and cruelty of human beings. The Theater of the Absurd appeared in 1950s. At that time, economy developed very fast in western world. All kinds of new technologies were used in every field. People who wanted to survive must catch up with the step and variation of the society as soon as possible. If they could not keep pace with the speed of the society, they would be abandoned and lose themselves in it. Some of them were destined to be left and they could not find their status and identification. So it doomed that their minds were full of crisis and cruelty and usually their thoughts were strange and curious. Some pioneers wrote their minds and thoughts in the Theater of the Absurd to reveal their inner feelings. In contrast, traditional playwrights involve in more extensive themes, such as politics, economics and culture. Playwrights in the Theater of the Absurd regard the crisis and cruelty of human beings as one of its themes (Wang, 1995).

B.   The Dissimilation of the Society

Dissimilation means that people regard the metamorphic things as normal things. Dissimilation of the society means that many abnormal things have appeared, what's more, these phenomena have been regarded as normal things. Disease, death and hunger are often regarded as the themes to discuss. Evil, crime and violence are often thought to be natural things in the society. When people come across these occasions, they would feel sad and sympathetic for the dead or the patients. But in the Theater of the Absurd, people consider it in an indifferent attitude. The world makes people feel unconcerned and even unmerciful. People no longer believe in any gods who can save them from the heaven. Material life is thought at the first place. Meanwhile, money is considered the most important thing in the world. Money is the first condition before people do everything. People live in a world where love and mutual assistance are meaningless. There is no love and trust among them.

C.   The Meaninglessness of the Existence of Human Beings

To the two characters in *Waiting for Godot*, the meaning of their lives is just endless waiting. They could not find what they are waiting for. Their life is meaningless. They even could not find the essence of human existence. Though they live in the real world, their lives are ridiculous. In the Theater of the Absurd, playwrights express their true feelings to this world by means of the protagonist whom they have depicted in their plays. A play, in fact, is a mirror which reflects the real phenomena in the society. In the Theater of the Absurd the playwrights strive to express the senselessness of the human race and the inadequacy of the rational approach by the open abandonment of rational devices and discursive thought. While Sartre or Camus express the new content in the old convention, the Theater of the Absurd goes a step further in trying to achieve a unity between its basic assumption and the form in which these are expressed. They live in a real world, but they don't feel their existence. In fact, they are afraid of their existence, so they would rather put themselves in a confused or unconscious condition. Only when they don't realize their existence can they feel that they are alive. Most poor people exist and live in endless poverty, and life is terrible to them. If they consider their lives earnestly, their lives are miserable and painful. Only when they forget the reality can they abandon the suffering and feel their existence. But suffering is endless as long as they live, so they have to endure them from cradle to grave (Diao, 2008).

D.   The Isolation among People

In the society described by the Theater of the Absurd, the relationship among people is measured through material and money. When they face some dangers and problems, few people come to help them. People who live in this society for a long time will feel lonely and indifferent. Human beings communicate with each other in a cold and detached attitude. Because of this, people gradually have less communication and would rather locked themselves in cages. And once more the chain reactions lead to a serious isolation among people. Therefore, the isolation is just like a snowball which is growing in people's heart. People seldom communicate with each other and hardly believe in each other. Because selfishness and fright fill their hearts, they are afraid that people who have higher social status than them will laugh at or look down upon them. So they try their best to cover and hide themselves under the surface of the material. And their desires and pursuits are put in their hearts silently even if they have rights to express them. In *Waiting for Godot*, the boys seem to be good friends, but the relationship between them is isolated and unconcerned. They cannot bring any warmth and comfort to each other. They communicate in just a few of words without much feeling and

concern (Wang, 2001). The condition of little care or concern would make people feel lonely and helpless. Only in the Theater of the Absurd can this phenomenon express the original and true features of the society.

IV. CONCLUSION

In the above parts I have analyzed the artistic features and themes of the Theater of the Absurd. The Theater of the Absurd has the features of anti-character, anti-language, anti-drama and anti-plot. When we analyze the themes of the Theater of the Absurd, we can find that it reflects the dissimilation of the society. In such kind of society, people are quite cruel to others and cause crisis in the society. People find that their lives are meaningless and they isolate themselves with the society. The Theater of the Absurd is a mirror to reflect the western world after World War II. Thus the Theater of the Absurd is valuable in making research on the western society.

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What Are the Metaphors We Live by?

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Abstract —**This paper aims to have a brief study on the conceptual metaphor theory. By discussing the philosophical basis, the nature and the working mechanism of conceptual metaphor, people can know that metaphors are the ways for people to conceptualize understand the world better.**

Index Terms—**conceptual metaphor theory, experientialism, conceptual metaphor, working mechanism**

I. Introduction

With the rising of the second trend of the cognitive science in the early 1970s, the study of metaphor has extended its territory to cognitive linguistics. Different from the traditional perspective, the cognitive approach regards metaphor as a way of structuring abstract thinking and a means of constructing people's experiences (e.g., Gibbs, 1994; Lakoff and Johnson, 1980; Lakoff and Turner, 1989; Steen, 1994; Sweetser, 1990; Turner, 1987) (Xiu Yu, 2012). Along with the development of cognitive linguistics, the publication of Lakoff and Johnson's *Metaphors We Live By* (1980) brought a turning point in the study of metaphor. Their main point, which was later described as "conceptual metaphor theory", stated that metaphor was not a deviation of language, instead, it was a cognitive tool for people to conceptualize the objective world. "Metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.3). People's ordinary conceptual system in terms of which they think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980).

Based on the above-mentioned revolutionary statements, the paper aims to make a brief analysis of conceptual metaphor theory in three sections. The first is the introduction. The second section chiefly elaborates on the philosophical basis of the theory (i.e. embodied realism) in comparison with objectivism and subjectivism. The last one, which is further divided into three parts, mainly deals with the important aspects of conceptual metaphor.

II. Philosophical Basis

"Living a human life is a philosophical endeavor. Every thought we have, every decision we make, and every act we perform is based upon philosophical assumptions so numerous we couldn't possibly list them all" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1999, p.9). In fact, philosophy is the most fundamental science that has infused into every aspects of human culture for centuries. In terms of linguistics, therefore, it is quite necessary and reasonable for the dissertation to trace the philosophical assumptions upon which different linguistic theories are based so that a profound understanding of metaphor can be achieved.

A. Different Philosophical Theories and Their Views on Language and Metaphor

1. Objectivism and the classical claims

Objectivism, which is the basis of objectivist tradition in philosophy, has been dominating Western culture ever since the classical period. Its view on the absolute, objective truth has a widespread effect on most of the social subjects, especially in the realms of science, law, government, economics and so on. The followings are a brief generalization of the ideology of objectivism (Lakoff, 1987).

a. The world consists of a variety of objects, which have certain inherent properties independent of human beings. People's understanding of the world is processed in terms of categories and concepts.

b. The reality is always objective and the truth is absolute. In order to fit reality, people need direct and precise words. Therefore, any kind of rhetorical language, such as metaphor, should be avoided.

c. Subjectivity, along with all the imaginative aspects of human psychology are not of truth. They can be dangerous and unfair. Thus, they should be ignored.

Along with the theory of objectivism, a classical concept of categorization in the study of language has blossomed. According to this categorization, the concepts are divided into fixed categories based on the objective reality. Since the categorization is independent of human mind absolutely, any human psychological aspects of the language, including metaphor, should be avoided. Otherwise, the truth and reality will be violated (Taylor, 1995).

In his *Republic*, Plato has expressed his anxiety and suspicion towards all the poetic writings. He maintains that truth is absolute and metaphor or other rhetoric approaches should be banned as they would blind people's eyes from the objective reality (Cameron and Low, 1999). Unlike his teacher, Aristotle places a positive value on poetry and metaphor. According to Aristotle, people actually learn and understand things better through metaphor. Though Aristotle's positive statement on metaphor is very unique at that time, the nature of metaphor, in Aristotle's eyes, is merely a figure of

speech used in rhetorical style (Hawkes, 1980).

2. Subjectivism and the romantic tradition

In contrary to objectivism, the theory of subjectivism puts emphasis on the importance of the human consciousness. It claims that people's experience is not built upon any external constraints of meaning and truth. Subjectivism plays an important role in the domains of art and religion. In general, the main assumptions of subjectivism include the following (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980):

a. People's senses and intuitions are the only things that can be trusted when dealing with practical activities. Personal feelings, aesthetic sensibilities and so on are far more important than truth and reason.

b. The language of imagination, especially metaphor, is necessary for expressing the unique and significant aspects of people's experience.

The theory of subjectivism exercises its great influence on the development of the Romantic tradition. Many outstanding figures of Romantism, such as Shelley, Wordsworth and Coleridge, put emphasis on human feelings and psychological experiences and view language, especially metaphor, to be of some creative significance rather than a reflecting function.

3. Problems with objectivism and subjectivism

The fact that both objectivism and subjectivism have great influence on Western culture suggests that both of them have served some important function. However, neither of them is flawless. In spite of their respective disadvantages, objectivism and subjectivism share a common weakness, that is, neither of them has realized the interaction between physical reality and psychological imagination.

From what has been expounded, the problem of objectivists is that they fail to give an account of the way that people understand and conceptualize the world. That is to say, "what objectivism misses is the fact that understanding, and therefore truth, is necessarily relative to our conceptual systems and that it cannot be framed in any absolute or neutral conceptual system" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.194).

On the contrary, the central shortcoming of subjectivists is that they believe imaginative understanding is totally unconstrained. In other words, "what subjectivism specifically misses is that our understanding, even our most imaginative understanding, is given in terms of a conceptual system that is grounded in our successful functioning in our physical and cultural environments" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.194).

B.　Experientialism: Philosophical Basis of Conceptual Metaphor Theory

With the development of cognitive science and cognitive linguistics, an empirically responsible philosophy--experientialism, which is later described as "embodied realism" in *Philosophy in the Flesh* (Lakoff and Johnson, 1999), comes into being (Xiu Yu, 2012).

The experientialist view suggests that "experience is the result of embodied sensorimotor and cognitive structures that generate meaning in and through our ongoing interactions with our changing environments. Experience is always an *interactive* process, involving neural and physiological constraints from the organism as well as characteristic affordances from the environment and other people for creatures with our types of bodies and brains" (Johnson and Lakoff, 2002, p248). Therefore, meaning arises, not just from the internal structures of the organism, nor only from the outside world, but rather from an interaction between the organism and environment (Xiu Yu, 2012).

For example, container, as one of the most basic objects, is frequently used in people's everyday life. Similarly, the numerous concrete objects that have visible boundaries in people's physical experience are also regarded as a type of "container", like clothes, room, cup, cars and sometimes, even people's bodies. For instance, moving from one room to another is moving from one container to another. Since people are in constant contact with such objects by going in and out of these concrete boundaries, people's encounter with containment and boundedness is one of the most pervasive features of their bodily experience. As a matter of fact, it is through that universal experience of bounding surface and in-out orientation that people form a particular kind of metaphor, i.e. CONTAINER METAPHOR, as reflected in the following examples:

E.g.

The park is coming *into* view.

I pour the coffee *into* a cup.

The car *is out of* sight.

Try to *get out of* the commitments.

We are *enveloped in* darkness.

Do get the idea *out of* your head.

He *takes out* a bottle of milk from the refrigerator.

All the expressions above are so commonly used that human beings think that they are self-evident. People usually ignore that the expressions are metaphors because the mapping of CONTAINER experience has become one of their inner unconscious mechanism of thinking.

Obviously, the experientialist view on metaphor, which differs from both objectivism and subjectivism, holds that metaphor is one of the basic mechanisms people have for understanding one kind of experience in terms of another. In other words, the experientialist approach bridges the gap between objectivism and subjectivism. Thus, embodied realism "is not a philosophical doctrine tacked onto the theory of conceptual metaphor. It is the best account of the

grounding of meaning that makes sense of the broadest range of converging empirical evidence that is available from the cognitive sciences" (Johnson and Lakoff, 2002, p.249).

III.   CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR

A.   The Nature of Conceptual Metaphor

In *Metaphors We Live By*, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) state that human conceptual system is metaphorically structured and defined. According to them, conceptual metaphor is a system of metaphor that lies behind much of everyday language and forms everyday conceptual system, including most abstract concepts (Xiu Yu, 2011). Metaphor, in essence, is "understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.5). Concerning the nature of metaphor, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) denotes the following details:

a. Metaphor is primarily conceptual in nature. It is not merely a matter of words, but also a matter of thought.

b. The metaphorical linguistic expression is a surface manifestation of conceptual metaphor.

c. Metaphor is the main cognitive mechanism through which abstract concepts are comprehended and abstract reasoning is performed.

d. Metaphor allows mankind to understand a relatively abstract or inherently unstructured subject matter in terms of a more concrete or more highly structured subject matter. One cannot think abstractly without thinking metaphorically.

To elucidate the conceptual nature of metaphor, the author begins with the concept TIME and the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY, which is reflected in a variety of linguistic expressions in English.

TIME IS MONEY

You're *wasting* my time.

I don't *have* time to *give* you.

How do you *spend* your holiday?

That meeting *costs* me two hours.

He is *running out of* time.

I've *invested* a lot of time in painting.

Do *put aside* some time for your paper.

Please *budget* your time reasonably.

You should *save* enough time to do the next project.

She *lost* a lot of time when she was in university.

From the metaphor TIME IS MONEY, people can notice clearly that they talk about time in terms of money. The metaphor is not arbitrary, instead, it is rooted in Western culture. Since work is typically associated with the time it takes and the time is precisely quantified, time in Western culture is not only a limited resource but also a precious and valuable commodity just like money. Accordingly, it is very natural for people to make use of everyday experience with money to structure and comprehend the abstract concept TIME.

One more example to clarify the nature of metaphor, ARGUMENT IS WAR.

ARGUMENT IS WAR

Your claims are *indefensible*.

He *attacked every weak point* in my argument.

His criticisms were *right on target*.

I *demolished* his argument.

I've never *won* an argument with him.

You disagree? Okay, *shoot*!

If you use that *strategy*, he'll *wipe you out*.

He *shot down* all of my arguments.

  (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.4)

These expressions can be often found in people's everyday conversations. By using ARGUMENT IS WAR metaphor, people can use the concept of WAR to account for various aspects of an ARGUMENT. For example, in the war, people fight with their opponents; they attack enemy's position and defend their own; they may lose or win; they plan and use strategies; they can abandon a position or take a new attack. All these actions in the war are applied to talk about an argument in people's conversation.

In fact, all the expressions listed here are mostly conventionalized concepts that have stored in each individual's mind. That is to say, people not only understand things metaphorically, but also construe the concepts of things with the help of conceptual metaphor.

To sum up, people usually employ concrete experience as an instrument to structure and comprehend the relatively abstract concept. So to speak, metaphor is a figure of thought.

B.   The Classification of Conceptual Metaphor

Though conceptual metaphors share the same basic common feature of being a tool of conceptualization, they are different from each other. Generally, the classification of conceptual metaphors can be made through two different aspects: the classification in terms of frequency level and the classification in terms of experiential bases.

1. The classification in terms of frequency level

In light of the frequency level, conceptual metaphor can be divided into two categories: conventional metaphor and new metaphor.

a. Conventional metaphor

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p.139), "conventional metaphors are metaphors that structure the ordinary conceptual system of our culture, which is reflected in our everyday language".

The so-called "conventional" applies at both the conceptual and linguistic levels (Lakoff and Turner, 1989). At the conceptual level, a metaphor is conventional to the extent that it is automatic, effortless, and generally established as a mode of thought among members of a linguistic community. At the same time, "conventional" also applies to the connection between the conceptual and linguistic levels. When people speak of the degree to which a conceptual metaphor is conventionalized in the language, they mean the extent to which it underlies a range of everyday linguistic expressions.

Conventional metaphor has infused into every aspect of the society. Without realizing that a metaphorical conceptualization is being processed, people can easily understand and use the expressions such as "*He is in trouble now*", "*I've got a stomachache*", etc.

b. New metaphor

New metaphors, or novel metaphors, are different from conventional metaphors in that they are beyond social conventions and "are capable of giving us a new understanding of our experience" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.139). The power of new metaphors is to create a new reality rather than simply to give mankind a way of conceptualizing a preexisting reality as conventional metaphors do (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). Therefore, new metaphors play a very important role in imagination and creation of new meaning.

New metaphors use the mechanisms of conventional and everyday thought in extraordinary ways. That is, what makes the new metaphors noticeable and memorable is that new metaphors extend them, elaborate them, and combine them in ways that go beyond the bounds of ordinary modes of thought and beyond the automatic and unconscious conventional use of metaphor (Lakoff and Turner, 1989). So to speak, the study of new metaphor is an extension of the study of conventional metaphor. Conventional metaphor is characterized by a huge system of cross domain mappings, and this system is made use of in new metaphor.

For example, the conventional metaphor DEATH IS SLEEP, is a general and ordinary metaphorical conception that views death as sleeping when people speak of someone that passed away. The mapping in this metaphor, of course, does not involve all people's general knowledge about death, but only certain aspects: inactive, inattentive and so on. However, in Hamlet's soliloquy, Shakespeare extends creatively the ordinary metaphor of death as sleeping to include elements that are not conventionally mapped--the possibility of dreaming (Lakoff and Turner, 1989):

To sleep? Perchance to dream! Ay, there's the rub;

For in that sleep of death what dreams may come?

(William Shakespeare, *Hamlet, Prince of Denmark*, *Act III, Scene I*) (Xiu Yu, 2011)

Despite the differences between new metaphor and conventional metaphor, the former makes sense of people's experience in the same way the latter does. Indeed, the general principles which take the form of conceptual mappings, apply not just to the ordinary everyday language but to much of novel poetic expressions. In other words, the generalizations governing both ordinary language and poetic metaphorical expressions are not in language, but in thought. To be specific, they are all general mappings across different conceptual domains.

2. The classification in terms of underlying structures

In terms of underlying structures, metaphors can be further divided into structural metaphors, orientational metaphors and ontological metaphors.

a. Structural metaphor

As the most frequently used metaphors of the three categories, the structural metaphors refer to those in which one concept is metaphorically structured in another one. For instance, as the following table (Table 3.1) lists, in LIFE IS JOURNEY metaphor, life is understood with some of the properties of journey structurally mapped onto the corresponding properties of life (Lakoff and Turner, 1989, p.3).

TABLE 1:
SOME STRUCTURAL MAPPINGS FROM JOURNEY TO LIFE

Structural mapping	Examples
The person leading a life is a traveller.	As we go through life, I hope we'll always be friends.
His purposes are destinations.	Her goal in life is to get her Ph.D.
The means for achieving purpose are routes.	You're on the right path now.
Difficulties in life are impediments to travel.	He worked his way around many obstacles.
Progress is the distance traveled.	He made his way in life.
Things you gauge your progress by are landmarks.	She came to a point in her life where she had to make a difficult decision.
Choices in life are crossroads.	There were two paths open to them.

Through this metaphor, people understand that life is a long-term, purposeful activity. One's goals in life are one's destinations in the journey. Difficulties in life are impediments to one's motion. In other words, the concept of LIFE IS

comprehended because it is metaphorically structured in another one: JOURNEY.

b. Orientational metaphor

Orientational metaphors are not metaphors which "structure one concept in terms of another but instead organize a whole system of concepts with respect to one another" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.14). Most of them have to do with spatial orientation: up-down, in-out, front-back, on-off, deep-shallow, central-peripheral. Orientational metaphors usually have a basis in people's physical and cultural experiences. For example, from the fact that drooping posture typically goes along with sadness and depression, erect posture with a positive emotional state, people gained the metaphor HAPPY IS UP, SAD IS DOWN, as in the usage of "I'm feeling up", "You're in high spirits", and "He's really low these days", etc. Similarly, from the fact that physical size typically correlates with physical strength, and the victor in a fight is typically on top, human beings obtained the metaphor HAVING CONTROL or FORCE IS UP, BEING SUBJECT TO CONTROL or FORCE IS DOWN. Expressions of these metaphors include "*I do not have control over her any more*", "*He is in an inferior position*", "*She is under my control*", "*I'm in the high command*", etc.

c. Ontological metaphor

Ontological metaphors are based on people's experience with physical objects. Their formation enables human beings to view non-physical entities such as events, activities, emotions, ideas and the like, as physical entities and substances. For example, they can allow people to process the activities such as referring, quantifying, identifying aspects, identifying causes, setting goals and motivating actions on some abstract concepts. For example:

My fear of cat makes her mad. (Referring)

He has little patience to do that. (Quantifying)

Her fame of being kind to the poor has been widely spread. (Identifying aspects)

The pressure caused him to give it up. (Identifying causes)

I went to Paris to see my best friend, Susan. (Setting goals and motivating actions)

In addition, ontological metaphors also enable people to understand some features of a physical entity in terms of another. For instance, the metaphorical concept, THE MIND IS A MACHINE, enables them to understand easily the metaphorical sentence "*I'm a little rusty today*". The spatial metaphor for mind (e.g. "*in*" one's minds, "*in the back corners*" of one's minds, and "*call things to mind*") is a good example of the general observation in talking about abstract concepts by means of using language drawn from concrete domains (Zonglin Chang, 2005).

C.   The Working Mechanism of Conceptual Metaphor

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), the working mechanism of conceptual metaphors lies in the fact that conceptual metaphors are mappings across different conceptual domains, involving projections from a source domain to a target domain. They claim that (Xiu Yu, 2012):

a. Metaphorical mapping is uni-directional and asymmetric, that is, from the more concrete to the more abstract.

b. Metaphorical mapping is partial, not total, namely, the structure of the source domain is only partly projected to the structure of the target domain.

c. Metaphorical mapping is not random and arbitrary, but grounded in the body and everyday experience in the physical and cultural world.

d. Metaphorical mapping is systematic across different conceptual domains.

To account for the working mechanism of conceptual metaphor, a typical example is indispensable. In order to keep pace with the times, the author takes INTERNET IS A HIGHWAY for example.

Some years ago, the U.S. Vice President Gore exploited the INTERNET IS A HIGHWAY metaphor when he announced the Clinton administration's National Information Infrastructure initiative in December 1993. Gore is worth quoting here at length for discussion (Fuyin Li, 2004).

*Today, commerce rolls not just on asphalt highways but along **information highways**. And tens of millions American families and business now use computers and find that the 2-lane information pathways bulit for telephone service are no longer adequate. This kind of growth will create thousands of jobs in the communications industry.*

*To understand what new systems we must create though, we must first understand how the **information marketplace** of the future will operate.*

*One helpful way is to think of the National Information Infrastructure as a **network of highway**—must like the Interstates begun in the 50s.*

*There are **highways carrying information** rather than people or goods. And I'm not talking about just one **eight-lane turnpike**. I mean **a collection of Interstates and freeder roads made up of different materials** in the same way that roads can be concrete or macadam—or gravel. **Some highways will be made up of fiber optics. Others will be built out of coaxial or wireless.***

*But—a key point—they must be and will be **two way roads. These highways will be wider** than today's technology permits. This is important because a television program contains more information than a telephone conversation; and because new uses of video and voice and computers will consist of even more **information moving at even faster speeds. These are the computer equivalent of wide roads.** They need wide roads. And these roads must go in both directions* (Rohrer, 1997).

The mapping of the INTERNET IS A HIGHWAY metaphor is illustrated in detail in the following table (Table 2).

INTERNET IS A HIGHWAY

TABLE 2:
AN EXAMPLE OF THE WORKING MECHANISM OF METAPHORS

Source Domain	Target Domain
Highway	Transmission pathways
Space	Cyberspace
Vehicles	Computers, telephones, etc
Goods transported	Information
Fuel	Electricity
Drivers	Users
Destinations	Information supply sites
Journey	Downloading or uploading information
Marketplace	Commercial information supplies
Impediments to motion (roadblocks, etc)	Technological difficulties

In the above metaphor INTERNET IS A HIGHWAY, people can see that there is a cross-domain mapping that goes from the concrete source domain HIGHWAY, to the relatively abstract target domain INTERNET. Evidently, the mapping is not one to one, but a whole system is mapped onto another system. By the metaphor, people can understand and reason about INTERNET through their knowledge and experience about the HIGHWAY. Thanks to this metaphorical mapping, people's understanding about INTERNET is more profound and thorough.

So far, the paper offers a brief review of the conceptual metaphor theory. By discussing the nature and cognitive structure of the metaphors, people can have a better understanding about the language we use and encounter everyday. That is what we called: metaphors we live by.

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Politeness in Persian and English Dissertation Acknowledgments

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Abstract—Though usually seen as just marginally related to the key academic goals of establishing claims and reputations, acknowledgement as a genre is widely employed in academic discourse to express gratitude for the contribution of an individual or an institution so that writers establish a favorable academic and social position. Having considered the significance of acknowledgment texts in academic writing and the fact that little, if any, has been devoted to highlight dissertation acknowledgments in the Iranian academic context, the current study, adopting Arundale's face theory, examined the politeness strategies of 70 doctoral dissertation acknowledgments written by native speakers of Persian (henceforth NSP) and native speakers of English (hereafter NSE) in 7 disciplines representing soft sciences. The findings revealed that approximately majority of communicative moves and linguistic steps exploited by the two groups function as connection face except for cases in which writers accept the responsibility of possible errors and weaknesses of the dissertation. Of course, Persian writers, due to their cultural background, used this step more than English ones. To sum up, the study provided valuable information about the socio-cultural practices and personal identity of the writer encoded in the organizational components of this type of genre.

Index Terms—cross-cultural, dissertation, acknowledgments, politeness, face

I. INTRODUCTION

Undoubtedly, writing a dissertation is a difficult task. It requires not only days and nights of allocated time of the writer, but also the assistance and encouragement of the other people, who will all be with him/her in both academic and moral realms. So, acknowledgments in dissertations, as argued by Hyland (2004), allow students to demonstrate their awareness of central academic values such as modesty and gratitude, establish their credibility, recognize debts, and achieve a sense of closure at the end of what is often a long and demanding research process (p. 304).

A dissertation acknowledgment, defined as a "Cinderella" genre (Hyland 2003, p. 243) which is "neither strictly academic nor entirely personal" seems to belong to the institutional group, however, constituting a peculiar genre of its own. The writers of these genres have attempted to produce texts that plausibly reflect interaction with different audiences in terms of exchange of materials, information, support, and advice. Taking genre analysis as the study of how language is used in a particular socio-cultural context, the attention of text analysts has therefore turned to examining the textual and generic organization components as well as the socio-cultural interactive features that writers draw on to engage their audience to establish and maintain a successful writer-reader relationship.

Acknowledgment as a genre is widely used in academic discourse to express gratitude toward help from and contribution of an individual or an institution, thus establishing a favorable academic and social reputation. Acknowledgments have been of some interest to genre analysts such as Giannoni (2002), Hyland (2003, 2004), and Hyland and Tse (2004).

The acknowledgment sections are, thus, short but important pieces of text. They orient the reader to what the student has done as well as where the student is placed in various scholarly and social networks. These seemingly simple texts need as much attention as other parts of student's text. Like the table of contents, the acknowledgment sections are often the last thing a student writes, but among the first things an examiner reads (Paltridge & Starfield, 2007). As Finn (2005, p. 118) argues, "first impressions last" in the examination process. Clear and well-written acknowledgment sections can help make that first impression a good one.

Acknowledgment sections are now commonplace in academic books and research articles and appear to be almost universal in dissertations, where they offer students a unique rhetorical space to both convey their genuine gratitude for assistance and to promote a capable academic and social identity (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p. 260).

On the other hand, the values and norms dominating cultures have attracted the attention of experts carrying out studies in social sciences, such as sociology, psychology, anthropology and inevitably studies in language which act as the primary tool for communication among people. To this end, it is not surprising to see that in recent years studies in social and interactional aspects of language have gained a significant attention and the number of studies has increased considerably. In this regard, as the studies have started to address specific cultures, it is revealed that the concept of

appropriateness in language differs from culture to culture since different cultures are governed by some relatively different values and norms and these are reflected by different choices of language patterns in communication (Eisenstein & Bodman, 1993; Koutlaki, 2002). Thus, considering the importance of acknowledgments which are sections read first by the ones who were with the PhD students throughout this difficult process and maybe by the ones wondering the academic and social network of the authors, the current study cross-culturally compares the doctoral dissertation acknowledgments written by NSP and NSE to unravel cultural differences in expressing gratitude across two languages.

A. Research Questions

The notion of politeness is shaped by different cultural perceptions. In different situations and contexts, politeness may be interpreted and evaluated differently in various cultures. Through the use of language, various aspects of the values and attitudes in a culture and the perception on politeness are manifested. Therefore, as an important consideration, this study will look into how two diverse cultures, Iranian and American, interpreting the notion of politeness in dissertation acknowledgment texts will be compared adopting Arundale's (2006) theory.

Drawing on the above-mentioned developments and tendencies in the field of linguistics, this study addresses the following questions:

1. In what ways are politeness strategies revealed in the doctoral dissertation acknowledgment texts written by Persian and English students?

2. Is there any difference in type and frequency of politeness strategies in Persian and English doctoral dissertation acknowledgment texts?

B. Theoretical Framework

Since 1980s, 'face', 'facework' and 'politeness' notions have been examined a lot by different scholars in the fields of pragmatics and sociolinguistics. To this aim, various types of theories concerning the imagined notions have been proposed which most of them were highly abstract directly or indirectly recourse to great variation of social strategies to construct co-operative social interaction across cultures.

A large number of theoretical and empirical books and articles concerning linguistic politeness and/or the notion of face and facework have been published in the last decades. In most of the studies, politeness has been conceptualized especially as strategic conflict-avoidance or as strategic construction of cooperative social interaction (cf. Eelen, 2001, p. 21; Watts, 2003, p. 47).

Politeness features in academic texts have been of growing interest among the experts in the field. There is a growing body of research that investigates the manifestation of politeness strategies in e-mail exchanges (e.g. Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Biesenbach-lucas 2006, 2007; Chen, 2001, 2006; Crossouard & Pryor, 2009; Vinagre, 2008), in computer-mediated discussion (e.g. Erika, 2010; Schallert, Cheng & the D-Team, 2008; Schallert, Chiang, Park, Jordan, Haekyung, An-Chih, Hsiang-Ning, SoonAh, Taehee & Kwangok, 2009), in prefaces (Meimei, 2001) and in research articles (Meldrum, 1994; Myers, 1989).

The most known theory of politeness, as asserted by many scholars, is Brown and Levinson's ground-breaking work (1978; reissued 1987). According to their seminal work, a speech is polite if one employ the kinds of verbal strategies which take the addressee's feelings into account by respecting his or her 'face' (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 61; Brown, 1998, p. 84). As argued by Goffman, face involves both the need/desire not to be imposed upon, i.e. negative face, and the need/desire to be liked or affirmed, i.e. positive face (Goffman, 1967, pp. 5-7). Thus, drawing on Goffman's theory, Brown and Levinson (1987) proposed that polite speech encompass all strategies addressing both types of needs.

Despite its merits, Brown & Levinson's theory of politeness strategies has also been under severe dispute in the realm of research on politeness. It has been subject to some serious criticism calling it a more than enough pessimistic theory of social communication. Among the critics was Nwoye asserting that if we rely on Brown & Levinson theory of politeness as a true one which holds that social interaction is an activity of continuous mutual monitoring of potential threats to the faces of the interactants, it could rob social interaction of all elements of pleasure (1992, p. 311). Werkhofer also criticized (1992, p. 156) Brown & Levinson account of politeness as being essentially individualistic since it, at least during the production of speech, regards the speaker as a rational agent being unconstrained by social norms and thus, he/she is free to choose egocentric, asocial and aggressive intentions. According to Watt, the other major critique of Brown & Levinson's model is freeing the speakers to select in the form of a decision-tree through which they have to work their way before they can arrive at the appropriate utterances in which to frame the FTA (2003, p. 88). This type of system excludes the possibility of happening two or more strategies at the same time.

An alternative, but complimentary, view of face that also addresses the criticisms of Brown and Levinson's theory examines positive and negative face as a relational rather than individual phenomenon (Arundale 1999, 2006; Bargiela-Chiapini 2003). As one of the latest re-examinations of face as pertinent to politeness, Arundale (2006) which, contrary to the Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, examines positive and negative face as a relational rather than individual phenomenon. He argues that positive and negative faces are best addressed as the dialectical opposition between connection and separation from others:

...connectedness and separateness provides a clear, culture-general conceptualization of "positive" and "negative" face.... As a re-conceptualization of positive face, "connection face" encompasses a range of interpretings much broader than, but inclusive of being "ratified, understood, approved of, liked or admired" by others (Brown and Levinson 1987, p. 62). As a re-conceptualization of negative face, "separation face" encompasses meanings and actions that include among many others, a person's "freedom of action and freedom from imposition" or "claim to territories" (2006, pp. 204-205).

Thus, theoretically, the present study is based in politeness. The notion of "politeness" is a broad and complicated one with numerous theories and approaches, and it is socially determined. It is linked with social differentiations, with making appropriate choices which are not the same for all interlocutors and situations (Coulmas, 2005, p.86). Regarding the importance of politeness strategies in acknowledgment texts as one important part of academic writing and the fact that little attempt has been made to highlight how these strategies are incorporated into these texts, the current study also scrutinizes the politeness strategies in such texts. Thus, the study is revealing as it highlights certain rhetorical characteristics adopted by native writers across English and Persian.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Corpus

To conduct this study, two sets of data were collected for the study of dissertation acknowledgments. The first set includes 70 dissertation acknowledgments written by the NSE in soft sciences and the second set comprises 70 acknowledgments written by the NSP in the same realm of study. The reason for choosing soft sciences to be analyzed is the important role they play in human life. Social science or soft science studies the human aspects of the world. It includes an in-depth study and evaluation of human behavior by using scientific methods in either quantitative or qualitative manner. Consequently, seven disciplines of soft sciences namely literature, translation studies, applied linguistics, history, sociology, library sciences, and philosophy were selected and ten dissertation acknowledgments for each were studied across English and Persian.

B. Procedures

English data were gathered from the database of the Princeton University of America in New Jersey (including doctoral dissertations from different universities of America) as the representative sample of acknowledgments in dissertations written from 2005 to 2010. Selection of these texts was on the basis of their availability to the researcher, in the way that they were chosen and sent by a graduate from Princeton University who was informed of the purpose of the study and given adequate information about how to collect the data. For the Persian data, a series of trips was made to the universities of Ahvaz, Isfahan, Tabriz, Shiraz, Yasuj, Shahre-kord, and Mazandaran and samples of acknowledgments in dissertations written within the same time frame were picked from the relevant departments in the above mentioned universities once permission was made from the universities. The disciplines were then coded as Lit representing literature, Tra representing translation studies, Apl representing applied linguistics, His representing history, Soc representing sociology, Lib representing library sciences, and Phil representing philosophy. Also, in the current study, P stands for Persian, E stands for English, and ACK stands for acknowledgments.

C. Data Analysis

The principal procedure for analyzing the data in this study was comparative. The politeness strategies of the acknowledgment texts written in both languages were compared to see if they follow the same pattern. Frequency of each strategy was calculated and Cramer test was run to see whether possible differences were statistically significant. In the next stage, qualitative and quantitative analyses provided richer and deeper insight into the nature and function of each move.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Thus, drawing on the face model proposed by Arundale (2006), the current study compared dissertation acknowledgments written by NSP and NSE in terms of politeness strategies both qualitatively and quantitatively. The results revealed that connection face is the dominant one with about 88 % occurrence in both languages and separation face only occurred in less than 12 % of all texts (Table 1).

TABLE1.
FREQUENCY OF FACES IN PERSIAN AND ENGLISH ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

	Persian (%)	English (%)
Connection	227 (84)	208 (95)
Separation	43 (16)	10 (5)

Following Arundale's (2006) model, all moves and steps, except shouldering responsibility sub-move, employed in these texts function as connection face as all are meanings apparent as unity, interdependence, solidarity, association, congruence, and more, between the writers and their relational partners. Our calculations revealed that this step has

occurred in 84 % of the Persian sample and more than 95 % of the English sample. Here, two examples, one from Persian and one from English sample texts are given to clarify this sub-step.

1) Dâr payan bayâd sepas-e fâravan-e khod ra be hâmsar-e ba vâfayam tâghdim konâm ke dâr tey-e dore-e tâhsilatâm dâr karshenasi-e ârshâd vâ doktora, doshvarihay-e ziadi ra tâhâmmol nemud. Payan name-e doktoray-e khod ra be ou tâghdim mikonâm. (P. ACK. Lit. No.3)

(Finally, I must dedicate my numerous thanks to my loyal wife who tolerated the years of difficulty during my MA and PhD education. I dedicate my dissertation to her)

2) I owe my special thanks to my family who endured this long process. My parents a have been helpful in spending a long time with grandchildren so I could accomplish my dissertation. (E. ACK. APL. NO. 6)

The calculated value of Cramer-test in this step revealed to be 0.210 (sig< 0.05), illustrating no statistically significant difference between the two groups. Most of the sentences and phrases applied in acknowledgment texts function as connection face as the main motivation behind writing this genre, as held by AL-Ali (2010), is to produce texts that plausibly reflect interaction with different audiences in terms of exchange of materials, information, support, and advice (p. 2). As the above examples suggest, the aim of the writers is to express relational connection. For instance, as the first example reveals, the writer tries to show the congruence between and make a powerful association with his wife and himself by first describing the difficulties they had to endure and then dedicating the dissertation to her to be thankful for her tolerance. Or as the second example suggests, the writer tends to reveal the interdependence and unity between his family members, most notably his parents with first expressing gratitude, then delineating the difficulties they have experienced during the long journey of writing dissertation.

Separation occurred in more than 16 % of the Persian and less than 5% of the English acknowledgements analyzed. Our analysis disclosed that all sentences and phrases utilized in the shouldering responsibility step function as separation since the writer tries to exempt academic characters from the possible errors of the dissertation. In other words, here, the writer wants to exonerate his instructors from the weaknesses and deficiencies of the dissertation and attribute them to his knowledge disabilities and by this the writer shows the dissociation and divergence between his instructors and himself as well as his autonomy in committing possible errors. Note the following examples, one from Persian and one from English sample texts.

3) Dar payan motazakker mishavam ke bandeh masule kastiha, navaghes va zafhay-e an mibasham. (P. ACK. Soc. No. 4)

(Finally, it should be mentioned that I am the responsible for any inadequacies, faults and weaknesses of it.)

4) Weak points of the present work must be attributed to my knowledge limitations. (E. ACK. His. No. 6)

The Cramer-test revealed to be 0.003 (sig< 0.05), showing a statistically significant difference in applying separation face. Attributing goofs to oneself to achieve face in the sense of relational separation can be justified by reference to the *"Shekaste-nafsi"* "schema.*"Shekaste-nafsi"* can be a subcategory to the cultural schema of *Adab* (politeness/respect) in Persian (Sharifian, 2008, cited in Shirinbakhsh & Eslami Rasekh, 2012, p. 3). Since Persian is a language of *Adab* (politeness/respect), one may draw upon the schema of *"Shekaste-nafsi"* to gently evade compliment, so that it does not make the listener feel inferior and also it does not make the speaker feel arrogant. In fact, it is used in line with the policy of "self-lowering and other-raising" (Beeman, 2001, p. 41) which is counted as the manifestation of *Adab* (politeness/respect) in speech among Persians.

IV. CONCLUSION

This study revealed that though the academic rules, regulations and conventions might constrain writers' choice of thanking expressions to more uniform forms of thanking across cultures (Al-Ali, 2010; Hyland, 2003; Hyland, 2004), the social and cultural background of writers still have an effect on their language choices (Hatipoğlu, 2009). In the way that, there were both matches and mismatches between the two languages in terms of exploiting different politeness strategies adopting the face model proposed by Arundale (2006) in which communication is interpreted considering connectedness with others as well as by separateness from them. Arundale's approach to face provides a culture-general conceptualization that can be adapted to the analysis of written discourse in a variety of cultures and settings.

Cross-cultural differences in the employment of certain strategies in certain speech acts have been widely discussed in the literature of language studies such as pragmatics, sociolinguistics, and second/ foreign language teaching (e.g., Eisenstein & Bodman, 1993; Hatipoglu, 2009; Ohashi, 2008; Ruhi, 2006; Yu, 2003). In majority of the studies, it is discovered that the socio-cultural and/ or situational factors have great influence on the choice of language forms while performing some language acts. Stated differently, the choice of speech act patterns shows variation across cultures since language forms function differently in different cultures. As a matter of fact, language is a phenomenon which can hardly be viewed separate from its very inherent component, culture. This component does by all means play a significant role in enabling the language to gain a global status.

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Exploring Impacts of IT in Language Teaching in China[*]

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Abstract—As an effective assistant tool of instruction, information technologies are being accepted and applied to the classroom education. The use of computers, Internet, and email etc. is changing the literacy practice, student identities and pedagogy. However, different attitudes towards information technologies emerge as well. How to critically analyze the influence of information technology on language teaching, literacy practice, student identities, and pedagogy, and how to apply this technology to language teaching in China are what this paper aims to.

Index Terms—IT, identity, multiliteracies, pedagogy, critical thinking, language teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

It is widely acknowledged that one of the most significant changes in the globalization process has been the emergence of information and communication technology. The fastest growing of information and communication tool, the computer devices, the Internet, has enabled people from different fields, areas and cultures to communicate rapidly and to access information quickly. Nowadays, as an effective assistant tool of instruction, information technologies are being accepted and applied to the classroom education step by step.

As schools are increasingly wired to new information technologies, the space of learning is no longer confined to that of the physical space of the classroom. Schools therefore require new ways of teaching and learning. The use of computers, Internet, and Email etc. changes the literacy practice, student identities and pedagogy. A set of new skills concerned with social, cultural and pedagogical implications in the classroom need to be taken into account. The traditional teaching and learning method will no longer suffice.

However, different attitudes towards information technologies emerge as well. Worrying about taking risk by using computers for teaching and learning or unwilling to pay for buying new technological facilities, IT is resisted by some schools and teachers. Furthermore, under the pressure that promoting using of computers means some teachers will not be employed any more, schools are unwillingly to use computers as well. In this paper, I will critically analyze issues about IT in school education, and demonstrate how it is applied into schools' teaching in China.

II. ANALYSIS OF COMPUTER LITERACY, STUDENTS IDENTITY AND PEDAGOGY CHANGE IN CYBER-SCHOOL

When traditional classrooms are challenged by wire-based classroom; when face-to-face teaching confront with long distance computer teaching; when students talk with code language and immerge themselves in a virtual world, people deeply recognize the coming of "Information Age". The widely use of computers and Internet takes education into globalization as well. Luck (as cited in Luke C., 1996a) states:

The shift from print and paper to electronic textuality, the proliferation of information resources and databases, global knowledge and social networks, require very different multimodal and multimedia – social and literacy skills from those conceptualized on the basis of an essentially assembly-line, factory model of schooling, and static linearity of print – and book-based models of literacy.

1. The necessity of developing computer literacy skills

Luke's issue on the development of computer literacy skill is important. When paper-based reading and writing cannot satisfy the requirement of using computer, new skills need to be explored. What is computer literacy? Adams (1984, p.49) gives an explanation as a general understanding of uses, advantages and limitations of computers. Eisle (1980, p115) states from a more specific aspect that developing computer literacy skills means to develop skills which enable oneself uses computer applications to influence a whole life situations such as commutations, education, entertainments etc. For instance, online language learning has become a more and more significant learning style in school education compared with traditional language learning style. Online language learning relies on e-libraries, computer database to a large extent. With computer literacy, one is easy to access to e-libraries and professional database which provide amounts of computer cataloging and information to search for and to download. With the help of information technology, language learning efficiency has been improved enormously. However, if one is

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incompetent for computer literacy, he or she will not conduct online learning successfully. Here computer literacy is a key element to gaining useful access to computerized services, as well as understanding and reshaping the world.

Furthermore, Luke (2000, p.69) in her article notes blended vocabulary and reading-writing practices require new multimodal and multimedia literacy and laterally connected features of electronic texts. Giving that reading and writing words is the basic form of literacy, then computer literacy consists of the ability to use computer to store information, retrieve information and manipulate information, which seems like the world opens a knowledgeable window in front of man. On the other hand, a critical thinking about the computer literacy should not be neglected although it enables people to combine the particular medium with reading, writing and the creation and transmission of information. As was noted by Douglas Noble (1984, p.37), computer literacy is important but not necessary in most people's daily life, it only supplies another way of recognizing the world.

From a critical perspective, although developing computer literacy practices can broaden student's view of the world and is seen as activities of creating system to get information and achieve academic goals, it still has weaknesses in three aspects:

First, students' spelling level gets weaker than before with much of practices using computer to read and write. Whenever spelling mistake appears, Word Processor will remind the mistake automatically. What a student needs to do is just press the button slightly and the correct spelling immediately appears. How convenient it is. Students do not need to care about spelling any more. As a result, their spelling level decreases.

Next, it is difficult for computer literacy to deliver beautiful and imaginative information in language and literature teaching as the traditional teaching does. For instance, using computer to teach Chinese Ancient Language Literature, the poems are usually translated by their literal meaning, but the metaphorical meanings are difficult to be expressed, therefore, the real contextual literature imagination is limited. In addition, computer literacy in most circumstances stays at a "silent" position to teach reading and writing, it cannot deliver any emotional information from teacher's tune, face and posture. It seems too "Cool" compared with the traditional literature teaching aims to elicit students' imagination.

Last, once students have the ability to use computer to read and write, they may also get some ill contents like pornography, bloody and violence; or they may indulge in computer games. Consequently, they are affected seriously and it may become the potential inducement of social problems such as crime, prostitution etc.

2.   Exploring Personal Identity in Cyber-Schooling

In the real world, no matter a person is rich or poor, healthy or sick, every one owns the personal identity, which is authentic and recognized by family, community and the society. However, in digital hyperspace, bodily differences are invisible and irrelevant. Bollier (1994) holds the similar opinion that one of the most intriguing and emotionally intense virtual communities are the strange new environments that allow diverse computer users from around the globe to carry on focused conversations in "virtual rooms". Again Luke (2000) states that in the hypermedia realm of pure information where we construct ourselves primarily though text – distinctions of gender, ethnicity, body shape or impairment, accent or speech styles don't matter. We know from decades of research that the student with an accent or wearing a turban, the one with the lisp, the overweight or the indigenous students, is often treated differently from the mainstream ideal student by teachers and peers. But in virtual communities, where one's social identity is wholly textually constructed, such differences vanish, which means that traditional categories of the social subject and social differentiation may no longer be useful.

Take a Chinese classroom as an example, in a traditional Chinese classroom, students' identity is simple, they are learner and are required to take knowledge from their teacher. Actually, not everyone does well. Because some students who are not active are unwilling to ask questions even they do not understand. They worry about if their questions are stupid or if they will be laughed at by peers. In this face-to-face environment, everybody knows who you are, what you behave is under the eyes of others. However, in virtual spaces, this situation is changed. Students do not worry about "lose face", or if they do not like, they can just change a new name. In the virtual world, one person can have different identities. He or she can be a student, a teacher, a professor or whoever they want. They can say whatever they want to say, because their identities are not real identities, they have no worries about "right or wrong", "good or bad". Even if somebody claims he is Bill Gates, nobody will probe who he is at all. Hence, the virtual spaces provide possibilities for people to explore their personal identities. It provides students opportunities to change identities not only for academic purposes but for fun as well. Through virtual spaces, students are creating virtual bodies, characteristics. Paradoxically, according to Bollier (1994), a lot of what these virtual spaces allow is to escape from dealing with disembodied voices, because now a person has a virtual body, accent and personality you can recognize.

With the new identity or new role in the cyberspaces, students may learn how to take more responsibilities than in the material spaces. The reason is in the real world, they may be shy, not confident enough, or not competitive, they are seldom given chances to manage a class or organize activities. But in a virtual community, those non-active students could be very creative and critical; they could be motivated by critical thinking, by joining discussion actively. Their identity could be web master or organizer, involuntary they take responsibility for organizing discussion, answering questions, solving problems and updating information. By doing these, not only students' confidence is improved, but also their personalities and responsibilities are enhanced.

Although in cyber-sociality, there is lack of embodied and gestural cues coupled with face-to-face communication, people may be impossible to realize the real situation or know about the people whom we are chatting with online, it

could be argued that in the cyber spaces, identity still could be discerned by subject's practical activities. Here practical activities mean people's attitudes, thoughts, and opinions towards specific issues by chatting, emailing or discussing with others. But this identity judgment is an invisible judgment. Though it cannot supply any direct and first eye information, or sometimes it may leads to misjudgment, it does supply a comprehensive and critical recognition process towards people's real identity. This process is like a charcoal drawing, the painter draws the rough picture first and then keeps on modifying in order to get the most lifelike painting. Likewise, once recognition is formulated by continuous affirmation and denial, it may very close to a person's real characters.

    3.   Reflecting pedagogy changes in cyber-school

Rather than having threatening implications for teachers' work, learning and teaching in cyberspace can in a large degree help teachers download the tremendous pressure from their shoulders and to explore all their potential and ability to facilitate students' learning in classroom. Once teachers are no longer busy with the "batch processing of students through a mass-market basic curriculum", they will truly become an instructor, facilitator, or helper to students. Likewise, Loveless (1995) also claims that constructing knowledge from information requires an ability to question, access, interpret, amend, analyze, construct and communicate meaning from information. It is not hardly to see that such abilities are challenging teachers' teaching philosophy and setting up a higher standard for them. Only if teachers know cyber-school learning situation and know when and how to use digital technologies appropriately, then cyber-school education would be really successful. For example, in the networked courses, teachers need to enhance cooperation in order to develop and share pedagogical practice (Loveless & Ellis, 2001). The standards – such as maintaining a purposeful working atmosphere, effective questioning, careful listening and providing students with opportunities to consolidate knowledge do not change substantially with the integration of IT (DfEE, 1998). The lessons and activities still need a clear purpose, structure and pace, and to elicit participation.

For example, a study of pedagogy using IT for literacy and numeracy in an English primary school highlighted patterns in the links between teachers' approach to teaching, some aspects of their characteristics and their observable behaviors in the classroom. And who were more positive about the use of IT in their teaching tended to have well-developed IT skills themselves and to value pupils' collaborative working, inquiry and decision-making. Teachers who expressed reservations about using IT were more likely to be highly directive and to organize students' individual work in the classroom (Mosely et al., 1999). If most teachers reflect the fundamental characteristics of information technology by testing their current teaching practice and beliefs, teacher education and professional development face complex challenges in approaching the changes required to meet the demands of teaching in the "Information Age", where technologies act as a catalyst for radical educational change and in which " locating, collating and summarizing information and identifying connections and contradictions within a body of information all need to be explicitly moved to the center of the classroom (Scrimshaw, 1997, p.100).

What is teachers' role in computer-based pedagogical environment? It is supposed by Loveless & Ellis (2001):

• A collaborative teaching and learning controller – employing the technologies to increase connective between information, teachers and learners and assist in overcoming restrictions of location and timetable.

• A powerful director – making use of the technology to support teaching by including high-quality texts, images and sound to structure, illustrate and represent ideas in formal lecture instruction.

• A facilitator – using the technology to improve the students' quality of life in their learning experiences on part – time and distance – education courses, by ensuring interactive communication between the course leaders, teachers and learners and building up an ethos appropriate to a learning community.

• A designer – good at producing high-quality interactive learning materials to help students participate in the subjective content and demonstrate the ways in which they had made connections and constructed their own understanding of the world.

Spontaneously, it will be linked that how students' role is changed in cyber schooling? From the research of Simpson and her colleges (1998, p101), students' attitude towards IT exhibited very positive. They enjoy using computers, Internet and feel it important to learn how to use them. By using IT, students develop group learning and collaborative problem-solving skills. Luke (2000) holds the same opinion that students in cyber-classrooms prefer working together to acquire information and skills by surfing on websites and databases. The ability to input, download, drop and drag material and imagery from global library of information creates new skills, processes and multimodal forms of production that encourage interdisciplinarity, creativity and imagination, collaborative authorship, editing, reading and writing, and problem-based learning. Sometimes the collaborating work could be peer tutoring, after that it could be shifted to literature-based activities. Students are encouraged to develop emailing project and motivated to write, they are willing to exchange personal experiences, hobbies and interests by attaching a digital photograph of themselves. Even they use email to link up internationally to know about different cultures and make different friends. Furthermore, students are encouraged to design pages for the school web site. This work promotes students to search for various background knowledge such as culture, history, geography and so on. They often grouped together and work collaborated. They share their work with others through Intranet facility and therefore their collaboration work is enhanced.

However, when many people affirm the positive effects of IT to pedagogy changes, different voices are heard as well. The opposite opinions stay that teachers should play the role of instructor, demonstrator, project manager, consultant,

resource provider, questioner, explicator, observer, model learner and co-learner. They know how to intervene to encourage students autonomy; they know when to stand back to allow children time to work through uncertainty to solutions; they know when to ask a question to challenge or divert, know how to balance guidance. These are intelligent action which lies at the heart of effective teaching skills, and which reflective teachers develop throughout their teaching careers (Loveless, 1995). They suspect teachers' instruction will get weaker and weaker, their no confidence or no experience on IT will make their students take risk. At the same time, students' new roles in cyber-based schooling are also doubted. For example, peer tutoring is thought a collaborative interaction between students. However, it may lead to waste the more able students' time. In addition, the more proficient students use computers, they may possibly become addicted to them.

III. CRITICAL THINKING ABOUT INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

Just like every coin has two sides, when the positive side of Information Technology is acknowledged, the negative side appears simultaneously. The negative side of "labor saving and increased leisure time" can be unemployment, which in turn proves the fact that the introduction of new technology has both eliminated and created jobs (Bernard, 1991). Some scholars like Luke points out in 2000 that not all groups welcome the advent of the new technologies and, as a result, many will be disadvantaged in an increasingly competitive labor market where computer related techniques and skills are considered particularly important. IT does create new job vacancies, however, those job need more professional people to fill in. People are required not only be proficient in operating computers, mastery technological literacy, but also possess professional knowledge and with higher creative and innovative ability. It is a trend that technology-dense job will take the place of labor-dense job, more and more labors will struggle for less and less labor-dense positions. As a result, the competition in low level of technology market becomes seriously. Far more people will encounter with the risk of losing job. On the other hand, those who work with technology systems will complain that they have no control over their work, that machines now govern their daily pace. Bernard (1991) says as more and more work becomes machine-regulated, people may increasingly become alienated from their jobs, coworkers, clients and customers. According to Levin & Rumberger (1983) new technology demands for higher skills than before, a usual prescription is that there must be a vast transformation of the educational system. Schools are expected to adapt new responsibilities through major curricula as well as teacher preparation. In consequence, elementary and secondary schools are supposed to improve virtually all their instructions which demands analytic and communicative skills.

IV. HOW ARE SCHOOL CLASSROOMS IN CHINA AFFECTED BY NEW TECHNOLOGY

With IT is introduced into education system, schools are facing the challenge bringing by new technologies. In china, with the appearance of the computer and the Internet, many schools have set up the broadband network, therefore, among different schools, it is quite convenient and fast to share various outcome of teaching or teaching software designed by excellent and distinguished educators via the net; teachers can also download curricular information from the web to use with their classes so as to introduce students more up-to-date knowledge outside the text book. To the students, they are challenged to develop computer-based literacy as soon as possible. Students are facing the new subject how to use keyboard to input and output information; how to search for information on the web; how to verify different audio and/or video symbols, and how to use email to communicate with others, to join in discuss activities. For example, in order to improve students' computer literacy, a classroom teacher can ask students to search for related material from Internet about a specific topic and ask them to write a reflective journal, diary or short essay then email this writing to the teacher. By doing like these, the comprehensive ability of using computer and Internet for searching for information, reading articles, checking spelling, organizing writing structure and receiving or sending emails is enhanced. In addition, the teacher can give feedback quickly by E-ways. In contrast, the traditional way of checking up writing paper wastes teacher so much time that students have to wait a long time to know the results. Using the net makes feedback between teacher and student much easier. With the help of the net, students can check up their achievements automatically, meanwhile, by analyzing the information about an individual student's progress (Van, C.E., 2003, p.273).

Secondly, Internet-based instruction changes the traditional teacher-centered learning into the student-centered learning, which to a large extent improves the child's motivation to learn. In the circumstance of traditional mode of education, without any choice, students have to acquire knowledge passively. In the internet-based class, students can study actively according to their own interests and competence. In addition, associating the advanced technology of digital media, students are more likely to exert their potential creativity, and engage in critical thinking. In such an electronic social environment, teachers need to be aware of what students' interest is, what abilities they have mastered and which skills they need to improve. Associating with the features of young adolescents and the new requirement to education in the new times, teachers play a vital importance role in guiding students to use modern technology to improve their learning efficiency. The traditional "give" and "take" way will not work well, the new model of teaching and learning is based on discovery and participation. In this process, teachers are key players in guiding students to exert their acquired cognitive structure and to further develop their potential capabilities. Students will not effectively participate in the activities or fully utilize their currently mastered knowledge unless they are interested in the topic.

Thirdly, it is necessary to emphasize the interaction between teachers and students. Chinese young adolescents prefer to keep silence and are less active than their peers in western countries, who have strong individuality and are willing to show their capacities in public. Partly because Chinese traditional culture advocates introversion, however, to a large extent, long-term teacher-centered learning results in Chinese middle years uncreative and non-confident. Chinese students seem adapted to receiving knowledge passively, and preferred to write down whatever teacher says rather than ask why. Some students even feel nervous and frightened to answer questions in class. In the environment of digital media, according to their individual level of cognition, students can independently and flexibly control the whole process of learning with teacher's advisable instruction. Teacher, who now acts as participant but not a dictator, may ask students to read on the Internet, make comments, discuss and learn from each other. In the words of Tapscott, (1998, p. 141) "Various digital forums…enable brainstorming, debate, the influencing of each other—in other words, social learning." Teachers can also use E-mail, chat sessions, bulletin-board-type forums, and shared digital workspaces to create opportunities for communication between individuals, pairs, and groups. As Tapscott, (1998) argues that in a new environment of learning, which is created by the new media, the learner is able to interact and connect with others. At this point, what teachers should do is not transmit knowledge up to down but guide students to communicate, take part in their discussion and give some essential instruction so as to truly realize the interaction between teacher and students.

V. CONCLUSION

In the new environment of information technology, teachers and schools do have to consider combining technologies, new communities, globalization together and to frame their response appropriately with effective pedagogies, literacy and new identities. Under the condition of the Internet, singular cultural and linguistic messages have no longer stimulated students' interests, which have been impacted by mass media culture and global networks. With the advanced information technology into class, students are effectively applying the knowledge learning in school to their real lives. Although, exploring internet-based instruction has not achieved a satisfying progress in China, with the development of science and technology, and the promotion of education reform, it is certain that internet-based instruction will exert its advantages and serve the modern education further.

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Gender Differences in Using Language

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Abstract—The differences between men and women in using language have been studied long time before. This paper mainly discussed the differences from the aspects of pronunciation, intonation, vocabulary, syntax, manners, attitudes, and non-verbal differences in using language between men and women. Besides the differences in various aspects, the paper tries to record the changes of these differences. On the basis of these differences and changes, the paper also tries to make some explanation to these differences and changes.

Index Terms—differences, language, gender

I. INTRODUCTION

Over the past thirty years, and as a result of the women's movement, gender issues have become connected with the issue of language. Gender studies and language studies are both interdisciplinary academic field. The study of language began from thousands of years ago, while the study of gender is quite short. "Gender studies have developed differently, achieving the greatest influence in North America; the 'era of feminism' that began in the late 1960s and affected academic and public life as well as 'high' and popular culture has been instrumental in shaping the historical and scholarly context of its generation. Feminist work has entered and had an impact upon almost every academic discipline." (Flotow, 2004. p.1)

The study of gender is important to the study of language, and the first step to study gender is to explore the difference between men and women. It is quite clear that men and women have a lot of differences in many fields. Generally speaking, females have more fat and less muscle physically; women are not as strong as men and they mature more rapidly and usually have a longer life span. Females and males often show different advantages and skills in doing their work. Why are the two genders different in so many ways? Besides some physical reasons, we are aware that social factors may account for some of the differences. Such as, women may live longer than men because of the different roles they play in society and the different jobs they tend to do. Men usually have to undertake more pressure than women in life. The differences in job skills may be explained in great part through differences in the ways by which they are raised. When talking about language, we can't help asking if men and women who speak a particular language use it in different ways? If they do, then we may ask in what ways they are different. Do the differences change through time? This paper attempts to explore these differences, and examine the changes through time, and gives these differences and changes some possible explanations.

II. MALE-FEMALE DIFFERENCE IN THEIR USING LANGUAGE

Language reflects, records, and transmits social differences, so we should not be surprised to find reflections of gender differences in language, for most societies differentiate between men and women in various marked ways. The paper will examine the differences from the following aspects.

A. Differences in Pronunciation

Phonological differences between the speech of men and women have been noted in a variety of languages. Usually women's pronunciation is better than men's, such as the pronunciation of "-ing". Shuy (1969) made a study in this field, and he found that 62.2% of men pronounced "-ing" in a wrong way, but only 28.9% of women didn't pronounce right. This can also be shown in the learning of the second language. Usually female students have better pronunciation than male students, and that can explain the reason why more girls choose to learn language as their major than boys. Generally speaking, girls exhibit a better ability in language.

B. Differences in Intonation

Women often like to speak in a high-pitch voice because of physiological reason, but scientists point out that this also associates with women's "timidity" and "emotional instability". Besides the high-pitch voice, women prefer to use reverse accent as well.

Example: Husband: When will dinner be ready?

Wife: Around six o'clock..

The wife is the only one who knows the answer, but she answers her husband with a high rise tone, which has the meaning "will that do". This kind of intonation suggests women's gentility and docility. The husband will surely feel his wife's respect. Lakoff (1975) says that women usually answer a question with rising intonation pattern rather than falling intonation. In this way, they can show their gentleness, and sometimes this intonation shows a lack of confidence.

As a contrary, men like to use falling intonation to show that they are quite sure of what they are saying. Falling intonation also shows men's confidence and sometimes power.

C. Differences in Vocabulary

We can notice that men and women tend to choose different words to show their feelings. For example, when a woman is frightened, she usually shouts out, "I am frightened to death"! If you hear a man says this, you'll think he is a coward and womanish.

The differences in vocabulary can be shown in the following five aspects:

a. Color Words

There is special feminine vocabulary in English that men may not, dare not or will not use. Women are good at using color words that were borrowed from French to describe things, such as *mauve, lavender aquamarine, azure and magenta*, etc, but most men do not use them.

b. Adjectives

In our everyday life, we can notice that women like to use many adjective, such as *adorable, charming, lovely, fantastic, heavenly*, but men seldom use them. When a woman leaves a restaurant, she will say "It's a *gorgeous* meal". If a man wants to express the same idea, he may only say, "It's a *good* meal." Using more adjectives to describe things and their feelings can show that women are more sensitive to the environment and more likely to express their emotions with words, which makes women's language more interesting than men's sometimes.

c. Adverbs

There are also differences in the use of adverbs between men and women. Women tend to use such adverbs like *awfully, pretty, terribly, vastly, quite, so*; men like to use *very, utterly, really*. In 1992, Jespersen found that women use more *so* than men do, such as, "It was so interesting" is often uttered by a woman.

d. Swear words and Expletives

Maybe because women are gentle and docile, they usually avoid using swear words and dirty words. They believe that these kinds of words will not only make others uncomfortable and give an impression of "no civilization", but also destroy the relationship between her and others. Women always pay more attention to the grace of themselves and their use of language. We rarely hear that women utter such words like "*damn, fuck you, hell,*" instead they use "*oh, dear, my god*" to express their feelings. Let us examine the following examples:

Woman: Dear me! Do you always get up so late? It's one o'clock!

Man: Shit! The train is late again!

We can often here similar ways of expressing shock in every day life. Men tend to use more swear words than men. Women pay more attention to their manners and politeness of using language.

e. Diminutives

Women like to use words that have the meaning of "small", such as *bookie, hanky, panties*. They also like to use words that show affections, such as *dearie, sweetie*. If a man often uses these words, people will think that he may have psychological problem or he is not manly.

Furthermore, women like to use words that show politeness, such as *please, thanks*, and they use more euphemism, but "slang" is considered to be men's preference.

From the study we can see that men and women have their own vocabulary choices in achieving emphatic effects. Though in the area of vocabulary, many of the studies have focused on English, we can not deny that sex differences in word choice exist in various other languages. People need to learn to make these distinctions in their childhood.

f. Pronouns

Women prefer to use first person plural pronouns when they suggest something, even when she suggests the other person, while men tend to use first person singular pronoun, and when he is suggesting the other person, he will directly use the second person pronoun.

Example: Women: We need to be in a hurry.

Men: You need to be quick.

D. Difference in Syntax

Though there are no specific rules that govern different gender to use different grammar, we can observe these differences in almost every language.

a. Modulation

When a woman talks, she often takes what others think into consideration. She usually leaves a decision open rather than imposes her own ideas or claims on others. We often hear a woman say "*well, you know…, I think…, I suppose….kind of, maybe I am wrong but…*, etc.

When they want to get help from others, men and women express in different ways as the following:

Women: I was wondering if you can help me.

Men: please give me a hand.

From the above example we can see men tend to ask something directly, while women tend to be more polite.

b. Interrogative sentences

Women use more interrogative sentences than men do. Women look interrogative sentences as a strategy of

continuing a good conversation. Lakoff (1975) pointed out that compared with men, women are more likely to use an interrogative sentence to express their idea, and they like to use tag questions, because tag questions can make the tone less tense. Fishman (1980) collected many couples' conversation tapes, and he found that women used three times of tag questions as men did. In these conversations, they were 370 interrogative sentences, among which women used 263, almost two and a half of times of men did. This point is similar to the difference in intonation between men and women. Just as Lakoff (1975) said that women might answer a question with rising tone, while men like to use falling tone to make a firm statement. According to Lakoff (1975), women tent to do this because they are less sure about themselves and their opinions than men. The different use of language also shows that women are more likely to be short of confidence. From another aspect, we can say that women are more polite and considerate than men.

c. Imperative sentences

A study observed a group of boys and girls on one street in Philadelphia, and the study found that the imperative sentences that the boys and girls use were different. The boys used a lot of imperative sentences but the girls used more "let's patterns".

Example: Boy: Give me an apple!
           Girl: Would you give me an apple?
           Boy: It's time to go.
           Girl: Let's go.

The research also found that girls prefer to use sentences with modal verbs, such as *can, could, may*. But they seldom use imperative sentences to give orders. To reduce the imperative tone, they use more adverbs like *maybe, perhaps, probably*.

d. Correctness of grammar

Women pay more attention to the correctness of syntax. While expressing her thoughts, she would make her utterance clear by using precise grammar.

Example: Woman: We are going to g to the park today.
           Men: We are gonna to the park today.

E.   Differences in Their Attitudes toward Language

Women pay more attention to using standard language than men do, so they are stricter with the rules of the use of language.

Example: Man: Are you comin'?
           Woman: Are you coming?

Women tend to use the standard form. This point is emphasized in the difference of pronunciation.

In Detroit, people like to use multiple negations, such as: *I do not want none*. Research found that men use much more of this kind of substandard form than women. This can be seen from movie "*Forrest Gump*. Influenced by the southern accent, Forrest often uses double negative to show negative meaning.

F.   Non-verbal Differences: Differences in Manners

We have mentioned that women usually show politeness in their conversation, such as he use of "*would you, please,* etc." Besides this, women also show that they are reserved when they talk. The following table is based on the research of Zimmerman and West on the interruptions men and women made in a conversation.

	male	female	total
interruptions	46	2	48

We can see that men continued interrupting other's talk, instead women are more patient. Even though they want to talk, they will wait until others stop their talking. Generally speaking, in a conversation involving both sexes, women often play the role of patient listeners. They do not interrupt others often, but encourage others to talk. However, men are eager to be heard, which pushes them to catch as many opportunities as possible. Men do not like to be silent. This makes them appear to be more active than women. In other words, in a conversation involving both sexes, women tend to be silent.

G.   Differences in Choosing Topics

In social interaction, men and women have different interests in choosing their topics. When men are talking, they are more likely to choose the topics of politics, economy, stocks, sports, current news. While women have more interest in talking family affairs, such as the education of children, clothes, cooking, fashion, etc. Women's talk is associated with the home and domestic activities, while men's is associated with the outside world and economic activities. Thus, while there is a popular prejudice that women talk more than men, empirical studies of a number of social situations such as committee meetings and internet discussion groups have shown the opposite to be true. Women may talk more in informal occasions than men, but they surely play the second role in the formal occasions and tend to speak less than men. Sociolinguists studied women's silence in public situations as well as the linguistic work they do in their partnerships (Spender, 1980). Besides these differences, other sex-linked differences exist, such as women and men may have different paralinguistic system and move and gesture differently.

III.   SOME POSSIBLE EXPLANATION

It's not enough to find these differences. The more important thinking is to find what cause these differences. In a recent set of studies about the physical differences between the two genders, phonological processing in males was shown to be located in the left of the brain and in females to involve both left and right parts of the brain. No difference in efficiency was shown, nor is there any evidence so far that any neurophysiologic difference accounts for differences between the two groups in using language, so we can get the conclusion that the causes are social rather than physical. Since biological sexual differences cannot explain the differences in men's and women's societal roles and opportunities, scholars developed and employed other tools and analytical categories in order to understand these discrepancies. "Beauvoir suggests that a baby born with female reproductive organs does not simply grow up to be a woman. She has to turn herself into a woman, or more correctly, she is turned into a woman by society she grows up in and in response to the expectations an conditioning, and differs according to the dominant influences she is subject to in the subculture, subculture, ethnic group, religious sect, in which she grows up." (Flotow, 2004. p.5)We can explore this issue from three aspects.

A.   Different Psychology

It's an accepted idea that women are more careful, sensitive and considerate than men. Before a woman talks, she usually thinks the effect her words will cause, so she often appears to be more polite. On the contrary, men appear to be rash, and they just say what they want to say and seldom care what others think, so men's speech is usually blunt and solid.

B.   Different Social Status

Of the social causes of gender differences in speech style, one of the most critical is level of education. In all studies, it has been shown that the greater the differences between educational opportunities for boys and girls, the greater the differences between male and female speech. Usually, in many parts of the world, males are expected to spend longer time in schools. When offered an equal educational opportunity, there seems to be a tendency for women to be more sensitive than men to the status norms of the language.

Though many linguists have noticed the differences between the use of men and women, it was not until the 70s that some linguists tried to find the social root of these differences. Men and women differ in the kinds of language they use and how they use it because men and women often fill different roles in society. We may expect that the more distinct the roles are, the greater the differences. Almost in every country, most of the important positions in governments are held by men. Men can almost dominate everything, including women. Most scholars notice that women's tone is not that self-confident as men's, and they point out that this is because they have little power or no power at all in the society. Women's social status makes them appear to be submissive to men. Women are often named, titled and addressed differently from men, such as women are more likely than men to be addressed by their first names. Women are inferior to men in this society, so they appear to be non-assertive when they talk. They tend to discuss, share and seek reassurance. On the contrary, men tend to look for solutions, give advice and even lecture to their audience. The term gender was often understood to be the basis of women's subordination in public and private life. Women are supposed to be the second class in the household as well as in the workplace, everywhere from the pink-collar ghettos of the corporations, via images of women in the media to government or educational agencies establishing policies affecting women. Activities criticizing the gendered aspects of everyday life kept the issue in the public eye; interest and support were galvanized by media events such as the disruption of the Miss America Pageant in 1968, where the trappings of stereotypical femininity-dish-cloths, steno pads, girdles and bras-were thrown into a 'Freedom Trash Can' (Morgan, 1968, p. 62-67).

The use of genetic masculine, such as *Everyone must increase his awareness of environment protection*, reinforces the secondary status of women in many social groups. This kind of usage does not jus reflect and record current prejudices, but they are easily transmitted, reinforcing the lower power and prestige ascribed to women in a society. With the growth of social awareness in many parts of the world over the past decades, there have been many attempts to overcome this prejudicial use of language. For instance, people use the word chairperson instead of chairman more frequently nowadays. Many publishers and journals now adhere to guidelines to avoid gender stereotyping and gender prejudiced language use.

Women are very conscious about their status, and they long for a better position in society, so they try to improve themselves, including using standard language. Women are more conscious of using languages which associate with their "betters" in society, that is, those they regard as being socially superior. They therefore direct speech towards the models these provide, even to the extent in some cases of hypercorrection. On the other hand, men are powerful, including the lower-class men. They are less influenced by others.

C.   Different Cultural Background

For whatever languages, there are peoples' unique life styles and modes of thinking behind them. It's these life styles and modes of thinking that make the rules of languages, so language is also a kind of cultural phenomenon. Lakoff (1975) believes that the distinction between men's and women's language is a symptom of a problem in our culture, and not primarily the problem itself. For example, in North America, men and women come from different sociolinguistic

subculture. They have learned to do different things with language. To cite another example, the Yana language of California contains special forms for use in speech either by or to men. We can see form above that cultural background influences men's and women's behavior, including language.

IV. CHANGES THROUGH TIME

"The women's movement of the late 1960s and early 1970s tried to show how women's difference from men was in many ways due to the artificial behavioral stereotypes that come with gender conditioning. Since these stereotypes were artificial, they could be minimized" (Flotow, 2004, p.8). Language has a great connection with society, so if change in society occurs, change in language too. With the development of productive forces and civilization, the strict rules that the society prescribes for men and women are changing. Many territories not only belong to men any more. Women are not the on-lookers; instead they begin to take a more assertive role in what goes on. For example, in a study of how the inhabitants of Obserwart are shifting from a pattern of stable bilingualism in German and Hungarian to the use of only German, the young girls are especially in the forefront of the language change there. Women are eager to change their social statues, and they want to be equal with men in every field. Nowadays, more and more women walk out their homes; and even more and more of them are in the high positions in the governments. Their ability tells people that the jobs can be also done well by women. With the changes in their social status, women become more confident and assertive than before. Why should they use more euphemisms? Why should they use reverse accent even they are sure about what they say? Why should they keep silent when men are talking? They have the confidence to say what they want to say directly now, they also have the courage to interrupt men's talk. They are brave enough to lecture to men, not only being lectured by men. When we learn Japanese, we notice that in modern Japanese, the rules are not that strict as they were before. This is the result of modern civilization, and this is also the result women strive for.

People's linguistic behavior is not only connected with social status, but also connected with their profession, education, etc. In modern society, more and more people receive high education, so we can see that more and more men begin to behave themselves when they talk. Usually, they seldom break into other's conversation abruptly. Instead they are patient enough to wait others to finish their talks. They use less rigid impressive sentences. We can hardly hear them using swear words or taboos. They become polite and gentlemen-like. The interesting thing is that they also begin to use tag questions.

V. CONCLUSION

Gender as an analytical category continues to motivate researchers in many areas. This paper has seen the differences between the use of language of men and women from some aspects, and we can notice that there are many differences in using language between the two genders, and also there are some changes through time. We believe that with the development of society, there will be fewer differences in the usage of language. Language, as a tool of human communication, will be improving day by day, and this needs the effort of both men and women. "The establishment of women's studies' initiatives developed from this sense of women's commonality as well as from the realization that women were excluded from large parts of public and academic life." (Flotow, 2004. p.6). With more participation into the social life, business, academic field and so on, there will be other changes in the future. The changes in the language can show the improvement in women's social status.

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Why on Earth Is Learners' Patience Wearing Thin: The Interplay between Ambiguity Tolerance and Reading Comprehension Valence of Iranian Intermediate Level Students

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Abstract—**Research supports the effectiveness of using preferred learning styles in the process of language acquisition. It has been shown that successful language learners often tap into relevant styles and strategies effectively in the process of learning a foreign language. Following fads and fashions in this line of research, this paper tries to examine the relationship between ambiguity tolerance and learner's reading comprehension ability. For this purpose 22 Iranian fresh university students were chosen. At first they filled a questionnaire with regard to Ambiguity Tolerance scale. During next sessions their reading comprehension ability was examined. Correlational procedure was used for the purpose of this study. It was generally shown that there is a positive correlation (0.83) between ambiguity tolerance and reading comprehension ability.**

Index Terms—**Ambiguity tolerance, reading comprehension**

I. INTRODUCTION

Language learning is an extremely exacting endeavor. Learners are stampeded with novel and new information that must be processed, assimilated and anchored to existing knowledge. Unfortunately, this is no easy task. The structural, lexical, and phonological elements of any two languages do not enjoy one-to-one correspondence. Whether learning takes place in educational or environmental settings, whether language learning is communicatively oriented or not, the learner has to cope with uncertainties originating partly from this dearth of complete correspondence between any two languages.

The case seems even worse when a quick comparison is made between English and Persian. Test results and research findings have shown that Iranian students are weak at their reading comprehension ability of English texts (Fahim and Sa'eepour, 2011). This fact is evident from their continuous complaints after university entrance examination. It consists of a couple of English texts most of which are skipped by students. Needless to say, there are many differences between writing styles, format and organization of English and Persian texts that result in students' unfamiliarity and consequent sense of ambiguity. Different groups of learners react differently to English texts. Some may take it easy and go ahead with the task of reading a different text type till they comprehend it and some others may be less flexible and get confused with this task. Reactions of this latter group of students may result in ambiguity and intolerance of the difference and so their lagging behind the first sentences and losing the required time to go through the whole passage. A quality that assists learners to overcome these kinds of uncertainties intrinsic in language learning is tolerance of ambiguity (Kazamia, 1998).

This study can have bidirectional significance. Specifically, it may generate results that can be settled in domestic environment in order to help weak readers to develop more tolerance of ambiguity while reading English texts. Generally speaking, it can contribute to the total field of psycholinguistics, with producing results generalizable to individuals with similar style preferences. Up to now fewer researches have been done in Iran to see if these facts are also true of Iranian students. With respect to the fact that today learning English has received considerable spotlight in Iran, and many institutes try to enhance the students' level of proficiency, therefore any factor which seems to affect learning of English warrant investigation. The present study is carried out to address this question:

Does ambiguity tolerance have any effect on reading comprehension ability of Iranian intermediate level learners?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

According to Brown (1994) ambiguity tolerance "concerns the degree to which people are cognitively willing to tolerate ideas and propositions that run counter to their own belief system or structure of knowledge. Some people are, for example, relatively "open-minded" in accepting ideologies, events and facts that contradict their own views; they are more content than others to entertain and even internalize contradictory propositions. Others, more "close-minded", more dogmatic, tend to reject items that are contradictory or slightly incongruent with their existing system; they wish to see every proposition fit into an acceptable place in their cognitive organization, and if it does not fit, it is rejected." Before addressing empirical researches done in this respect it is worth mentioning the pioneering efforts perpetrated to design some measuring scale on this learning style preference.

A. Scales for Measuring Tolerance of Ambiguity

The first problem in trying to assess the influence of tolerance/intolerance of ambiguity, of course, is to develop a means of measuring the construct. Perhaps the most widely used measure of ambiguity tolerance is the 16-item scale devised by Budner (1962), but nonetheless the internal consistency of this scale is realized to be extremely low (0.49). Furnham (1994) suggested that this may be ascribable partly to an underlying multidimensional structure, and based on a factor analysis he suggested a four-factor solution. But nonetheless, the scale correlated weakly with other tolerance of ambiguity instruments, and a recent confirmatory factor analysis of Budner's scale by Benjamin, et al (1996) failed to confirm either the single factor structure hypothesized by Budner (1962) or the four factor model proposed by Furnham (1994). Another widely used scale for measuring ambiguity tolerance is the McLain's new measure (1993) of an individual's tolerance for ambiguity. This scale has the reliability of .87. It includes 22 items and is used by McLain to measure ambiguity tolerance in general. Other measures of ambiguity tolerance have included the 16-item scale devised by Rydell and Rosen (1966), but this was not factor-validated and no internal reliability data were reported. Subsequently Macdonald (1970) found that the scale had poor internal reliability, but this was increased to 0.62 when four new items were added. Kirton (1981) later viewed Budner/ Reydell and Rosen/Macdonald scales, combining them into a single 18-item instrument with improved but nonetheless only modest internal reliability (0.71).

All the above-mentioned instruments have tried to measure the construct of ambiguity tolerance in general, and neither is specifically concerned with language learning settings. Until fairly recently, most psychologists have maintained that one's characteristics are fairly consistent from one situation to another (Ely, 1989). However, in the last several decades a small but influential group of personality researchers (Mischel, 1968, Endler, 1973) have found that it is not always feasible to use "global" (general) personality instruments to predict how an individual will behave in a certain circumstance.

The need to put into operation personality variables in the specific context of second language learning first was addressed by Chapelle (1983), but she considered the scale to be "somewhat suspect as a consistent measure of ambiguity tolerance", since the original 13-item scale had to be reduced to 4 items in order to obtain a reliability of 0.54 (Cronbach alpha).This scale was not apparently used in Chappelle's subsequent analyses (Ely, 1989).Then Ely (1989) developed an ambiguity tolerance scale designed for the purpose of measuring individual differences in the specific environment. This version of the situation-specific ambiguity tolerance scale consist of 12 items, representing various aspects of language learning and use, including pronunciation, speaking, listening, *reading comprehension*, lexical development and grammar learning.

B. A Brief Review of Empirical Research on Ambiguity Tolerance

A few research findings are available on ambiguity tolerance in second language learning. In their comprehensive study of the predictors of language achievement, Naiman et al. (1978) used Budner's global scale of ambiguity tolerance with English-speaking high school students of French. Eighth-grade students who were tolerant of ambiguity performed better on both receptive and productive language tests. Some researchers investigated the predictability of this style in language achievement and proficiency. Chapelle (1983), for example, using Norton's scale found that global ambiguity tolerance was a predictor of final TOEFL scores of ESL university students. Reiss (1985) found a positive relationship between ambiguity tolerance and university foreign language students' rating of themselves as language learners. Albeit Reiss measured ambiguity tolerance with three situation specific items, she apparently did not make an attempt to develop a psychometrically reliable tolerance of ambiguity instrument.

In another study Chappele and Roberts (1986) studied the role of ambiguity tolerance in performing language tasks. They measured ambiguity tolerance in learning of English as a second language in Illinois. What they found was that learning with a high tolerance and endurance for ambiguity was slightly more successful in certain language tasks. Having tried to assess the degree of ambiguity tolerance of Greek civil servants in learning English as a foreign language, Kazamia (1998) found that Greek adult learners did not show the same tolerance in all skills and in all language learning strategies. First, in one set of items the scores showed a high degree of intolerance among learners. The common denominator in these items was that they all referred to conveyance of ideas on the part of learners. It is obvious that Greek civil servants cannot endure the fact that they are not able to express their ideas with clarity and exactness when speaking or writing English. In another set of items, moderate level of ambiguity tolerance could be seen when *reading English*. It showed that participants of this study were willing to tolerate the uncertainty entailed in guessing. Also it was shown that some individuals were able to tolerate the fact that they were not able to understand some lexical items pronounced by their instructors. However they may not be that tolerant when they fail to understand

the majority of teacher's talk. Also it was found that although learners tolerate moderate ambiguities arising from grammatical elements, their tolerance decreases when failing to apply grammar in speaking and writing.

Hakk Erten and Zehir Topkaya (2009) tried to investigate the nature of ambiguity tolerance in *reading* in a foreign language among Turkish learners of English and to determine likely relationships between ambiguity tolerance and different personal and cognitive variables such as gender, proficiency level, perceived *success in reading* and strategy training. Their statistical analysis revealed students' lower tolerance for ambiguity in the process of learning, hence this conclusion that learners in an EFL context are generally less tolerant of ambiguity. Another aspect of ambiguity that had been explored in their study was gender differences. Females were found to be less tolerant of ambiguities in the language classroom than their male peers. Their findings also suggested a significant difference between ambiguity tolerance and learners' language proficiency levels, indicating that the higher the proficiency level, the more tolerant learners become in foreign language learning. The last aspect of their study dealt with ambiguity tolerance, *success in reading* and strategy training. They reported a significant correlation between these variables. As such, the more students were trained about strategies they could tap into while *reading in a foreign language*, the more tolerant they can become of ambiguities and uncertainties, which may ultimately bring success in *reading in a foreign language*.

Locally observed, a couple of studies have been recently done in Iran to examine the relationship and interplay between ambiguity tolerance and other constructs; *reading strategy use*, gender, and performance on close test, to name just a few.

Keshavarz and Assar (2009) investigated the differences among Iranian high, mid and low ambiguity tolerance groups in their *reading comprehension ability* and their metacognitive awareness of *reading strategies*. Their results revealed significant differences between low and high groups, i. e. high ambiguity tolerance students scored higher on reading comprehension test, showed higher metacognitive awareness of reading strategies, and displayed higher perceived use of global and problem-solving metacognitive reading strategies. However, they found no significant differences between the middle group and the other two groups in these variables. Also, they reported no significant difference in the use of supportive strategies among these three groups. Ashouri and Fotovatnia (2010) examined learners' beliefs about translation and the impact of two variables of individual differences, namely, risk taking and tolerance of ambiguity, on the mentioned variable. Their study revealed that EFL learners had a positive belief in EFL learning. It reported that risk-taking affected learners' translation belief significantly in the way that risk-averse learners had a positive belief which is in contrast with risk-takers who had negative belief about translation. Their analysis of the data on the effect of ambiguity tolerance on translation belief revealed that this individual characteristic had no effect on learner's translation belief. As a result, although they found risk-taking to be significantly effective on translation belief, no such an effect was reported of ambiguity tolerance. Karbalaee (2011) tried to examine both the patterns of ambiguity tolerance among Iranian English language learners and the existence of any statistically significant difference between Iranian male and female learners' in their ambiguity tolerance. Her results revealed that participants' average ambiguity tolerance score were highest in items related to *reading skill* and the lowest in items pertained to writing skill. With respect to gender effect, no statistically significant difference was revealed between Iranian male and female English language learners in their ambiguity tolerance. Atef-Vahid, et al (2011) explored levels of ambiguity tolerance among Iranian high school students in EFL classrooms and its relationship with cloze test performance. The instruments used in this study were Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale (SLTAS) (Ely 1995) and a standardized English cloze test. Their results displayed that respondents with higher levels of ambiguity tolerance were likely to obtain higher scores on the cloze test, and those with lower levels of ambiguity tolerance tended to gain lower scores on the cloze test. Maftoon and Karbalaee (2012) attempted to examine whether any statistically significant relationship existed between Iranian EFL learners' AT (ambiguity tolerance) and their *reading strategy use*. Using an ambiguity tolerance scale similar to that of present study they found no statistically significant relationship between participants' AT and their overall reading strategy use. Further, their results displayed a statistically significant and positive relationship between AT and *reading comprehension* scores of the participants, which as will be shown later supports the finding of present study.

III. Method

A. Participants

A total number of 22 female students were chosen. All of them were students of Kharazmi University with different majors, their age ranging from 18 to 23. They enrolled at a pre-TOEFL class. Their level of English proficiency was reported to be intermediate, so they seemed appropriate for the purpose of study.

B. Instrumentation

1. Ambiguity tolerance questionnaire

The questionnaire used for this purpose belongs to McLain (1993). It should be mentioned that from among the items included in the questionnaire, questions number 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, and 22 were exactly what Ely (1995) had used in his situation-specific study of ambiguity tolerance scale. The rest of questions were based on McLain's scale and on a general understanding of what makes a situation ambiguous and also on teaching experience.

2. Reading passages

Having surfed the relevant websites (including TOEFL), the researchers found appropriate reading passages tailored to subject's level of English proficiency. With reference to the difficulty level of passages, they had been measured up to the intermediate level of students.

C. Design

According to Farhadi (1995) there are three major research designs: descriptive, correlational, and experimental. The present study is correlational because it aims at finding meaningful relationship among the variables under study. As a result, the design of the study is *ex post facto*. In this design the researcher does not have any control over the selection and manipulation of independent variables. Also the researcher has no control over what has happened to the students and any relationship between the scores of the groups would not be related to any instructional program they might have encountered.

D. Procedure

Having translated the McLain's scale of Ambiguity tolerance into Persian, the researchers had some English professors ensure its content validity. The scale consisted of 22 items, each one containing six choices ranging from completely agree to completely disagree (Likert Scale). These choices were assumed to have values from 6 to 1. So the total score of the exam was 132.In the second phase, a session was arranged with the instructor of the pre-TOEFL class and the questionnaires were distributed among the subjects. They answered it in 15 minutes. With the span of three weeks, during the third step, subjects were provided with the reading passages. As was mentioned before, it contained four reading passages, each one followed by 5 reading comprehension items with total score of twenty. The allocated time was 45 minutes. In the final phase, i.e. after administering the test, the papers were scored and put into the SPSS software for analysis. Then their scores on both exams were correlated which are presented in the following section, accompanied by some interpretation.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As it is presented in the statistical descriptions, Pearson correlation was used in this study to analyze the obtained data. The reason behind this choice was discovering any relationship between the two groups of scores: the scores of reading comprehension test and the degree of ambiguity tolerance. Following tables show a positive relationship between ambiguity tolerance and reading comprehension ability $(.0<.05)$. Based on the correlation index obtained (0.83) it can be inferred that there is a high correlation between ambiguity tolerance and reading comprehension ability, that is to say, the more ambiguity tolerant the students are, the higher their reading comprehension scores will be.

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF AMBIGUITY TOLERANCE AND READING COMPREHENSION

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Ambug-Toler	90.3182	22	14.46304	3.08353
	Read-Compre	15.5000	22	1.87083	.39886

TABLE II
CORRELATION BETWEEN AMBIGUITY TOLERANCE AND READING COMPREHENSION

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Ambug-Toler & Read-Compre	22	.835	.000

Findings of this piece of research are in line with the previously mentioned works, particularly those of Kazamia, Keshavarz and Assar, and Maftoon and Karbalaee. As was stated before, these researchers generally found statistically significant and positive relationship between ambiguity tolerance and reading comprehension scores of the participants, which supports the finding of present study. On the other hand, some contradictory and curious evidence to Hakk Erten and Zehir Topkaya's findings was traced in this study. They came across with Turkish students' lower tolerance for ambiguity in the process of learning a foreign language, and consequently concluded that learners in an EFL context are generally less tolerant of ambiguity. However informative and insightful their study may be, it is not substantiated by the finding of present study. The high index of 0.83 suggests a significant positive correlation between ambiguity tolerance and reading comprehension ability, indicating the fact that ambiguity tolerance does make contribution to the process of learning a foreign language.

V. CONCLUSION

Following the research trends in the area of learning styles and strategies this paper made an attempt to investigate the relationship between ambiguity tolerance and learner's reading comprehension ability. Correlational procedure showed that there is a positive and hence significant correlation between these two variables. Findings of this study supports the idea that learners' preferred learning styles, ambiguity tolerance in this case, play a major role in their reading comprehension. As Ely (1989) believed perhaps the central implication of this study concerns the way in which teachers view and present language learning styles and strategies. Although some teachers are now becoming aware of the importance of individual learning style and personality characteristics in language learning, often little has been done in practice. Therefore it is incumbent upon teachers to raise students' awareness of their preferred learning style and provide them with proper opportunities to draw on these styles. One way to do this, of course, is by supplying different reading passages and asking students to be more tolerant of ambiguity and uncertainties and not dismissing the whole passage once encountered with the first unfamiliar vocabularies. After enriching their class with more learner-friendly and style-oriented tasks they can move more quickly toward helping their students to become successful language learners. The last but not least point is that the major focus of current study was on tolerance of ambiguity. It is certain that there are many other individual characteristics at students' disposal that warrant investigation. Classroom teachers are in the best position to observe these variables and decide which one to implement in future research projects.

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