Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

Electronic Reading and Writing in Spoken and Written Arabic: A Case Study

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Abstract—**Reading and writing disabilities and generalized cognitive dysfunction are developmental in origin and are likely linked to abnormalities in brain function. In this article, we detail selective reading and writing disturbances in the spoken and written Arabic orthography of an Arab teenager (RL) who communicates with his friends via readable and understandable electronic messages. We examine the performance of RL, who was diagnosed as learning disabled, in his reading and writing of Arabic words and text in Latin orthography compared to his reading and writing in Arabic orthography. Cognitive and verbal abilities in Arabic and Latin electronic orthography were tested using traditional pen and paper as well as electronic devices. The results underline the importance of the effect of the type of Arabic orthography on reading and writing fluency.**

Index Terms—**learning disability, reading, diglossia, Arabic, orthography, Latin, electronic**

I. Introduction

Learning disability is a term that describes a variety of disabilities that affect the acquisition, remembering, understanding, organization or use of verbal and non-verbal information. The most common learning disability (70%-80%) is in reading (dyslexia). Formally, dyslexia is defined as a specific learning disability that is neurological in origin and characterized by difficulties with accurate and/or fluent word recognition and by poor spelling and decoding abilities. For instance, children with dyslexia may, through hard work and special education, learn to compensate for their difficulties, so that by adulthood they no longer appear to have a serious problem with reading (Shaywitz et al., 2003).

The term "Developmental Dyslexia" is often used as a synonym for reading disability. However, many researchers assert that there are different types of reading disabilities, of which dyslexia is one. A reading disability can affect any part of the reading process, including difficulty with accurate and/or fluent word recognition, word decoding, reading rate, prosody (oral reading with expression) and reading comprehension. Children with developmental dyslexia suffer from severe reading problems despite normal intelligence and normal instruction conditions and the absence of sensory problems (Snowling, 2000). Snowling (2000) describes "Developmental Dyslexia" as constellations of deficits which include: difficulties in learning to read, spelling problems and general slowness in symbolic information processing. However, other problems experienced by dyslexics also indicate difficulties with perceptual processes (visual and auditory), motor co-ordination, attention and memory (Stein, 2001). Children with dyslexia score poorly on tests of oral language expression and comprehension (Bishop, & Snowling, 2004). These difficulties typically result from a deficit in the phonological component of the language that is often unexpected in relation to other cognitive abilities and the provision of effective classroom instruction (Lyon, Shaywitz, & Shaywitz, 2003). Recent research has indicated that dyslexia can be considered as a deficit in the process of phonological information processing (Vellutino, Fletcher, Snowling, & Scanlon, 2004). That includes deficits in phonological awareness and phonological processing (Gallagher, Frith, & Snowling, 2000). Zabell and Everatt (2002) claimed that children with developmental dyslexia show difficulties from the beginning of reading and writing acquisition. A variety of different types of acquired dyslexia have also been identified. As these subtypes are caused by localized brain injury, their effects on the reading process can be quite specific. Similarly, the symptoms manifested by an acquired dyslexic will depend on which aspect of the reading process has been selectively compromised (Bishop, & Snowling, 2004).

II. PHONOLOGICAL AND SURFACE DYSLEXIA

According to the "Dual Route Model" of Coltheart, Rastle, Perry, Langdon, Ziegler (2001), successful reading relies on two routes: the sub-lexical route and the lexical route. Only when both of these procedures are functioning adequately is an individual able to read all forms of text. In the sub-lexical route the letters are decoded by grapheme-phoneme rules of the alphabetical orthography. This procedure involves the division of written words into graphemes (letters or groups of letters), the mapping of sounds or phonemes to those graphemes, and the blending of the sounds together to produce a pronunciation. A problem in the sub-lexical route causes phonological dyslexia. People with phonological dyslexia show difficulties in decoding new words since reading new words that are not in their lexicon requires grapheme-phoneme decoding process (Zabell & Everatt, 2002).

The second route is the Lexical Route that relates to written words as complete patterns. The orthographic or visual representation of the word in the mental lexicon allows pronunciation of the word. This route represents the mechanism by which the sight vocabulary is accessed and words are recognized as patterns without the necessity of phoneme-grapheme decoding. A problem in this route causes surface dyslexia. People with surface dyslexia have difficulties in accessing the "visual vocabulary" and they rely on the sub-lexical route to recall the pronunciation of a word. As a result, they show difficulties reading irregular words (Zabell & Everatt, 2002). (See, Figure 1 for the Dual Route Model).
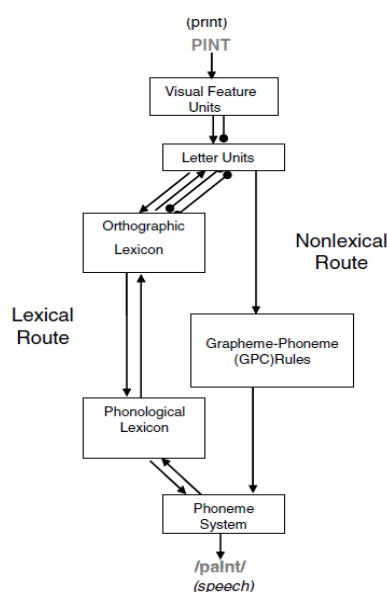
Figure 1. The Dual Route Model, Coltheart et al. (2001)

Other researchers define phonological dyslexia as specific severe deficit in phonological processing, while surface dyslexia is characterized by a general delay in word recognition (Stanovich, Siegel & Gottardo, 1997).

In regard to 'writing disorder', impaired written language ability may include impairments in handwriting, spelling, organization of ideas, and composition. The term "dysgraphia" is often used as an all-encompassing term for all disorders of written expression. Some others, such as the International Dyslexia Association, use the term "dysgraphia" to refer exclusively to difficulties with handwriting.

III. READING DISABILITIES AMONG ARABIC SPEAKERS

Low levels of literacy have consistently been reported in Arabic-speaking countries, among both young readers (PIRLS, 2006) and older adolescent readers (PISA, 2009). Similar findings have emerged when comparing literacy achievements within Israeli society between Hebrew and Arabic speakers. Among Arabic speakers in Israel, some evidence indicates that reading rates are lower when reading their native Arabic (L1) as compared to reading non-native (L2) Hebrew (Ibrahim, Eviatar & Aharon-Peretz, 2007). Many researchers (e.g., Myhill, 2009) have suggested that some of these difficulties are attributable to the so-called "diglossia" phenomenon in Arabic (see below), first described by Ferguson (1959) to refer to the existence of a high-prestige literary language and a low-prestige spoken dialect(s). The difference between these two varieties of Arabic is manifested in a substantial divergence in semantic, phonological, and even syntactic structures. There is wide agreement that this diglossic situation is a serious obstacle to literacy for young learners (see, for example, Iraqi, Feitelson, & Share, 1992; Myhill, 2009; Saiegh-Haddad, 2005), but there is also evidence that other factors, principally the graphemic-orthographic features of written Arabic, may also partly account for the difficulties of learning written Arabic (e.g., Abu-Rabia, Mansour & Share, 2003; Abu Ahmad, Ibrahim & Share, in press; Elbeheri, & Everatt, 2007). For example, a study by Ibrahim, Eviatar and Aharon Peretz (2002) examined the effects of orthography on letter and numeral processing. In that context, adolescent Arabic speakers for whom Hebrew

is a second language were asked to perform a Trail Making Test in oral and visual versions. The findings revealed no difference between the oral versions, but, in the visual version performance was quite slower in Arabic. The authors hypothesized that the complexity of Arabic orthography slows letter and word identification. A later study by Ibrahim et al. (2007) found that the visual complexity of Arabic orthography causes unique difficulties among native Arabic speakers/ readers even compared to their own ability to read L2 Hebrew. A number of developmental studies (e.g., Abu-Ahmad et al., in press) have also demonstrated that acquiring decoding skills in Arabic is a particularly challenging task for the beginning reader.

Elbeheri, & Everatt (2007) found in their study about literacy ability and phonological processing among normal and poor readers that there are relationships between literacy ability, decoding and phonological processing. In addition, they found that Arabic dyslexics show signs of poor phonological skills. The study supports the view that dyslexic Arabic children have impairments in the phonological processing domain.

IV. DIGLOSSIA

Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) or literary Arabic is the form of Arabic used for reading and writing acquisition. The difference between the spoken dialect of the Arabic speaker and the written language that he/she acquires through formal instruction in school represents a classic case of Diglossia (Ayari, 1996). In such a diglossic context, MSA appears to some extent as a foreign language for native speakers of colloquial Arabic dialects. Hence, some authors consider literate monolingual Arabic speakers as bilingual speakers. This fact might explain the low rates in Arabic literacy among native speakers of Arabic, since it might be just as difficult for some native speakers of Arabic to acquire literacy in written Arabic as it is difficult for anyone to acquire literacy in a foreign language.

In the last decade, with the advent of electronic writing in media such as SMS, email messages and Messenger, young Arabic speakers have begun to develop their own writing systems. These improvised writing systems were based on writing the colloquial language in Arabic letters or in Latin alphabets. They use this improvised writing system as a way to deal with the complexity of Arabic and with the diglossia phenomenon of Arabic. This phenomenon is explainable by the argument that children learn to read most efficiently when the language of their primary schooling is as close as possible to their native dialect, and it is obvious that standard Arabic is quite different from the spoken dialects. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that it would be more efficient for poor readers to acquire literacy using the spoken dialects.

V. ARABIC ORTHOGRAPHY

Standard Arabic consists of an alphabetical system that includes 28 basic letters. It is written and read from right to left. All of the letters are consonants but three letters also serve as long vowels (Abu-Rabia, 2007). In Standard Arabic there is a correspondence between letters and their sound in texts that are written with short vowels (which are represented by diacritics above or below the letters). Arabic Orthography written with short vowels is considered a shallow orthography and serves beginning readers, while Arabic orthography that is written without short vowels is considered as "deep orthography" and is intended for advanced readers (Abu-Rabia, Share & Mansour, 2003). In addition, Arabic orthography has another characteristic. Most Arabic letters have more than one written form, depending on the letter's position and connectedness in a word: beginning, middle or end, in addition to more rules for different written shapes for each letter (see Taha, Ibrahim & Khateb, 2013).

Letter recognition is critical for pronunciation and reading of words, and it requires considerable cognitive attention. This recognition is influenced by: the letter's shape, the diverse writing rules in different positions and the identification of the different short vowels under, in, and above the letters (Abu-Rabia et al., 2003). Furthermore, some of the letters have similar shapes and the only difference between them is the number and the position of dots: either on, in or under the letter. Dots appear within 15 letters; 10 letters appear with one dot, three have two dots and two have three dots. These dots are part of the consonant letters (Abu-Rabia, 2007). In addition, the diacritical marks which are the short vowels (/a/, /u/, /e/, /sukoon/, /shadda/) contribute to the phonology of the Arabic alphabet. The short vowels in Latin orthography are the letters in a word, whereas in the Semitic orthographies such as Arabic, the short vowels are not letters, but rather they appear on the letters and contribute to the correct pronunciation of words (Abu-Rabia, 1997). Furthermore, the vowelization of the word endings represents the grammatical function of the word in a sentence (Abu-Rabia, 2007). Also, of the unique characteristics of Arabic orthography is the fact that a number of letters (graphemes) share the same letter form (derived from Nabatean which had fewer consonants) and are distinguished only by the position and the number of consonant (dot) diacritics. For example, ث - ب - ت represent the consonants /t/, /b/ and /th/ respectively. Some adaptations of the Arabic "abjad" (e.g., Sindhi is southern India), include up to 7 or even 8 diacritical variants of the identical letter-form. An additional unique feature of Arabic orthography is that the majority of letters vary in shape according to position in the word; word-initial, medial or word-final position. It is worthy to emphasize that letter position also causes a little change (ط ـطـ ـط) or a large change (ه ـه ـهـ هـ) on the letter shape (for more examples see Appendix A). Six letters, however, have only two variant shapes which depend not only on the position in the word but also on the preceding letter ر /r/, ز /z/, د /d/, ذ /th/, و /w/ and ا /a/. This subset of letters may connect only from the right side(حلو, Lawh) but not from the left, (ولد, Walad). This sub-group of letters, therefore,

may appear to the reader to be more separated or "distinct" in a word, that is, visually separated from adjacent letters. Thus, orthographically, Arabic presents unique challenges for the young reader despite the fact that grapheme-phoneme relations in the traditional (orthographic depth) sense are considered as highly regular or consistent.

A study by Taouk and Coltheart, (2004) investigated reading acquisition in Arabic among children and adults. In one experiment they attempted to examine the naming of real pronounceable 'position-illegal' words; which are written with a wrong letter variant according to its position. They found that children's word reading was significantly impaired when incorrect positional variants were substituted for the correct variants. This finding provides evidence that positional variants of letters affect word reading. Recent study that was conducted by Khateb et al. (Submitted), showed that the effect of variants of letters shapes and connectivity on word recognition in Arabic can be modulated by the reading age and proficiency.

VI. ELECTRONIC WRITING

In the last 20 years people have been introduced to electronic writing. Younger people are generally introduced to electronic writing before they have fully developed the literacy skills based upon the established norms associated with the printed word. Therefore, it is natural for them to simply transfer their established writing conventions to electronic media when these became available. It is noted that in certain contexts in which there is a feeling that the language should be more colloquial (e.g. email messages, SMS messages, and often blogs), they feel relatively free to ignore normal writing conventions to achieve this end. Because Arabic, in which the spoken (colloquial) language differs significantly from the standard written Arabic (referred to as diglossia, see section IV), and in which the spoken form has no written form, this colloquial way of writing has become very common. Electronic media (as emails, SMS messages, and in most cases blogs) have become the usual avenue of written communication for young Arab people. This means that in this case where there is no established way to write the spoken language, young Arab people have no choice but to devise ad-hoc orthography, not necessarily even in the same alphabet as that which is used to write their standard language. In Arabic, more than in any other language, this phenomenon has begun to receive the attention of academic researchers (see e.g. Warschauer, El Said, and Zohry 2002, Wheeler 2003, Palfreyman and al-Khalil 2003). Garra (2007) has shown that various orthographic systems for representing the different varieties of spoken Arabic are beginning to take shape. There are cases in which local written standards are beginning to develop. For example, Arabic speakers from the northern region in Israel/Palestine today generally write electronically using a written version of the spoken dialect where there are actually 7 different phonemes which are commonly represented with numerals in the writing system: 2 for /ء/ hamza" and /ق/ "qaaf", 3 for /ع/ "ayin", 3' or 8 for /غ/ "ghain", 5 or 7' for /خ/ "khaa'", 6 for /ث/ "taa'", 7 for /ح/ "haa'" when all of these can also be represented without numbers. For example, the letter غ "ghayn" could be represented (in descending order of relative frequency) as <g>, <3'>, <gh>, <8>, or <g'>, with none of these versions particularly dominating.

VII. THE INFLUENCE OF ARABIC ORTHOGRAPHY ON READING

Abu Rabia, & Taha, (2004), examined the reading and spelling errors of dyslexic Arabic readers compared to normal readers. The results of this study indicate that similar reading and spelling error profiles were observed among dyslexics and the reading-level-matched group. In addition, they found a clear influence of the Arabic orthography and its morphology on reading and spelling. For example, the irregular pronunciation rules and visual letter confusion. An important finding in the study of Ibrahim, Eviatar, & Aharon Peretz (2002), was that reading a text in Arabic is harder for Arabic-speaking children than reading a text in Hebrew among Hebrew-speaking children. This difference was attributed to the complexity of Arabic orthography which increases the perceptual load and so slows word recognition in Arabic. This finding supports the hypothesis that visual processing is important in reading Arabic, and the difference in visual letter processing between Arabic and Hebrew is primarily influenced by visual or orthographic and not by phonological factors.

The findings of Ibrahim and his colleagues' study inspired the present study that aimed at examining the influence of orthography on reading and writing fluency of a teenager who was diagnosed as learning disabled. The purposes of the present study were: first, to examine the performance of a teenager who was diagnosed as learning disabled in reading and writing Arabic words in Latin orthography in a comparison to reading and writing in Arabic orthography; second, to examine the performance in writing of Arabic text using Latin orthography by handwriting versus writing electronically.

The hypotheses of this study were: first, the performance of the participant in writing and reading in the Latin orthography will be better than his performance in writing and reading in the Arabic orthography, second, the performance of the participant in writing electronically will be better than handwriting.

VIII. METHODOLOGY

Case Report: RL is a 13.3 year old teenager, who studies in the 8th grade in a private school in Nazareth. RL is right-handed. He speaks Arabic as his first language, and began to study Hebrew in third grade and English in the fourth grade.

RL is the third son in a family that includes 5 siblings and parents. His father is a contractor, his mother is a

housewife. His youngest sister has been diagnosed as dysgraphic, and his oldest brother had learning difficulties during his school years.

According to the mother's report, the pregnancy and childbirth were normal. Developmentally, no problems were reported in motor and speech development.

Medically, RL was hospitalized once due to a congenital injury in his neck muscle that affected his head movement, he was able to move his head only to one side. As a result, he had a surgery when he was three years old.

RL was diagnosed with a learning disability. He was diagnosed twice by the educational psychologist of the school; once when he was eight years old and again when he was 11 years old.

RL was directed to diagnosis by his parents due to low academic achievements and educational difficulties. His difficulties in writing and reading began before the first grade, when his teacher assigned copying letters and numbers and he was not able to do this. His difficulties increased at the beginning of the first grade, especially in word decoding and he used a drawing or copying strategy in the dictation assignments- he wrote words in first grade as a whole pattern. Also, he had difficulties in reading and in grapheme-phoneme correspondence.

RL has been studying in the same school since he was 3 years old. After the diagnosis, he was integrated through a remediation project and was instructed by a remediation teacher. RL has not been treated by learning disabilities specialist, but just got private lessons from a tutor who supported him educationally and assisted him in his homework. Nowadays, RL is getting assistance only during the exams period, and is not getting any remediation at school. His mother reported that RL refuses to do homework and he gets angry while doing homework.

Educationally, RL prefers to learn chemistry, physics, history, electronics, sport, Arabic and mathematics. On the other hand, he does not like English and Hebrew.

Socially, RL is an admired teenager among his peers and other pupils in his school as well as by the teachers RL is a friendly, self-confident teenager and has a sense of humor. RL likes playing electronic games, spending time with friends and sleeping. Every week, RL goes for picnics with his family and rides horses. He uses the electronic media and internet very well, and although he knows how to use the Microsoft WORD software, he rarely uses it.

Stimuli: In the present study, six types of tests were used to examine the performance of RL in different categories.

First, in order to examine RL's general performance the Wechsler (WISC) Similarities test was administered. Similarities are a measure of concept formation. In this test, the subject is asked to describe how two given things are alike, e.g.: how are banana and apple alike?

Second, three reading tests were administered in order to examine the RL's reading abilities in standard Arabic:

a. Reading of single words: The test included 15 standard Arabic words that are frequent and common for standard and spoken Arabic. For example: مدرسة, بيت, خاتم (see Appendix 1).

b. Reading of non-words: The test included 15 non-words that were constructed from patterns of frequent words in Arabic. For example: جاهر, دون (see Appendix 2).

c. Reading of standard Arabic text: The test was a story for children aged 10 years old that consisted of 107 words. The text was written with minimal punctuation in order to dismiss homographs (see Appendix 3).

Third, a spelling test was administered in order to examine RL's performance in writing and in the phoneme-grapheme transition of common word patterns in Arabic. The words were chosen from the text that he read in the previous test (see Appendix 4).

Fourth, RL was requested to read a spoken Arabic text that was written in Latin letters. The text was part of scientific article from an Arabic Scientific website. The text deals with smoking which is a topic of interest for teenagers. The text was translated to spoken Arabic. Then, the test was written in Latin letters according to the common system of writing small messages and emails among the Arabic population (see Appendix 5).

Fifth, a spelling test was administered. RL was requested to write a Spoken Arabic text in Latin letters using paper and pencil. The text is a part of an article about Arabian horses from a specific website that deals with horses which is one of RL's hobbies. The text was written in standard Arabic, then, it was translated to spoken Arabic (see Appendix 5).

Sixth, another spelling test was administered. RL was requested to write a Spoken Arabic text in Latin letters on his personal electronic device. The text was the continuation of the previous text about horses (see Appendix 6).

IX. PROCEDURE

This study was conducted at R.L's house in a quiet room during the weekend. RL was instructed that the examinations were only for the purpose of this study. The study was conducted in one session which was divided into two parts with one break between parts. In the first part, the Arabic orthography reading and writing tasks were administered. In the second part, the reading and writing tasks that were written with the improvised Latin-Arabic writing system were administered.

X. RESULTS

The RL's performance on the various qualitative and quantitative measures of cognitive and linguistic tests is reported separately.

Ability measure: RL's raw score in the Similarities Test from WISC was 14. This performance referred to a

standard score=10 that is within the norms for his age.

Reading tests: In the single words reading test, RL read 10 words correctly out of 15 words. In other words, his accuracy percentage was 66.7%. In the non-words reading test, RL read 10 words correctly out of 15 words. In other words, his accuracy percentage was 66.7% (see errors types, Table 1).

In reading a text, RL made 36 errors out of 107 words. In other words, his accuracy percentage was 66.7%. His speed was 15.7 words in a minute (see Figure 2 and Figure 3).

His reading in this text was very slow, he read each syllable separately and he was having difficulty during his reading.

TABLE. I
ERROR TYPES (ACCORDING TO ABU-RABIA & TAHA (2004).

The test	Types of Errors
Single words reading	1. Semantic dysphonetic errors, e.g: لعبة-علبة. 2. Morphological errors, e.g: كرسي- كراسي. 3. Semantic dysphonetic, e.g: مقلمة- مقالات. 4. Ignoring short vowels from the end of the words*.
Non-words reading test	1. Vowel confusion errors: he read the long vowels as short vowels, e.g: مار – مر *. 2. Letter confusion errors: he read the "L" as "A" when "L" is connected to another letter.*
Text reading (Standard Arabic)	1. Letter confusion errors: he read the "L" as "A" when "L" is connected to another letter, e.g: لماذا- أماذا* 2. Errors as a result of mispronunciation of the "Hamza" letter, e.g: سأل-سال *. 3. Morphological errors, e.g: الخوف- الخائف. 4. Non-semantic semi-phonetic errors, e.g: العُمُر - العَمر. 5. Non-semantic dysphonetic, e.g: كمية-كميت. 6. Visual letter confusion, e.g: البالغ-البالع. 7. Vowel confusion errors, e.g: قبل – قابل.
Words spelling test	1. Phonetic errors, e.g: طفلة- طفلا

*Types of errors which are not included in Abu Rabia & Taha (2004).

In reading a spoken text that was written with Latin letters, RL read each syllable separately, but he controlled his reading process. RL read with 88.9% accuracy. His speed was 13.3 words a minute.

A paired t-test was used to estimate their relationship to one another by examining whether the mean performance in Latin letters was equal to the mean performance in Arabic. In Latin letters, RL exhibited almost fluent reading, whereas in Arabic letters his reading was characterized by stops pauses and visually-based errors. A paired-samples t-test disclosed a significant difference between his performance in the two orthographies (t (2) = 11, p < 0.05).

The paired t test of speed showed a non-significant difference between single letter and text reading (t= 5.776, p= n.s).

Spelling tests: In the words spelling test, RL achieved 20% accuracy. In the spelling test of a spoken language text where RL was asked to write in Latin letters manually, RL achieved 76% accuracy and his speed was 4.5 words in a single minute.

In the spelling test of a spoken language text where RL was asked to write in Latin letters using an electronic device, RL achieved 80% accuracy and his speed was 6.5 words in a minute.

Although the accuracy in the both manual and electronic spelling tests in the spoken language text did not differ significantly, (t= 5.776, p= n.s), RL exhibited significant greater speed in reading words related to reading text (t = 6.7, p < 0.01).

Standard vs. spoken Arabic: All data were analyzed by a paired t-test procedure in order to estimate the relationship between the two types of Arabic by examining whether the mean performance in spoken Arabic was equal to the mean performance in standard Arabic.

The paired t test of the two levels of the type of language variables yielded a non-significant difference between spoken Arabic and standard Arabic,{t= 2.189, p= n.s} indicating that the differences between the performance in spoken Arabic and standard Arabic were not significant.

Also, an additional paired t-test was conducted in order to estimate the relationship between the speed of reading and writing by examining whether the mean speed in reading is equal to the mean speed in the writing. The paired t-test yielded a non-significant difference between reading and writing, {t= 4.477, p= n.s} indicating that the differences between the speed in writing and reading were not significant.
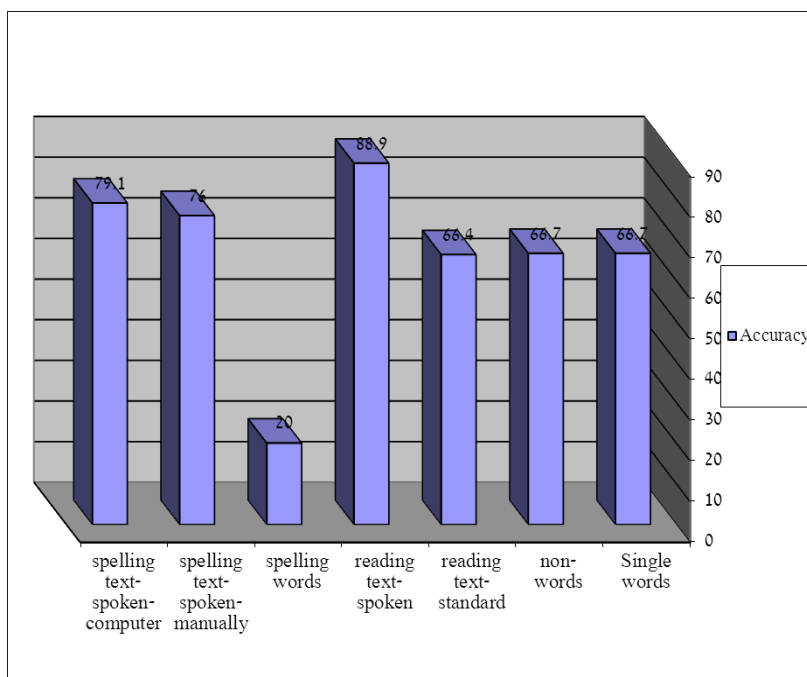
Figure 2. RL's accuracy percentages of RL in reading and spelling tests.
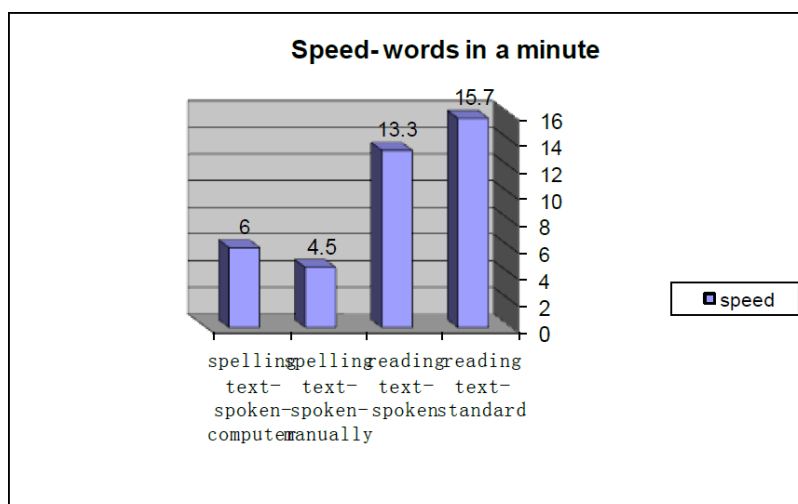
Figure 3. RL's speed (Words per minute) in the reading and spelling tests.

XI. DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was two folds: first, to examine the performance of a teenager (RL) who was diagnosed as learning disabled, in his reading and writing of Arabic words in Latin orthography compared to his reading and writing in Arabic orthography. Second, to examine RL's performance in writing Arabic text in Latin orthography manually versus writing on a computer.

RL's language skills as reflected in the reading measures suggest that he performs dissociatively when he deals with the two types of orthography (electronic vs. manual) but performs equally on the two forms of Arabic. RL's performance in writing a spoken Arabic text using electronic writing was better than manual writing. However, RL's performance on the tests shows that his performance in reading a text written in the improvised Arabic-Latin writing system was better than reading a text written in Arabic orthography. Furthermore, RL's performance L in writing a spoken Arabic text was better than writing a standard Arabic text. In addition, RL's good performance in writing and reading a text written in the improvised is indicative of RL's reading and writing difficulties in Arabic orthography. This finding is in line with the suggestion of Ibrahim, Eviatar, & Aharon-Peretz (2002),that the characteristics of Arabic orthography, especially the visual complexity of Arabic letters, result in slowing the processing of Arabic orthography.

Abu Rabia & Taha, (2004) argued that Arabic orthography includes many letters that are visually similar and phonologically different, which explains the errors caused by the confusion of grapheme representation of specific phonemes. Also, they claim that dyslexics suffer from the lack of Grapheme Phoneme Correspondence (GPC)

manipulation ability, especially in orthography like Arabic where letters change shapes according to their position in the word. The findings of this study show that most of RL's errors in reading a text written in Arabic orthography were caused by the visual similarity of letters and letters that change their shapes according to their position in the word. At initial presentation, the connected items (which were matched for diacritical complexity) were actually read more quickly than the non-connected items. This finding is consistent with Abdelhadi et al. (2011) who also found a speed advantage for words with connecting letters among skilled adult readers of Arabic when performing a visual search task (see also Taha et al., 2013). The authors attributed this advantage to the fact that most printed words in Arabic consist of ligatured letters rather than non-ligatured letters. The present data, therefore, replicates this finding and extends it to young readers performing a standard word pronunciation task.

Another study that examined the effect of short vowelization on reading accuracy among dyslexics indicated that normal readers mastered the short vowels better than the dyslexics (Abu-Rabia, 2007). Dyslexics showed difficulty positing the correct short vowels on or under the correct letter to indicate correct pronunciation. Also, compared to the normal readers, they showed difficulty in syntactic awareness in posting diacritics on the ends of words to indicate grammatical function. In the current study, it was found that most of RL's errors were related to short vowelization.

In addition to the importance of short vowelization in Arabic to reading, the position of the letters in a word, and the changing of shapes according to their position in the word also effect reading fluency among dyslexics. RL explained his difficulties of reading Arabic orthography as related to the written form of Arabic letters. Since Arabic orthography is usually written with connected letters, RL has difficulty with fluency of word recognition. However, reading and writing in Latin letters is easier because the letters are separated in the words.

Furthermore, RL's good performance in reading and writing texts that are written in the improvised Arabic-Latin writing system can be explained by a full grapheme-phoneme correspondence, because each phoneme is represented by a specific letter or grapheme of the Latin letters.

The RL's good performance writing spoken language compared to writing standard Arabic may be caused by the fundamental characteristic of Arabic, diglossia. Studies that were conducted by Saiegh-Haddad, (2003; 2007) showed that Arabic- speaking children had more difficulty in phoneme isolation of standard Arabic words than phoneme isolation of spoken Arabic words. The researcher claimed that the phonological distance between the spoken language and the written language affects the acquisition of the basic reading processes such as phonological sensitivity and word decoding accuracy. In addition, diglossia interrupts the development of reading fluency indirectly, because it affects the speed of grapheme-phoneme conversion among young children.

The findings of this study support the assumption mentioned in the introduction and in the media of electronic devices that are used for educational and communicational purposes can affect reading skills. The use of the Facebook social network as well as other digital social programs that use short written electronic messages to communicate with others such as, "SKYPE", "MESSENGER" and others has grown tremendously. Using these electronic programs has caused the development of a new way of writing short messages among Arabic speakers. They have invented an Arabic-Latin writing system whereby they write colloquial Arabic words using the Latin letters. This improvised writing system is widespread throughout the social networks. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that RL's exposure to Latin (English) orthography in such social networks affected his performance in this study.

As electronic writing becomes more and more dominant, the idea that colloquial Arabic cannot be written, or cannot be written systematically, seems to disappear. This will mean that it will be much easier in Arabic-speaking societies to institute a program where a written version of the colloquial language is used in the very early grades to sensiblize the children to reading, such as those being used with other spoken languages (e.g Sinhala). Previously, this appeared to be problematic in Arabic because there was no established way to write the spoken language, but now because of the advent of electronic writing, such a system has begun to develop spontaneously. The use of this new type of writing, if it persists, may probably happen in the future if teachers are more convinced and familiar with this system, but it is probably that it will result in political fragmentation and debate. It is reasonable to suppose in this context that language developments will not only increase literacy, but also that it will represent an innovative use of a new media for writing which is clearly the wave of the future throughout the world.

XII. CONCLUSION

This study shows that RL, an Arab teenager who suffers from reading difficulties or dyslexia, reacts positively and quickly to the use of electronic systems. These systems provide the support, assistance, facilitation and access to an educational environment (Williams, Jamali, & Nicholas, 2006).

One limitation of this study is the shortage of comparable data regarding the reading and writing in a variety of spoken languages. In the absence of such data, we restricted ourselves to conclusions regarding the Arabic language. Obviously, further research is necessary before universal cross-linguistic conclusions can be drawn with a greater degree of confidence. Furthermore, the current findings encourage further examination of the impact of writing forms or the type of different orthographies on writing and reading among a large sample of dyslexics, and whether the Arabic orthography continues to be obstacle for learning in disabled teenagers. Furthermore, a future study should examine the impact of electronic usage on promoting learning for dyslexics and the effectiveness of electronic devices on reading and writing intervention among dyslexics.

APPENDIX A. SINGLE WORDS

مَدْرَسَة	عُلْبَة
مَقْلَمَة	وَلَدٌ
خاتَم	وَرْدَةٌ
كَلْبٌ	قَلَم
كُرْسي	وادي
سيّارة	دُكّان
طاوِلَةٌ	كِتاب
جَبَل	بَيْت

APPENDIX B. NON WORDS

مَار	دَوك
ظاهِن	مَوف
قَفَن	هُلك
ساقِم	زارِم
زاخ	راك
ثاتِب	دَنَة
مُداخ	لِيظ
جاهِم	لَبَت

APPENDIX C. READING TEXT

تضحية طفل

يُحكى أن طفلة أصيبتْ بمرض خطير و كانت حالتها حرجة جداً و كان أخوها البالغ من العمر تسع سنوات قد أصيب بنفس هذا المرض من قبل و شُفي منه فكان الحل الوحيد هو أن يَنقل لها الطبيب كمية من دماء أخيها.

نظر الطبيب إلى الأخ و قال له: لن يُنقذ أختك سوى نقل دمك إليها فهل أنت مستعدًا لذلك؟

امتلأت عينا الصغير بالخوف و تردد لحظة ثم قال:

موافق يا دكتور سأفعل ذلك؟

بعد ساعة من عملية النقل سأل الطفل بخوف:

قل لي يا دكتور متى سأموت ؟

عندئذٍ عرف الطبيب و أدرك لماذا أصيب الطفل بلحظة خوف عندما طلب منه ذلك فلقد اعتقد الصغير أن إعطاءه دماءه لأخته معناه أنه يعطيها حياته نفسها.

APPENDIX D. WORD SPELLING TASK

طفلة	مرض
جدًا	تسع
دماء	خوف
طَلَبَ	حياته
اعتقد	قال

APPENDIX E. SPOKEN ARABIC TEXT SPELLING TEST

الصفات الجمالية المطلوبة بالحصان العربي

1. لازم يكون راسو زغير , على شكل هرم ومتناسق.
2. مناخيرو\ خشومو وساع.
3. شعرو اللي بين دينيه لازم يكون طويل وطري.
4. لازم يكونو عينيه صافيات, وساع وسود كتير .
5. لازم يكون صباحو عريض وملزق بالعظم.
6. لازم يكونو دينيه طوال وحادات.
7. سنانو ماضيات.
8. رقبتو طويلي.
9. لازم يكونو إيديه طوال وناصحات.
10. لازم يكون بطنو طويل وقاسي.
11. لازم يكون ديلو طويل وملان شعر .

APPENDIX F. SPOKEN ARABIC TEXT SPELLING TEST - ELECTRONIC

A TEXT WRITTEN BY COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE WITH LATIN LETTERS
Elsefat eljamaleye elmatlobe bl 7san el3arabe

1. Lazem ykon raso z3'eer w 3la shekel haram.
2. Mana7'ero \ 7'shomo wsa3.
3. Sha3ro elle ben denee lazem yekon taweel w tare.
4. Lazem ykono 3enee safyat, wsa3, w sood kteer.
5. Lazem yekon saba7o 3areed w mlaze2 bl 3adem.
6. Lazem ykono denee twal w 7adat.
7. Snano madyat.
8. Ra2ebto tawele.
9. Lazem ykono 2edee twal w nas7at.
10. Lazem yekon batno taweel w 2ase
11. Lazem yekon deelo taweel w malan sha3ar.

STANDARD ARABIC TEXT

ما هي الدوافع التي تحمل الشاب أو المراهق على التدخين؟

هناك عدة عوامل دون أن يكون لأي منها أفضلية أو أهمية خاصة على ما عداها ولكل شاب أو مراهق دوافعه الخاصة التي قد تختلف عن دوافع الآخرين. وأهم هذه الدوافع هي كالآتي :

1.   تساهل الوالدين

2.   عندما ينغمس الأهل في مثل هذه العادات يصير سهلا على الولد أن يعتقد بأن هذه السجائر ليست بهذه الخطورة وإلا لما انغمس أهله وأقاربه فيها وبهذا فإن الأهل يشجعون أبناءهم عن سابق إصرار وتصميم على تدخين .

3.   الرغبة في المغامرة

إن المراهقين يسر هم أن يتعلموا أشياء جديدة و هم يحبون أن يظهروا أمام أترابهم بمظهر المتبجحين العارفين بكل شيء،، وهكذا فانهم يجربون أمورا مختلفة في محاولة اكتساب معرفة أشياء عديدة. فيكفي للمراهق أن يجرب السيجارة للمرة الأولى كي يقع في شركها وبالتالي يصبح من السهل عليه أن يتناولها للمرة الثانية وهكذا .

4.   الاقتناع بواسطة الأصدقاء

الكثير من المراهقين يخشون أن يختلفوا عن غير هم لاعتقادهم أن هذا من شأنه أن يقلل من ترحيب رفاقهم بهم .

5.   توفير السجائر

6.   إن أقرب السجائر تناولا للمراهق هي تلك الموجودة في بيته .

COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE TEXT

شو الأسباب اللي بتخلي الشباب أو المراهقين يدخنو ؟

في كتير أسباب وفش سبب معين بخلي الشباب يدخنو. كل شب عندو أسبابو الخاصة فيو واللي بتختلف عن أسباب أي مُراهق تاني.

أهم الأسباب هيي:

1.   تقليد الأهل

لما بكون الأبو أو الأم بدخنو ٫ كتير هواين على الولد يفكر بإنو الدخان مش خطر ٫ لأنو إزا أهلو أو قرايبو بدخنو معناتو هاد إشي طبيعي ومش خطر. وهيك الأهل بشجعو ولادهن يدخنو من دون ما يحسو.

2.   التعرف على أشياء جديدي

المراهقين عادة بحبو يتعلمو اشياء جديدي ويفرجو حالهن قدام صحابهن انهن بعرفو كل إشي. عشان هيك هني بجربو أشياء جديدي عشان يتعرفو على أشياء أكتر.

وبكفي إنو المراهق يدخن مرة وَحَدة عشان يعلق بفخ الدخان وهيك بصير هواين عليه يدخن كمان مرة.

3.   تأثير الصحاب

عشان المراهق ميحسش حالو بختلف عن صحابو بصير يدخن متلهن عشان يدمن حالو معهن.

4.   الدخان موجود وين مكان٫ موجود حتى بالبيت ٫ هاد الإشي بهاون على المراهق انو يحصل عالدخان.

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Syllabus Jurisprudence in the Algerian EFL Classroom

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Abstract—While the concept of the syllabus has long ago developed to include mainly the course description, the instructor's contact information, the course objectives, approach, and methodology, the required or recommended materials and readings, the course outline, the grading system, and the course policy, Algerian teachers are still stuck at the raw etymological definition of the syllabus as derived from Greek "syllibos," meaning the course outline. To remedy for the pedagogical sin of depriving students from an invaluable pedagogical document, this article outlines steps to crafting effective course syllabi with a sample syllabus and practical recommendations for the benefit of faculty.

Index Terms—syllabus design, Algerian University, EFL classroom, LMD system

I. INTRODUCTION

Eight years had passed since the Algerian University embraced the LMD[1] system in an attempt to keep abreast with the requirements that current educational zeitgeist dictates. While a newborn infant, it was paramount to zero in on the architecture of the system. For eight years and hitherto, we kept reiterating explanations of its structure including the duration of study for different degree levels, the number of semesters, the teaching units, the credits, the continuous evaluation process, tutorial sessions, the grading scale policy, the concept of interdisciplinary bridges, focused make-up exams, and other formal concerns. Come on, folks! We as faculty have had enough of talks about the structural and organizational components of the LMD system. While it might still be useful to tackle these aspects every now and then, it is high time for the core pedagogical canon of the LMD system to take the lion's share in our discussions, and in that we are way lagging behind. The staple motto of the LMD system has been "change the antiquated mentalities!", and yet we are doing poorly in scrutinizing what is implied by embracing a new vision of teaching, hence we are failing to eradicate our old mentalities. Having long enough dissected the fashionable body of the LMD system, let us now turn attention to the lofty pedagogical mentality it is entitled to hold. In this respect, the present paper sheds light on a key pedagogical pillar that current educational trends esteem indispensable while still a pariah in our instructional practices. It is the venerable "course syllabus". In a call to nudge Algerian faculty towards incorporating this precious document into their teaching traditions, the article at hand draws on the literature to detail steps to deftly craft an effective course syllabus and provides key considerations and recommendations regarding its content and use. It is my hope that colleagues respond to my call and seek their own growth along with that of students by establishing the first pillar of an LMD system course.

II. THE COMPONENTS OF AN EFFECTIVE SYLLABUS

While their length, content, and format might differ widely from one instructor to another and from course to course, published scholarship (Altman, 1992; Davis, no date; Developing Course Syllabi, no date; Johnson, 2006; Matejka & Kurke, 1994; Sinor & Kaplan, no date; Slattery & Carlson, 2005; Woolcock, 2006) indicates that effective syllabi share the same skeleton. They usually comprise respectively a description of the course, the instructor's contact information, the course objectives, approach, and methodology, the required or recommended materials and readings, the course outline, and the grading system. The more detailed the course syllabus is, the less conflicts are likely to rise between faculty and students and the smoother the teaching-learning experience will be.

A. Course Description

This section includes the course name and number if applicable, the credits and coefficient attributed to it, the year and semester when it is offered, and the weekly quantity of instruction devoted to it. With the LMD system, it is useful for the student to know the category of instructional unit the course belongs to: Fundamental, methodology, discovery,

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[1] LMD is an acronym that stands for Licence-Master-Doctorat which respectively correspond to the BA, Master's, and PhD degree. The LMD system has been adopted by the Algerian University in 2004 as part of the educational reforms that seek conformity with the American and European higher education standards. Studies within this system are organized in terms of semesters instead of trimesters and courses fall under four main teaching units: Fundamental, methodology, discovery, and transversal. Continuous evaluation superseded the practice of assessing students' performance on the mere basis of the final exams, European credits have been introduced to measure students' academic achievement, and descriptive statements of courses accompany the diplomas. Other formal components of the LMD system entail the tutorial sessions and interdisciplinary bridges etc.

or transversal. All this information should match the course listing as it appears on the program offer approved by the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. Further components of this section include the name of the institution with its logo symbol being an option, the name of the department, the section and group number, the class meeting time and location, information regarding tutorial sessions, and the course URL link or website if applicable. In case you have more than one class taking the same course, make sure you make changes as to the meeting time and location for the different groups you teach.

B. Instructor Information

The instructor's full name and title constitute the opening components of this section. The LMD system underlines the importance of teachers' availability to students outside the regular classroom meeting time which requires faculty members to provide the class with their contact information, usually their personal phone number and/or an e-mail address. Getting a SIM card and/or creating an alternative e-mail account for professional purposes might be good options in a culture that still favors distant and formal relationships with students. Some teachers might choose to use their personal web page or social networking services to communicate with students. Unlike American universities and colleges where most teachers have offices on campus regardless of their degrees and ranks, the majority of faculty members in the Algerian Universities represented by holders of the Magister or Master's degree and part-time adjunct teachers are not offered this facility. Only a minority amongst full professors and PhD holders can benefit from a work locale of their own. This category of teachers can further include office hours, location, phone and fax number on the syllabus in addition to information on how to schedule an appointment and a statement for encouraging office visits. Faculty can choose to share more personal information with their students such as their detailed background education and professional experience, home phone number (restrictions on its use can be included), and home address (Altman & Cashin, no date; Johnson, 2006; Sinor & Kaplan, no date).

C. Course Objectives

Crafting thorough course objectives entails considering the end of the course before starting to teach it. The focus of this section is on exposing the knowledge, competencies, skills, and attitudes the course aims at equipping students with, preferably stated from a student's point of view to facilitate learners' understanding of what is expected of them (Johnson, 2006). It tells the learner why he is taking a particular course and reminds the educator why he is teaching it. The minimum to include in this part of the syllabus would be a reiteration of the course goals as stated in the school's or the department's official document of course information (Altman & Cashin, 1992; Davis, no date). Action verbs --such as verbs in Bloom's taxonomy including: Identify, classify, read, produce, write, describe, discuss, interpret, report, examine, illustrate, recognize, assess, construct, demonstrate, discover, report, analyze, synthesize, evaluate, communicate …..etc. -- endow the course objectives with strength and make them seem more tangible to the learner. Careful attention should be devoted to measuring the course objectives accurately and tailoring them to the time frame granted to the course to guarantee their fulfillment (Johnson, 2006). An explanation of how the course objectives relate to the overall program goals and to students' future professional life is very useful to the learner. This way they get to understand why the course is part of the requirements for their degree.

D. Course Approach and Methodology

This part addresses the way the teaching/learning process will take place. How the instructor will approach the course to achieve its objectives, what methodologies he intends to use and what is the rationale behind opting for them, what roles he will assume in the teaching process, what format the course will take: Lecture, lecture and lab, seminar, lecture and TA sessions, discussion, group work, writing workshops, cooperative learning, practice…etc (Sinor & Kaplan, no date), and what kind of material and facilities will be used in class are part of the questions this area of the syllabus attempts to answer. The other part treats the roles and responsibilities assigned to the learner such as instructions on how to prepare for a class and teachers' expectations from students in class.

E. Course Materials

This area of the syllabus provides a bibliographic listing of the texts students are required to bring to class. The author's name, the title of the text, the publication year, the publisher, as well as the edition need to be mentioned. It also comprises a listing of any non-print material, supplies and resources that might be required for use in the course such as films, computers, software, flash drives, external hard drives, CDs….etc (Altman & Cashin, no date; Johnson, 2006; Sinor & Kaplan, no date). Some faculty might include readings that are useful for the student in that they help him/her better prepare for classes and exams and expand his/her knowledge of the course content while not required of him. Mingling both compulsory and recommended references is effective yet it is important to build a clear dichotomy between the two (Altman & Cashin, 1992; Davis, no date; Sinor & Kaplan, no date). Altman & Cashin (1992) suggest including a note that explains why the selected material is required for the course and that determines the extent to which it will be used. This guides students towards making appropriate decisions on whether to buy the material or borrow it. If known, stating the cost of the needed materials and providing information and guidelines on how to access them such as citing the name and location of a specific bookstore is particularly helpful for students (Sinor & Kaplan, no date). Tag the material available for loan from the school's library and let the student know what materials needed in

the course the concerned department will take care of and provide. In case there are no materials required of the students, it is preferable to clearly mention that in the syllabus.

F. Course Schedule/Calendar

The course schedule is the backbone of the syllabus. It involves an outline of the course content and activities set in a timely manner; the "what"-cum- the "when" of the course agenda. It is usually organized by topics spread over the number of daily or weekly sessions devoted to the course which enables students to know what to expect every class, hence helps them prepare for it beforehand. The course calendar includes the readings students are required to accomplish with citation of the pages or chapters' numbers along with the due dates and some reading-related notes or instructions. Besides, it highlights the material to bring to class on a particular day, important course events along with their dates such as tests, quizzes, exams, guest speakers, and field trips, deadlines for projects, presentations, and assignments, dates of holidays, breaks, and teachers' pre-planned absences (Altman & Cashin, no date; Johnson, 2006). Key events and dates preferably need to be bolded to draw more attention to them and facilitate their consultation by students (Sinor & Kaplan, no date). It is helpful, if not necessary, to refer to the academic calendar prepared by the responsible of the LMD domain when crafting the course outline. Sharon Rubin (as cited in The Importance of the Course Syllabus, 2012) calls for an explanation of the rationale for the order in which the course content occurs.

G. The Grading System

1. Means of Assessment.

Grades are what students care most about. Therefore, this section of the syllabus is by far the most salient in their eyes, the most hypnotizing. It is why it needs a lot of thoughtful reflection prior to crafting it. It lists and prescribes the types of assessments students will be exposed to: attendance and class participation, homework assignments, writing projects, oral presentations, portfolios, quizzes, midterm and final exams, group projects…etc (Johnson, 2006). Below is a synopsis of what might be included in the prescription of the means of assessment.

1.1. Attendance.

If attendance is included to determine the course grade, notify your students up front. While attendance policy in the LMD system is fixed by decree for all course offerings alike, allowing up to three unexcused or five excused absences, it is paramount that we remind our students of absenteeism regulations on the syllabus and stress the importance of adhering to them. We can provide them with useful links to access statutory texts that give ample details on the number of tolerated absences, the listing of excused absences, and the types of accepted justification forms …etc. It is useful to give students an academic warning for absenteeism when they come close to consuming the maximum number of tolerated absences. Appended to the present article is a sample of an academic warning document that I usually use in my classes (see the Appendix). I issue two copies of it and keep one for my own record. If you choose that a student's unexcused absence affects his grade, bring it to notice. Your course policy on late arrivals also should be thought of and made clear to students (Altman & Cashin, no date, Sinor & Kaplan, no date). Some faculty members don't allow late arrivals and deny the tardy student access to that particular session. If you are one of those teachers, detail your penalty for tardiness: subtracting credits, denying access to class, denying access and counting the tardiness as an absence….etc. ***"He refused to let me in because I came late to class and worse to worst, I didn't know my tardiness would count an absence. Surprisingly enough, I found myself on the list of dismissed students at the end of the term,"*** a student attests. This is a sample of common student statements that certify for the serious implications tardiness might have on students' coursework if its penalty measures are not communicated to them. Last but not least, explicate your policy regarding students who want to make-up for classes they missed with a group other than theirs.

1.2. Class Participation.

In most learning situations, students are expected to stir the waters in class by maintaining active participation in the different activities to fully benefit from the course and internalize its material. Encouraging statements like "don't be afraid to make mistakes!" are inviting and help students get rid of intimidation and embarrassment. Set clear criteria and rubrics on which you base your evaluation of in-class participation such as: preparing material before class, asking and answering teacher and peers' questions, commenting, taking part in classroom discussions and debates….etc.

1.3. Homework Assignments.

State clearly how often you plan on assigning homework: on a daily or weekly basis, when completing a whole unit, or whenever needed. Make the due dates eye-catching by bolding them. Clarify your course policy regarding late homework by indicating whether it is accepted or not and whether it is subject to penalty by adversely affecting the student's grade. Indicate if students can make-up for a missed assignment and whether you offer any extra credit work. Guide your class with instructions on how you want them to do the homework with such statements as: "Essay papers should be no longer than two pages long with the introduction and conclusion inclusive and the title figuring on top of the first page. Use standard margins, double spacing, and "Times New Roman" size 12 as your font. Hand-written essays are not acceptable."

1.4. Quizzes, Midterm, and Final Exam.

This section provides students with information on how often you plan on testing them, on which specific dates, and what course materials and type of knowledge tests will cover. If you are planning pop quizzes, give students hints about the date range, the period when they should expect them which is fixed by the responsible of the LMD domain at the

beginning of every semester. Specify the length of the tests, whether they will be taken at the beginning or at the end of the class, on an individual or group basis, and whether they will be oral, written, or a mixture of both. Davis (no date) suggests to give students copies of past tests and exams to help them better prepare for their own and to give them hints of what is expected of them. Communicate your course policy regarding missed quizzes and exams which should adhere to the LMD system regulations. Students with an excused absence have the right to redo the missed tests. A tip on a smooth way to schedule tests for absentees is to have them take the make-up exam along with indebted students while counting it as a regular session test for them. If you choose to do so, mention it in this section of the syllabus. In fairness to students, the LMD policy suggests that different teachers can't schedule more than two tests on the same day. If it happens that your tests coincide with two others, discuss with the concerned faculty the existing possibilities for altering the test date as an extraordinary condition and notify your students ahead of time so that they plan their review and preparation accordingly. The administration can help organize this procedure early in the semester upon submission of syllabi or in a faculty meeting.

1.5. Oral Presentations and Writing Projects.

Questions related to these assessment tools include the following: How many oral presentations and writing projects you are planning on giving? Will the topics be chosen in consultation with the teacher? What are the deadlines for topics approval and submission? What is the length of the writing project and the duration allowed for the oral presentation? What are the presentation dates? Are they to be done individually or as a peer work? Besides answering these questions, detail the criteria for grading oral and written projects. A presentation in an oral expression class might be graded based on the use of vocabulary, conjugation, pronunciation, fluency and accuracy, understanding and answering questions, organization, and appropriate length. Papers in a composition classroom might be graded based on organization (introduction, body, and conclusion), use of connectors, legibility, development of ideas, coherence and cohesion….etc. Instructions on how to write them are useful (e.g., precise the number of words they should contain, whether they should be typed or hand-written, whether or not you tolerate typos, and whether the assignments are due at the beginning or at the end of the class time). Make it clear to students if they have to cite any material borrowed from other sources and if you offer extra credit for neatness, clarity of handwriting, and organized papers.

1.6. Group Work.

Of the different possible assessment types aforementioned, teamwork is the most challenging to grade fairly in that it is the fruit of a collective contribution of students, who might more or less put different amounts of effort into the assigned work. We often have students complain about the mediocre or void contribution of their peers to a group work they should equally take part in doing. We as teachers have experienced this when students. As is the case for other types of assessment, providing a detailed description of the tasks students are expected to fulfill and setting clear criteria and rubrics for grading them is the first step towards a fair grading of teamwork. Some faculty provide students with a peer evaluation sheet to track the contribution of each one of them and advise those team members who are not contributing enough before setting their final grade. Students are asked to be fair and honest in evaluating each other's degree of cooperation, willingness to carry out the tasks assigned, as well as the quality of the job provided. Faculty who do this can arrange meetings with the whole group to check the validity of the peer evaluation students provided for each other (Brown, 2005). Except for those who proved passive and reluctant, the same grade is granted to members of the same team (Slattery & Carlson, 2005, p. 161C -162A).

2. The Grading Scale.

For the assessment recipe to be complete the proportional amounts of ingredients need to be accurately measured and the doses clearly prescribed. Explain in details how much every assignment is worth. In conformity with the scale approved by the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research for the Licence in English in El Tarf University, for example, final exams weigh 70 percent of the overall course grade for all courses alike. The remaining 30 percent is left to every teacher to divide on the number and types of assignments he judges suitable for his course. Detail how you will compute the final course grade (e.g., continuous evaluation= (attendance and participation 5%+homework 10%+midterm15%) * 0.3+ (final) * 0.7). Tell students how they should expect to receive their grades: In class only, in class and on the bulletin board, posted on your own webpage or on the course webpage you might have created. You can annex to the syllabus tables that summarize the important dates, grades distribution, and grading scale, if any. Add a note on whether or not you will curve grades in your course and request that complaints about grades miscalculation have to be addressed directly to the professor rather than rushing to contact the registrar's office or the department's administration in the first place.

H. Classroom and LMD System Policy

1. Conduct.

Students are expected to show respect to their teachers as well as their peers. Violating good conduct rules exposes them to disciplinary actions determined by the LMD system policy which should be detailed on the syllabus due to students' ignorance of or lack of information about the system. Instructions on bringing food and drinks to class, on wearing suitable attire, and on using cell phones, laptops, MP3s, MP4s, and other electronic devices are useful to include (Johnson, 2006). Also, be clear about your policy with talkative students.

2. Cheating in Exams.

Give students a link to access the LMD system policy regarding cheating in exams or include it in this section of your syllabus.

3. Scheduling Make-up Sessions.

In this part, tell your students how they will be informed of the make-up sessions: In class, through announcements on the bulletin board, or through the delegate of the group. State whether or not you allow a student with unexcused absences to make up for missed sessions with a different group. If you don't accept to host students in a class other than theirs, make it clear to them that they have to stick to their group.

4. Make-up Exams.

Inform your students that there is a separate make-up exam for every semester of study. Make it clear to them that only students who don't get a passing grade in the course are eligible to take it. The make-up exam isn't meant for students willing to improve their grades.

5. Student Guests.

Indicate whether you allow occasional visits by students who are not enrolled in classes you teach. Tell students to ask for your permission prior to inviting people to attend your course and make it clear to them that guests have to abide by good conduct etiquette.

6. Students with Chronic Diseases.

Bring it to the attention of students with chronic diseases that they have to inform both their instructor and the administration right from the beginning of the semester of their health condition. Assure them that the information they release to you regarding their health issues remains confidential.

7. Tips to Succeeding in the Course.

Students appreciate it so much if you guide them with tips and advice that you judge key to success in your course.

8. Resources and Services.

Sharing information with your students regarding campus instructional resources and services---including the library, media library, IT (Information Technology) and AV (Audio-visual) services, print shops, computer or internet rooms, health center, counseling and psychological services, and tutorial sessions--- tells you care enough about them not only inside but also outside the classroom and that you are ready to help by any possible means.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Have a colleague review the syllabus for you before discussing it with your students. He might pay attention to something you might have missed (Matejka & Kurke, 1994, p.116B; Woolcock, 2006, p. 26).

2. Share the syllabus with students on the first meeting. At the very latest, don't exceed the second week of classes to hand it over. Repetitive reminders and constant warning statements remain necessary throughout the semester. Keep reminding your students of important dates. While they have the syllabus at hand, they might forget.

3. Encourage students to consult the syllabus on a regular basis, especially those who miss the first class.

4. Leave a hard copy with the delegate of every group you are teaching so that students can make copies in case they lose their own. Ideally, publish it on the university's website or on the web page you might have created for instructional purposes.

5. Maintaining a friendly tone in the syllabus is more fruitful than the rigid instructions that put barriers between you and the student and intimidate him (Davis, no date, Developing Your Syllabus and Career, 2012).

6. Make your syllabus as detailed and as clear as possible using a language that is accessible to your students. Remember that it is not the best document to show your bulging and rippling language muscles.

7. An effective syllabus should not be too long to avoid the danger of boredom and not too short to the point that many points are left dismissed and untreated.

8. Adding pictures, cartoons, and graphics related to the course subject and content adds a creative touch to the syllabus (Sinor & Kaplan, no date).

9. Although not compulsory, you can have students sign their names in a sheet of paper for receiving, reading, and understanding the syllabus (Matejka & Kurke, 1994, p.115B).

10. Commit to it and if you intend to make any changes, inform students ahead of time and make sure everyone knows (Johnson, 2006). The syllabus loses its weight, caliber, and value if the professor doesn't adhere to it. This is not to discard flexibility and responsiveness when needed.

11. Keep up revising your syllabus and amending it as often as possible as the course progresses. Update it regularly when the semester unfolds. (Matejka & Kurke, 1994, p.117B; Slattery & Carlson, 2005, p. 163B).

12. Seek feedback from your students.

13. It is useful to set departmental guidelines for writing syllabi with a checklist to seek uniformity.

14. It is useful for teachers to take the phone number of one or two students in class –preferably the delegates of groups – to contact them in case unexpected tardiness or absence occurs or in case they need to communicate something urgent to students.

IV. A SAMPLE OF A COURSE SYLLABUS

Based on the core syllabus components sketched in the previous section of the present article, I will provide a sample syllabus that I use in my Level 1 phonetics classes and in which I address most of the overarching sections effective syllabi attend to. This sample is meant to assist and guide Algerian faculty in thoughtfully designing their own course syllabi and is by no means the word of the syllabus shell or content. Faculty might choose to prepare their syllabi in a different way, adding any information they judge key in their course outline and that best fit their class needs. I append to the syllabus a sample of a pick-up signature form that I usually require students to complete upon receiving a copy of the course syllabus.

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
El Taref University
Department of English

Syllabus: Introduction to /foʊ ˈnet.ɪ ks/

Academic Year: 2011-2012
Fall Semester
Teaching Unit: Fundamental
Course Title: Phonetics
Credits: 2
Coefficient: 2
Meeting Time: Tue 8- 9:30 a.m.
Location: Lab 2 (2nd floor of the main building)

Level 1
Section A
Group 1
Professor: Miss. Sara DJAMAA
Phone: 0556619226
E-mail: dgimmah@yahoo.com

*A copy of this syllabus is left at the disposal of your group delegate in case you lose yours.

A. Course Objectives

This course is a theoretical-cum-practical introduction to articulatory phonetics. It begins by defining the different areas of the science of speech production and perception, scrutinizing the organs of speech and their function and classifying English sounds. After tackling some theory, the course shifts emphasis to teaching you to recognize and use the International Phonetic Alphabet (I.P.A) symbols. Transcription exercises and listening and pronunciation drills will be intensely introduced. The course culminates by shedding light on stress levels and placement rules, tone, intonation, pitch of the voice etc.

In light of these objectives, by the end of this course you will be able to:

1. Identify the different areas of phonetics and understand their main foci.
2. Describe the anatomy of speech and discover the contribution of each organ in the articulation of sounds.
3. Classify the English consonants in terms of voicing, escape channel, force, place, and manner of articulation.
4. Classify vowel s in terms of tongue height and backness and lips rounding.
5. Master the phonetic alphabet, read and produce transcribed English texts.
6. Examine stress levels and stress placement rules in English.
7. Examine the importance of using appropriate tone, intonation, and pitch of voice in different speaking contexts.
8. Improve your English pronunciation.

B. Course Approach and Methodology

The first segment of the course takes the form of lectures with a variety of slide shows, videos, and handouts incorporated into the lessons. Once the theoretical portion of the syllabus wrapped up, the sessions will be held in the lab where the teacher will be guiding you through practice. You will be listening to native speakers and rehearsing after them as you will be asked to practice reading aloud English words, expressions and sentences both in regular spelling and transcription forms. You are expected to take an active role in the classroom by coming prepared for the lectures and by fully engaging in practice during the lab sessions. The following steps will help you prepare for class:

1. Accomplish the readings recommended to you by your professor and seek answering the assigned questions prior to coming to class.

2. Conduct online research on the topic that constitutes the main concern of a particular lecture. Useful website links will be communicated to you by your professor.

3. Practice reading the words and expressions on the handouts until you familiarize yourself with accurate pronunciation.

4. Practice transcribing as many words, expressions and tests as you can until you acquaint yourself with the phonetic alphabet symbols.

C. Course Materials

There are no textbooks or materials required for this course. However, the following references are highly recommended in that they help you prepare for your classes ahead of time and are useful for exam preparation and reviews:

1. Adamczewski, H., and D. Keen. *Phon éique et Phonologie de l'Anglais Contemporain.* Armand Colin, 1982.

2. Bowen, J.D. *Patterns of English Pronunciation.* Newsbury House Publishers, n.d.

3. Carr, Philip. *English Phonetics and Phonology: An Introduction.* 2nd ed.Wiley-Blackwell, 2012.

4. Gimson, A.C. *An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English.* 2nd ed.Edward Arnold, 1970.

5. Guierre, L. *Drills in English Stress-Patterns.* Longman, 1965.

6. Jones, Daniel. *Cambridge English Pronouncing Dictionary.* 2011. Ed. Peter Roach, Jane Setter and John Esling. 18th ed. Cambridge UP.

7. Ladefoged, Peter, and Keith Johnson. *A Course in Phonetics.* 6th ed. Wadworth, 2010.

8. O'Connor, J.D. *Phonetics: A Simple and Practical Introduction to the Nature and Use of Sound in Language.* Penguin Books Ltd, 1973.

9. Ogden, Richard. *An Introduction to English Phonetics.* Edinburgh UP, 2009.

10. Prator, Clifford H., and Betty Wallace Robinett. *Manual of American English Pronunciation.* 4th ed. HRW International Editions, 1985.

11. Sethi, J., and P.V.Dhamija. *A Course in Phonetics and Spoken English.* 2nd ed. PHI Learning Pvt. Ltd., 2004.

In addition to the suggested bibliography, supplementary handouts will be prepared by the professor and useful websites will be communicated to you concurrently with the course progress.

D. Tentative Course Calendar

Oct. 4	**Session 1:**	First class meeting
		Discussion of the syllabus
Oct. 11	**Session 2:**	1. Definition of Linguistics
		2. Branches of Linguistics
		3. Definition of Phonetics
		4. Areas of Phonetics
		5. Articulatory Phonetics: The Speech Organs (Part 1).
Oct. 18	**Session 3:**	The Speech organs (Part 2).
Oct.25	**Session 4:**	6. An Introduction to the English Consonants:
		6. a. The dichotomy between consonants and vowels
		6. b. The Classification of the English Consonants:
		6. b.1. Voicing
		6. b.2. The position of the velum
		6. b.3. The force of articulation
Nov.1	**Session 5:**	**Day off *No Classes***
		The 57ᵗʰ national anniversary of the Declaration of the Algerian Revolution War.
Nov. 8	**Session 6:**	6.b.4. The Place of Articulation (Part 1).
		In-Class Test 1 (10% of the overall course grade)
Nov.15	**Session 7:**	6.b.4. The Place of Articulation (Part 2).
		Answer key and feedback of test 1
Nov.22	**Session 8:**	6.b.5. The Manner of Articulation
Nov.29	**Session 9:**	7. An Introduction to the English Vowels:
		The classification of the English Vowels
		7. a. Height and backness.
Dec. 6	**Session 10:**	7.b. Rounding
		A comprehensive review
Dec. 13	**Session 11:**	8. An Introduction to the International Phonetic Alphabet (I.P.A)
		In-Class Test 2 (10% of the overall course grade)
Dec.15		**Winter break begins, 4:30 p.m.**
Jan.2		**Classes resume, 8 a.m.**
Jan.3	**Session 12:**	8.1. /ɪ / versus /ɪ ː/
		8.2. /ʊ / versus /ʊ ː/
		Answer key and feedback of test 2
Jan.10	**Session 13:**	8.3. /ɒ / versus /ɔ ː/
		8.4. /æ/versus /ɑ ː/
Jan.17	**Session 14:**	8.5. /ʌ / - /e/
		8.6. /ə/ versus /ɜ ː /
Jan.20		**Fall semester classes end, 4:30 p.m.**
		* Course content to be continued in spring semester*
Jan.22-26		**Reading period *No classes***
Jan. 29-Feb 9		**Final Exams**
		To be scheduled by the administration of the department.

E. The Grading System

In conformity with the department of English Licence offer approved by the Ministry of Higher education for El Tarf University Center, continuous evaluation is worth **30%** of the overall course grade. As to the phonetics course, this attributed percentage will be distributed as follows:

1. In-Class Tests (20%):

There will be **two** in-class tests with each weighing **10%** of the overall course grade. The first test is scheduled for the **sixth** week of classes whereas the second will be held on the **eleventh** week. Both tests take place in the second half of the session and the time allotted to each is **45 minutes**. You will be informed up front about the material these tests will cover.

2. Attendance and Participation (10%):

Students are committed to attend all classes regularly. Attendance is worth **5%.** Abiding by the LMD system absenteeism policy, the course allows up to **03 unexcused** absences <u>or **05 excused**</u> ones per semester. Failing to honor this regulation will inevitably lead you to failing the course. Copies of justification forms have to be handed in to your professor the session following the one you miss. Submitting justification forms only to the registrar office doesn't guarantee your professor is apprised. Students are banned from interrupting the flow of the course when coming to class 15 minutes late. Both unexcused absences and ritualized tardiness may adversely affect students' grades.

Active vocal participation is paramount in this course if you are to fully benefit from it and internalize its material. Don't be shy or afraid to make mistakes for you learn from your errors as well as from those of your peers. Class participation is worth **5%** and will be evaluated based on the following criteria: Coming to class prepared, asking and answering questions, and commenting.

3. Final Exam (70%):

The remaining **70%** of the course grade is attributed to the final Exam. This exam is comprehensive covering all the material the course equipped you with. The date of the final exam is to be scheduled by the department's administration. Thus, keep an eye on the announcements board when exams period approaches.

Based on the grades distribution detailed above, your final grade in this course will be calculated as follows:

(In-class test 1/20) x 0.10 + (In-class test 2/20) x 0.10 + (attendance/20) x 0.5 + (class participation/20) x 0.5 + (Final Exam/20) x0.7 = Course grade/20

You will be able to check your tests and regular exam papers along with their answer key. Your final course grade will be communicated to you in class and/or posted on the department's bulletin board when the semester wraps up.

4. Make-up Exams:

These are to be scheduled by the administration of the department. There will be a separate catch-up exam for every semester of study. These exams are   comprehensive and include all the material we cover during the target semester for which you are taking the exam. ***Make-up exams are not meant for students willing to improve their course average. They are strictly reserved to those students who fail the course.*** Unlike regular exams and tests, you do not have the right to consult you make-up exam paper in conformity with the LMD system exams policy. However, you are still reserved the right to check the answer key which will be posted on the department's bulletin board 72 hours after the exam date. ***The grade you get in the make-up exam substitutes the average of the course for the particular semester in which you failed it.***

In this course, all assignments, tests and exams are out of a **20 point scale.**

No grades will be curved in this course.

Any queries about course grades or complaints about miscalculation problems have to be reported directly to the professor. ***Do not address the department's administration or the registrar office regarding grades-related issues prior to negotiating them with your professor.***

For information on the LMD system absenteeism policy, continuous evaluation process and exams regulations, refer to the following statutory text which is available online at: http://cruo.enset-oran.dz/spip.php?rubrique67.

► **Arrêté n° 136 du 26 Joumada Ethania 1430 H correspondant au 20 Juin 2009 fixant les règles d'Organisation et de gestion pédagogiques communes aux études conduisant aux diplômes de Licence et de Master.**

F. Course Policies

1. Conduct:

Student-teacher and student-student mutual respect is vital to ensure a healthy and friendly learning environment. Students showing lack of respect towards their professor or peers are vulnerable to the penalties determined by the LMD system regulations with regard to misconduct. Foul language, rude behavior, harassment, intimidation, menaces, and ignorance of the teacher's instructions are only to mention a few of the forms of disrespect towards others in class.

Chatting in class while the lesson is in progress is disrespectful to your professor and distracting to your   classmates. Talkative students run the risk of being expelled from class with their dismissal counting an absence. When excessive chatting occurs, chattier students become subject to severe disciplinary actions.

Food and drinks are not permitted in class. The use of MP3s and MP4s is banned too. Because recent technological advances allow electronic dictionaries to be uploaded into cell phones, you are asked not to put your mobiles in the silent mode but rather to switch them off during regular class time as well as in tests and exams. Writing on tables, scratching and breaking the equipment is not tolerated.

2. Honor Code:

Students caught cheating in tests and exams get **a zero** in the assignment and are subject to severe disciplinary actions. Remember that the LMD system honor and misconduct code is in effect in this class.

3. Make-up Sessions:

You will be informed up-front both in class and through written announcements on the bulletin board about your teacher's scheduled absences. A catch-up session is due for every missed class. Its date, time, and locale will be communicated to you in the same way as the scheduled absence. Attendance will be recorded in make-up sessions. Students are required to stick to the group they belong to. Unless for a solid reason, you are not allowed to attend regular classes or make-up sessions with a group other than yours.

4. Guest students:

When seats are available in the classroom, students are allowed to occasionally bring guests with them on the condition that they show good conduct. If you consider inviting someone to class, ask your teacher for permission up front.

5. Students with health problems:

Students suffering from chronic diseases have to report their health condition to the department's administration as well as to the professor no later than the first month of classes. Be guaranteed that the information you release to your professor is meant to accommodate you and remains confidential.

NB: This syllabus is subject to changes according to class needs

-Best of Luck-

IMPORTANT DATES!

Week	Dates	Assignment
6	Nov.8	In-class test 1
11	Dec.13	In-class test 2
16	TBA	Final Exam

GRADE DISTRIBUTION

Assignment	Percentage
Test 1	10%
Test 2	10%
Attendance and Class Participation	10%
Final Exam	70%

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
El Taref University Center
Department of English

Syllabus Pick-Up Signature Form

Academic Year: 2011-2012   **Level 1**
Fall Semester   **Group 1**
Course Title: Phonetics   **Professor:** Miss. Sara DJAMAA

Instructions:

Please, carefully read the **instructions** below. Sign your name and date your column.

By my signature

1. I certify that I have received a copy of **the** syllabus for the Phonetics course.

2. While my professor has exhaustively explained the syllabus in class, I understand that it is my responsibility to carefully go through it again, regularly review it, and keenly strive to abide by it.

3. I understand that failure to abide by the course policy highlighted in the syllabus is a violation of the contract agreement I set with my professor and that I, subsequently, will be treated and penalized exactly as is documented in the syllabus.

#	Registration #	Student's Full Name	Signature	Date
01	09/6033339	ATI SAMIRA		
02	08/6046340	ALZEHYRIE SALI		
03	08/6046481	BOUZATA IMANE		
04	09/6033864	BENTRADE HANANE		
05	09/6034378	BOUYAKOUB ISLAM SARA		
06	02/656520	BOUZIANE AKILA		
07	00/653987	CHAIB NAWEL MERIEM		
08	09/6033333	DAOUDI ZINEB		
09	09/5001088	DARZEHAF SARA		
10	96/311133	DERDEZI MERIEM		
11	08/6046603	DIABI FOUZIA		
12	08/6033790	DJAMAA SOUMIA		

V. FINAL THOUGHTS

Algerian faculty should rush to include the syllabus as an overarching component of their courses if they are to bolster both teaching and learning effectiveness. We need to raise awareness that the conception of the syllabus as the course table of contents dates back to the dim past and that the current educational ideology imposes new legislations that we are entitled to abide by if we seek excellence in teaching and quality learning. It is my belief that the absence of course syllabi from our teaching practices is a pedagogical sin and a serious ethical issue that we need to remedy soon. By failing to honor the syllabus, we are conspiring against students' growth and success and depriving ourselves from leading better careers. Thus, let us use it, value it, cherish it, teach and learn best through it.

APPENDIX. ACADEMIC WARNING FOR ABSENTEEISM

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
El-Tarf University
Department of English

إنذار بالغياب
Academic Warning for Absenteeism

أنا الممضي (ة) أسفله الأستاذ (ة)
_____
أصرّح بأنّ الطالب (ة) _____
المُنخرط (ة) في السّنة الأولى، شعبة اللّغة الانجليزيّة
الفوج: _____
قد سجّل (ت) عددا من الغيابات قدره ____ حصص في
مقياس _____ و ذلك في
الفترة الدراسيّة ما بين _____ و _____
و أذكر المعني(ة) بسياسة نظام "ل.م.د" التي تقضي
بإقصائه (ها) من الصفّ بعد 5 غيابات مبرّرة أو 3
غيابات غير مبرّرة طوال الفصل الدراسيّ.

I, the undersigned, professor _____
Declares that the student _____
Currently enrolled in freshmen English classes
Group # _____
Has reached _____ absences
In the _____ course
During the academic period between __ & __
and I, hereby, remind the concerned of the
LMD system attendance policy that dictates
failing a student in a course after 5 excused
or 3 unexcused absences per semester.

إمضاء الأستاذ (ة) المعني (ة):
_____

Professor's Signature
_____

رئيس (ة) قسم اللّغة الانجليزيّة:
_____

Department Chair
_____

إمضاء الطالب (ة) المعني (ة):
_____

Student's signature
_____

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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Sara Djamàa was born in Annaba, Algeria on December 6, 1982. She was educated at Badji Mokhtar-Annaba University where she received her BA in English Language and Literature with distinction. She passed the competitive national Magister examination at Béjaia University where she obtained her Magister degree in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) with distinction. She then left to the States where she took non-degree courses at Hamilton College in New York for two years. Miss. Djamàa is now preparing her PhD thesis on adapting film adaptations in the Literature Classroom to hone EFL students' critical writing skills.

Besides teaching in middle and high schools in Algeria, she also worked for the Departments of English at the University of Béjaia, Annaba, and El-Tarf for the past five years. She also occupied the position of Head of Department for two years and has been elected as President of the Scientific Committee of the Department of English and member of the Scientific Council of the Faculty of Letters and Languages in El- Tarf University.

Miss. Djamàa is a member of the IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language).

Creative Writing Pedagogy in the Two Year College: Lessons Learned and Literature Reviewed, Findings by a 35-year Teacher

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Abstract—A literature and best practice review and retrospective from 35 years of applied community college teaching pedagogy looks at the heuristics of the whole creative writing student as an eager learner and suggests the most efficient practices; prerequisites and classroom universal policies necessary to growth in creative writing ability. Positive growth in creative writing students' work in the genre's is associated with particular student personality orientations and attitudes, such as low classroom anxiety, moderate social extroversion, and a propensity toward altruism, confirming the author's earlier research using the Omnibus Personality Inventory and longitudinal narrative pre and post-writing samples to confirm those same learning correlations in a California reservation Native American high school district. Thesis findings include that to both teach and learn creative writing effectively one must have paid apt, Chekhov-like attention to social nuance and sensory detail in order to provide rich fundings for story-telling; that to teach writing well one must be, have been or be associated with practicing writers; that to learn effectively the student must find and cultivate mentoring Giants who model for them their own creative writing process and tricks of the trade; and that a sense of humor is also necessary in both the instructor and the student in order to act as counter-point to all the hard work necessary for student writing to soar.

Index Terms—attitude, teaching, creative writing, mentoring, giants, models, pedagogy, novels, heuristics, universal design learning

I. LITERATURE REVIEW: BACKGROUND

Students of mine often hear what the great detective novelist James Crumley taught us many years ago at Reed College, in Portland, Oregon: "You are not a writer until you have worn out a typewriter's keys so the letters are invisible, yet you still know where the letters are and until you have a 'steamer trunk' full of manuscripts." Adapting the adage to the 21st Century, we have: "You are not a writer until you put down your smart phone, turn off the ancient campfire narrative we, in the post-post Modern era, now call reality TV and wear out the virtual keyboard of your laptop, net-book, I-Pad, I-anything, filling three "North-face" back-packs with your tomes." Having worn out two keyboards, within a period of four years, this teacher feels, for the first time, despite some modest, decades-long success, that he *IS* now a writer! Jim Crumley, an ex-high school football player, also used to tell us Reedies, "you have to have something to talk about in the locker room." And so we do "talk story," making more delightful, enhanced, fictional meaning out of delightful, real chaos… At the risk of being accused of being a name dropper, but in the spirit of the Danish Italian astronomer Tycho Brahe who said, "If I have seen further than others, it is because I have stood on the shoulders of Giants," let this teacher back up and also say that if we are to teach creative writing, or any writing, or even teach at all, we need *GIANTS*, mentors, those whom we love and admire and those who know and knew more than we do and whom are unselfishly willing to share. Let's back up too, naming a few names and associating what these model authors contributed to the teacher this author *is* and could be if he weren't lazy and 57 years of Proustian age, where, in *Remembrance of Things Past,* Proust imagined miles-long chimera bodies, the persons we had been, trailing ghost-like in tentacles behind us everywhere we went.

All this good-natured chat leads to the present *thesis*: that to teach creative writing one must first live and experience life and all human interactions with a Chekhov-like attention for and sensitivity to nuance and detail so that one has many genuine stories to tell well; that to teach writing well one must also be or have been a practicing writer or, at the very least, hung-out with them; that to learn creative writing deeply, the student must find and cultivate mentoring Giants who will model for them *their own* seasoned creative process and also provide other models of first-rate fiction, poetry, drama or creative non-fiction; that to make this unique dynamic work on both sides of the learning equation a sense of humor is most helpful to act in counter-point to all the hard work and dedication necessary in order to soar. And one must, of course, wear out at least one computer keyboard!

Let us go then, "you and I/when the evening is spread out against the sky/like a patient etherized upon a table," along one man's immense, small journey of learning creative writing, teaching it, learning it all over again like a small lion in autumn embracing upcoming winter (Elliot (1917) "The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock" lines 1-3). We stress the pedagogical value of persistence with Elliot, too, along with humor, pointing out that his first anonymous reviewer

wrote negatively in **The Times Literary Supplement:** "The fact that these things occurred to the mind of Mr. Eliot is surely of the very smallest importance to anyone, even to himself. They certainly have no relation to *poetry*" (Waugh (1916) The New Poetry, *Quarterly Review*, October, citing the *Times Literary Supplement* 21 June 1917, no. 805, 299; Wagner (2001) "An eruption of fury", *The Guardian*, letters to the editor, September 4). Ouch! Thinking positively now, **"**It all began on a 'dark and stormy night…'" in Redding, CA, just after the peak of Bay-area ferment and foment of the far away but omni-present Vietnam War, the Tet offensive, Laos, Berkeley, the Fillmore west, the Cow Palace, "The Rolling Stones," Janice, Jimmy, Jim, the unfortunate members of the "27 club," teenage Carlos Santana, "The Grateful Dead,"… you see how we warm up and wear in and eventually wear out this new keyboard?

This author thought to go from Enterprise High School in Redding, CA (where Clint Eastwood went a couple of years before my tenure) to U.C. Berkeley, where it was all happening in the protest movement, the music, all of *IT*. However, he'd visited the high-rise dorms there, in 1972, as a Junior taking the SAT(s) (hate them), staying with a year-older Enterprise High football player, a man mountain named Delmer, who'd received a scholarship to Cal and who was red-shirted there and living in a sixth floor dorm. On my first night visiting Delmer, two LSD imbibing co-eds seeking Timothy Learian enlightenment jumped stoned off the seventh floor balcony of the self-same dorm building, shattering pelvi, humorous and femur bones, although ultimately "living," and perhaps, one hopes, later writing about their experiences, as **all** is potential material: *anything that doesn't kill us we should write about*. It was then that this writer decided to ride my green 50cc Suzuki powerhouse motorcycle, to attend Shasta College, a fine mid-sized two-year college right in Enterprise, CA, now called Redding. It was a happy decision: there he majored in both Journalism and English writing, coming under warm wings of both Eldridge Trott, a fantastically inspired and professionally seasoned Journalism Prof., who now, at 92, writes first rate novels (**Gathering at Vantage** 2007) and Kenn Roe, a highly-talented western genre' novelist (**Cross Current** 2009), also now approaching his elegant 90's.

When this writer was a reporter for the "Lance," the Shasta College paper, and later a co-editor of that weekly and co-editor of the bi-annual Literary magazine, "The Spectrum," Eldridge Trott taught us painstaking lessons about preparation, research, the five "W's" and an "H" questions, the invert pyramid, getting at the condensed "bullion cube" of the truth before each Vietnam-area charged, Muhammad Ali and Joe Fraser and early "Eagles" band- inspired issue, and then, in his-- as we affectionately called it—the Eldridge "Cleaver" role, he would red-ink the hell out of the just-published-without- any-editorial-interference paper, pinned in infamy next to the classroom chalk board. How many out there remember using a chalk board, having teachers put lit cigarettes on the chalk board's sill? At Reed College, the incomparable Marvin Levich, for Philosophy of History, used to get so absorbed in his lectures that he'd light the *filter end* of his 100mm cigarettes while telling us about T.S. Kuhn's *The Nature of Scientific Revolution* and exhorting us to deep read a *Soviet* history of W.W. I and II. Prof. Levich once mopped the very floor below we Reedies, using William F. Buckley, his worthy foreign policy debate opponent, as a rag, but it is his pragmatic teaching philosophy that is most relevant to our present thesis. Levich said: "You had a burning problem that you asked students to pursue… and then you talked about it as if everyone in that class were a professional, as though they were your equals. That was a method of teaching that made some people uncomfortable, but in a lot of cases it was amazing how—if you expected the best from students—how many of them would, in one way or another, fulfill your expectation. I thought that any other method of teaching was coddling the students (Sheehy (2013) Reed class of 1982 "Going through the Fire-What Makes Reed Work" **Reed** June 38). So much of teaching rigor is about having high expectations and in providing multiple means of lift to meet those high bars of learning; that said by Levich, and said beautifully, it all starts with respect for students' intellectual capacities and a presumed teacher-student equality of subject matter gravitas. But we digress… Prof. Trott, like Marvin Levich, brought the "real world" right into the classroom, like so many fine community college teachers who've come from other worlds to teach what they know deeply, like career-long professional visiting astronauts splashed down back on earth to share with us as potential equals their stellar adventures.

Kenn Roe was and is a wealth of seasoned craft who "has done this (teaching writing) before." In Kenn's class, this former student first experienced live workshop peer-reviews (stories on mimeograph and ditto) and encounters *with* real, living writers coming in to visit our creative writing classes to read and do Q/A, often spilling outside like pied pipers to the Shasta College cafeteria building quadrangle "to be continued" where male students with long hair and young women in peasant blouses and some "mature" students of both sexes would play life-sized chess on a life-sized outdoor chess board using their bodies and their minds. "The Doobie Brothers" song "Oh, Blackwater" would chime on the indoor jukeboxes; the Redding sun almost always shone incredible brightly in pre-9/11/01 azure skies so blue and so two-dimensional that you felt you could reach up and scratch them with a fingernail. Frost famously wrote "Good fences make good neighbors" ((1919) "Mending Wall" line 26). Good mentors also make good friends, and our *Giants* help make us not only better writers but also better people, another of Frost's poems, "A Tuft of Flowers," coming into full bloom as community college students find their writing bliss.

Young people out there now between the ages of 17-105 (there has to be some kind of cut off), this life-long student says this to you most especially in the post-2008 economy, and I say it from the heart. Please consider attending a good community college for your first two-three years of college before transferring to that dreamt-of-university. I did so with not only no regrets but with a resounding endorsement and have spent much of my life on community college campi, this one, Bucks County Community College, being the most physically beautiful one I have ever seen, situated as it is on the former railroad baron George Tyler's 1930's Normandy revival estate and with his 1,600 acre former

backyard as our Tyler State Park walkout from class, the site of the former native American "Council Rock," where the Lenai-Lanape and Delaware folks would conclave once a year before William Penn's son "walking purchased" for we European immigrants a huge swath of the Delaware River basin by using a string of runners from "sunrise to dusk" to appropriate where I live now and from Penn's Landing to Easton, PA for the usual useless baubles in promise… There might be a creative writing lesson here: "write a vegetable dye letter on birch tree bark to the conquering Quakers, Pennsylvania Dutch, Irish, Scotts, African-Americans including lost boys from the Sudan and Kenyans, Indians from India, Eastern European immigrants, Mormons, Swedenborgians, Massachusetts Colony Pilgrims' descendants alike to explain your way of life, your values, from a ten-year olds' Leani-Lenape point-of-view."

This life-long learner also teaches our students that art must be far more orderly and thus more *real* than reality, having as it does sharp focus on Aristotle's unities of time, place and action or else a deliberate, modern rebellion against them, a clear beginning, middle and an end, a readily discernible theme point, even if that theme point is that there is no point. For more on Aristotle's early rhetorical theory, please see the appendix, which this teacher also shares with interested writing students and which I first encountered at Humboldt State University ("The Rhetorical Triangle" Appendix One diagram). We now know what to do tomorrow morning in our online Canvas Creative Writing I class postings. The key to good teaching is to inspire oneself in theory, in models, and in artists whose work *we love* and thus to inspire/romance others with *our* passion for the subject(s) we so love and seek to share.

Though a Philosophy and Literature interdisciplinary major at Reed (one could do those things there and then and should be able to even today), we studied Creative Writing with the afore-mentioned Jim Crumley (*The Last Good Kiss* 1988*)*, Peter Sears (*Green Diver* 2009), and briefly with the visiting Galway Kinnel (*Strong is the Hold* 2008). From them, and from literature professors like William Sherwood for "Modern Novels of Consciousness," who'd successfully renamed his course from the less-racy "The Modern Novel" to attract even more students, and from an incredible Gogol, Pushkin, Tolstoy and Dostoevsky scholar whose name I've unforgivably forgotten, one learned the "Seven Elements of Literature" on mimeograph and chalk and over-head projector (the good old days), always in face-to-face classes, smoking permitted if not encouraged, smart luddites all as we had not yet learned the practice of sunscreen or discovered global warming. We watched Carter-Ford debates and *Roots* on a big, professor-surplus TV in the "Rat-cellar," the Rathskeller, really a 24 hour cafe, and threw peanut shells on the floor and put them in the taxidermied moose head's nostrils and ears, unfettered by political correctness. We argued in friendly debate, and with our team-teaching professors and frequent class visitors and those living, breathing writers, poets, philosophers, economists, scientists who wrote poetry, Jesuits, atheists, Jews, Free Masons and agnostics who argued in front of us and *with* us too, and we *learned how to learn, how to be stewards of our own lifelong education by seeing it happen right before our eyes and ears, education by demonstration and invitation. Takeover from without and within.* Reed was and is practitioner of an almost physical pedagogy, with classes under 15, seminar style, often team-taught and interdisciplinary, a senior thesis 100-page plus capstone project of research, defended-before-your-committee required, published in-house, and housed next to Gary Snyder's creative one (*Riprap and Cold Mountain Poems* 2010) or Ry Cooder's one on musicology ("Pull Up Some Dust and Sit Down" 2011) or Paul Norton's one on computers (www.Norton.com software), if you were lucky. Reedies live in hope that *their thesis*, like Snyder's poetry one, will be frequently stolen from the library's thesis tower and require re-publishing. This student's, titled modestly, "Dostoevsky: Reason, Will, God and the Problem of Freedom," was standing proud and tall but dust-covered in the tower the last time I visited in the 1990's (class of 1978, Philosophy, English).

Our three term former National Poet Laureate Robert Pinsky (holding the honor longer than Robert Frost) has argued that "poetry is as physical an art as dance," meaning that spoken word, when spoken or read from the page, issues from the human diaphragm, moves air molecules that physiologically affect the listeners' ears, colliding with ear canal channels, ear drums, anvils and stirrups, becoming electrochemical dendritic and synaptic impulses in the brain after being mechanically transferred (Pinsky (2006) Reading BCCC Auditorium April 14). There in the Portland, OR milieu, air molecules moved us significantly. Steve Jobs flunked out after freshman year at Reed but stayed on another year and a half, inventing the "blue box" there in the basement of Elliot Hall and in his dorm room to steal international long-distance calls through pulse dialing, while auditing Yoga, Calligraphy, Drama and Poetry in his very successful "failed" second year (*Reed* (2012) Alumni magazine Jan.). Of auditing calligraphy, Jobs said in his 2005 Stanford Commencement Speech: "but I stuck around Reed and took a calligraphy class, one that was beautiful, historical, artistically subtle in a way that science can't capture'" (*Reed "Feature Article"* Jan., 2012). Steve Wozniak and Alen Ginsburg are examples of visitors. As mentioned, legendary Marvin Levich once cleaned William F. Buckley's intellectual clock there in a debate over the Shah of Iran and Muslim clerical opposition to the U.S's role; the physics students still have their own (thankfully small) nuclear reactor; nearby Portland State University Iranian transfer and other incensed international students frequently burned effigies of the Shah of Iran in those days before the American hostage-taking that prevented Carter from gaining re-election in the years to come ("Argo" (2012) Antonio Mendez and Matt Baglio).

A few years later, not too far away, Humboldt State MATW first-year-of-the-program classmate Al Steen, later a professor of English at the American University of Beirut, then a journalist covering revolution, would be taken hostage for 5-years as well. Some of us wore rat suits to the vaunted Reed Psychology Department debate between visiting B.F. Skinner (*Beyond Freedom and Dignity)* and Eric Fromm (*Escape from Freedom)*. Oh, yes, and a bunch of us in

Crumley's inspired fiction workshop, including Rit Bellis and Wendy Fitzgerald and Tom Hofheinz, three of the finest creative writers I've met in almost 40 years now in the biz, drove to that famous Missoula Montana ("U Moo") softball league, staying in Bill Kittredge's (*Hole in the Sky* brilliant memoir) Bitterroot mountainside house, where Lewis and Clark and Sacagawea came through, we moderns playing softball with the likes of James Wright, Jim Welsh and assorted other writer types, all of whom could play ball, all we young workshoppers first piling into Jim Crumley's newish (then) blue BMW 2002 tii and into my kiwi-colored Lotus Cortina, somehow arriving back at Reed's ivy-covered halls only a day or so late for the Monday fiction workshop led by our ringleader. This former Reedie says two things: one, the outside of class lessons, poetry readings, conferences, happenings, impromptu *teaching-learning* moments are as important as the real or virtual classroom ones, maybe more so, as they reinforce the classroom nexus and give us "something to talk about in the locker room." Two is a warning and an admonition to teachers and students alike: you must grow to love your *Giants*, as they have in part romanced you into love of your common subject matter, but your *Giants* are mortals, despite our wishing them Methuselah-like long lives and Proustian-like, miles-long bodies. They will, ultimately, leave you with indelible memories and smiles and "Remembrances of Things Past." James Crumley, (1939--2008) RIP, great teacher, great writer and great man. Alen Hoey, fine poet and missed colleague, RIP. Mike Zuroy (*Second Death* and an O'Henry prize winning short storiest), this author's first literary agent and mentor, RIP. Bill Hotchkiss, novelist, poet, critic, co-publisher with James B. Hall of Castle Peak Editions, best and longest-running literary friend, RIP (*Dance of the Coyote* 1997 and *many* more).

Bill, this scribe will never forget your informal workshops at Woodpecker Ravine in Grass Valley; Gary Snyder, Edith Snow, Stan Hager, Bill Howarth, Judy Shears, Gary Elder, Lee-Marie Varner, Rian Cooney, your first Wally the wild turkey, myself an awed neophyte, the night croaking away, the Milky Way and the big dipper so up-close and bone-white that you could reach up and drink from the dipper, using it as a wine ladle, the poetry and fiction moving Pinsky's air molecules and *mattering, changing us physiologically, teaching us Heraclitus' last, best message... "Chance is a constant; the only thing you can count on is change; you can never step into the same river twice, for the river has changed and you have changed."* Bill knew Heraclitus was right (and Robert Pinsky too), and he wrote like no other novelist I've read, soaring inside and outside and above the human soul (*A Winter's Tale* forthcoming, post-humously, from Castle Peak Editions). Bless you, Lee-Marie Varner for carrying on your own and Bill's work and legacy. He loved you like no other can, and we teachers and students must love and believe in our mentors unconditionally if we are to survive the mass mowing of fragile plant-life, Frost's "The Tuft of Flowers" still standing, surviving it all.

II. Heuristic Pedagogy and What Works for Me

Likewise, this old soul asks my creative writers to attend as many live readings as possible, to go to poetry slams, even to jump up onstage and to grab the mike, to buy books from and to write snail mail letters to writers whom they admire, helping them track down possible addresses/routes/websites/blog and social media (for first contact) to get those eventual letters a decent chance of being read. Brave students often get responses and find those future possible *Giants*. I learned most of this from Carolyn See in person at a wonderful conference in the early 2000's at Ashland, OR at Southern Oregon State U., where I taught for a while, when Lawson Inada (a White House-visiting fine poet) was in the English dept. Poets like the late William Stafford, fiction writer Carolyn See herself, and poet/editor Maria Mazzotti-Gillan of "The Patterson Literary Review" and long-time Director of the Patterson Poetry Center at Passaic County *Community College*, and another of my *Giants*, despite her small physical stature, are all renowned for their generosity. Most folk in the writing business, despite its increasingly competitive nature, like to see others shine and to help others succeed, being those altruists mentioned in the abstract here. I do not think that I am being Pollyanna in that belief, with some exceptions. Carolyn, whose recent novel **There Will Never Be Another You** (2006) advances her already stellar reputation, also has a fine advice book for creative writers that I strongly recommend to all students and teachers alike: **Making the Literary Life** (2003). It, like, Stephen King's wonderful **The Writing Life,** is an indispensible companion text for creative writing classes and contains more creative writing wisdom than discussed here. I also love and use James Moffett's **Active Voice** (Boynton/Cook 1981), which is that famous program of assignments from middle school to college and to the rest of our lives, his **Coming on Center,** and his **Points of View,** models and brilliant theory for **Active Voice** or adoptable as a stand-alone text, as well as Ann Lamont's fine **Bird by Bird…** I experienced Moffett's unique approach to teaching writing and all discourse at Humboldt, under the **Giant bean-stalking**, if that can be a coined phrase, of Dr. Tom Gage, Dr. Karen Carlton (eventual Dean) and the legendary Dick Day, Ray Carver's fiction teacher. There, deep in the ancient and replanted redwoods, *Sequoia sempervirens*, the Coast Range mountains, and near hundreds of miles of pine-thatched and Douglas fir-littered trails, I even had the pleasure of taking short-term classes from James himself along with Ernest Gaines (**The Autobiography of Miss Jane Pittman, A Gathering of Old Men** and *A Lesson Before Dying).*

James Moffett was a brilliant mind and teacher; I'm not sure that the teaching profession has caught up with him yet, his theories and innovations, but I suspect that a Moffett revolution is still in order (please see the Moffett consortium site: http://jamesmoffettstudies.ning.com/), and I know that my *Giant* Dr. Tom Gage and Steve Lafer (my MATW classmate along with Al Steen and now heading up a dept. in Reno, NV) are along with interested others re-igniting that worthy revolutionary fire (see also Moffett's later *Universal Schoolhouse, The: Spiritual Awakening through Education.*

Jossey-Bass, 1994). My online (Canvas delivery system) Creative Writing I and II students profit greatly from working through seven or eight well- chosen and incremental tasks from the *Active Voice* program of assignments as they work on related, public space workshop submissions of fiction, poetry, drama (Moffett asks that they write a dialogue-driven one act play in which the dialogue frames conflict), and creative non-fiction, such as personal essays, journals, biography and auto-biography, as well as memoir and belles letters. As leader, I try to dive into the large 29 assignment-long and outward-growing sequence at the right level, cherry -picking Moffett tasks particularly appropriate for creative writers, like the "Interior Monologue" which asks learners to invent a created narrator-as-protagonist, stretching beyond biography, to record the inner speech, stream-of-consciousness style, of that invented character's compelling point-of-view. You see how James Moffett infuses my own writing style even now, the center of within spilling ever outward, having written most of his sequence myself all those good Humboldt State years ago.

For second semester and repeat Creative Writers (I love them) in Creative Writing II, I use alternative craft writings form *Active Voice* and alternatives from *Points of View,* as well as selections from the follow-up Moffett text, which offers more student and teacher-edited samples of the assignments themselves as models: *Active Voices I-IV* (Boynton/Cook, 1987). These four anthologies offer writing from four different levels: elementary, middle, secondary, and college. The writings produced come from the wide range of possibilities suggested by Moffett's ideas of the structure of "the universe of discourse," and, while the educational tendency might be to concentrate just on the college-level samples for community college instructors, some of the earlier level models are quite useful and engaging. These one-semester more advanced students also share a minimum of three public workshop submissions in the genres of creative writing, many of them drawing from the fundings of the Moffett "craft writings" to expand and adapt for workshop. Scholar John Warnock's essay on Moffett in *Twentieth Century Rhetoric and Rhetoricians* (Greenwood Press) is comprehensive; Mr. Warnock has also reviewed Moffett's theory tracked well in most of James' publications (*The Voice, Vol. 6, No. 1*). Either way, we stand on the shoulders of a *Giant* in James Moffett, or else my students and I are getting metaphorically taller reading him, not physically shorter as humans tend to over the years, seeing further up the learning road, experiencing epiphanies.

Speaking of tall shoulders, Professor Emeritus Tom Gage at Humboldt State (and the Osher Lifelong Learning Institute) likewise is doing brilliant teaching poetry and writing work through his current course titled *gignomai*—which translates as "knowing by heart" ((2012)"The Middle Voice and the Internet: Negotiating Insights from Poetry to Foster Cross Cultural Fluency" TYCA NE Conference: Oct. 25-27, Syracuse, NY http://facebook.com/tycanortheast). Thirty five years ago, Dr. Gage broke new ground in co-creating the nation's first teaching-writing MA at H.S.U. I'll never forget, as part of the inaugural class in 1978 and hired to teach Freshman Comp. as a Lecturer at Arcata as well, the *many* rich experiences Tom and his colleagues like Karen Carleton and Dick Day, who had been Ray Carver's advisor/teacher, taking seven classes from master Dick Day *before* Carver studied with John Gardner at nearby Chico State, *led* we eager, Ray Carver and Thomas Pynchon-obsessed charges willingly into… One was the San Francisco-during-a-seven-point-on-the-Richter-scale earth-quaked conference on Brain Hemisphericity and Leaning Strategies in 1979 with Carl Sagan and Norman Cousins… Staying at the Marines' Memorial Club on Sutter (what a good Army brat all grown up does), I'd never seen so many grizzled veterans like those imbibing and talking story in the Sky Room bar on the 15th floor hit the floor so fast in under-table and probably-wise hiding! Shake, rattle and roll! More to the point, the conference and the opportunity to attend as a graduate student while enrolled in Tom's class were both priceless. The earlier Asilomar conference featuring the surgeon Joe Bogan who first performed the brain split surgery for epilepsy that educator and scientist Roger Sperry got the Nobel Prize for investigating also marks the kind of inspired inquiry we were exposed to at Humboldt in the MATW.

Likewise, I'll never forget Prof. Gage's hosting me at the 1981 CCCC conference in Disneyland, presenting my own graduate MA research linking the attitudinal orientations of a large Hoopa Native American population to growth in both narrative and expository writing ability over a full year's English writing instruction on the Hoopa Reservation and using a U.C. Berkeley-designed application of the Omnibus Personality Inventory's (OPI) many scales correlated with two pre and post year writing samples for each student (Freeman (1980, 81) "A Study of Personality Orientation and Growth in Writing Abilities" MATW Thesis Humboldt State University 1980, an ERIC publication June, CCCC Conference Proceedings 1981). A long-ago finding of interest *here* is that artists and teachers score with *identical means* on the O.P.I., save for in the altruism scale. *Teachers score highly on altruism* as one might hope, while *artists score low on altruism*. Further, *writing improvers* in my study tended to score **high in altruism** and **low on anxiety** about new situations (e.g. learning), and those improvers tended to be ***moderately socially extroverted.*** Those scoring **high** on the O.P.I. social extroversion scales tended to be writing ***regressors*** over the course of a year's instruction. Tom Gage directly led me to this important deep troth of inquiry, the huge role that student *attitude*, personality orientation and learning styles play in not only the teaching and learning nexus in creative writing instruction but in ***all*** teaching and learning. Where *Giants* lead, I will follow, and those *Giants* led me to others as Humboldt State teachers or friends, folks like poet Jim Galvin (***The Meadow),*** poet Jorie Graham (***The Dream of the Unified Field***), fictionist Jayne Ann Phillips (***Machine Dreams),*** visiting Tillie Olsen (***Tell Me a Riddle),*** James Moffett, and Ernest Gaines, all as important, living, breathing models who so inspire(d) that we students were expected to, were even *romanced into, by public displays of teachers' love for their subject matter,* to *deep learning.* **Learn** we did.

Dr. Gage has not slowed down at all. If anything, his "Gignomai" Osher course, offered at Humboldt and globally via the internet, is even more innovative than his previously inspired teaching. This teaching of poetry method, which involves a carefully crafted syllabus revealed only in-the-moment cumulatively, one poem at a time to students, pro-cursively and re-cursively recited **aloud** punctuated with the students' **expectations** of the upcoming subsequence of lines serendipitously stitched into the recitation as the poem builds back to the original text, one line at a time, with the ultimate comparison/contrast and surprise of the poet's actual conceit and line building comparing to how the students' predictions and expectations bring them into the poem's conceit, its whole atmosphere and tone, almost guaranteeing the hoped for fusion and fission of poem and student, provides "knowing by heart," perhaps promoting learning to write by heart as well. This is a purely and elementally brilliant as well as biologically and neurologically sound way to teach not only poetry but any material written or oral. *Genius…*

Here one makes a final and honest appraisal of my current creative writing contributions to my own college for 30 some years, Freeman's last creative writing stand if you will. That said, I offer that while I *might be* a natural *teacher* (I'll leave that to my students to decide), our **students** are the reason for the college's existence and for my coming to work each day; my interdisciplinary knowledge is strong, *perhaps*, and I definitely seek to share what I know, definately, but I live most of my professional life in the quest, just as you no doubt do as educators, doing Taylor Mali's "greatest job in the world," to stimulate thought and to inspire students toward *their* pursuit of self and knowledge. I continue to delight in my students' many successes after three decades plus of teaching at BCCC and am surer than ever of our shared mission, to plant seeds, light fires, motivate and unabashedly display *our own love of the subject matter in public spaces.* Our students are in my "wonder world;" I am in Bucks County to teach them to this day. Hence, the lessons: "Pay apt attention, make notes, use all of your senses including intuition, keep a journal, mine your journal, cross pollinate with interdisciplinary learning, write your life in the way only *you* can, but tell it with Emily Dickenson's 'slant' and with calculated, learned-by-modeling- and practiced artistic manipulation."

I find that it is the whole *gestalt* of the open classroom, face-to-face or virtual, where all are adults and where anything class-related can happen and be talked about freely without censorship nor fear or censure that is special and *valuable* and *liberating*. Likewise, fostering a state of classroom disequilibrium, whereby an ironically pre-arranged student skit in which a "boyfriend" and "girlfriend's" squabble erupts in the hallway outside the classroom door and enters the classroom and whereby this conflict is deeply observed until the students, finally in the know and relieved, write in three Moffett-ian groups pure descriptions of the event; one group narratives with a chronological ordering; the third exposit away from the story to a general principal and a thesis which in turn abstracts from the narrative exemplification. One must be careful these days post Columbine, Jonestown, Waco and 9/11 about potential agitation, but, if an educator is careful and uses sensitive forethought, such exercises can still be done in the parameters of one's college mission and individual class curriculum. The Humboldt M.A. thesis and much current research has proven that excessive anxiety is an enemy of learning; humor and laughter are its friends; hence, we educators must work to break down student subject matter fears and apprehensions. Humor, when it is genuine and not forced, without pandering or committing Prof. Levich's "coddling," is a superb way to achieve this worthy end, to walk gracefully the line. It is a fine but important pedagogical line we walk together.

Likewise, there are many other faculty *volunteer* activities that matter in the lives of students: for 27 years, I was involved to a lesser or greater degree in volunteering to help coordinate the Poetry Series, Wordsmiths, helping bring Ray Carver, Tess Gallagher, Gwendolyn Brooks, Rikki Lights, Robin Moore, William Stafford, Carolyn Forche', Sharon Olds, David Bradley, Sapphire (Romona Lofton), Robert Pinsky, Andre DuBus III and the like to not only read and do Q/A but also to often meet with our in-house student creative writing club, the Tyler Literary Society—"our Dead Poets Society" -- for a luncheon or tea. Bill Stafford once brilliantly taught my Children's Literature class in front of 120 welcome interloping students who crowded a lecture hall just to meet Bill and John Haines before their nighttime reading. A group of us took a long walk *with* him in Tyler Park that I (and I'm sure the students) still cherish, "Travelling through the Dark," as we did on the way back to campus. Bill wrote the creative writing class a poem just for the group he visited, mailing it to us as serendipity a month or so after his second visit to BCCC, one of his "daily doodles" that arise when "you lower your standards so much that you can easily write a poem a day" (Interview (1990) and **Writing the Australian Crawl** intro.). Please see Appendix two for this *gem*. True education must at bottom be personal, both in the teacher and in the student, in order to "take." When it does "take," education is magic, the best of humanity shining through.

Long ago at Bucks, I was a member of the original Writing-Across-the-Curriculum Committee; its co-teaching English departmental outreach project; the themed research paper interdisciplinary grant project, team teaching for the first time at my institution, along with the Philosophy instructor and musician David Brahinsky, "Western American Literature" themed Comp. 111 classes, ping-ponging off each other, deep reading American immigration journals, photographs, music, bringing it home, tracking Manifest Destiny and Genocide, talking and singing story, *with* the students. I was the English department's first academic advising specialist, serving for seven years, and continue to advise beyond the contractual obligation, because I personally *care* about student success and about students' lives. I care about them, good community college students, usually highly motivated, in part because I *was/am* them, and remembering vividly not only where I came from, my *Patria,* but who I was then, whom I wanted to become, my own *attitude* and learning preferences. I learned an engagement technique years ago at a "Great Teachers Conference" in

Harrisburg, PA, at which I also met Ed Rendell, then the state Democratic Party Chair and ex-Mayor of Philadelphia, before he became Governor. The technique, which I still use, iconoclastic Luddite that I am, is to keep a small, pocket sized-notebook with each student's name at the top of a page, a few start-of-the semester notes provided by the student as to their name, background in life, major, reason for taking the course, goals and aspirations, heroes, Giants known or sought, etc. When a student must miss for "a soccer game next Wednesday," I'll make a note in the notebook, saying something like "Harsh will be out next Wed. for soccer but will read Frederick Turner's Immigration theory monograph and return on Friday in the computer lab class… ask about the game!…ask about his own family's immigration!" Students are often pleasantly surprised that a) I have a memory and b) that I have taken a semi-social interest, that I **care.** That is the key. I care about the hard-working faculty too. That is why I was also a member of the Faculty Federation's Salary Fairness Committee years ago and currently serve on the Negotiations and Meet and Discuss Teams. Why, why do all this when reality, lowest- common-denominator, TV is available? I figure I'll be dead a long time, that eight hours plus sleep is over-rated, that life's too short, and that I only have another 10 years of so of teaching full-time that I want to maximize, to *savor*, and savor it I do. I, like *giant* Dr. Gage, strive to live Kenneth Patchen's line to, "never give up this savage religion." Teaching is that savage religion: savage in a passionate way, yes, but also a religion that must stem as the drive to *live* and to *live better, smarter.*

More to the whole life point, if "God is in the details," then so it is in teaching. Good teaching is student-centered and driven by *their* learning styles, not necessarily always what and whom I studied in grad school and for which I have yellowed legal pad notes done in felt-tip pen and on archaic mimeographs, although these often hold important pedagogy, needing only to be updated, presented in various new means. I teach a lot of the developmental "Intro. to Rhetorical Skills" composition classes, where I first meet such *engaging* students as Heather Cook, James Ragaland and Taylor Smith. Heather, a single mom, started here with me this past spring and succeeded all the way thus far to winning a Lee Brandon Award for developmental writers; likewise, Taylor earned an honorable mention in the same competition during her first semester of Comp. class. James is from Africa and speaks the King's English well: a delightful young man assimilating beautifully to BCCC and the USA by markedly improving his writing skills: he is currently writing a large Composition II research paper on the major works of Frank Norris, **McTeague** and **The Octopus**, and the labor movement. When a teacher and a student work *together* to find the right mesh of learning styles and instruction, *the sky* really is the limit.

Key is to present the material in a variety of ways, text, audio, visual, recitation, seminar and debate, yes, using multiple means to "get through," but also to rethink course policies that might *exclude*. Universal design learning seeks to do this: consider ones "lateness" and "attendance policies" for instance; is there a way to incentivize promptness and regular attendance, rather than to punish the student who depends in sometimes non prompt public transportation (SEPTA busses here) or one who takes county-supported assistive van transport and then struggles as fast as he or she can down long, crowded, pre-ADA-compliant hallways on crutches and on two prosthetic lower legs lost in a war we sent them to? Such scenarios are real world, whole-person acts of small or large student bravery that are sometimes stunning in their tenacity and noble beyond words. The Universal design principle that, in making accommodations for those with disabilities, via adaptive technology and awareness of varied learning preferences, *is also a principle that benefits all* of our students in *their* and *our* mastery of the material. That said, for many if not most of or our students, the Socratic method of questioning (and seeking answers) remains an important part of pedagogy in any discipline, the Levich method made course specific and compelling: no exile or hemlock drinking necessary! All writing can be creative, not the least of which is done by these under-achieving-thus-far students, and, when they catch their wind, when their attitudes and natural curiosity are positive, they are capable of lapping even those more previously educationally precocious. Their back-stories, where they have come from geographically and psychically, their narratives, genuinely fascinate me and help me see how best to teach them, and I want these whole people to *love* the material, really **their potentials**, as much as I **do.**

Many of these good but sometimes under-prepared Comp. 107 students advance and follow me all the way to the capstone Comp. 111 course where we use student literary panels to engage the whole class in deep reading of our material, study the literature of life in the genre's, and where we write deeply-funded research papers that *matter* to the student's lives. Jazmyn Johnson faced obstacles to her education, yet she excelled this year in our Comp 111 course, proving herself a first-rate researcher who did an excellent Maya Angelou literary research paper. Jazmyn is currently under consideration for the BCCC Foundation's Floyd Tuition Scholarship for African American students. As a support letter writer, I of course hope that she gets it. Stacy Flack, who just shined this Spring in her Pearl Buck research study, Arlynn Mackie, *who published her first trade novel while still in high school* and who wowed her Student Research Conference audience last semester (**No Nonsense)**, and Fumba Kumara, another delightful student from Africa, are examples of the hundreds of Bucks students who chose to join in or stay with me through the composition sequence. I am proud of them and of their transfer and graduate school ambitions; some of them likewise become seduced by creative writing, transferring, like Casey McCairnes, to good universities like Temple, Penn State, and University of Pennsylvania, LaSalle, Haverford and the like. We are blessed in this metro area to have numerous quality universities, with many of which we have seem-less transfer articulation and dual admissions agreements.

I also have the delight of teaching Creative Writing 1 and II courses every semester, Intercession, and summer, typically online, where I have helped students as geographically distant as BCCC employees' children living in Japan

and as close as New Hope and home-place Newtown. Immersing myself in all the Creative Writing courses, I want students to see first-hand the heights to which *their language* can *soar*, so I encourage their attendance at writers' events like the ones that I formerly helped arrange. In past years, I have taken my students to meet with the likes of practicing poets Robert Pinsky, Greg Dijikian and the aforementioned novelist/*Giant* Carolyn See. More recently, it was Andre Dubus III. Many years ago, as mentioned, it was Gwendolyn Brooks and William Stafford, and these experiences are watershed ones for my students as well as for me. I always host an end of the semester Coffeehouse and party for my online creative writing students to share their work with a live audience comprised of other classes and sometimes of professionals like Maria Mazotti-Gillan, from Patterson CC and also Director of the SUNY, Binghamton Creative Writing Program. Last semester, I invited Dr. Bursk in along with a former BCCC student alumni poet. My networking connections in Creative Writing extend to my living **Giants** who graciously help me bring *real experiences* with writers to our classrooms. My outreach, due in large part to them, includes previous teaching at the Summer Philadelphia Writing Conference, and where I continue to help get Bucks Creative Writing current and former students, like Carol Rubidoux, formerly of the "*Courier Times*," and Diane Davis-Dixon, currently writing professionally for the same paper, tuition-waiver scholarships. Diane, Creative Writing I and II student for 2011-2012, is one of my best ever creative writers, rivaling even *wunderbar* Alison Springle, and was awarded a full tuition scholarship to the 2012 summer PWC. Someday, she may join the ranks of successful Philadelphia Writers Conference former students like Jennifer Weiner, of "chick lit" fame (***Good in Bed***, ***In Her Shoes)***. In addition, Diane won the poetry category of our BCCC in-house Gene Penland Prize. Former student Joy Waldinger is also thriving in her art and writing Temple transfer ambitions, likewise shining in the Penland Prize Awards, winning in fiction and personal essay categories, writing her life but working the controls of fiction and creative non-fiction.

Finally, Intro to Short Fiction students tell me that the academic debate panels I use as the *core* of the course for *student deep engagement with the material* and for *academic* pre-*writing* are the most rigorous yet rewarding pedagogy they've been through. I would be happy to provide the student-led panel- discussion guidelines I developed to both conform to and to liberate from in both face-to-face and online classes (Swartz, Freeman (2007) "Using Panels to Create both Classroom Acts and Artifacts and to Serve as Prewriting for Academic Writing" **Fundamentals of Reasoning** Horizon Custom Publishers). Recently, Seth Canata graced my Literature 277 course, winning a departmental scholarship for "Most Improved Literature Student." He is currently looking into MFA programs like the Iowa one and others, having found his bliss in writing and literature. But nearest to my heart is the student for whom Dr. Chris Bursk and I created a BCCC Foundation Scholarship years ago and with whom I wish to make my end: former student *Giant Ray Reilly*... Ray was a delightful, quintessential "mature" community college student when he first graced our campus in the mid- to- late-1980's, when big hair bands sadly ruled. Struggling with the kinds of family and self-esteem issues that plague many students, Ray, while a brilliant soul, would sometimes self-sabotage by not turning in a last paper or by not taking a final in a non-English course, self-sabotage. Some of us gave him "A's" anyway; some of us had to him "F's" in that incarnation. In Creative Writing, Ray earned every bit of his "A," writing his life, telling it with his "slant." After Ray dropped out for a time, his study skills and further maturity, his *learning how to learn* essentially, really blossomed. His *attitude* was always exemplary, and, had he taken the O.P.I., his altruism scale would have been off the charts. The Ray Reilly of the early 1990's was one of the two best BCCC students I've ever encountered (Alison Springle is the other), Ray being Dr. Bursk's and my Matt Damon playing the undiscovered genius role in "Good Will Hunting." With Ray's deep fundings of difficult life experience, tempered with high motivation and a brilliant mind, there was no stopping him the second time around the wheel at BCCC. He became the earned "A" student he always was in potential; he edited the student newspaper; he served as an extremely socially- conscious student President of the Human Right Club, which sponsored frequent landmark campus events, not the least of which were those bringing politicians running for office to campus to *earn* votes, and those bringing topical authors to campus as well as to dialogue with large groups of inspired students. Re-invented Ray, in short, was as pure in soul as rainwater, a pure educational joy, a natural poet. He transferred successfully for the second time to a nearby university; earned his B.A.; paid it forward culturally first by working for the City of Philadelphia as a Social Worker, then, later, after certification, as a Head Start teacher, whose very young and eager charges called him affectionately and with love "Mr. Ray." I am crying unabashedly here in advanced middle-age, but crying *here and now* from mostly joy and fond remembrance of what community college students can and often do… and from "Remembrance of (Good) Things Past." Sorry Proust… Middle-age has made me emotional, my body stretching longer behind me in and out of time and place, as the way grows wider, more precious.

III. Findings and a Career Summed up and Ongoing…

… In 2006, ***The Philadelphia Inquirer*** reviewed the reissued edition of my novel on the true story of Ishi, making it "Editor's Choice," calling it "a wise and wonderful book," and saying "if this book does not occasionally move you to tears, then you are in need of a heart transplant" (Wilson (2006) "Editor's Pick" Sunday Book Review Section "***The Philadelphia Inquirer***"). But it is not a book that is dearest to my heart: it's Ray's legacy, along with all of the great Bucks students like him. Later books were born for this college as contributing fundraisers for the *Ray Reilly Memorial Scholarship* that annually benefits ACT 101 qualified students here, those who "face physical or financial obstacles" to college. ***The Philadelphia Inquirer*** also said of one of these novels, ***Parade of Days***, that the "main characters'

memorable stories stay with you for days." My students stay with me for *years*, the memories that we make together echoing *forever*. I continue to tour the area in Ray's and in BCCC's name with new books, including the 2011 short story collection "*Irish Wake: in Loving Memory of Us All,*" from which I again donated royalties in 2011-12 based on five area appearances and six newspaper and magazine articles about the book and the student scholarship.

Just as I did with Ray, I share the whole, personal writing process, stumbling blocks and all, with my students, usually by the middle of the semester, when they have had their own struggles and successes and then look at me as a slightly smarter (only slightly) and older (a lot) colleague. I also support the Allen Hoey and Herb Perkins-Frederick newer student scholarships that Dr. Bursk has likewise created at BCCC, both monetarily and by participating in occasional fundraising activities, because I loved them, and because I want our students to know of their creative work. I currently serve as the Executive Secretary for the Board of the Two Year College Association's Northeast Region (TYCA, NCTE-NE), present at the conferences semi-annually, and serve as a poetry reviewer for the same organization's national journal: *Teaching English in the Two Year College.* Beyond presenting and taking in wonderful colleagues' ideas, like Pat Engle's, at *TYCE, NE*, I look for new opportunities to participate in other professional growth to stay current, including doing literature Podcasts for Cengage Learning, reviewing texts for Bedford/St. Martins, likewise reviewing articles for the "Journal of Language Teaching and Research," presenting and volunteering at the recent *Innovations for Education* conference held in Philadelphia. More importantly, I do these things not only for professional and personal development but also to bring what I learn from others into the *communal classroom* where the whole is always larger than the sum of the parts. This is all part of practicing what one hopes to preach.

One of the greatest lines in all of sports was uttered in the 1970's by the Philadelphia Flyers' own coach, Fred Shero, who opined in the locker room on the morning of the Flyer's Stanley Cup Final Series' deciding game: "If we win today, we walk together forever." I love the momentousness of the line, as all teachers know when they step into the face-to-face or virtual classroom that teaching is potentially *momentous* too. I say "If we can learn *together* today, in this *team's* safe place for trying out ideas and for following them for as far as they can go, then we *are together* forever, running together side-by-side on the dialectic track of real education." I only wish I had Fred Shero's conciseness.

One could do a lot worse than to make good teaching their life, their *bliss.* Our amazing students and the privilege of teaching and learning from them are what keeps me smiling, keeps me gladly here at BCCC. Bucks' students and the classroom *magic* they provide, with a little nurturing from me, *are,* without hyperbole, *my home* and are part of my extended family. I can't imagine life without that incredible nexus of sharing with our students. To all my beloved and missed *Giants* and students who now know more than I about the hereafter, I take *solace* in the fact that the literature they created *is always spoken and written of in the present tense,* alive and vibrant, as it should be. I'm thinking now that it's time to give this old laptop's new keyboard a break, and I sense that you may agree. Here's to good teaching and good learning for a lifetime, for the rest of our lives and beyond. Cheers. Aki Tsub. Sayonara. Namaste. Aloha, I like that one best: hello and goodbye in the same word, with the promise of lots of life ahead of Ernest Gaines' "a lesson before dying." Aloha.

Author's note: if for some unforeseen reason, you've not heard enough talk stories, readers can check me out as James Andrew Freeman in www.contemporaryauthors.com. A recent sample poem, for which I share the process of composing, editing and "marketing" with students as they write their own poems from grocery lists, practice paintings and practice photography as well as from tactile prompts like a king salmon or a bunch of bananas, is accessible via the TYCA National Poetry Month link for 2012-13 www.tyca.org/ or via This one Natl Poetry Month Rainbow Volacanic Hill James Freeman 1.MOV - Shortcut.zip pasted into your favorite browser's search box. Easier to open and view, on Voice-thread, are these short model videos by one who has, if he is any good at all, learned from *Giants:* https://voicethread.com/share/4658331/ (poetry prompt); http://voicethread.com/share/4657001/ (poetry prompt); and https://voicethread.com/share/4656967/ (Robert Frost's "The Tuft of Flowers" poetry prompt).

APPENDIX I. THE ARISTOTELIAN RHETORICAL TRIANGLE SENDER (WRITER, SPEAKER, SINGER, ETC.)
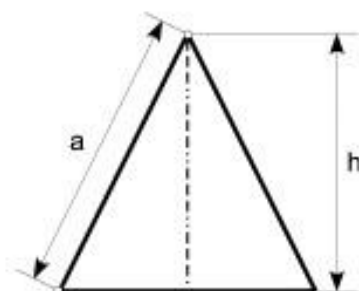
Audience (Reader, Listener, etc.)
Topic(a) (subject matter)

Attitude (of Sender toward Topic) is primarily a function on the **right leg** ("**h**") of the Isosceles Triangle and may be graphed as *positive* (upward angle from sender to topic), *neutral*, a flat line from from sender to topic--**h**, or as *negative*, a downward vector.

Tone, a function of what the Sender knows of his/her audience, characterized by the Sender's *diction choices* judged appropriate to the Audience, is primarily a function on the **left leg** ("**a**") of the Triangle and may be graphed as a line of exaggerated-length between Sender and Audience, determined by **formal** diction characterized by polysyllabic words, many words per sentence, clausal embedding, and formal rhetorical distance between the communicants, as a mid-length line between Sender and Audience for **neutral** formality diction between Sender and Audience—**a**--relations, or as a short line between **a** characterized by *informal diction* like slang, predominately short words/simple sentences, even elliptical fragments, occasional profanity and the punctuation, pauses of breath.

APPENDIX II. WILLIAM STAFFORD'S LOVELY GIFT POEM

"The Dream of Now"
Your life your life by the light you find
and follow it on as well as you can,
carrying through darkness wherever you go
your one little fire that will start again.
(Stafford, "Dream" in *Learning to Live in the World*: Earth Poems 1994)

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Teacher Cognition in Foreign Language Vocabulary Teaching: A Study of Iranian High School EFL Teachers

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Abstract—Notwithstanding the relevance of teacher cognition inquiries, which has already become a tradition in our field, and exploration made to the many covert aspects of second language (L2) teachers' pedagogical thought processes, previous research has not fully taken vocabulary as a curricular area into account from L2 teachers' frame of reference. This inquiry sought to investigate vocabulary teaching approaches and challenges in some Iranian high schools from L2 teachers' perspectives thorough a basic qualitative research design in which a multiple qualitative data collection methods has been employed. Participants were purposefully selected and data collected through this method has been the foundation for the ensuing and interpretation. Findings indicate that although participants possessed a good deal of knowledge about English language teaching in general and vocabulary instruction in particular, approaches they employed to teach vocabulary are not in congruence with their real beliefs and do not essentially include any metacognitive and socio-affective strategies. However, major problems L2 teachers face with in vocabulary teaching are identified to be either related to the educational system or to the contextual factors.

Index Terms—teachers' knowledge, teachers' beliefs, teachers' cognitions

I. INTRODUCTION

The emergence of cognitive psychology has strongly altered perspectives and directions in educational research in a way that the influence of thinking on behavior is highlighted. The incompetence of the process-product research paradigm to fully appreciate epistemological and other critical cognitive areas of teaching gradually became apparent (Jackson, 1968; Shavelson & Stern, 1981) and soon, educational researchers became aware of the crucial role of teachers' mental lives (Walberg, 1977) in their instructional choices and made a distinction between what teachers do and what they know and believe (Borg, 2009). Gradually, researchers began to perceive teaching in a wider and richer mental context than merely portraying it as proactive or interactive behaviors (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Elbaz, 1983; Lampert, 1985). In the early 1990s, research in language education also shifted to focus on the cognitive aspects of teaching and attention was seriously paid to the central role of teachers in helping to improve language teaching (Freeman, 1991a, 1991b; Johnson, 1992a, 1992b; Prabhu, 1990). Since then, the significance of teacher cognition inquiry has been augmented and the center of attention in L2 research education has immensely changed from studying teachers' observable behaviors towards teachers' knowledge and beliefs to prop up their instructional practices, pedagogical decisions, and reflections (Woods, 1996; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Williams & Burden, 1997; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Meijer, Verloop, & Beijaard, 1999). Today, there is an almost general consensus among scholars that findings of teachers' cognitions will help to bring about the expansion and improvement of a theoretical knowledge base of teacher education practices (Carlgren & Lindblad, 1991; Cole & Knowles, 2000; Bartels, 2005). In teacher cognition studies, the investigation of teachers' personal responses discloses rationales behind their decisions, and also reveals their hidden thoughts and pedagogy which can be interpreted, judged, reviewed and also applied as a universal approach (Borg, 2009).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Approaches and Research in L2 Curricular Areas

In the late 1980s, attention was given to the significance of the complex ways teachers reflect on their practices on the basis of their previous experiences as students(Lortie,1975,2002), teachers' personal practical knowledge (Connelly & Clandinin,1988), and their beliefs (Pajares,1992). The notion of work context has also been identified as crucial in structuring teachers' conceptions of their vocation (Kleinsasser & Savignon, 1992; Rosenholtz, 1989a, 1989b). Research focusing on curricular areas in L2 teaching (e.g. Berry, 1997; Andrews, 1999; Borg, 2005; Meijer, Verloop & Beijaard, 1999, 2001; Tsui, 1996) has greatly attained invaluable findings which have so far improved various aspects of

language teaching. A survey of literature related to L2 teacher cognition in recent years reveals that researchers have investigated this issue in three specific areas of the curriculum (i.e. grammar, reading, and writing). Research investigating L2 teacher knowledge in specific curricular areas is mainly restricted to the study of grammar (e.g. Andrews, 1999; Schulz, 1996; Berry, 1997; Borg, 1998a, 1998b, 1999a, 1999b, 1999c, 2005; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000), reading (e.g. Graden, 1996; Tercanlioglu, 2001; Meijer, Verloop, & Beijaard, 2001), and writing (e.g. Burns, 1992; Tsui, 1996; Katz, 1996) and other areas such as vocabulary, speaking, listening, etc. are rarely studied. Although research on vocabulary as a curricular area in language teaching is scare, Zhang's (2008) research has almost been more evident in the literature. To collect data, the researcher used three methods (i.e. interviews, observations in the classroom, and stimulated recall). Participants investigated were seven EFL university teachers whose knowledge of vocabulary teaching was investigated, from different perspectives. Findings revealed that these teachers were knowledgeable about EFL vocabulary content. They also showed firm self beliefs about how vocabulary should be taught and learned. Furthermore, it was concluded that their teaching of vocabulary was in the main, in line with their beliefs, with some inconsistencies. The study also found that the teachers' knowledge of vocabulary teaching was acquired from various sources.

B. Teacher Knowledge, Teacher Beliefs, and Teacher Cognition

Although there is not any clear cut distinction between abstract concepts of knowledge and beliefs due to their intertwined similarity of features and overlapping natures (Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001), an attempt has been made to provide a unified shelter for both concepts under the term of teacher cognition. In this sense, teacher cognition is used interchangeably to refer to both concepts of knowledge and beliefs in this paper. Consequently, in this inquiry, teacher cognition is defined as "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching-what teachers know, believe, and think" (Borg, 2003, p.81). This definition with respect to language teacher cognition, according to Borg (2006), comprises beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, principals, thinking, and decision-making, about teaching, teachers, learners, learning, subject matter, curricula, materials, activities, self, colleagues, assessments, and context. Such definition unavoidably conveys that "language teachers have cognitions about all aspects of their work and that this can be described using various psychological constructs which I collectively refer to as teacher cognition" (Borg, 2006, p.283).

C. Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

The theoretical framework of this study is essentially grounded on the basis of Shulman's (1987) theory of teacher knowledge which has already been well tested and accepted in our field. On the foundation of the concepts derived from Shulman's (1987) teacher knowledge based theoretical model together with the practicality of this model, as proven in previous research dealing with language teacher knowledge (e.g. Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Tsui, 2003, Zhang, 2008), the researchers in this study generated their own conceptual framework so as to depict a profound understanding to the research questions. Among the seven elements in Shulman's (1987) model, pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) was identified important to study teachers' cognitions. The established conceptual framework has been essentially based on the assumption that if we want to have an effective vocabulary teaching, teachers' cognitions with respect to this curricular area must be discerned and this would be best depicted through investigating teachers' PCK. In the model presented by Shulman (1987), PCK is not a simple combination capturing both pedagogy and content, but is a special amalgam of both which is essential for any effective teaching through transmitting the subject matter in an understandable manner for students (Shulman, 1987; Grossman, 1990). Consequently, in the proposed conceptual framework, PCK stands for the extent to which EFL teachers are acquainted with the subject matter and are able to make the content accessible/understandable for students. What makes PCK different from pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge, are respectively laid in its association with subject matter and its emphasis on the exchanges of information between teacher and student so as to enable the teacher to make the subject matter accessible/understandable. As a result, EFL teachers' pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) with relation to vocabulary instruction directs attention to the extent to which teachers can transmit their English vocabulary knowledge (e.g. syntactic roles of words, dissect analysis of the words, pragmatic aspect of the words, definition, learning words through meaningful chunks, exemplification, etc.) to their students effectively.

D. Approaches to L2 Vocabulary Acquisition

Reviewing the literature reveals the existence of contradictory approaches to L2 vocabulary acquisition. Giving a good deal of information about approaches and theories related to vocabulary acquisition, Meara (1997) argues that researchers and theorists in psychology and second language acquisition have not yet agreed upon an acceptable theory of vocabulary acquisition. For a time, vocabulary, like other components of language was taught discretely, with explicit instruction. Due to the shift of perspectives and the emergence of new approaches and methods, the idea of implication came to view. Coady (1997) states that through extensive readings, one can implicitly acquire a large amount of vocabulary. Krashen (1989) argues that vocabulary cannot be well acquired discretely through explicit and structured approaches mainly due to time constraints of instruction and inadequate input. He insists on natural authentic communication and implicit instruction. The inability of implicit vocabulary instruction reported by various research studies on the one hand, and the emergence of some cognitive based approaches on the other hand, created a climate for

shaping a new integrated approach. This new approach, which captured both implicit and explicit instructional approaches, encompassed a lot of meaningful activities as well as a wider range of bottom-up and direct vocabulary teaching (Sökmen, 1997). Putting these events altogether, one might deduce that there is no absolute extreme to vocabulary teaching. To support this claim, Sökmen (1997) says that "the pendulum has swung from direct teaching of vocabulary (the grammar translation method) to incidental (the communicative approach) and now, laudably, back to the middle: implicit and explicit learning" (p. 239). Moreover, the existence of many programs, approaches and strategies (e.g. Buikema and Grave, 1993; Bielmiller, 2001, 2004; Nagy, 1988; Baumann et al., 2002; Blachowicz & Zabroske, 1990; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Oxford and Scarcella, 1994) on the issue of effective language and vocabulary teaching have made it complicated for EFL teachers to make the best decision. In such a variant context of approaches to vocabulary acquisition teachers must decide how to balance their instructional thoughts with practices to be most effective. In other words, they must decide where and when, what to teach to whom and in what sequential order that be appropriately matched with each learner's very unique cognitive structuring and processing system. Thus, it is interesting to discover how teachers come to such decisions. Moreover, teachers might create some innovative and new strategies on their own to facilitate the process of vocabulary acquisition which might also be the need of language pedagogy. Consequently, research in curricular areas such as vocabulary (Borg, 2009) reveals facts which may contribute to the diagnosis of covered pedagogical problems and help to cause the expansion of teachers' knowledge-base and become a reason for establishing new policy in language teaching.

E. Research Context

In Iran, English is taught to students for seven years in general (three years in guidance schools, three years in high schools and one year in Pre-University schools). English teaching in all these levels does not follow communicative approaches and teachers are mainly dependent on traditional approaches and methods. Teachers in Iran, especially in high schools, put more emphasis on grammar, reading and vocabulary (Eslami-Rasekh & Valizadeh, 2004). Grammar and translation are the most predominant characteristic of English teaching in high schools (Riazi & Mosalanejad, 2011). Since Iranian students are very dependent on books and reading based materials, they require more vocabulary learning strategies to facilitate the process of comprehension (Eslami-Rasekh & Valizadeh, 2004). According to Jahangard (2007), who evaluated English foreign language (EFL) materials taught at Iranian public high schools, long term objectives or the ultimate goals of the curriculum are not vividly clarified by the authors of the books. Therefore, teachers do not exactly know what the learners should do to reflect the intended objectives. Jahangard (2007) argues that "The final goals of the EFL program as well as the behavioral objectives which are aimed at by the curriculum designers are obscure" (p.5). Regarding the main objectives of English textbooks taught in Iranian high schools and Pre-University levels, Riazi and Mosallanejad (2011), in their study which was essentially based on Bloom's taxonomy, concluded that learning objectives of these text books mainly follow lower-order cognitive skills and the progression from lower to higher orders is not well appreciated. It seems that comprehension is the number one objective in these books and students mainly tend to memorize vocabularies independently out of contexts. The consciousness-raising facet of vocabulary exercises in high school and Pre-University English textbooks is also grossly neglected. Riazi and Aryasholouh (2007), state that only 1% of all textbooks in high school and Pre-University level may be depicted as consciousness-raising. Their findings show that students do not know how words are used in combination with other words and they mostly memorize words and their meanings individually out of appropriate contexts. Contents of the textbooks are rarely analyzed, synthesized or evaluated by the students since it is far beyond the real objectives of textbook developers and the teachers. In a study evaluating Iranian high school textbooks, Yarmohammadi (2002), concluded that high school textbooks suffer acutely from a lack of authenticity and mainly do not capture oral skills.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Borg (2009) states that vocabulary as a curricular area in L2 teaching has been marginalized to date from a teacher cognitive perspective and little is known about this curricular area of language teaching. In Iran, vocabulary is one of the most challenging issues in language teaching and what teachers do in their classes and include in their lesson planes to teach vocabulary are not clearly documented or studied. Although the scarcity of reliable evidence poses a challenge in attempts to prove that vocabulary today is a major concern in the context of English language teaching (ELT) in Iran, the inability of Pre-University students, as the output products of secondary education, to understand simple sentences or to convey their intentions through simple words may be considered as a logical sign to infer that ELT, as the consequence of teacher education, in Iranian high schools is in a predicament and suffers from some significant problems. It seems that vocabulary teaching approaches are limited to only some routine practices with traditional flavors used prevalently in L2 teachers' community as an instructional and a nationwide cultural norm. According to Pajares (1992), "individuals develop a belief system which houses all the beliefs acquired through the process of cultural transmission"(p.325). It is also believed that no two teachers have exactly the same way of teaching due to their previously shaped constructs of knowledge and beliefs which consequently leads to the issue of idiosyncrasy and mannerism. Therefore, in such a context expecting to observe variant vocabulary teaching approaches, it might be interesting to understand what challenges might force EFL teachers to follow the same teaching approaches notwithstanding that their students' pedagogical demands are considerably assorted. With the same intention Johnson

(1996a) claims that teachers' practices do not always meet the defined objectives of textbooks and such failure does not arise in response to teachers' lack of knowledge about theory, but is mostly due to the constrains imposed on them within the contexts of their practices. Such constrains are highly context-specific and must be studied individually. The ELT context of Iran is no exception and the major objectives of this study are to explore teachers' cognitions in such a context as to better understand their rationales and pedagogical reasons since this may reveal facts which are instructive and could be interesting to scholars.

IV. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main objectives of this study are as follows:
1. To investigate Iranian high school English language teachers' perceptions, knowledge and insights of vocabulary teaching.
2. To investigate whether Iranian high school English language teachers' vocabulary instructions and their actions in the milieu of the classroom are in agreement with their beliefs system.
3. To explore the challenges experienced by Iranian high school English language teachers in teaching vocabulary.

V. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following questions are developed to achieve the objectives of the study and to lead the researchers in planning the research design, data collection, and the data analysis. The questions include three main questions and one subquestion as follows:
1. What are the attributes and knowledge of a qualified L2 teacher inclining to teach vocabulary from the Iranian high school EFL teachers' point of view?
2. What actual vocabulary teaching practices do Iranian high school EFL teachers implement in their classrooms?
• To what extent do Iranian high school EFL teachers' classroom practices reflect their vocabulary instruction beliefs?
3. What challenges do Iranian high school EFL teachers face in teaching vocabulary?

VI. METHOD

In light of holding an interpretivist view and to attain in-depth understanding about such epistemological issue as teacher cognition, we adapted a basic qualitative research design to investigate teachers' cognitions with respect to vocabulary teaching as a curricular area in language instruction in a rarely studied context, i.e. Iranian state high schools. Although piloting is a quantitative term usually employed in studies dealing with non-qualitative entities, a pilot study was conducted on the focus group so that the issues to be addressed in the main study were closely tested and adequate insight into the issue under investigation in a similar context was gained. In this way, the researchers, prior to the entry to the field could examine the interview questions to inspect whether the information emerging from the participants' data is pertinent to the purpose of the study or not. On the foundation of the feedbacks received from the informants in the focus group together with the suggestions of two experts, the first draft of the interview protocols which was initially formed in accord with the questions of the study and inspirations gained from the literature was changed or modified and a predetermined criteria list was consequently established to help the researcher select the main participants. The employment of the established criteria list in combination with the snowball sampling approach made it possible, for us, to accomplish the process of purposeful sampling as intended (Patton, 2002). As such, four competent male language teachers (between 42 and 55 years old) as the participants of the study, were totally selected from among of all EFL teachers in district five of Tehran (the capital city of Iran). Each participant was given a pseudonym for the purpose of anonymity. They had at least 20 years teaching experience in state high schools and pre-University levels. To collect rich data in depiction of people, to guarantee data reliability, and to perceive detailed behaviors and rationales from participants' own frame of reference (Bogdan, & Biklen, 1998) a multiple qualitative data collection methods including semi-structured in-depth interviews, classroom observations field notes, and stimulated recall interviews was employed. Data collected through this method has been the foundation for the ensuing and interpretation. The study was absolutely humanistic in applying data collection approaches and the researchers took on the role of non-participant observers while observing participants' practices (Spada, 1990; Tsui, 2003; Alwright & Bailey,1991). Each of the participants' classrooms for vocabulary instruction during a full semester was closely observed and a wealthy thick field notes were taken for analysis. All participants were also interviewed five times using three semi-structured interview schedules including a pre-observation interview, four post-observation, and four stimulated recall interviews.

VII. DATA ANALYSIS

All responses were recorded, transcribed, coded and recoded for emerging themes while adequately employing Strauss and Corbin's (1998) constant comparison method and taking advantage of two experts in all the above mentioned processes. Inferential and explanatory issues like leitmotifs, pattern codes, and casual links were also distinguished in participants' classroom practices. Salient themes in the data emerged from both field notes and

interview transcriptions were categorized, and defined for further interpretations. Based on the analytical knowledge, we integrated the categories into one core category which was responsive to the research questions. We also followed the proposed strategies suggested by Merriam (2009) to promote the trustworthiness of the present study. These strategies include: triangulation, member check for adequate engagement in data collection, researchers' position and reflexivity, peer review examination, audit trial, "rich, thick descriptions", and maximum variation (Merriam, 2009, p.229). The researchers of this study as interpretive researchers were cognizant of the possible biases notified by scholars and researchers (e.g. Adler & Adler, 1987; Denzin and Lincoln, 2005; Patton, 1990; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Onwuegbuzie & Leech ,2004; Lincoln & Guba,1985; Merriam, 1988) before entry into the field. As far as the knowledge of the researchers of this study is concerned, no harm of any kind from the researchers came to the teachers participating in the study. Throughout the whole project, the researchers kept in mind the ethical issues arising from the research. The researchers have also followed the guidelines about ethics proposed by Christians (2000) in the course of the study.

VIII. Findings

The purpose of the current study is to investigate some Iranian high school EFL teachers' cognitions in foreign language vocabulary teaching through addressing the following research questions and subquestions. In this article salient themes, emerged from the data, are mainly reported and participants' verbatim statements are only referred to in some necessary cases.

Question One: What are the attributes and knowledge of a qualified L2 teacher inclining to teach vocabulary from the Iranian high school EFL teachers' point of view?

Mehdi, Sam, Nader, and Kamran (all pseudonyms) were the four participants in this study whose cognitions were mainly probed prior to any observations via a semi-structured in-depth interview as the source of emerging data to answer the first question of the study. Established upon the concepts derived from Shulman's (1987) teacher knowledge-based theoretical model and data procured in the first interview with all teacher participants, salient themes with respect to the quality and knowledge of a qualified EFL teacher predisposing to teach vocabulary, from the participants' point of reference, fall into four main categories and several subcategories as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
COMPONENTS OF A QUALIFIED EFL TEACHERS' KNOWLEDGE OF VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION
(FROM THE PARTICIPANTS' POINT OF REFERENCES)

CATEGORY	SUBCATEGORRIES
Content Knowledge	a) knowledge of skills : (listening, speaking , reading , and writing) b) knowledge of L1and L2: (translation, identifying the source of errors, conveying the meaning through L1as the last resort) c) knowledge of language as system: (phonology, morphology, and syntax) d) knowledge of language as discourse: (semantics and pragmatics) e) supplementary content knowledge:(western literature and culture , sociology, history, philosophy, social behaviors, religion, science, and general knowledge).
Pedagogical Knowledge	a) knowledge of teaching approaches, methods, and strategies b) knowledge of methods and assessment c) knowledge of axioms and different theories about learning d) knowledge of learning management e) knowledge of classroom management f) knowledge of instructional resources management
Knowledge of the learners	a) knowledge of students' characteristics b) knowledge of students' educational needs c) knowledge of students' background
Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK)	a) knowledge of content b) knowledge of pedagogy c) knowledge of transforming subject matter (interpreting subject matter , finding a way to represent the subject matter, making the subject matter accessible to the learners)

Question Two and its subquestion: What actual vocabulary teaching practices do Iranian high school EFL teachers implement in their classrooms? To what extent do Iranian high school EFL teachers' classroom practices reflect their vocabulary instructional beliefs?

The data for question Two and its subquestion was obtained through a pre-observation interview and four classroom observations which were also followed up through four stimulated recall interviews (post-interviews) to attain the data relevant to the questions. Findings showed that approximately all participants believed that adequate knowledge with respect to how vocabulary is learned must be provided for students prior to any instruction. For instance Kamran said "Students need to know about vocabulary, not vocabulary itself. For example they must know how vocabularies are learned, taught, and so on" (Kamran, Interview 1, October 3, 2011). In the same regard, all participants offered some suggestions. For instance Nader said that "I suggest students to learn how to manage their learning, that is, a kind of awareness about learning vocabulary. This cannot be achieved if students do not have some learning strategies, like…contextualization, familiarity with formations of words, learning in chunks, and so on" (Nader, Interview 1, October 2, 2011). Nader pointed to the importance of visual exposure and memory consolidation through repetition. He

said that "Repetition and constant practice can also help students' memory to consolidate already taught materials" (Nader, Interview 1, October 2, 2011). Creation of imaginary situations to practice new words was suggested by Sam as a useful technique. He asserted that students can use words in familiar structures while imagining a situation. Sam said that "In this way more pictorial traces and clues would be created in mind which can substantially consolidate memories…through stronger associations" (Sam, Interview 1, September 27, 2011). Findings revealed that participants possessed a great tendency towards psychological considerations in vocabulary teaching. Themes emerged from the data such as: "assimilation", "repetition", "chunking", "memory consolidation", "association", and "clue" all are psychological terms dealing with memory. Recurrent themes, found in the data, indicate that all participants harmoniously emphasized on the importance of context in teaching vocabulary. For instance Mehdi said "...if there would be appropriate context, there would be more clues for teachers to teach vocabularies and for learner to learn them based on those traces" (Mehdi, Interview 1, September 24, 2011). Themes emerged from the data also indicate that teacher participants possessed similar beliefs in most areas of content and pedagogy relevant to vocabulary teaching. Teaching various learning strategies and skills were also emphasized by the participants. All participants stated that the familiarity of students with appropriate dictionary would create a good foundation for their activities which consequently enhances their learning. In the same respect Kamran said that "One inclining to learn vocabulary must constantly work with a dictionary since there would be many opportunities for the learners to practice" (Kamran, Interview 1, October 3, 2011). Another interesting issue Sam pointed to was the extent of attention needed to be paid on the taught materials as a criterion to determine appropriate practice. He stated that "... objectives whether the taught materials is just for comprehension or for production gives direction to the extent attentions students pay on teaching materials" (Sam, Interview 1, September 27, 2011). Regarding the types of vocabulary, participant teachers gave similar assertions. For example Sam said that "In different context, decisions are also different… . In high school I only teach words which have already been mentioned in the book - even I do not try to teach one extra word" (Sam, Interview 1, September 27, 2011). Sam's reasons for doing so was mostly identified to be as the result of various contextual factors such as "... time limitation, the nature of final examinations, students expectations, the poverty of the textbook in terms of context and the amount of attention given to vocabulary practicing, unclarity of books' objectives" (Sam, Interview 1, September 27, 2011). He also mentioned to other evaluative and social norms as determining factors of his instructional behaviors. Sam mentioned the main reasons of deviation from his real beliefs of instructional practices and said "more importantly because of normative conformity and informational conformity. I do not want to be rejected by students as they have adopted with this system of teaching in several years"(Sam, Interview 1, September 27, 2011). All participants asserted that although they know approaches they apply in teaching vocabulary are in conflict with what they really believe, they have to employ approaches which satisfy their students. For instance, Sam said that "... in state high school since time is limited and students do not generally have a good vocabulary and language background, I only try to translate approximately every single items. Students also understand and memorize..." (Sam, Interview 1, September 27, 2011). Although participants declared a variety of activities, approaches, techniques, and suggestions to teach vocabulary effectively, no serious and important difference do exist among all participants' beliefs to practice vocabulary in state high schools and the most predominant approaches they usually employ, as they said, are translation and memorization. It must be notified here that, due to the limitation of space, all participants' verbatim statements could not be brought in this article. However, Table 2 illustrates types of material, and activities recommended by participants as their real beliefs.

TABLE 2
TYPES OF MATERIAL, AND ACTIVITIES RECOMMENDED BY THE PARTICIPANTS

Participant(s)		Types of Material		Types of approaches, skills, activities, methods, etc.
Shared among all	o o	Comprehensible story books Dictionary	o	Assimilate sentences
Mehdi	o o	Movies/Basic grammar book Basic vocabulary book	o	Attendance in private institutes and language schools
Kamran	o	Short passages with different topics		
Nader			o	Self-management /Contextualization /Word Formations/ learning in chunks/ Repetition /Constant practice/ Visual exposure/Flash cards / Implicit and explicit
Sam			o	Listening to tapes which are accessible/ Imagery practice

With respect to how participants execute their beliefs in practice, all asserted that they have never been able to fully implement their real beliefs in practice. Although there had been instances of practices which were not reported by participants, the general trend of their instructional practices was towards what they stated as their modified beliefs. To teach the vocabulary of Pre-University Book One, participants employed variety of approaches, but with unequal degree of application and emphasis. With respect to translation as an approach for teaching vocabulary, findings in the field notes show that it is the most predominant approach, among other approaches, employed by participants almost in every area of their instructional activities. All participants read over the new words and translated them in absence of any contextual clues. Then they read over the text and translated sentence by sentence in to Farsi. Sam, for example, stated the reason for word by word translation and said "Since students' vocabulary background and structural knowledge is

not sufficient enough to understand the meaning of the sentences, and I have also limited time, translation is ideal" (Sam, Post-Observation Interview 3, November 29, 2011). It can be said that translation is the only approach whose traces can be found permanently in every part of participants' instructional practices. Another issue recurrently seen in the data is the issue of memorization. Participants recurrently used words such as: "memorize these words", "repeat as far as you can", "keep these vocabularies in mind", "remember this list of words", etc. As an instance when Mehdi was teaching the new words of Lesson One, he frequently told the students that: "These words are the most important words of this lesson and you must try to memorize them for next session" (Mehdi, field notes 1, October 8, 2011). Findings also show that, in general, instances of other vocabulary teaching approaches (e.g. application of approaches like: definition, dictation, pronunciation, collocation, mnemonics, word lists and repetition, guessing from context, focusing on form like: word-formation, and constant use of dictionary in the classroom) have rarely occurred in participants' instructional practices. As a matter of fact, the application of definition as a technique has been limited to the instances provided in the margin of the texts which were taught trough translation.

According to the findings, directions of evaluation or assessment of the students are not towards finding students' educational and vocabulary learning needs or removing their learning difficulties. Findings revealed that what is so called assessment or evaluation is only a part of rituals. As Kamran said "Unfortunately, students are not analyzed or assessed in a way to find their real needs, what I and my other colleagues do is a part of rituals to report a grade for each student. Students' real needs are not followed up" (Kamran, Stimulated Recall 4, November 28, 2011). Findings in follow up data revealed that it is not exactly clear that in what area or areas the students need help. Kamran asserted that "I have only a total grade of each student since my intention has not been that to follow up everyone's particular problems" (Kamran, Stimulated Recall 4, November 28, 2011). As the same occasion became true about all other participants, this would also become apparent that participants' vocabulary assessment approaches are the same or at least the general trend of their assessments is towards the same direction. To confirm such findings Nader asserted that "Feedbacks of midterm and final examinations never reach to students" (Nader, Stimulated Recall 4, December 11, 2011). Such assertions and others indicate the ignorance of students' pedagogical needs and this is a strong evidence for "violating democratic education" (Mehdi, Post-Observation Interview 4, December 3, 2011). Mehdi also asserted that "The existence of contextual factors like: limitation of time, final examination biases, expectations of outsiders, etc., not only affect my teaching, but also make a hedge or blocker which does not let any feedbacks reshape my practices" (Mehdi, Post- Observation Interview 4, December 3,2011). Nader considered contextual factors as a source which not only affects teachers' instructional behaviors, but also "causes a big blocker to stops positive signals" (Nader, Post-Observation Interview 4, December11, 2011). Generally teachers' actual practices, according to the data emerged from field notes, can be categorized under two head categories of frequent approaches and non-frequent approaches. Table 3 illustrates the taxonomy of EFL teacher participants' approaches in vocabulary teaching.

TABLE 3
TAXONOMY OF EFL TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' APPROACHES IN VOCABULARY TEACHING

Application	Participants' Pseudonyms	Approaches Applied	
Frequent approaches applied in common	Mehdi, Kamran, Nader, and Sam	o	Translation- English into Farsi (widely used for every curricular activities and practicing)
		o	Memorization- Bare word memorization(widely emphasized), Sentential level memorization (limitedly suggested and practiced)
		o	Synonym (rarely used and mostly limited to the synonyms provided in students' book)
		o	Note taking (limited to monitoring and suggestions)
		o	Reading words aloud in classroom (widely used)
		o	Definition (Limited to definitions in students' book)
Non-frequent approaches applied individually	Mehdi	o	Non-Mnemonic Elaboration Technique like exemplification (Limited to students' Questioning)
		o	Dictionary (Limited to general introduction)
		o	Word formation (Limited to general introduction)
Non-frequent approaches applied individually	Kamran	o	Dictionary (Limited to general introduction)
		o	Pronunciation (Limited to difficult words)
Non-frequent approaches applied individually	Nader	o	Non-Mnemonic Elaboration Technique like exemplification (Limited to students' Questioning)
		o	Word formation(Limited to students' Questioning and general introduction)
Non-frequent approaches applied individually	Sam	o	List of the words (limited to a selection of important words in each lesson)

To sum up, findings indicate that teacher participants hold an admissible vocabulary teaching knowledge and possessed two types of beliefs, i.e. real beliefs and modified beliefs. As a matter of fact teachers' instructional practices were greatly congruent with their modified beliefs, but not with their real beliefs.

Question Three: What challenges do Iranian high school EFL teachers face in teaching vocabulary?

Although in any language teaching activities it is approximately impossible to expect instructions free from faults and barriers, it still seems instructive to identify challenges as this might assist and accelerate learning and teaching process to go more effectively along with other instructional components. The data for this question was obtained through a pre-observation interview, four field note observations, four post- observation interviews, and four stimulated recall interviews. Findings show that EFL teacher participants treat all students in the same way in terms of applying one approach for all. In the same respect according to the data the feedbacks of students' performances are not welcomed by teachers and cause no alternation in teachers' instructional activities in favor of the students. In this regard Nader said "Since time is limited, I do not usually follow up any student's problems individually. Although I know this is against my commitments to students, I present the course in the same way for all since I have no other choice" (Nader, Stimulated Re- call 3, November 27, 2011). Nader also said "Rarely approaches and methods other than translation and memorization are applied by me and my other EFL colleague teachers in state high schools" (Nader, Stimulated Recall 3, November 27, 2011). Findings show that due to the existence of some extrinsic factors, e.g. Final Examination and University Entrance Exam (UEE), students in state high schools do not show enthusiasm for materials other than those relevant to such exams. Although there are some students whose personal objectives might be different from that of the majority group, the general trend of motivation is not towards additional strategies of vocabulary teaching or additional materials. As an instance Nader pointed to different problems and said that "Students do not like extra materials .... Other factors like objectives of the book, its contents, the impact of final exam and possibly the impact of University Entrance Exam cause students to behave like this and be satisfied only with the book materials and not more than that" (Nader, Interview 1, October 2, 2011). According to the findings, students' background knowledge is one of the significant problems EFL teachers face with. As Kamran asserted "Their background knowledge is not usually sufficient to understand more materials. This restricts teachers to provide other extra texts with valuable vocabularies. Instead teachers must think about supplementary materials which assist them to compensate their weak points" (Kamran, Interview 1, October 3, 2011). Mehdi pointed the same problem in different words. He said that "... students who are not homogeneous are in the same classroom and in most cases they are not cognitively matured for the syllabus"

(Mehdi, Interview 1, September 24, 2011). Another issue is low practicing and activity of the students on vocabulary. The data show instances of complain about students' practicing as participants generally believe that learning of vocabulary is closely connected to the issue of practicing. Kamran added that "I think when topics are not interesting, and the passages are boring, vocabularies will not receive more attention as well. Students need short passages with wider range of words"(Kamran, Interview 1, October 3, 2011). Findings also show that teachers believe that students in state high schools do not possess sufficient learning strategies. They believe, This and their low background knowledge as well as lack of motivations have created a kind of learning problem with respect to vocabulary as well as other areas of language learning. As Nader said "… the absence of learning strategies, motivation, inappropriate background knowledge are the main components of my students' learning problems. This is like a chain. The existence of one problem gives life to the other" (Nader, Interview 1, October 2, 2011). Another issue found in the data is the expectation of the students. As participants asserted the expectation of the students seriously affects their instructional behaviors. For example, Nader said that "Students expect EFL teachers to teach in such a way that they can pass the Final Examination and University Entrance Examination. And since the nature of such exams are mostly based on multiple choice and other similar questions, my teaching strategies are also affected" (Nader, Interview 1, October 2, 2011). Other participants asserted similar statements which generally show that expectations of the students affect teachers' instructional behaviors. Generally all participants conveyed that the material of the textbook is not sufficient enough for an effective vocabulary instruction. Additionally, they asserted that since most of these materials are not interesting for students, they do not motivate students to practice effectively. Mehdi said "Inappropriate textbook, and its obscure objectives can be pointed as the number one difficulty. For example, after more than 20 years of teaching, I still do not know what objectives the authors of these books want to implicitly or explicitly attain" (Mehdi, Interview1, September 24, 2011). Mehdi also stated that adequate contexts are not provided in the book and "... students also become confused when they see several meaning of a word in absence of sufficient contexts to provide them better realization and concept" (Mehdi, Interview 1, September 24, 2011). Mehdi said that a part of vocabulary learning would happen in listening and speaking skills while these sections are missed in high school courses. As he said "Textbook also seems to be like an ESP course. Since speaking and listening sections are not provided …." (Mehdi, Interview 1, September 24, 2011). According to participants, their instructional activities have not so far been audited by the educational system and no feedback has so far been received from this source. They collectively asserted that there are many mismatches in the system the most important of which are the mismatch of objectives of the educational system with the content of the books. Participants also pointed to the unqualified on-the-job training courses and other mismatches like the mismatch of teacher education and the Ministry of Education in terms of the goals and objectives. Evidence to such claims is embedded in participants' suggestions as a whole. For example, all participants asserted that no especial training with respect to how to teach or learn vocabulary was given to them while they were at universities. Regarding the courses pertinent to teaching, all participants collectively agreed that what they were taught at teacher education centers were merely theoretical and the practicality of such courses was never met in their teaching practices. As an example, Nader asserted that "At university, I do not remember any useful or practical knowledge anyone has given me" (Nader, Interview 1, October 2, 2011). It seems that university program in terms of teaching practical knowledge, which is an essential element for anyone who inclines to become an EFL teacher, has been unable to achieve its authentic purposes. Another interesting issue was teacher training education. Irrespective to the university education received by participants, each of them had experienced special training courses, mostly in form of on-the-job training courses which as participants stated had no serious effect on their knowledge of instruction. All four participants stated that such trainings, with exception of some rare cases, brought nothing for them but wasting their times. With the same respect Mehdi stated that "I have received many training hours most of which were not pertinent to my field of study. Even related training classes were not also qualified because none of which was handled with competent and knowledgeable lecturers" (Mehdi, Interview 1, September 24, 2011). Findings show that salient themes about challenges in vocabulary teaching from participants' point of view generally fall into four categories and several subcategories as shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4
CATEGORIES OF CHALLENGES IN VOCABULARY TEACHING FROM PARTICIPANTS' POINT OF VIEW

CATEGORY	SUBCATEGORIES
Challenges related to EFL teachers	a) Methods and approaches , b) Competencies and skills
Challenges related to students	a) Motivation , b) Background knowledge, c) Learning strategies, d) Learning problems, e) Expectations , f) Skills, and g) Practice and activity
Challenges related to educational system	a) Educational materials, b) Educational equipments, c) Educational resource and support, d) Time, e) Evaluation, f) Audit and monitoring system, g) System mismatches, h) Policy, I) On-the-job training system, and J) Teacher education centers
Challenges related to contextual factors	a) Politics, b) Parents / society expectations, c) University Entrance Exam (UEE)

IX. DISCUSSION

According to the findings, all teacher participants possess a good deal of understanding and knowledge about language teaching and learning. Participants' real beliefs are to a great extent in agreement with the components of Shulman's (1987) theory of teacher knowledge. For example, Nader asserted that "A good English teacher must have enough knowledge, both theoretical and practical, about different components of language and he must be familiar with contents as well as the subject matter. With such knowledge a teacher can make the material accessible and understandable for students" (Nader, Interview 1, October 2, 2011). Such a belief is absolutely in congruence with Shulman's (1987) PCK. According to Shulman (1987), PCK is an essential component of teachers' knowledge. PCK is a combination of content and pedagogy in addition to the ability of transforming the content through the advantage of different conceptions to make it understandable for students. In this sense, PCK for an EFL teacher who aims to teach vocabulary comprises teacher's knowledge of vocabulary (i.e. content or subject matter), teacher's knowledge of vocabulary teaching and learning approaches (i.e. pedagogy or understanding of structures within a discipline), and a variety of teacher's conceptions of learning and teaching issues to make the subject matter comprehendible for students. With respect to the same issue, other participants also stated similar stances. For instance, Kamran said "Teachers willing to teach in the area of vocabulary need to know both languages to understand deviation and error sources" (Kamran, Interview 1, October 3, 2011). Kamran's point of view implicitly deals with teachers' knowledge of the learners since through such knowledge teachers are able to find out how their students must be helped. To Kamran, translation is a means to make content understandable for students. PCK also includes students' involvement in the classroom. Consequently, EFL teachers must create an active environment for students to do meaningful tasks. Such attributes are also in line with participants' knowledge of the task and practices. As Sam asserted "... a qualified language teacher must be a good manager in the class to establish a good and trusty atmosphere while creating adequate opportunity for all to participate in activities"(Sam, Interview 1, September 27, 2011). Generally, there are adequate evidence indicating that participants' knowledge has precisely been categorized under four categories including a) Content Knowledge, b) Pedagogical Knowledge, c) Knowledge of the learners, and d) Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK). Findings also give an account of different knowledge types which are subcategorized under the above mentioned categories.

Although participants have exhibited beliefs proving that they are competent and in their repertoire hold sufficient knowledge with respect to all approaches, skills, and strategies of vocabulary learning and teaching, none of the participants' real practices was in congruence with their real beliefs. Findings also revealed that participants consciously departed from their real beliefs in how effectively vocabulary can be taught. In other words, participants explicitly asserted that they have never been able to execute their real beliefs in practice, and there are some factors making them practice against their real beliefs. It seems as if participants hold two belief systems, one to be implemented in an ideal or suitable context (i.e. their real beliefs), and the other one appropriate enough to be practiced in the existing condition (i.e. their modified beliefs). According to findings, the most frequent approaches used by participants can also be degreed in terms of extensiveness or length of application. For example, translation, memorization, and read words aloud in the classroom are more extensively employed by the participants than synonym, definition and note-taking. Other non-frequently used approaches like Non-Mnemonic Elaboration Technique (NMET), list of words, dictionary, pronunciation, and word formation seem to be more compatible with participants real beliefs although due to the impact of contextual factors have not been brought into use extensively. Comparing all these issues with participants' recommendations (i.e. real beliefs) for an effective vocabulary learning and teaching, it might become more apparent that participants have not exhibited an acceptable teaching behavior. Based on the findings, it is also revealed that there are some serious challenges on the way of participants which do not let their real beliefs whether fully or partially come to surface. According to findings these challenges are of four types as follows: 1) challenges related to EFL teachers, 2) challenges related to students, 3) challenges related to educational system, and 4) challenges related to contextual factors. These factors, according to participants, are mainly responsible for their existing instructional behaviors. Such findings are also in alignment with what Borg (1997) has referred to as contextual factors. What Borg (1997) has stated is too general and captures all factors which may facilitate or hinder teachers' instructional decisions to perform their practices. Improvement or deterioration of the stated challenging factors, according to the participants, will ameliorate or decline the effectiveness of their practices and make their real beliefs to be implemented, or replaced by modified beliefs. It has already been proven that teachers' cognitions and their instructional behavior are mutually informing (Beach, 1994). Therefore, teachers' cognitions together with contextual factors would influence the extent to which they make their beliefs harmonious with their teaching behaviors (Beach 1994). It also seems that, findings of this research study in terms of challenging factors, as discussed in above, can give a complete picture of the barriers whose removal would possibly cause vocabulary instructions to be effective in Iranian pre-University and perhaps high school context.

X. Conclusion

Teacher participants in this inquiry hold an admissible vocabulary teaching knowledge although they may require more assistance in practice and develop wider mental representation with respect to the practicality of their declarative and theoretical knowledge of vocabulary teaching. It appears that Iranian EFL teachers possess two types of beliefs. One type is their real beliefs which represent their actual understanding and true knowledge of vocabulary teaching and the other type is their modified beliefs which are shaped under the influence of some challenges. The most instructional

practices EFL teachers brought in the milieu of the classroom were confined to few cognitive-behavioral strategies (e.g. translation, memorization, note taking, etc.,) and absolutely no metacognitive or socio-affective teaching approaches were employed by them. This indicates that high and other significant levels of educational objectives are not well acknowledged by the participant teachers in practice although they had proved to be competent and possessed a good deal of knowledge with respect to teaching vocabulary. As a matter of fact teachers' instructional practices are greatly congruent with their modified beliefs, but not with their real beliefs. It also seems that the major problems EFL teachers face with are either related to the educational system or are related to the contextual factors and students. Challenges related to the educational system appear to be greater in amount and significance as they are supposed to be considered in any effective instruction. These include: policy, materials, time, resources and supports, evaluation, on-the-job training quality, teacher education quality, audit and monitoring system, and equipments. The inappropriacy of the mentioned elements together with other system mismatches (e.g. mismatches between educational objectives and evaluation system, mismatches between teacher education centers and EFL teachers' qualifications required by the ministry of education, etc.) are also identified as the serious challenges affecting participants' instructional behavior. Another important issue concluded in this study is the existence of contextual factors (e.g. politics, parents/society expectations, University Entrance Exam) which force teachers to deviate from their real beliefs and to perform instructional practices other than those they really believe. Based on the findings in the present inquiry, it was also found that teacher education does not receive sufficient feedbacks from its teacher candidates after their graduations. Therefore, teachers' practical teaching behaviors and their inabilities due to the lack of effective instructions in teacher education centers are not vividly apparent for teacher educators to make revision in their programs. In this sense, there is a gap (i.e. gap of feedback between teacher education and high schools). Results of such studies are instructive (Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Borg, 2009) for EFL teacher educators to promote their works and programs. This inquiry sheds light on L2 teachers' cognition in one less investigated context (i.e. EFL vocabulary instruction in Iran).

XI. IMPLICATIONS

Iranian EFL teacher education and teaching programs are two main targets deserving to receive these implications to improve their programs. The first implication goes to the issue of teacher education curriculum in which no serious attention has been given to vocabulary learning and teaching as a curricular area. Such programs, according to the participants, must include specialized syllabus for improving this aspect through integration of vocabulary teaching in the frame of Iranian EFL teacher education. Approximately all participants believe that Iranian EFL teacher education programs require some changes in order to improve curriculum in this curricular area. Another important issue of concern deals with the practicality of the courses teacher education programs offer in this respect. It is suggested, as it is also reported by the participants, that if teacher education includes practical suggestions, in terms of how to learn and teach vocabulary through introducing appropriate approaches and methodologies, it would certainly be more effective in practice. The second implication goes to the EFL teacher educators who should help teacher candidates in terms of improving their teaching proficiency with special respect to pragmatic and semantic aspect of vocabulary instruction as it was found to be one of the greatest weaknesses of participants' knowledge. This failure might be removed through expanding teacher candidates' intuitions and knowledge of the semantic prosodic information and mainly through corpus studies (Partington, 1998) if adequately included in EFL teacher education. The next implication deals with the low practicality of vocabulary instruction in Iranian EFL teacher education. On the foundation of the findings in this inquiry, participants expressed displeasure about instructions they received, in EFL teacher education programs, with respect to some courses related to methodology of language teaching and linguistics. They complained that practically they learned nothing considerable to assist them in their instructional practices as they became teachers. It is also empirically proven that prospective teachers need more practical teaching skills than issues related to theories (Hedgcock , 2002 ; Johnson,1996a, 1996b). Consequently, based on the participants' suggestions and on the bases of the general conclusions made in this inquiry, EFL teacher education programs in Iran may demand improvements, in the mentioned areas, with the purpose to redirect the objectives of the courses towards more practical understandings. Therefore, it would be effective for teacher education to acknowledge inquiries with respect to understanding teachers' cognitions about vocabulary teaching to depict more practical solutions for inclusion in its own programs. In this sense, teacher education would receive sufficient practical feedbacks from the milieu of classrooms and from the EFL teachers' frame of reference based on which teacher education programs can be revised. Based on the findings of this inquiry some of the problems both in teacher education and in the Ministry of Education are whether cultural or socio-political. It seems that even EFL teaching programs in teacher education are not appropriately designed to capture all dimensions for a dynamic educational system. In this respect, Freeman and Johnson (1998) propose the reconceptualization of the knowledge base in which socio- political and cultural context together with other educational components needed for any educational system are brought to an especial focus. Based on the data emerged from observation field notes, it was also found that, least attention was paid to the learners' needs and interests, issues which are greatly acknowledged by scholars (e.g. Shulman,1987; Freeman and Johnson,1998). As a matter of fact, teacher education should make teacher candidates aware of such issues and perhaps this might be achieved through modeling with practical implications for teacher candidates since in theory participants have shown a good deal of knowledge with the same respect. Respecting the Iranian EFL teaching programs and according to the findings,

although participants have theoretically revealed a good deal of knowledge with respect to content and pedagogy, their content knowledge seems to be far from practicality and dynamicity. Therefore, EFL teaching programs should manage such mismatches and provide opportunities for compensation. One example might be the development of more qualified on-the-job trainings programs different from the existing ones. As participants reported, the present EFL programs in form of on-the-job training courses are not instructive and effective. The reasons as the participants reported are mainly due to the total or partial irrelevancy of these courses to the practical aspects of their works. It is also reported that in most cases these courses are presented by inexperienced lecturers. Therefore, the EFL teaching programs must consider this fact that such programs can be motivating if skillful lecturers are invited. Based on the findings in this study, EFL teachers do not usually have any collaboration with other colleagues in the same field and therefore this has greatly decreased their peer learning behavior. Iranian teaching programs, in the preliminary steps, should motivate EFL teachers to uphold collaborative learning and attend in professional development programs. Through collaborative or peer learning, EFL teachers would be able to become critical thinkers (Crandall, 1998; Nunan, 1992). Consequently, EFL teacher programs can motivate EFL teachers to manage peer observations and might take advantages of formative observations to help EFL teachers develop new teaching approaches (Crandall, 1998), including vocabulary teaching as a curricular area in language instruction. Another implication of this study addresses educational textbook designers for Iranian EFL teaching programs. Based on the findings of this study, Pre-University textbook taught to senior level at high schools does not have adequate contexts for teaching vocabulary. Additionally, no sufficient sections are provided for students to practice vocabulary. Moreover, this textbook is basically grammar-oriented and therefore does not capture objectives with respect to teaching vocabulary and mainly the text book does not increase learners' awareness. This finding is in congruence with the findings of Jahangard (2007), Riazi and Mosallanejad (2011), and Riazi and Aryasholouh (2007) who suggest an immediate reformation with respect to the text books at high school level. Therefore, it is suitable and essentially needed for Iranian EFL teaching programs to give a request to textbook designers to make required modifications or changes based on empirical research to remove this problem. Of course, teachers' cognitions and personal implications would definitely be constructive, if their theories are gathered through a comprehensive survey and contributed to the modifications. Iranian EFL teaching programs also need to allocate more time to English course in high school (especially with respect to Pre- University level) as this is proven to be one of the major concerns of the participants. Based on the findings in this study, Iranian EFL teaching programs additionally need to make a pleasing balance between the textbook objectives and the nature of final examinations they expect to be taken. This is especially true about the University Entrance Exam (UEE) which has been reported to be responsible for changing students' expectations of EFL teachers in terms of the methods and approaches employed in the classroom.

XII. SUGGESTIONS

Concerning the questions of the study, additional in-depth inquiries with respect to EFL teachers' cognitions about vocabulary teaching will be demanded to investigate the same questions. This study has focused on a textbook taught at senior high school (Pre-University level) with very limited reading texts and vocabulary, in an Iranian context. Other studies might be conducted in different contexts, at different levels, with different textbooks while focus of studies is also put on the vocabulary as a curricular area. Other studies also might be done with inexperienced or pre-serviced EFL teachers to depict their understandings about vocabulary teaching. Further studies are also required to be conducted to examine EFL students' understanding of teacher cognition about vocabulary teaching with the intention to triangulation. At last, this qualitative inquiry did not aim at generalizing its findings and conclusions to a wide EFL context, such findings might be used as the foundation for additional quantitative research with the intention to generalization.

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Learning to Interpret and Translate Classical Chinese Poetry

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Abstract—The translation of classical Chinese poetry has usually been dealt with from aesthetic and appreciative perspectives, focusing on the comparison of the source poetry and the target translation. In this process the features of the original poetry are discussed and translations by specialists and experts are set as models and criteria for learning and research. Classroom instruction on the genre is done during the secondary education period but no longer a practice in tertiary education as part of foreign language learning curriculum. This study argues that translation undertaken by college learners in the classroom setting is helpful building awareness of the genre. Experiment lectures with them focus on setting models and short workable and less challenging tasks and activities on fragments of a piece of poem, ranging from initial comprehension to rhyming production. The paper holds that comparative linguistics in such a way reviews learners' previous learning experience in terms of structure, syntax, rhythm, resonance on sentential and textual levels. The results show the learners' basic translation skills and the ability to arrange sentences systematically both improve.

Index Terms—classical Chinese poetry, translation, features, learning, tasks

I. INTRODUCTION

For language learners, the difficulty of translating classical Chinese poetry is two-fold: the preliminary understanding and interpretation and the attempt to render a piece into a similar verse-like text. As the poems were written hundreds of years ago, in old-style Chinese, it is often necessary to explain the classical expressions in modern terms and rearrange them into up-to-date expressions. The translation, similar to a re-writing, consists of symmetric structures, antithetic words with end-of-the-line or inside-line rhymes. It is often believed that the job of a translator is a job of a writer, and this is especially true of a poetry translator. Perhaps that is the reason poetry translators are only the few specialists in both languages. For the most language learners poem translation seems a far cry, only very vaguely related to them. Although it takes a language specialist to translate poems, the language teacher and the learners can work together and put out meaningful efforts towards poetry appreciation and translation, from the perspective of language learning and vision extending. Doing classical translation can be a new form of English learning since it gives the learner an opportunity to compare language features and ultimately to figure out the ways in which languages differ and the ways in which they are similar. (Vikner, 2006). Learners can make use of poems already translated and observe how the expert translator has interpreted the source poem and how (s)he has arranged the lines. The pre-translation reading comprehension is actually done through two languages, one preliminary, and the other structural, both of which show features of comparative linguistics.

Poetry study and research in China are usually concerned with aesthetic analysis, with the result that only the linguistic gurus' translations are analyzed, appreciated and followed as criteria and models, and there's scarcely any room for the learners' participation. This approach does little to promote the grassroots' interest in appreciating or translating this type of poetry. In Chinese high schools learners are not much motivated by classical Chinese poetry learning in the classroom, where all they have to do is listen to the elaboration on every aspects related to a particular poem (Song 2005). The shift to the students' involvement, particularly by intermediate and advanced level college students, does indicate a positive change. Though inexperienced and new to the tasks, college learners have the capacity to invest quality time and efforts in the classroom, where they have teachers' guidance and peers' help. They are willing to take up tasks, which are incorporated with the other skill development.

Unlike E-C translation, where learners still are able to learn through the reading comprehension, they may not feel much learning with C-E translation; all they are required to do is demonstrate whatever their productive skill they have. To compensate this drawback, learners are given as much time observing specialists' translations as they do their own, to take up separate tasks instead of full poem translation. In this process they are observing features of poetry, building awareness of this new literary form and learning English through translation. And assuredly they have much to learn and prepare before becoming competent translators.

But what's happened to this type of translation? Deterding (2013) claims that in translating classical Chinese poetry one must be aware of eight areas of loss, including rhyme, meter, compact style, allusions. The loss presents gaps not just in language, but also in culture, history, and customs. It is hard to fill up the gaps but possible to narrow them and amend the losses in other ways. This is one area of awareness to be raised on the part of the learners. It is awarding for

them to acquire such a sense for translation in either way. In comparing literary forms and meaning in poetry between the two languages, the learners learn the basic forms and measures which prepare them to do poetry translation on their own, for their professional or self-entertaining interest. The following section of this paper looks at the comprehension, interpretation and translation of classical Chinese poetry in the areas of structure, meaning, rhyme, image, around which the class discussion takes place and small tasks get tackled. In the discussion below the study focuses on classroom activities that help build confidence and competence in interpreting and translating the type of poetry.

II. TWO-WAY COMPREHENSION

In the classroom setting the comprehension of the classical poetry takes place both in Chinese and in English. Learners work on tasks expressed both in languages. Learners benefit from the lecturer's introduction of the poet in Chinese, and from reading the target translation of the poem later on. The two-way comprehension facilitate interpretation, both in form and meaning, and compensate gaps of understanding involved in the ancient style of expressions, the format, and the combination adds to insight into source poem and the target translation. Straight (1981) believes that the profound knowledge of the translator is the key to the success of the translation; a lack of source language system and cultural context handicap source-poem comprehension, and the same   thing can be said of the target translation.

1. Annotations entail providing the terminology in Chinese and note content in English, to fill up gaps of comprehension concerning the background, relation, allusion, structure of the poem. The learners are encouraged to choose their area of comprehension gap.

a) 徐俯: a poet in Song Dynasty, nicknamed Dong Hu Ju Shi, poet of the East Lake; was born in what is Xiu Shui County, Jiang Xi Province; got influence from Huang Ting Jian, his uncle, another prominent poet of the time.

b) 夹岸桃花: peach trees on blossom on both banks of the river. Why is 夹岸 used in stead of 两岸?

c) 蘸水开: to bloom close to the water surface; 蘸水开 is a somewhat archaic expression, but fit in better in whole poetic context than 荡水开、贴水开, which are modern language expressions.

d) 断桥: the bridge submerged in the water, another archaic usage but suitable for the context

e) 小舟撑出: a boat comes out; a boat appears from; the expression doesn't appear quite grammatical, because action verbs in Chinese tend to associate with the doer, usually a person; the structure is quite similar to one in English

(based on the poem A Spring Day by the Lake: 春游湖 by Xu Fu. Translators: Xu Yuanchong; Tang Zidong; Shen Zhanchun)

2. Discussion questions help to identify the poet's background, the format of the poem and expressions.

a) Why does the poet call himself poet of the East Lake, to contrast a poet of the West Lake?

b) Is Ju Shi (the basic meaning being *resident; dweller*) a term for a literary person, a poet, novelist? Does a foreign poet, novelist call him/herself the same way?

c) 夹岸桃花 is a four-character expression. Can you find another four-character expression?

d) Which expressions do not sound like a modern one? Can you think of another such expressions?

e) Which expression does not appear very grammatical but effective used in the line?

3. Comparison with the translation is meant to assist comprehension from another perspective. Questions are put in Chinese to evoke a comparison with the translated expressions..

a) 候鸟在哪里过冬？ (cf. swallow fly back again)

b) 为何不说*两岸桃花*？ (cf. peach blossoms on both shores)

c)*人不渡*指的是诗人自己还是大家？ (cf. I cannot cross the bridge)

d) 诗中是否表达了*喜悦*？ (cf. what joy to see …)

III. DISCUSSION

Overall, classical Chinese poems are strict in format, with same-character lines.   There are five-character-line and seven-character-line poetry. The rhyme schemes are more or less regular. Rhyme and symmetrical expressions are important elements to produce harmonious and musical effects. Another distinctive feature is the pastoral theme, an aesthetic value predominant in the majority of the ancient poems. The expression of personal feeling is common, usually on the beautiful landscapes, personal relations, and sometimes on political issues, which is never an open discussion or given free rein to. In translation, it is impossible to reproduce the five-, seven-character lines, the original perfect symmetrical phrases or couplets. But it is possible reproduce the images, which is noteworthy component in Western poetry. In the Chinese poems the image concept consists of the noun or noun phrase, and the action verbs, i.e. hills, *rivers, grass, trees, sky, the moon; ascend/descend, cross, see, watch, smell, touch, observe*. The image concept becomes the center of the poem, while the action maker "I", "we" are either implied or seem marginalized. In translation, however, both the action maker and the image concept are to be stated clearly and explicitly. This gives the translator a tough job: to maintain the original poetic feel and make the matter clear. A classical Chinese poem appears to SHOW the reader something, while the translation - and the Western poetry as a whole – seems to TELL something to the reader.

IV. INTERPRETATION

As each reader may interpret a poetic point from his/her own point of view, based on personal experience, interpretation in another language will vary, from person to person. Gu (1989) proposes variety of criterion in translation, and their inter- compensability in nature. Robinson (2001) accepts both rational and non-rational concepts, seeking a "middle-field" between rational, "perfect" translation and non-rational, non-perfect in translation. In learning to translate classical poems, both the teacher and the students are learners, beside the master translators. Since the masters are few, and learners are many, it is necessary to cultivate learners' interest in the kind of poetry and let them join the rank of apprenticeship and become excellent translators. In classroom discussion and practice, the massive task of the whole piece translation is cut into chunks of tasks, to reduce their formidability and to respond to slightly different needs of interest or development. The tasks include explanation of a line or part of it, re-translation and even attempts to re-arrange in Chinese.

1. Synonym substitution encourages a somewhat diversified version, using similar expressions. The following activities are based on the same poem.

a) When will the swallows *pair by pair* fly back (in pairs)

b) Peach blossoms on both shores just above water *float*. (skip; dance)

c) *I cannot cross the bridge* submerged by vernal rain. (sightseers; the bridge disappears)

d) What *joy* to see from the willow shade comes a out a boat (wonder)

2. Image substitution is to use a different image and change the translated lines using a bit of learners' choice of words.

a) When will the swallows pair by pair fly back again? (bring back full summer/twitter on my eaves)

b) Peach blossoms on both shores just above water *float*. (Lake water mirrors peach blossom …)

c) *What joy to see from the willow shade* comes out a boat. (… from where wild ducks scatter)

3. Adapting the translation recommends alternatives to interpret the whole four lines.

a) Is it possible to say "summer-reporting swallows"?

b) Can we say "swaying willow on both banks" instead of "peach blossoms on both shores"?

c) Is it equally good to use the active voice (Vernal rain submerged …) in place of the passive voice adopted by the expert translators?

d) Is it possible to have the important message "out comes a boat" stand at the beginning of the line?

4. Imitation of the source poem invites creative minds to adapt the source poem lines, to savor their own enjoyment. The attempts are supposed to lend understanding and interpretation of the poem. And other creative minds can be invited to put the adapted poem into English.

shuāng fēi yàn zi jíshi huí　　bào xià yàn zi guī
双　飞　燕 子 几 时　回，（报 夏 燕　子；归）
jiā àn táo hā zhàn shuǐ kāi　　jiā àn chuí liǔ yīng fēng bǎi
夹　岸 桃　花 蘸 水　开。（夹 岸 垂 柳；迎　风　　摆）
chūn　yǔ duàn qiáo rén bū dù　　chūn yǔ mò qiáo rén zhǐbù
春　雨 断 桥 人 不 渡，（春　雨 没 桥；人　止 步）
xiǎo zhōu chēng chū liǔ yīn lái　yě　yā fēi　chù　xiǎo zhōu lái
小　舟　撑　出 柳　荫　来。（野 鸭 飞 处；小　舟　来）

V. DISCUSSION

Owing to structural characteristics and syntactic orientation, the English translation differs remarkably from the source poem in (1) dealing with the subject or the speaker of the poem. In the source poem the subject is implicitly or vaguely expressed, and the one in English explicitly stated (人不渡/ I cannot cross. The reference of "人" is not quite clear); (2) being unable to capture the original perfect symmetrical or matching phrases. In source poem, the subject and the predicate pattern in the first two lines is NP + VP, the noun phrase being made up of a verbal attribute plus a concrete noun, and the verb phrase of an adverb plus action verb.

Judged by the English criteria, one or two Chinese poem lines are neither grammatically correct nor syntactically appropriate. The third line translated literally: *the vernal rain broke the bridge people cannot cross*; the fourth line: *a little boat rows out of the willow shade*. This grammatical incorrectness is noteworthy in ancient Chinese poetry, but at the same time lends terseness and symmetry to the poetry.

The strength of the classical poetry lies in its capacity to depict natural landscape, in its perfect structure of matching lines and phrases. It is perhaps less able to narrate a process or event than its English counterpart, which is easier to learn and publicized.

VI. RHYMING AND OTHER RHETORIC MEANS

Rhyming, antithetic and parallel and expressions feature the classic poetry and are an important consideration of the translator. Zhu (2004) writes that rhymes and meters produce musical effect and pleases the ear. Rhymes and structural

symmetry produce sound and musical effects. In English poetry, there are also systematic schemes of rhyme, i.e. double rhyme, triple rhyme, rising rhyme, falling rhyme, perfect and imperfect rhymes. Other poetic components such as alliteration, assonance also produce the similar sound effect. Brian Buckley (date not given) considers three relevant factors in writing rhyming poetry: consistent rhyming scheme, consistent pattern of syllables, and consistent pattern of syllable stresses. Both poetries also attach importance to rhythm, in different ways. In the Chinese poetry rhythm is realized the by producing the same-character lines or phrases, same patterns of verbal or noun phrases and the identical toning of each line-ending character. In English this is usually achieved by meters, by using phrases matching or contrasting in concept. Like song lyrics, most of the classical Chinese poems were written as music lyrics to sing to friends or entertain the royal or aristocratic circles. The people who wrote poetry recited them to his friends or associates to show off his knowledge and learning. The two-character phrase 诗歌 (shī gē) has a collective meaning of poetry and verses, but when understood singly, one means "poetry", the other "songs". Although modern poetry in both languages tend to associate with free expression of meaning more than rhyming schemes, it is essential to make learners aware that rhymes are actually a basic language feature to give a balanced structure in English, like many of the rhymes for children's learning, e.g.

Gradually the world and societies *grew*,
Soon it was so big nobody *knew*.
How many tools and inventions there *were*,
Nobody has countered, so nobody is *sure*.
(Hepzibah Flurge. Pearson, Scotforeman)

Foreign language learners also benefit from learning rhyming phrases, which are musical and help memorize the target material. One way to help the learners learn to write rhyming words is to get them to observe many rhyming word pairs in English prosaic and lyrical expressions and build up their awareness.

1. Observing rhyming in non-literary genres means to build up the learners' awareness of rhyming in English language.

In song lyrics
I built a bridge across the stream of consciousness
It always seems to be a *flowing*
But I don't know which way my brain is *going*
Oh, the rhyming and the *timing*
Are you prepared to take a dive into the deep end of my *head*
Are you listening to a single word I've *said*
(Kevin Kadish)

In prosaic lines
Most Americans blindly accept the dies that *newer* is automatically *better*. (Carol Siskin)

2. Practicing end-line rhyming means adapting original end-of-the-line words, using words recommended by the teacher.

*When will the swallows pair by pair fly back **again**?*
*Peach blossoms on both shores just above water **float**.*
*I cannot cross the bride submerged by vernal **rain**.*
*What joy to see from the willow shade come out a **boat**.*

Suggestion: Is it possible to try the words **fly and sigh** at the end of the first and third line, and **flip**, **skip** at the end of the second and fourth line?

Practice:
When will the swallows back again _____?
Peach blossoms on both shores just above water _____.
Sightseers, unable to pass the submerged bridge, _____.
What joy to see from the willow shade out a boat _____.

3. Matching or antithetic structures is meant to practice similar or contrasting expressions or ideas, to correspond to the matching structures of the source poem, e.g.

As the swallows in twos are soon back to tell summer,
Peach blossoms in both shores are early to show spring.
(matching in idea)
The bridge submerged, sightseers are anxious about no crossing,
A boat emerged, promising a ferry to their delight and joy.
(contrasting and antithetic in meaning)

Practice:
Sightseers, hesitant to pass the bridge submerged, _____. (sigh)
A boat, ready to ferry them clear, is quick to_____. (arrive)

4. Alliteration and assonance can also help produce matching sound or matching or contrasting ideas. Like the ways of practice discussed above, observation can lead the way to awareness building, and learners can translate lines

practicing alliteration and assonance in their won ways.

Observation

Alliteration

back to basics/balance the books/boom or bust/do or die/green as grass/hale and hearty/the more the merrier/kill the king/pay the price

Alice's aunt ate apples and acorns around August.

Larry's lizards like leaping leopards.

Assonance

I'll lie down by the side of my bride.

Try to light the fire.

Practice: Below are another poem and the translation. From the translation find out the cases of alliteration and assonance.

离 思 (lí sī) - 元 稹(yuán zhēn)

céng jīng cāng hǎi nán wéi shuǐ   chú què wū shān bū   shì yūn

曾 经 沧 海 难 为 水，除 却 巫 山 不 是 云。

qǔ cì huā cóng lǎn huí gù bàn yáun xīu dào bàn yuán jūn

取次 花 丛 懒 回 顾，半 缘 修 道 半 缘 君。

Mourning for my dear departed wife

No water's wide enough when you have crossed the sea;

No cloud is beautiful but that which crowns the peak.

I pass by flowers that fail to attract poor me,

Half for your sake and half for Taoism I seek.

(Poem written by Yuan Zhen, and translated by Xu Yuanchong; Tang Zidong; Shen Zhanchun)

Practice: translate the following lines, using suggested words in the bracket.

a) 何当共剪西窗烛 - 李商隐 (wish for a time; trim the candlelight; by the window)

b) 语多难寄反无词 - 陈端生 (have many to express; words go away from me)

c) 远上寒山石径斜 – 杜牧 (steeply hill; stony path; chilly season)

d) 锄禾日当午，汗滴禾下土 – 李绅 (weed my plot; hot sun; sweat drips on the soil)

VII. DISCUSSION

In the classical Chinese poetry, apart from the end-line rhyming there is also assonance and alliteration as means to retain resonance, although they don't seems much notable methods in comparison to end-line rhymes, and they attract much less attention. The poet must have used the assonance and alliteration deliberately to achieve an echoing atmosphere. This phenomenon of assonance mostly occurs on two-character phrases, but sometimes on two far-neighbor characters. For instance,

a) 昔日龌龊不足夸 – 孟郊 (龌龊 wò chuà each character has the vowel sound /ò)

b) 君问归期未有期 – 李商隐 (问 wèn；未 wèi: each character has the same consonance sound /w/).

In most studies done by Chinese scholars on the classical poetry, 谐 音 (xié yīn) – roughly corresponding to assonance – is used, but there is no such term as alliteration. Neither is considered important attribute attached to poetry, probably because such cases are also very common in spoken or non-literary written Chinese.

In comparison to English poems that are metric and stress-syllable-based, classical Chinese poems reflect rhythm in same-character-line stanzas: each line consisting of identical number of character, and of identical number of characters forming NP or VP. Taking the seven-character-line and five-character-line quatrains for example. In the case of seven-character lines, the first four characters form either NP or VP, or a clause, becoming the subject, the main clause, the attribute, or adverbial, and the remaining three characters fulfill the function of the predicate, the central noun, even the central clause. The first four characters and the last three characters form two rhythmic/sense groups, each group functioning on its own. In five-character lines, the first two and the last three characters form two sense groups respectively.

Line 1: 泽国江山 入战图 (NP: the subject   VP: the predicate)

Line 4: 一将功成 万骨朽 (S+V1: expressing condition   V2: expressing result)

(lines from the poem written by CAO Song)

Line 2: 红泥 小火炉 (NP: attribute   NP: the central noun of the line)

Line 3: 晚来 天欲雪 (NP: adverbial   S+V: central clause of the line)

(lines from the poem written by BAI Juyi)

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

For both the teacher and learners, learning to do classical Chinese poetry translation is building up language learning

experience, in a different way from the previous E-C translation practice. They now assign a new way of application to their previously learned knowledge of English, and find their stock of it too limited. They realize that language is not just acquired, but also to be consciously learned and memorized, for the terse and rhyming phrases are in bad need and find ready and handy application in translating this type of poems.

Expertise on the source and target language poetry is required of the teacher, whose preparation of the short and practical class activities means the key to the success of the lecture. She/he needs not just to be a competent translator, but perhaps a poet of some rank, to help open the door to the poetry appreciation, to know the poetry and translation on a competent amateur or professional basis. In this respect, the teacher needs to acquaint oneself with other sources of the poetry writing, techniques, practitioners, methodology, to offer the class who need workable and motivating tasks.

To some extent, whether the learners feel drawn and motivated to the program depends on the tasks and activities, which need to be not only categorized and scaled, in a moderately progressive fashion, but also varied and diversified, capable of answering different needs or interest. It is possible to help learners learn the classical poetry, in the classroom setting, and on their own, since the internet is a rich resource of material for appreciation and practice.

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An Investigation Study of Academic Writing Problems Faced by Arab Postgraduate Students at Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM)

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Abstract—This study aimed to investigate the academic writing problems encountered by Arab speaking postgraduate students at Universiti Technologi Malaysia (UTM). There are two research questions of this study. The first question involved the identification of mistakes that Arab speaking postgraduate students commit in academic writing at UTM. The second question dealt with the problems Arab speaking students' perceived in academic writing. The data for the study were collected through distributing a set of questionnaires and writing task. The respondents of this study were 85 Arab speaking postgraduate students who come from different Arabic countries like Iraq, Yemen, Sudan, Saudi Arabia, Algeria, Libya, Palestine, and Syria who enrolled for the academic session of 2011/2012. A snowballing technique was used to determine the samples of this study. A set of the questionnaires were distributed to 80 of the respondents to reveal their opinions towards the causes of academic writing problems. Another 5 students were given a writing task which was to write two short paragraphs regarding their fields of works. The students' writing was sent to an expert of English language to identify the mistakes made by the students. The findings of the study nevertheless could be used to recommend effective teaching approaches to teach academic writing that are currently used by English language teachers and specialists.

Index Terms—Arab students, academic writing, committed mistakes, writing task, questionnaires

I. INTRODUCTION

Academic writing plays an essential role in learning a foreign language. Non- native speakers of the English language should be familiar with writing processes, elements, and features like formality, objectivity, and complexity in order to use the language precisely and accurately. Abdulwahed, S (2010) pointed out that English writing affords students the opportunity to think critically and provides the motivation to learn certain aspects of academic writing like using effective word expressions and strong vocabulary. Moreover, academic writing involves certain features like critical thinking and self- expression that students should receive during the courses they attend like IEC or IELTS. These courses allow students to practice the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) through activities such as tutorials, daily quizzes, and final examinations.There are other aspects of academic writing which must be studied and mastered such as organizing paragraphs by using a strong style of word structures, paraphrasing, and appropriate conjunctions. There also certain aspects involve the use of certain steps which must be followed by students such as understanding and summarizing the passage before writing, eliminating and breaking up long sentences or changing them, and using synonyms to express the same meaning. Furthermore, (Zamel, 1983) stated that learners may find out effective ideas during the process of writing in order to get an accurate use of language during academic writing activities. Thus, academic writing requires student to be familiar with the types of academic writing like descriptive, narrative, and illustrative, approaches (process, genre, and product), and strategies (giving feedback, using critical thinking, and paraphrase the sentences in their own writing).

The challenges of academic writing among students can be related to the discipline of writing like management, understanding, and communication discipline. The students in many cases misunderstand and have difficulties towards the way of academic writing instruction been given by nonnative speakers of English language. In addition, the guidelines of academic writing instructions are not so clear for their level to be implemented. In other words, (Fawwaz & Ahmed, 2007) identified some problems related to students' thinking in managing some tests to improve their academic texts such as the use of cohesion aspects, weak connection among the words, and the lack in producing certain types of disciplines in academic writing.

Objectives of Study

1- To investigate the type of mistakes that Arab students commit in academic writing at UTM.

2- To investigate the problems that Arab students face in academic writing academic writing at UTM.

Significance of Study

This study focuses on the challenges and the mistakes encountered by Arab postgraduate students in order to identify the suggestions and solutions for the recommended future researches. This study is a crucial issue to be dealt with as it reveals the problems that Arab students face when writing especially the lack of methods and the ways of teaching

English academic writing. The present study also describes and focuses on certain procedures related to emphasize on some approaches and strategies to increase students' writing skills and perceptions by enhancing their writing proficiency to meet their needs and follow some writing discipline for future work.

Problems faced by Arab Students

The study examines academic writing procedures to reveal the problems that Arab speaking postgraduate students face. Also, the study deals with the mistakes that Arab speaking postgraduate students make in writing short paragraphs regarding their fields of work.

Arab students face many problems when paraphrasing. For example, students are incapable of using their own words or reformat sentences based on their own critical thinking, and reorganize sentences to be more effective academically. Other problems encountered by Arab students are interfering of their native language (Arabic language). The difference occurs between Arab students and native speakers of English language, who have diverse writing styles, abilities, and backgrounds. Arab students are incapable of organizing the functions of writing, the process of reading to writing, and then the interfering of Arabic language (L1) with the second language (L2) that prevents the use of critical thinking and the process of paraphrasing in making new word structure based on their own perspectives without changing the meaning of the words. Most students commit many mistakes related to sentence structure. For Instance, grammatical mistakes are in syntactical as well as in organizing new word expressions as most of the instructions given in Arabic and because the teacher is a non-native speaker. Rabab'ah (2001) stated that the lack of communication among Arab students in dealing with all four language skills is due to inappropriate resources and the weaknesses in context that are given to these students.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Characterization of Academic Writing

Academic writing can be characterized as the construction and development of techniques taught in universities such as organizing and generating students' ideas and critical thinking, and developing vocabulary and grammatical syntax. Additionally, students in English writing classes should receive more exposure to those features which offer strong vocabulary, good sentence structures, and the organization of paragraphs based on punctuation marks and conjunctions. (Montgomery & Baker, 2007) pointed out that teachers should identify and emphasize the process of academic writing for students. Thus, teachers need to establish and encourage students' attitudes towards the basic elements of academic writing such as definition, strategies, and difficulties. In addition, in order to increase students' perceptions about academic writing, they have to modify their assumptions about their needs, improvement, and proficiency level to become better writers.

Other perspectives like (Li, 2007) stated that writers' constructions have to address some beliefs about the identifications and development of English as a second language (ESL) contexts regarding the use of effective lesson plans in teaching academic writing. Thus, students can interact with beliefs, culture, and identity of academic writing to modify and set their needs

Perceptions of Students towards Academic Writing

In a second language acquisition (SLA), students need to understand the procedure of academic writing such as developing new strategies, using adequate approaches, and finding out the best solutions for their problems. Most researchers have concentrated on teaching academic writing effectively among Arab students to develop the self-esteem and critical thinking in teaching writing skills, features of academic writing, and composition tasks.

Daoud & Al-Hazmi (2002) claimed that non-native speakers of the English language can explore a new world of academic writing by measuring self-integration of learning and by getting the opportunity to think critically in order to express themselves, thereby making an intellectual commitment to get and generate something meaningful through writing. Non-native speakers can develop their accuracy towards academic writing by engaging in various programs within teaching and learning environments. Students can achieve their academic purposes by developing certain aspects of cultural features such as communicative interaction, appreciation of cultural background, and engaging in meaningful and interactive tasks. This will be achieved by making students deal with the objectives of the English language curriculum and language skills being used in classroom activities

Strategies of Academic Writing

The importance of using strategies in academic writing can support the specialists of second language acquisition (SLA) for the development and enhancement of learners' proficiency level. Ellis, R (1985) stated that language learning strategy (LLS) is one of the three processes to develop second language knowledge.

In many studies, there is an emphasis on effective strategies that are used to improve students' performance such as critical thinking, paraphrasing, and mind mapping. Moreover, these strategies can be considered as the measurement of students' writing abilities that can be analyzed and modified during the process of teaching academic writing.

A. Using Corrective Feedback

Most English writers deal with certain steps and stages to enhance the process of English academic writing and to improve and develop its strategies and features. For example, from the grammatical aspect, there are certain steps and procedures students should take into consideration such as the use of correct tenses.

Kepner (1991) suggested that student mistakes can be corrected and analyzed to increase their writing accuracy by defining two important things. The first involves the process of acquiring forms and structures of second language acquisition (SLA). The other involves the ability and willingness of teachers to deal with practical problems in terms of corrective feedback. Lundstrom & Baker (2009) mentioned teachers can conduct constructive feedback to contribute to improve students' performance in academic writing. Besides, students will be introduced and classified as givers and receivers to reveal their considerations and perceptions towards the progress of their writing courses to achieve their goals in learning if the trainee writers share the same cultural and educational background.

Many studies like Ferris & Hedgcock (2005) claimed that many English language writing teachers used one-on-one strategy in corrective feedback to provide and generate the opportunity for clarification and notification to reveal students' mistakes. Moreover, a number of studies are concerned with implementing these kinds of techniques among ESL students in order to reduce their mistakes and examine their future needs

B. Using Mind Mapping and Critical Thinking

There are many facts that students become capable of doing through the acquisition of academic writing. For instance, students need to be critical, need to be sort of kinesthetic, and be capable of synthesis. In addition, they need to have a good introduction to instruct their paragraphs and ideas should be well organized. Thus, they have to be more accurate in analyzing and developing their critical thinking in order to summarize and conclude their writing professionally.

Scane, Guy, & Wenstrom (1991) mentioned that brainstorming can motivate a students' writing by increasing their creativity in certain tasks related to English as a foreign language (EFL) environment. Furthermore, students can express their thoughts and good writing under the process of brainstorming stages, assisting students to generate new ideas and develop their skills for the tasks of academic writing. Harmer (2001) mentioned that brainstorming techniques can make students create their own ideas and thinking to improve their knowledge before writing, and it can then be used at any level and under any situation.

Buzan, (1993) described the concepts of brainstorming that students need to acquire in order to use its powerful tools to overcome their problems in organizing their thoughts and skills.

III. METHODOLOGY

Respondents: The respondents of the study were Arab speaking students come from different countries and they are perusing their postgraduate degrees in various fields of study. Also, they studied for their first degrees in their own countries. The respondents are from Iraq, Sudan, Syria, Yemen, Libya, Palestine, and Algeria. They were asked to respond to the writing task and a set of questionnaires at the university.

Instrumentation: A set questions of questionnaires were used for this paper and a simple writing task. The questionnaires were distributed to 80 students, and another 5 were given a writing task. The 80 respondents were required to give their perceptions by responding to 17 questions. The other 5 students were required to give their feedbacks and responses by writing two short of paragraphs. The first part of the questionnaires asked for demographical information of the students which included country and English proficiency. The second part contained 17 question items asking about the perceptions of respondents towards the causes of academic writing problems; namely vocabulary, sentence structure, organizing paragraphs, and getting feedbacks. The second instrument which was a simple writing task was distributed to another 5 of the respondents. The writing task was used to identify the common mistakes that students could make in academic writing. They were asked to write two short paragraphs regarding their fields of work. The questionnaires were used to describe the purpose of the task and gather information from the respondents to get their opinions and ideas about academic writing.

Data Collection: Data collection took place during the second semester of the academic session 2011/2012. In this study, the data was collected from the questionnaires in order to develop the research questions and to collect the intended data.

Data Reliability: For the assessment of data reliability, 40 copies of the instruments were administered to three graduate lecturers at the beginning of the current semester. The other 40 copies were subsequently sent to other persons who are teaching English language from Canada and U.S to ensure the consistency of the questionnaires.

Data Analysis: Data from the questionnaires was analyzed using the latest version of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 20.0) to get the findings in order to answer the research questions. For analyzing the questionnaires, the mean and percentages calculated by using SPSS. After the data was collected, the study aimed to identify the data characteristics and results. The questionnaires would have 5 scales to measure the respondents' perceptions, but in the current study a different method was used to analyze the output from the questionnaires. The method dealt with only 4 scales that focused on answering certain questions regarding an agreement or disagreement. The scale used in this study depended on the overall mean consisting of three levels (high, moderate, and low).

For this study, 1 dimensional scaling that was used and respondents were requested to score on the scale of 1-4. This process can identify the problems of academic writing that students faced in their writing by choosing the level of agreement in the given questionnaires. For the writing task, an expert of English language was asked to help and analyze the mistakes the respondents made in the writing task such as organizing paragraphs in relating to punctuation

marks and conjunctions, paraphrasing, coherence, or expressing students' ideas.

IV. FINDINGS

Proficiency of Students' English levels
This section presents the proficiency levels of students based on their own perceptions.

TABLE 1
ENGLISH PROFICIENCY OF STUDENTS

Students	Excellent	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor
1- Iraq	0 (0.0%)	9 (20.5%)	21 (50.0%)	12 (27.3%)	1 (2.3%)
2- Yemen	1 (4.3%)	6 (26.1%)	15 (65.2%)	1 (4.3%)	0 (0.0%)
3- Syria	0 (0.0%)	1 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
4- Libya	0 (0.0%)	1 (50.0%)	1 (50.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
5- Saudi	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (50.0%)	1 (50.0%)	0 (0.0%)
6- Sudan	0 (0.0%)	1 (25.0%)	3 (50.0%)	1 (25.0%)	0 (0.0%)
7- Palestine	0 (0.0%)	2 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
8 - Algeria	0 (0.0%)	1 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
Total	1	21	41	16	1

The table above presents the proficiency levels of students in English academic writing. The majority of Yemeni students (65.2%) claimed they had obtained a good level of proficiency regarding their English academic writing skills and 4.3% of Yemeni students felt that they had an excellent level of proficiency.

By comparison, 50.0% of Iraqi students expressed that their proficiency level, as presented in the distributed questionnaire was good and 20.5% felt they had achieved a very good proficiency level. Only 2.3% rated their skills as poor. Slightly more than half of the students from Sudan (50.5%), stated that they had a good proficiency level in academic writing, whereas 25.0%rated their proficiency as fair. (100.0%) of the Palestinian, Algerian, and Syrian students, on the other hand, felt that they had achieved a very good level of proficiency in English language. Overall, more than 50% of the respondents assumed that they had a good level of English proficiency.

Findings from research question one (What are the mistakes that Arab students commit in academic writing at UTM?
The two short paragraphs were then analyzed by an expert of English language. The expert highlighted and categorized the students' mistakes according to vocabulary problems, spelling mistakes, expressing ideas, and organizing paragraphs. The findings from the analysis are presented in the table below**:**

TABLE 2
MISTAKES MADE BY STUDENTS IN THE WRITING TASK

Students	VP	SM	SS	EI	Total
S1	1 (14.2%)	1 (14.2%)	3 (42.8%)	2 (28.5%)	7
S2	1 (12.5 %)	1 (12.5%)	5 (62.5%)	2 (25%)	8
S3	-	-	7 (100%)	-	7
S4	4 (30.7%)	1 (7.6%)	7(53.8%)	1 (7.6%)	13

Note: VP= Vocabulary
Problems, SM= Spelling Mistakes
SS= Sentence Structure
EI= Expressing Ideas

The table above shows that the most mistakes made by the participants were sentence structure and vocabulary mistakes. For example, the fourth student made the highest number of sentence structure mistakes with 7 sentence structure mistakes (53.8%), 4 mistakes in vocabulary (30.7%), and one mistake with both spelling mistakes and expressing ideas (7.6%). Other students like S1 and S2 also committed many mistakes in academic writing related to spelling (14.2%) and (12.5%). The most mistakes they committed also were in sentence structure. The first students committed (42.8%) and the second students made (62.5%).

Findings of research question two (What are the problems faced by Arab students in academic writing at UTM)?
The questionnaires included 17 questions and the students were asked to select their level of agreement in order to express their perceptions regarding the causes of their academic writing problems. These questions were found in Section B of the questionnaires. The results for each question of Section B are presented in the following sub-sections. Each sub-sections also presents the percentages and the mean for each construct of academic writing that was examined.

The respondents expressed their opinions towards vocabulary items as being high regarding the average of overall mean. The table below shows the perception of Arab postgraduate students towards the vocabulary as an academic writing problem

TABLE 3
PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF VOCABULARY AS AN ACADEMIC WRITING PROBLEM

Questionnaire Items	Agree (%)							
	Iq	Yem	Sa	Sud	Syr	Al	Lib	Pal
Q11	59.1	56.5	100	20	100	100	50	50
Q12	93.2	87	100	100	100	100	100	50
Mean	2.1	2.9	2.7	2.1	1.5	1.1	1.7	1
Total Mean	1.8							

Note: Iq= Iraq, Sy= Syria, Yem= Yemen, Sa= Saudi, Sud= Sudan, Al=Algeria, Li= Libya, Pal= Palestine

The table above shows that the students from Syria (100%), Saudi (100%), and Algerian (100%) had the highest percentages compared to the other students. So, it can be realized that those students assumed they faced many problems related to vocabulary as presented in the distributed questionnaires.

TABLE 4
PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS SENTENCE STRUCTURE AS AN ACADEMIC WRITING PROBLEM

Questionnaires Items	Agree (%)							
	Iq	Yem	Sa	Sud	Syr	Al	Lib	Pal
Q 7	66	60.8	100	80	100	100	50	50
Q 18	50	60.0	100	40	100	100	50	50
Mean	2.1	2.9	2.7	3.1	2	1.3	1	1.2
Total Mean	2.0							

The table presents the percentages of students' perceptions towards the sentence structure of academic writing. The table shows the overall mean of students' perceptions regarding the sentence structure as an academic writing problem indicating that Iraqi and Sudan students had the same moderate mean of 2.1. So it can be observed that those students face slight challenges related to sentence structure in their academic writing.

Other students, such as those from Yemen, Saudi, Libya, Syria, and Algeria had the highest overall mean ranging from 1.5 to 1.9. These results indicated that those students faced many problems related to sentence structure in their academic writing.

TABLE 5
PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF GETTING FEEDBACK AND CHALLENGING AS AN ACADEMIC WRITING PROBLEM

Questionnaires items	Agree (%)							
	Iq	Yem	Sa	Sud	Sy	Al	Li	Pal
Q 6	56.8	56.5	50	60	0	100	0	50
Q 8	81.8	82.6	100	80	100	100	100	0
Q 9	11.3	26.1	50	0	100	0	0	0
Q14	31.8	47.8	50	0	0	0	0	0
Q16	36.3	34.7	100	20	0	0	0	0
Q17	50	26	50	40	100	100	0	0
Mean	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.3	2.5	1.8	1.3	2
Total Mean	2.5							

The table shows the percentages of students' perceptions related to getting feedback or practicing as an academic writing problem. For instance, Syrian (100%), Saudi (100%), and Algeria (100%) had the highest percentage towards this item. It means that those students faced many problems in academic writing related to getting feedback and other items.

Other students from Iraq, Yemeni, and Sudan had different perceptions related to receiving feedback and skill practice. The overall mean for these students ranged from moderate (2.9) to low (3.3). These students claimed that they faced only slight challenges related to receiving feedback or practicing their academic writing skills.

V. CONCLUSION

This study was conducted to investigate the types of mistakes and problems with academic writing experienced by Arab speaking students at UTM. Also, this chapter proposes recommendations for further research. A total of 80 respondents completed the questionnaires based on their perceptions towards the causes of academic writing problems. Another 5 students were asked to write two short paragraphs regarding a simple writing task. The study was conducted during the second semester of 2011/2012.

The findings of the study also showed that students committed many mistakes in academic writing in relation to sentence structure, vocabulary, and expressing ideas. The results presented the most mistakes made by the participants in a simple writing task. The mistakes were ranged from the highest percentages to the lowest in relation to the aspects of academic writing problems. The fourth student made the highest number of sentence structure mistakes with 7 sentence structure errors (53.8%), 4 mistakes in vocabulary (30.7%), and one mistake with both spelling and expressing ideas (7.6%). Other students like S1 and S2 also committed many mistakes in academic writing related to spelling with (14.2%) and (12.5%) respectively. Most mistakes committed also were in sentence structure. The first student

committed (42.8%) and the second student made (62.5%). The findings also shows information highlighted in the questionnaires like demographic information of the respondents and the causes of academic writing problems. This section also discusses the levels of overall mean among the students that have already been presented and highlighted.

Recommendations for future research

Many factors can be observed regarding the results of the questionnaires and writing task. These factors should be taught with precision at schools, universities, and English training institutions. The students need to see the whole picture of the methods used in academic writing that involve using certain strategies and steps to improve their writing skills.

English language specialists and lecturers used strategies to teach academic writing like constructivist approach. It can provide learners with the chance to gain experience practicing academic writing and to focus on the aspects of teaching academic writing such as daily writing practice, and to reveal their abilities and skills in terms of direct interaction with native speakers in using the appropriate sentence structures. So, learners may enhance their attitudes and perceptions when communicating with native speakers of English language. In other words, brainstorming and mind-mapping can be used among students to enhance their ideas and writing styles in discussing and group working.

There are some other factors that can be developed for future research to help students produce a good piece of academic writing. One of these factors is increasing students' motivation towards writing by using different styles of sentence structures, good vocabulary, and organizing their ideas and critical thinking. Actually, this could happen if the division and persons in charge of teaching academic writing had obtained effective and adequate methods that other researchers and scholars use in delivering information about academic writing. Moreover, Arab students can motivate themselves to learn English, as a genuine interest in the target language can inspire students to improve their abilities to express themselves in English.

Other studies should be undertaken to understand and explore the causes behind the problems of academic writing. It may be because of the English curriculum, the lack of Arab educational systems, and snowballing techniques that are used in the distributed questionnaires. To have a better inference for this kind of study, it may be suggested that a more systematic sample procedure be taken.

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A Short Analysis of Merge Order[*]

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Abstract—**Merge is the basic syntactic operation for generative and transformative syntax. Ever since the initial stage of G-T, the bottom-up merge order or linearly leftward merge order is advocated . However, the present study aims at providing syntactic evidence against this bottom-up merge order and advocates a rightward merge order.**

Index Terms—**merge order, bottom-up merge order, syntactic evidence, rightward merge order**

I. Introduction

There are many theoretical studies concerning different aspects of the syntactic operation of merge, which is defined as the basic syntactic operation for syntactic numeration. The most frequently debated topic concerning merge will be merge order issue, which will also be the focus of the present merge study. Experts have different ideas. The traditional and prevalent one would be bottom-up merge order or the leftward merge order. Besides Chomsky, almost all the other important figures in G-T syntactic study advocate a bottom-up merge order and typically Andrew Radford, in his up-to-date work *Minimalist Syntax: Exploring the Structure of English*, reemphasizes the importance of bottom-up or leftward merge order and derives sample sentences strictly according to the order(Andrew,2008). And a Chinese figure especially deserving our attention will be Dai Manchun. His theory of leftward merge in broad sense best revealed in his doctoral dissertation *Leftward Merge in Broad Sense* not only reconfirms the importance of leftward merge order but also intends to prove that all the adjuncts are inserted into the derivation from left instead of the traditionally acknowledged insertion from right, he first makes it clear that bottom-up merge order is a principle that all derivations must strictly follow (Dai, 2001).

II. Syntactic Evidence Against Bottom-up

The G-T syntax, ever since its beginning stage till the recent theory has been concentrating on the logical and semantic relation between lexical items and the syntactic representations of this relation. In the early stage of the G-T theory, the logical-semantic relations are represented in deep structure and its syntactic representation can be observed in surface structure. In recent theories especially in phase theory, when derivational pattern replaces representational pattern, the logical semantic relation and its syntactic representation are realized simultaneously through the basic syntactic operation of merge or move. In this sense, merge order ought to match the logical semantic relation and the concerning syntactic representations. Among the syntactic representations of logical semantic relations, case, agreement, government and binding are the prime considerations for G-T studies. A careful examination of these syntactic elements testifies that if a bottom-up merge order is observed, these syntactic elements fail to establish the proper logical semantic relation. The present study will examine them separately.

A. Evidence of Case

Chomsky(1981), following an idea suggested by Jean-Roger Vergnaud, proposed that case should be regarded as the prerequisite for DP to be active in syntax. That is to say, a sentence containing any DP without case appropriate for its structural position is excluded as an ungrammatical one. This is so called Case Filter condition and Chomsky also defines some case assignment rules.

Case Filter

*NP if NP has phonetic content and has no case.

Case assignment rules

NP is nominative if governed by AGR

NP is objective if governed by V with the sub-categorization feature: ___NP (i.e., transitive)(Andrew,2004,P.367)

In his earlier theory, Chomsky supposes that Agr category assigns nominative case to NP while a transitive V assigns objective case to NP.(During this earlier stage, Chomsky once even suggested two Agr categories, AgrS and AgrO to assign nominative and objective case separately.) And in minimalism and phase theory because Agr category has been cancelled in syntactic operation and replaced by T, T is in charge of assigning nominative case to NP as can be seen in Radford's derivation of the sentence *Will Ruritania withdraw the troops from Utopia?*(Andrew,2004).

The present study here posits that if a bottom-up merge order is followed, it will cause problems for case assignment. First the assignment of accusative case will be examined.

In accordance with the bottom-up merge order, a new syntactic element is merged from left to the existing syntactic element. At the bottom of the hierarchical structure, when transitive verb and NP merge, first there will be an NP and then transitive verb merges from left to the existing NP. This will lead to a problem in accusative case assigning. It is known that no matter in minimalism or in phase theory, a standard assumption for language derivation is that a language consists of two components: a lexicon and a computational system. The lexicon specifies the lexical items that enter into the computational system, with their idiosyncratic properties (Chomsky, 2001). The computational system uses these elements to generate derivations. The derivation of a particular linguistic expression then involves a choice of items from the lexicon and a computation that constructs the pair of interface representations.

When the bottom-up merge order is followed, the computational system will first choose NP from lexicon to make it an existing syntactic element for further syntactic operation. Once NP is chosen from the lexicon and enters derivation, it has been specified and its idiosyncratic properties should be identified. Among these idiosyncratic properties, case feature is an important one because in some languages like English, case feature will directly influence the phonetic content of NP. On the contrary, according to the case assignment rules, the accusative case should be assigned by transitive verb while at this time the transitive verb has not entered the derivation yet. Naturally this causes a dilemma. As a lexical term chosen from the lexicon, all its properties have been determined. But its case feature has not been assigned yet.

The only way to settle this dilemma is to change bottom-up merge order by adopting an opposite one. In that case, the computational system first chooses a transitive verb from the lexicon to form an existing syntactic element. This transitive verb can utilize its own competence of assigning accusative case to predetermine the case feature and the concerning phonetic content of NP. Once this has been pre-determined, the computational system can then choose NP from lexicon to merge transitive verb. Only in this order can the accusative assigning problem be successfully solved.

As far as the nominative case is concerned, the situation is more complicated. As has been mentioned in the above section, in the early stage of case theory, the nominative case of an NP is assigned by Agr and in the recent case theory, a broader category T is defined to indicate tense, match person, number feature and assign case feature. If so, the same problem will emerge. In a typical derivation of a sentence, to satisfy the UTAH(Andrew,(if UTHA is accepted as a presupposition), NP used as the subject of the sentence is first located at the inner specifier position of v and then through move, NP finally occupies the outer specifier position of T.In another word, in the derivation, NP enters derivation before T, which is in charge of assigning a nominative case to NP itself. This causes another dilemma which is once again caused by bottom-up merge order and therefore, in order to solve the problem, T enters derivation first and assigns nominative case to NP and predetermines the phonetic content of NP. Then NP is chosen by the computational system to enter derivation and merges T and NP can still be at the inner specifier position and satisfies UTAH. As a result, the problem seems to be smoothly solved by advocating an opposite merge order.

But the problem is not so simple concerning the nominative case. The question "Can category T really assign nominative case to NP?" still deserves careful thinking. The present deems that C instead of T assigns nominative case to NP. This hypothesis is supported by syntactic evidence.

The syntactic evidence comes from a very special case consideration-exceptional case marking. To examine this, take the following example:

Mary believed/considered/reported/him to love her.

In these sample sentences, the matrix verbs believe consider and report can assign accusative case to him. And these matrix verbs select infinitival TP-clause as their complement. The situations where the verbs select an infinitival TP-clause as their complement and allow phonologically overt NP with its accusative case (him) in the subject position of the infinitival clause, are defined as "exceptional case marking"(Bowers,1993).

Now the question is what on earth prevents NP (him) from being assigned nominative case and accusative case instead when NP occupies a subject position. The present study assumes that the complement after the matrix verbs is an infinitival TP-clause not a CP-clause, so NP can not be properly assigned a nominative case. As a compromise, to fulfill the requirement that NP should have an overt phonetic content, it can only be assigned an accusative case.   In this sense, as the head of infinitival TP-clause, T can not assign nominative case to NP. Then these sentences are converted into the following forms, the situation will change.

Mary believed/ considered/reported that he loves her.

In these sample sentences, since the complement of the matrix verb into finite has been converted into CP-clause, NP is assigned nominative case. This indicates C as the head of the CP is capable of assigning nominative case to NP.

From the above analysis, a conclusion can be drawn: Nominative case is assigned by C not by T.

And in this sense, Chomskyan case assignment rules should be rewritten as:

a. NP is nominative if governed by C

b. NP is objective if governed by V with the sub categorization feature: ___NP (i.e., transitive)

This conclusion is rather important in the following aspects: 1) It provides strong evidence suggesting rightward merge order. But different from the hypothesis mentioned just now that T enters derivation first, then merges NP and assigns nominative case to NP; at the beginning of the sentence, C merges NP and assigns NP the nominative case to

make NP subject of the sentence. 2) It challenges UTAH. UTAH posits that NP is located at the inner specifier position of T in order to receive nominative case from T. Since NP is assigned nominative case by C, UTAH practically loses its syntactic significance to sentence derivation, which will be further discussed in chapter six.

The above analysis of case indicates that if a bottom-up merge order is observed, the concerning syntactic elements can not be assigned case properly.

B. Evidence of Agreement

Agreement is another important consideration for syntactic studies. According to Chomsky, two syntactic elements are said to agree in respect of some grammatical features if they have same value for the relevant features. Take a simple sentence for example *He smokes.*, in this sentence, the verb smokes is said to agree with its subject he because both are third person singular expressions.

Concerning agreement, English syntax mainly focuses on the agreement of person and number feature while other languages also care about gender feature. Roughly examined, English sentences have three categories of agreements (Branigan, 1992):

The first category will be the agreement between subject and verb, and as a matter of fact, in G-T grammar, it is T that is in charge of checking the agreement features of person and number. The example taken above best represents this category. The second category is the agreement between subject and object. In the sentence like They are students. The object students is said to be in agreement with the subject they in terms of number. The last category is the agreement between indirect object and direct object in double object construction. The crew handed back the passengers their passports. In this example, the indirect object passengers are plural, as a consequence only the plural form their passports can be used.

In earlier G-T syntax, Chomsky made attempts to study agreement from the representational perspective. For each category of agreement, he defined three levels of representation, Agr Agr (Agree bar) and Agr P. Then corresponding to three categories, then there will be AgrS AgrS- AgrSP, AgrO AgrO- AgrOP, AgrIO AgrIO- AgrIOP(Chomsky,1991). Agr is a basic syntactic level with agreement features unvalued which has an intermediate projection into Agr-. Agr- is the level where another syntactic element is located and prompts to value the unvalued features. A maximal projection is Agr P which constitutes an agreement phrase.

In recent phase stage, with bar level deleted, Chomsky endowed agreement a derivational explanation within the syntactic operation of merge(Chomsky,2005). When the syntactic operation merge is carrying on, the interpretable features of the existing syntactic element will check the uninterpretible features of another syntactic element and assists to delete these uninterpretible features to establish the agreement. Take He smokes. for example, the person and number features of the subject are interpretable while the suffix indicating the third person singular "s" can not be interpreted syntactically. If the merge operation wants to go on, all the uninterpretible features should be deleted. So, when the merge of he and smokes takes place, the interpretable features of he will check and delete the uninterpretible features of suffix s, and then the agreement relation can be established.

The bottom-up merge order will cause problem for agreement between subject and T. As has been mentioned, in the process of derivation subject NP with its own interpretable features of person and number, assists to check and delete the uninterpretible features of T (syntactically marked by suffix). According to bottom-up merge order and UTAH, subject NP enters derivation first. There seems to arise no problem for the agreement relation between subject and T. But this will cause the contradiction between the requirement of case assignment and requirement of agreement feature valuing. This contradiction was ignored by most of the former syntactic studies. If as bottom-up merge order and UTAH demand, subject NP enters derivation first and is located at the inner specifier position of T, NP is able to value the uninterpretible agreement feature of T. However in this way, the nominative case of subject can not be assigned properly since T enters later. If the reverse order is followed, subject NP enters derivation but is located at the outer specifier position of T, the nominative case of subject NP can still not be properly assigned. The only solution is to have C assign nominative case to subject NP and NP value the uninterpretible agreement feature of T. Thus the proper merge order is C merges subject and then merges T.

For the agreement between subject and object, the discussion will be much simpler. Take the sentence They are students. for example. There exists an agreement relation between they and students as far as number feature is concerned. This kind of agreement phenomenon is special since it can not be explained under the background of phase theory. And most probably, the recent phase theory seems to pay little attention to giving this phenomenon a satisfying explanation. As a matter of fact, the agreement between subject and verb (T) can be reconsidered as a kind of governing since subject and T are within the domain of same phase. And this kind of agreement relation is established through checking and deleting the uninterpretible features. While for the agreement relation between subject and object, since subject and object belong to different phases (subject to TP while object to VP), it can not be explained in terms of governing relation or checking and deleting uninterpretible features. But one thing quite certain is that semantically or logically speaking, first there will be plural feature of the subject then the plural feature of object. The plural feature of subject predetermines that of the object not the opposite. The match between the plural feature of the subject and that of the object, essentially speaking, reveals a kind of binding relation. (The important thing for this relation is a syntactic element located at the left of the sentence semantically or logically binds another located at the right of the sentence. For detailed analyses, see the following section about anaphor.) So, in a typical derivation of a sentence, NP students

used as the object of the sentence can not enter derivation first as the bottom-up merge order dose, because if subject NP dose not enter the derivation first, the uninterpretible features of object NP subsequently can not be checked and deleted.

The agreement between direct and indirect objects also provides strong evidence against the bottom-up merge order. G-T grammar, influenced by case grammar, also deems that different theta-roles possess different importance in syntactic structure (Larson, 1988). In a typical double object construction, as far as the importance of different theta-roles possess is concerned, agent (subject NP) is more important than goal (indirect object NP) and than patient (direct object NP). And in terms of sentence derivation, the theta-role with less importance enters derivation first. So when the derivation of ditransitive structure is going on, according to bottom-up merge order, first there will be the merge of V and direct object and then indirect object merges from left to the existing constituent. Thus, in a typical tree diagram of double object structure, direct object is located at the very bottom of the tree diagram. After the merge of V and direct object, indirect object enters derivation.

Take The crew handed back the passengers their passports. for example, if the bottom-up merge order is followed, their passports enters derivation first. As a matter of fact, it can't enter derivation first since its plural number feature has not been valued.

As a conclusion, the careful examination of three different categories of agreement indicates bottom-up merge order can not properly establish any of them, while rightward merge order can.

C. Evidence of Anaphor

Among all the factors leading to doubt about the bottom-up merge order, anaphor is especially important since it provides the strongest evidence though the phenomenon itself may not occupy a remarkable position in syntactic studies, even less noticed by phase theory.

A review of the phenomenon of anaphor under the background of G-T grammar is indispensable to the present study. In government and binding theory, as far as referential properties are concerned, overt DPs fall into three different classes: anaphors, pronouns and referential expressions. The group of anaphors includes reflexives such as himself, themselves and reciprocals such as each other. The group of pronouns includes the usual pronouns such as she, him. Finally, the group of referential expressions includes proper names such as Mary and Bill, and referring DPs such as the coach and players.

Anaphors have the distinctive property that they are dependent on an antecedent included in the sentence for their reference. In other words, they must have an antecedent in the sentence in which they occur, as shown in the following pair of sample sentences:

1a. The players blame themselves/each other.
1b. *The coach blamed themselves/each other.

In the first sentence, the anaphor themselves/each other has an antecedent, namely the players. In the second sentence, however, the anaphor does not have an antecedent, and hence the fact that the sentence is excluded. The subject the coach does not qualify as antecedent for the anaphor in the second sentence because the subject does not share the same number feature with the anaphor. (The ungrammaticality of the second sentence also confirms that the subject enters derivation first and then the agreement between subject and object can be established.) Differences in the features of DP imply differences in the referential values indicated in terms of indices. The subject and the anaphor have different features in the second sentence and therefore different indices.

Different from anaphors, pronouns do not necessarily require an antecedent in the sentence although they may have one, as the following sentences illustrate.

1. The coach suspects that the players blame him.
2. The coach (i) suspects that the players blame him (i).
3. The coach (i) suspects that the players blame him (j).

Unlike pronouns and anaphors, referential expression cannot have an antecedent in the sentence, for example:

1. He suspects that the players blame John.
2. *He(i) suspects that the players blame John(i).
3. He (i) suspects that the players blame John (j).

From the above analyses of the difference of anaphors, pronouns and referential expressions, it can be understood whether antecedent is necessary will decide the grammaticality of the sentence. And Chomsky defines the notion antecedent as the category which bears the same index as an anaphor or a pronoun and further defines the conditions for antecedent. That is, the antecedent of an anaphor or a pronoun must i) bear the same person and number feature as the anaphor or pronoun ii) c-command the anaphor or pronoun

And basing on the relation between antecedent and anaphor or pronoun, Chomsky defines the concept of binding and the well-known binding conditions (Chomsky,1981).

Binding
a binds b if and only if
i) a is co-indexed with b
ii) a c-commands b
Binding condition A

An anaphor must be bound within its local domain

Binding condition B

A pronoun must be free in its local domain

Binding condition C

An r-expression must be free

The above is a very brief review of the syntactic study of anaphor and concerning binding phenomenon. The bottom-up merge order fails to establish this binding relation between anaphor and its antecedent. Take the following sentence for example:

The players blamed themselves/each other.

If the bottom-up merge order is followed, the first syntactic element which enters derivation must be themselves and each other, and then verb merges them to constitute a VP, which means, the computational system first chooses a reflexive themselves or a reciprocal each other from the lexicon to be identified lexical items. This will be problematic since these lexical items of themselves and each other should be bound by the antecedent the players or the phonetic content of themselves and each other should be predetermined by the antecedent the players; while at this stage of derivation, according to the bottom-up merge order, the antecedent has not entered derivation yet. So, how can lexical items of themselves and each other be identified and directly chosen from the lexicon without their antecedent entering derivation? If the merge order is changed, NP the players enters derivation first, and it predetermines the phonetic content of reflexive and reciprocal through proper binding relation. Subsequently, the lexical items of themselves and each other can be specified and chosen by the computational system and the problem will be solved.

As a matter of fact, the term antecedent implies a proper merge order since both the prefix ante and the term antecedent semantically mean before which suggests that antecedent should enter derivation first and anaphor or reciprocal later.

Semantically or logically, the binding relation relating anaphor to its antecedent demands a rightward merge order since the essence of binding relation is the syntactic element to the left of the sentence logically binds another one to the right of the sentence.

The above three sections studied how a bottom-up merge order failed to assign case, establish agreement and bind antecedent and anaphor. As a matter of fact, the considerations of case, agreement and anaphor concerned either governing or binding relation and these relations in turn are essentially logical. The proper establishment of logical relation like governing and binding requires that a rightward merge order be adopted instead of bottom-up merge order or leftward merge order. Then the following section would provide two more specific piece of syntactic evidence for rightward merge order.

D.   Specific Evidence

VP-fronting constructions support rightward merge order and challenge bottom-up merge order. VP –fronting phenomenon can be revealed in conversion of the following sample sentence:

1. John intended to give candy to children in libraries on weekends and he did give candy to children in libraries on weekends.

This is a compound sentence, and as far as the later part of this compound sentence is concerned, for pragmatic purpose of emphasizing the information (information focus), the VP phrases can be moved to the beginning to form a VP-fronting construction(James,1993). But there are some principles to follow; otherwise the VP-fronting can be ungrammatical. For example, the following conversions are acceptable

1. John intended to give candy to children in libraries on weekends and give candy he did to children in libraries on weekends.

2. John intended to give candy to children in libraries on weekends and give candy to children he did in libraries on weekends.

3. John intended to give candy to children in libraries on weekends and give candy to children in libraries he did on weekends.

4. John intended to give candy to children in libraries on weekends and give candy to children in libraries on weekends he did.

But not
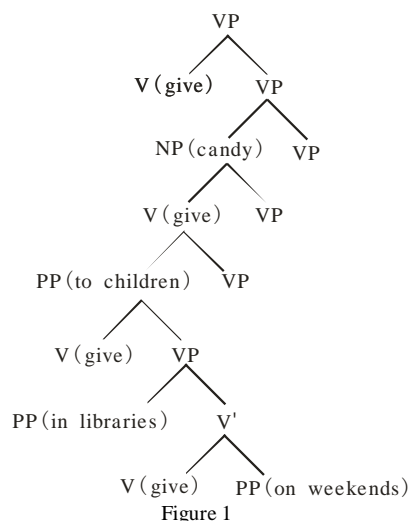
1. … and on weekends he did give candy to children in libraries.

2. … and in libraries on weekends he did give candy to children.

3. … and to children in libraries on weekends he did give candy.

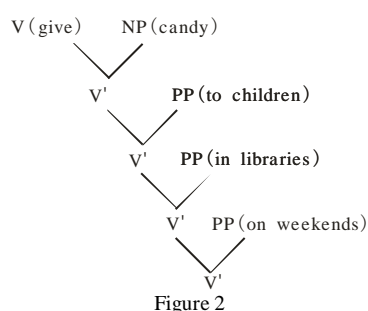Then the acceptability of VP-fronting proves that bottom-up merge order is inappropriate.

According to the bottom-up merge order, the derivation of the later part of the compound sentence will be:

```
                              VP
                             /  \
                        V (give)  VP
                                 /  \
                         NP (candy)  VP
                                    /  \
                             V (give)   VP
                                       /  \
                        PP (to children)  VP
                                         /  \
                                 V (give)    VP
                                            /  \
                             PP (in libraries)  V'
                                               /  \
                                        V (give)   PP (on weekends)
```
Figure 1

Thus, fronting give on weekends, give in libraries on weekends or give to children in libraries on weekends is plausible. (Here the verb give has been raised to the predicate position so the trace in the overt construction should be deleted, that is why in the final presentation the structures are and on weekends he did give …not and give on weekends he did give ….)

But as a matter of fact, all the possible VP-fronting constructions listed above are practically ungrammatical. The problem arises not from VP-fronting construction itself but from the imagined bottom-up merge order.

If the second part of the compound sentence is derived in a rightward merge order, what will be the result?

```
        V (give)    NP (candy)
              \      /
               V'    PP (to children)
                 \    /
                  V'   PP (in libraries)
                    \   /
                     V'  PP (on weekends)
                       \  /
                        V'
```
Figure 2

Thus, fronting give candy, give candy to children, give candy to children in libraries or give candy to children in libraries on weekends are plausible according to the order they enter derivation. And as a matter of fact, all these VP-fronting constructions are proved to be grammatical. This indicates the rightward merge order can satisfactorily explain the VP-fronting construction.

In English, to express the meaning of change of hand of something represented by word give, either double object (ditransitive) construction or dative construction (Barss & Lasnik, 1993). The ditransitive construction will be give somebody something. In this construction, somebody is the indirect object while something is the direct object. The dative construction will be give something to somebody. And in this construction, something is the object while the prepositional phrase is the complement.

Compared with dative construction, ditransitive construction, among all the English syntactic constructions, is very special. In English, hardly anywhere else can a syntactic construction be found in which a verb may have two objects except in this case of indicating change of hand. (This is quite different from Chinese. In Chinese, there are four kinds of structures in which a verb can be followed by two objects (James, 2003). And in English, this change of hand means from the hand of agent to the hand of patient, not the opposite.) While dative construction though has the same meaning as that of ditransitive construction, it has nothing syntactically special. Syntactically speaking, dative construction is a verb followed by an object and then followed by a complement. In English, this is a commonly found structure not necessarily indicating change of hand. For example, We put the book on the desk. or We consider him a good student. In both of the two sample sentences, a verb is followed by an object and then a complement.

The uniqueness of the ditransitive construction may offer an insight into the merge order problem.

The present study deems that the syntactic uniqueness of English ditransitive construction has something to do with the semantic uniqueness of main verbs indicating change of hand. Take the most representative word give for example, give may have somebody be its object, in which case, somebody indicates the goal of the act of give, and this somebody has no physical contact with the person who gives him that certain thing. This is quite like some other English verbs as

blame. In the sentence like We blame him., the accusative case him indicates the goal of the act, while he has no physical contact with the subject of the sentence we.

And an alternative is give can also choose something as its object, in which case, something is the patient of the act of give, which means something will have the physical contact with the person who gives that thing. In other words, something is the object that give directly acts on.

So the syntactic uniqueness of the ditransitive construction arises from the uniqueness of that particular category of verbs, which can choose either something or somebody as their objects. The unique semantic features of this type of verbs predetermine the features of that syntactic construction.

Theoretically, the different constructions of ditranstive and dative structures are determined by the choice the main verb makes to allow either somebody or something enters derivation first. If the verb chooses somebody as its object then constitutes the construction, give somebody something. If the verb chooses something as its object then constitutes construction, give something somebody. This construction is ungrammatical. When give choose something as its object first, something establishes a logical semantic relation with somebody; And since somebody is the goal of something aims at. Therefore, a preposition to indicating this relation should be added.

As a conclusion, the unique semantic feature of verb indicating the change of hand predetermines the later difference of different syntactic constructions. After main verb enters derivation, if the computational system choose a NP indicating person, the derivation will finish with a ditransitive otherwise it will be a dative.

However, if the bottom-up merge order is followed, for ditransitive structure, V merges something first and both of them are located at the bottom of the tree diagram of that structure and for dative, V merges somebody first and they are located at the bottom. This is evidently against the above analysis done concerning the lexical choice which leads to the difference between structures since for ditransitive, lexically, V semantically first chooses somebody as its object while for dative, lexically, V semantically first chooses something as its object. The only solution to the problem is change merge order. If a rightward merge order is followed, for ditransitive structure, syntactically V merges something first and this matches that lexically V chooses something first. And for dative structure, it will be the same case.

III.   RIGHTWARD MERGE ORDER

The above analysis of the bottom-up merge order, or linearly, a leftward merge order suggests that it is contradictory to the logical truth and therefore syntactically unacceptable. This unacceptability essentially attributes to the theoretical foundation for arguing bottom-up merge order, namely the verb-centered constituent system and the constituent-centered computational system. Before a new merge order is advocated, it is necessary to reassess the defects of this theoretical foundation. And based on this reassessing work, a new merge order can be established.

The verb-centered constituent system requires that verb (in the more recent stage replaced by T) and NP first merge and then project a VP or TP. Otherwise if subject and C merge first it can not project a VP and fail to establish a predication relation as has been illuminated. For this consideration, the whole derivation has to start from the very right. However, since the computational system is derivational, it can be flexible. That is to say, after C and subject merge to project a CP, subject can still be used to merge T to project a TP and meanwhile establishes proper predication relation.

Besides, the constituent-centered computational system requires that all the syntactic computation should be implemented in a constituent system. That is to say, as the basic unit of syntactic operation, a syntactic element enters derivation first and then a new syntactic element merges from left to the existing element and project a constituent. Within the domain of the constituent, the newly merged syntactic element govern the existing ones and is in charge of deleting the concerning uninterpretible syntactic features. After this stage, a new syntactic element enters derivation from left again and this element and the existing constituent project a new constituent. Thus this newly merged syntactic element constitutes a c-commanding relation with the syntactic elements within the domain of the first constituent. And this element also establishes a binding relation with the original ones if there is a possible one. But Chomsky seems to forget the governing and binding relations (For many scholars, Chomsky did his best work in illustrating governing and binding relation and therefore it is the highlight of his theory.) essentially reflect a logical relation. The proper logical relation should be a relation between the existing element controls and the newly merged element. On the contrary, the bottom-up merge order as a matter of fact establishes a relation that the newly merged element controls the existing element. In this sense, the bottom-up merge order violates the logical truth.

The following are the specific procedures of rightward merge order.

Rightward merge order

1. C element enters derivation first and then merges subject. As a functional category without specific lexical meaning, C is undoubtedly important and therefore can not be ignored. One of the important arguments of this dissertation is the functional category C is in charge of assigning case to subject, not the traditional assumption that nominative case is assigned by T. Thus, C establishes a governing relation with subject. When subject enters derivation, its case feature is uninterpretible and needs to be checked. At this time, the existing C category assigns case to subject and consequently deletes the uninterpretible case feature of subject and both C and subject can be spelled out to possess phonetic content. This is the first stage of the derivation.

2. The second stage of the derivation will be the merge of a new functional category T from right to the existing(C subject). It is reasonable to keep this functional category in derivation since the syntactic meaning indicated by

functional category T like tense, aspect, voice and mood is universal. And for T, its agreement features of person and number are uninterpretible and need to be checked. And subject, as a syntactic element enters derivation earlier, can use the agreement features of itself to check and delete the uninterpretible features of T. Thus a governing relation has been established between subject and T. And also during this stage of derivation, a predication relation is established and thus an external argument structure is built up. When this finishes, T can be spelled out and thus we have (C subject T).

3. The third stage of the derivation will be the merge of v or V to the existing (C subject T). An alternative or is chosen for the reason that different from Chomskyan phase theory, the present study deems that v is not a necessary syntactic element for all sentences. The functional category v classified by Chomsky is not applicable to any sentence structure. This will be left for detailed analyses in the chapter illuminating the successive cyclical move pattern. But the main argument is the original purpose for Chomakyan introducing this functional category is to solve the syntactic derivation of verbs with three-place predicate structure (or three-place verb structure). Supposing in three-place predicate structure like double object sentence, there is only V element which helps to locate object and assign accusative case to one object, the remaining object can not be properly located and assigned a case. As a result, a functional category v is specially designed for these three place predicate structures. Since v or V can be two alternatives for the third stage of derivation, it will be discussed separately.

If the sentence construction dose need a functional category v, then the third stage will be that v enters derivation and merges from right to (C subject T). During this stage of derivation, there is no uninterpretible feature for both T and v. A syntactic interpretation for this would be these two elements are syntactically equal. But in languages like English, T in many cases (except for negative or interrogative sentences or for pragmatic emphasis) can attract v to its position while T can reform itself to be a suffix. Our interpretation for this is since T can attract v from the original position to the position of its own not the vice versa, it indicates they are syntactically unequal at least in languages like English. Basing on this, we suppose T establishes a governing relation with v. And v is spelled out then we have (C subject T v)

If v is not necessary for sentence construction, then V enters derivation. And T establishes a governing relation with V. V is spelled out then we have (C subject T V).

4. The next stage has two possibilities as well. One is indirect object (for double object) merges form right to (C subject T v). The alternative might be an object (for object complement structure) merging from right to(C subject T v). v establishes a governing relation with indirect object or object and assigns case to this indirect object or object, and therefore the internal argument are constructed at the same time. Then there will be (C subject T v indirect object) or (C subject T v object)

The other one is simpler, object merges from right to (C subject T V). V establishes a governing relation with this object and assigns case to it, constructing an internal argument structure. Thus there will be (C subject T V object). For sentences with one place or two place verb structure, the whole derivation ends here.

5. For three place predicate structure, there is still another and final stage. Same as the traditional derivation, V element is introduced to locate the remaining syntactic element. Direct object or complement merges from right to (C subject T v indirect object) or(C subject T v object) to constitute (C subject T v indirect object V direct object) or (C subject T v object V complement).

And during this stage, IO and DO, or object and complement are syntactic elements with specific semantic reference. They establish a binding relation to check whether they agree in number feature like sentences We give them their passports back. and We consider them good students. illustrate.

From the above analyses, it can be clearly seen that in each stage of derivation following the rightward merge order, an existing syntactic element establishes a governing relation with the newly merged syntactic element. The existing syntactic element's governing relation to the newly merged syntactic element ensures that the syntactic operations like case assigning, agreement feature checking, verb-attracting can be properly implemented and the uninterpretible grammatical features of the syntactic elements can be successfully valued. Thus the derivation following rightward merge order, on the one hand, successfully constructs a sentence and on the other hand, values almost all uninterpretible grammatical features through governing relation except for those edge feature which can only be valued through move operation.

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A Comparative Study of Psalms TCV and TEV Version from the Perspective of Dynamic Equivalence

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Abstract—The Bible, which contains the Old Testament and the New Testament, is called the cornerstone of western culture. The *Psalms* is a book included in the Old Testament and occupies an important position in the Bible. The importance of the Bible also prompts the development of numerous translation theories. Among many scholars who devote themselves to Bible translation survey, an American linguist, translation theorist Eugene Albert Nida proposed his systematic translation theory "Dynamic Equivalence" in the 1960s. It has influenced the Bible translation ever since then. Today's Chinese Version (TCV) is translated from Today's English Version (TEV) under the guidance of it during 1970s. Based on the guidance of dynamic equivalence, the TCV and TEV version of Psalms is compared and analyzed, aiming to prove the validation of the application of dynamic equivalence in bible translation and also point out some deficiencies.

Index Terms—dynamic equivalence, Psalms, TCV, TEV

I. INTRODUCTION

Eugene Albert Nida, as the Executive Secretary for Translations of the American Bible Society, has made unsurpassing achievements in the field of Bible translation. His most influential achievement lies in the contributions he made for the translation theory, which is still studied and used by many scholars not only focuses on Bible translation but also on the translation theory as a whole.

Among Nida's translation theories, his "Dynamic Equivalence" stresses that the best way for the people who have no pre-knowledge of the Bible to understand it is to place priority on effective communication while translating. In his opinion, the translation should be receptor-oriented. It is further divided into four aspects: equivalence on vocabulary, equivalence on syntax, equivalence on text, equivalence on style.

Under the guidance of Nida's Dynamic Equivalence, many Bible versions emerged during the 1960s and 1970s. Among which there is Today's English Version (TEV), also called Good News Bible (GNB), it is translated by Dr. Robert G. Bratcher in consultation with a committed appointed by the American Bible Society since 1957, and the translation is done according to the Dynamic Equivalence set forth by Eugene Albert Nida, in addition to being a Dynamic Equivalence version, it is also what some translation theorists call a "common language" version. Both of the names reflect that it is the language which is "common to the usage of both educated and uneducated" in any given language, so it is the level of language which most of the people can understand. Therefore, it has great popularity ever since its publication.

Today's Chinese Version (TCV) of the Bible was published in 1979, using Today's English Version as its original text, followed the "Dynamic Equivalence" of Nida.

This paper aims to compare and analyze the two versions under the guidance of Dynamic Equivalence, especially some case studies of the book *Psalms*, in order to prove the validation of the application of Dynamic Equivalence in Bible translation, and also point out some deficiencies.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

China's Bible translation began in Tang dynasty and peaked in late Qing dynasty and early republication of China, even today, it is still pretty active. With the development of Bible translation in China and all over the world, the translation theory also develops.

In terms of translation theories of Bible translation, Nida's "Dynamic Equivalence" offers a principle for it. Nida sees translation as a communication event which moves from "source" to "receptor". In both original communication and translation, message must be received by the intended receptor. In 1975, Nida provided a clear definition of "Dynamic Equivalence" in his book The Theory and Practice of Translation: Dynamic equivalence is therefore to be defined in terms of the degree to which the receptors of the message in the receptor language respond to it in substantially the same manner as the receptors in the source language. (Nida, 1975).

In his opinion, translating was not to get something completely identical, but to reproduce "the closest natural equivalent to the source-language message" rather than "the conversation of the form of the utterance" in the receptor

language. (Nida, 1975)

TEV and TCV are translated under the dynamic equivalence principle, in the following chapters this paper will analyze some cases chosen from the book *Psalms* to see the validation and also some deficiencies of the application of dynamic equivalence in Bible translation.

III.   CASE STUDIES OF PSALMS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF DYNAMIC EQUIVALENCE

It is clear that the *Psalms* in TCV and TEV are translated under the guidance of dynamic equivalence. The guiding principles of TCV set by a group of Bible translating experts led by Eugene Albert Nida include almost every aspect of translation work. The main points will be introduced here:

(1) Target Language:

Dynamic equivalence is above formal equivalence.

The coherence of meaning is above that of words and sentences.

The spoken language is above the written language.

The language of people of secondary school level (people of 18 to 25 years old) is

preferred.

The widely-used vernacular is above regional or classical language.

The translation must be understandable to both Christians and non-Christians.

(2) Style:

Try to reflect different styles of Biblical language according to the dynamic equivalence

principle.

The translator is free to change the form of the source language in order to express its

meaning faithfully.

(3) Idioms:

Chinese idioms can be used when acceptable, if misunderstandings would be roused.

The idioms in the source language should not be rendered literally, unless their precise meaning is maintained.

(4) Readability of the Target Language:

If the implication is relatively apparent, it should be made explicit.

Replace pronouns when their reference is ambiguous.

Use active voice if the initiator is not evident in the passive voice structure or maintain the passive structure but clarify the initiator.

To make the target language more smooth and understandable, the speaker of direct speech should be made clear, and direct and indirect speech can be exchanged.

Answers should be provided for rhetorical questions if there is no answer manifest or implied.

(5) Grammar:

Separate long and complicated sentences when necessary.

The unit of translation is the paragraph and the content of verses can be rearranged.

The textual basis and referential materials are also mentioned in the guiding principles: the general translation uses the third edition of the Today's English Version published in 1971 as the textual basis, and the evaluation group uses the Greek Bible published by the United Bible Society to check it. The translator also uses the New English Bible, the Jerusalem Bible, the Revised Standard Version and other commentaries to the Bible recommended by the United Bible Society as references. (Xu , 1983)

It is the dynamic equivalence principle acted as the guiding principle of TCV and TEV. This chapter will compare and analyze from four aspects, that is, equivalence on vocabulary, equivalence on syntax, equivalence on text and equivalence on style based on the principle of dynamic equivalence to see the validation of it in translation.

1. Equivalence on Vocabulary

The TCV and TEV translation of *Psalms* pay great attention to word choices. They use word free of ambiguity in translation, that is to say the word is always translated freely, not word-for-word, as long as the meaning in the target language is considered as precisely as in the original language.

1.1 Verb Choices

One of the most important differences between English and Chinese is the difference in verb choices. English is static while Chinese is dynamic. In Chinese, dynamic words are not only of common use but also more appealing. The technique of common occurrence converts different English word classes into Chinese verbs. It is clear that the TCV version uses more dynamic words than CUV (Chinese Unified Version) does, thus makes this version easier to be comprehended.

It is the dynamic equivalence principle acted as the guiding principle of TCV and TEV. This chapter will compare and analyze from four aspects, that is, equivalence on vocabulary, equivalence on syntax, equivalence on text and equivalence on style based on the principle of dynamic equivalence to see the validation of it in translation. For example:

Example 1:

TCV 他只爱慕上主的法律，日夜默诵不倦。(《诗篇》1:2)

TEV Instead, they find joy in obeying the law of the Lord, and they study it day and night.（*Psalms* 1:2）
Example 2:
TCV 上主啊，求你不要发怒谴责我；求你不要在烈怒下惩罚我！(《诗篇》6:1)
TEV Lord, don't be angry and rebuke me! Don't punish me in your anger! (*Psalms* 6:1)
Example 3:
TCV 上主啊，你要审判万民。求你宣判我无辜，因我无罪。（《诗篇》7:8）
TEV You are the judge of all people. Judge in my favor, O Lord; you know that I am innocent. (*Psalms* 7:8)
There are also some verbs used in TCV which do not appear in CUV

TABLE 1
VERBS PARTICULAR IN TCV

Verses	Verbs can be found in TCV but not in CUV
1:2	默诵（meditates）
2:7	颁布（declare）
4:3	选召（chosen）　归属（for His own）
5:3	静候 （wait）

1.2 Avoid Theological Terms

In order to help the people who have no religious background to understand the Bible easier, the TEV and TCV versions use no theological terms in *Psalms*，especially in TCV. The aim at biblical secularization is clearly seen. (Ren, 2007)
Example 4:
CUV 耶和华啊，求你不要在怒中责备我，也不要在烈怒中惩罚我。(《诗篇》6:1)
TCV 上主啊，求你不要发怒谴责我；求你不要在烈怒下惩罚我！(《诗篇》6:1)
TEV Lord, don't be angry and rebuke me! Don't punish me in your anger! (*Psalms* 6:1)
Example 5:
CUV 主耶和华啊，你是我所盼望的，从我年幼，你是我所依靠的。(《诗篇》71:5)
TCV 上主啊，你是我的希望；我从年幼时就信赖你。（《诗篇》71:5)
TEV Sovereign Lord, I put my hope in you; I have trusted in you since I was young. (*Psalms* 71:5)

The names like Jehovah are substituted with other expressions in TEV and TCV, which helps the non-Christians to read, such examples can be found easily in other places of the Bible too. There are hundreds of names for God, it is even hard for Christians to understand and remember all the names, not to say the non-Christians. Basing on Nida's dynamic equivalence, TEV and TCV have avoided theological terms.

2. Equivalence on Syntax

Syntax is the study of how words are combined with others to form sentences and in what order. This following part will analyze from the addition of sentences and division of sentences.

2.1 Addition of Sentences

Addition is also called amplification of words. It means to add necessary words while translating on the condition of not destroying the accuracy of the translation or affect the comprehension of original text.

As a matter of fact, addition is used in order to realize the "faithful representation" of the meaning of the original text. English and Chinese belong to two different language systems and have different historical and culture backgrounds. Besides, many ideas, idiomatic expressions and shorthand words that are well understood in the country of their origin can hardly make sense to people abroad. (Xu , 2007)
Example 6:
CUV 你必用铁杖打破他们，你必将他们如窑匠的瓦器摔碎。（《诗篇》2:9)
TCV 你要用铁腕统治他们；你要粉碎他们，像粉碎瓦器一样。（《诗篇》2:9)
TEV You will break them with an iron rod; you will shatter them in pieces like a clay pot. (*Psalms* 2:9)

2.2 Division of Sentences

Division means when an English sentence is too long or too complicated to understand, then the English sentence is divided into two or several sentences according to the sentence groups in the original text. This is a distinct characteristic in TCV and TEV versions.
Example 7:
CUV 他必用自己的翎毛遮蔽你，你要投靠在他的翅膀底下。他的诚实是大小的盾牌。(《诗篇》91:4)
TCV 他要用翅膀庇护你；在他的看顾下你一定安全；他的信实要保护你。 （《诗篇》91:4)
TEV He will cover you with his wings; you will be safe in his care; his faithfulness will protect and defend you. (*Psalms* 91:4)
Example 8:
CUV 你们要赞美耶和华！你们要赞美耶和华的名！耶和华的仆人站在耶和华殿中，站在我们　神殿院中的，你们要赞美他！(《诗篇》135:1)
TCV 要赞美上主！上主的仆人哪，要颂赞；你们要颂赞上主的名。（《诗篇》135:1)

TEV Praise the Lord! Praise His name, you servants of the Lord. (*Psalms* 135:1)

TCV and TEV use two to three times more short sentences than CUV version, which makes the version a lot easier for people to understand. Short sentences make the text easier to understand. It is also an application of dynamic equivalence in translation.

3. Equivalence on Text

Although sentence equivalence is important, the equivalence on text is more important because as a whole text conveys the meaning and culture background behind the original text. Language is within its culture and influences its culture at the same time, so the whole text should be taken into consideration while translating. The Bible is also a book with a long history which has valuable culture legacy. This following part will discuss the equivalence on text from the coherence of text and cultural interpreting.

3.1 Coherence of Text

Example 9:

CUV 都因仇敌的声音，恶人的欺压，因为他们将罪孽加在我身上，发怒气逼迫我。(《诗篇》55:3)

TCV 仇敌的恐吓，恶人的逼迫，都使我烦乱不已！他们把灾难加给我；他们向我发怒，憎恨我。(《诗篇》55:3）

TEV I am terrified by the threats of my enemies, crushed by the oppression of the wicked. They bring trouble on me; they are angry with me and hate me. (*Psalms* 55:3)

The TCV and TEV versions both use the same subject for two short sentences, which enables readers, especially readers who have relatively low education to understand the meaning with ease.

3.2 Cultural Interpreting

Due to the different culture backgrounds, patterns of expression and different language systems, there will surely be some culture obstacles in the Bible translation and absolute equivalence is impossible to be achieved. If the original text is translated literally, it will be difficult for the readers to appreciate it accurately. So culture interpreting should be an important factor to be taken into account while translating to achieve text equivalence.

One good example may be the proverbs and idioms in the language, the meaning of them can never be the same as each simple word added together. The perfect solution is that the translator can find the exact correspondence in the target language, but if there is not one, the translator should translate it into an expression with similar meaning with the original idiom or proverb. For example: one verse in TEV version says "You will make them burn with shame and the Lord will reward you. (*Proverbs* 25:22)", in CUV version it says "因为你这样行，就是把炭火堆在他的头上；耶和华也必赏赐你。(《箴言》25:22)", which doesn't help the reader to understand that the meaning of the original phrase, however, the TCV version says "你这样做，会使他脸红耳赤，羞惭交加，上主也要报答你。(《箴言》25：22)", which is a great help to the readers with no background knowledge of the original text.

Another example is the festivals which always reflect cultural and historical color; this is better reflected in other books of the Bible such as *Leviticus*.

In a word, equivalence of text is more complicated because passage is a whole and it contains cultural factors. But dynamic equivalence is still a useful and successful guiding principle for translation.

4. Equivalence on Style

The last part of this chapter is going to focus on equivalence on style. Style as a noun means a way of using words or spellings that is considered correct. Here this paper will focus on the preference of modern Chinese words in TCV version.

The CUV version of Chinese Bible can be said to be the most popular version in Chinese community, which has been printed numerous times after its publication. However, it is translated in 1920s, thus some words and expressions seem to be outdated and cannot be easily understood sometimes by the people today. But TCV uses words and expressions of today's Chinese. For example, in *John*3:10, the CUV uses 先生 (a master) while the TCV uses 教师 (a great teacher), and in *Luke*14:20, the CUV uses 娶了妻 (have married his wife) while the TCV it becomes 结婚 (get married).

IV. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Although dynamic equivalence plays an important part in translation, especially Bible translation, it is not easy to realize it all the time and it is hardly impossible to realize a hundred percent equivalence to the original text all the time. The differences in culture background, ways of expression, language structures, and the concepts in the source language may be hard to find equivalence or have different meanings in the target language. TCV and TEV are undoubtedly great accomplishments in Bible translation. However, nothing can be perfect, so do dynamic equivalence and the two versions.

The essence of translation, according to Nida, is dynamic equivalence rather than formal correspondence. He puts key emphasis on reader's acceptance of the translated text. Although this seems to show esteem to readers, it neglects the writer and the original text. Dynamic equivalence lays more stress on the readability of the Bible translation, which inevitably leads to the simplification and even the loss of literature of the original text. With the rapid growth of culture communication across countries, adopting notes to convey culture seems to be a way out for dynamic equivalence.

TCV and TEV are mainly translated on the basis of Nida's dynamic equivalence. In order to obtain the first-hand material about how people accept these two versions, a questionnaire is designed for both Christians and non-Christians.

The purpose of the questionnaire is to see how much people know about Bible versions and also their attitudes towards different translations. 50 Christians and 50 non-Christians took the questionnaire during April, 2011.

TABLE 2
ANALYSIS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

	Prefer TCV（现代中文译本）	Prefer CUV(和合本)	TEV is easier to understand	KJV is easier to understand
Christians	5	45	46	4
Non-Christians	40	10	45	5

The analysis shows that firstly, although the CUV still enjoys quite popularity among Christians, most of the non-Christians showed strong preference for TCV. Secondly, the TEV enjoys a better acceptance among both Christians and non-Christians, which is in accordance of the author's predication and the translator's purpose. Moreover, it supports the validation of dynamic equivalence in Bible translation.

TEV is an easier and more updated version so undoubtedly it enjoys preference among both Christians and non-Christians; this is also what the dynamic equivalence wants to bring out. As for TCV version, it is also showing the potential of widely acceptance. However, the CUV still enjoys the preference among Christians. One reason is that it is a traditional version widely used in churches and believers ever since its publication so people get used to it, the other reason may expose the fact that TCV still has some defects. For example, some words and expressions may be outdated today and even bear characteristics of feudalism. And some renderings whose original text may appear not in consistent with its meaning in TCV.

TCV and TEV are later versions in Bible translation, as analyzed above, some better renderings still need to be further revised. As an outstanding guiding principle, dynamic equivalence can also be applied successfully in later translation practices.

V. CONCLUSION

Nida's dynamic equivalence is based on a solid foundation of information theory, communication theory, and semiotics. Nida also holds the opinion that "Before translating a text, a translator must often unpack the condensed academic language, and this cannot be done without a knowledge of language structures and of the culture". (Nida, 1993)

This helped to show the sociolinguistics-oriented root in Nida's theory.

The dynamic equivalence helped to bring birth to the more natural and easier to be understood Bible versions such as Today's Chinese Version and Today's English Version, which both became worldwide accepted versions and easier for people who has no religious background to appreciate. The popularity of these two versions also proves that the application of Nida's dynamic equivalence in Bible translating is a success.

However, no translation theory can be considered as a universal principle which can be applied to all kinds of texts. Dynamic equivalence also has its own defects and limitations, and a hundred percent equivalence is impossible to be realized. But the goal of the Bible translation is to convey God's message to His believers. So it is more practical and more important to pursue the dynamic equivalence in meaning so that more people can have easier access to its meaning. Besides, the application of dynamic equivalence is proved to be valid and successful. So there is more than enough reason to say that dynamic equivalence still has a profound meaning in guiding Bible translation.

Just like no translation theory is universal, no Bible translation needs to be regarded to be perfect forever. But generally speaking, the TCV and TEV versions which are both translated under the guidance of dynamic equivalence can be regarded as a success in translation field. Nida's dynamic equivalence theory will also occupy an important guiding status in translation field.

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EFL Instructors and Student Writers' Perceptions on Academic Writing Reluctance

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Abstract—Students' disengagement in class activities is usually interpreted from the instructors' viewpoints, disregarding students' perceived causes of the phenomenon. This study investigated instructors and students' perceptions on writing reluctance, aiming at exploring possible convergence and divergence between the participants' ideas. Twelve instructors and thirty seven students completed a questionnaire developed by the researchers. It includes linguistic factors (e.g. task difficulty, linguistic competence and content knowledge), psychological factors (e.g. readership, self-confidence, anxiety, and motivation), methodological factors (e.g. strategy training, feedback, and L1 writing experience) and interpersonal factors (e.g. warmth, enthusiasm, and vigor). The mean scores of the participants were then calculated and compared. Results indicated that the participants' perceptions on reluctance to writing diverge to a large extent. 'Task difficulty' was reported by the instructors as the most influential factor in academic writing reluctance. From the learners' point of view, however, 'lack of readership' was considered as the most important factor in this regard.

Index Terms—writing reluctance, EFL instructors, students, academic writing

I. Introduction

Writing is one the most challenging (Reid, 2002) and difficult (Richard and Renandya, 2002) skills for EFL learners to master. This difficulty, they claim, is because the learners are involved in generating and organizing ideas. They also have to translate these ideas into readable texts. Moreover, Reid pinpoints, the difficulty may be because of the fact that L2 writing requires some elements including learning an L2, creating a text, and adapting the text to a specific discourse community.

Many techniques and methods have shown to be successful in teaching writing. Researchers (e.g. Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975) state that a prerequisite knowledge needed to begin a writing course is an understanding of how learners learn to write. That is, the assumptions and perceptions instructors hold about writing development play a crucial role in planning and material development. For instance, Buis (2007) attributes writing reluctance to the fact that students are not equipped with necessary linguistic knowledge and skills to write. Howthorne (2008), too, reports related factors such as lack of grammatical and vocabulary knowledge which can otherwise lead to learners' expressiveness in writing.

Furthermore, it seems that considering students' perceptions to writing plays an important role in the whole process. As for students' perceptions on the possible causes of the phenomenon, based on Hawthorne (2008), most of the students blame the teachers. Ineffective or lack of feedback and incapability of writing teachers are among the important factors which subjects in Hawthorne's study report. If students' attitude toward writing tasks is not positive, they may lose their interest in writing gradually and became reluctant writers. Beers (1996) defines reluctant writer as someone who can write (to some extent) but chooses not to' (p.30).

Researchers in the present study adhere to this definition of the phenomenon, and seek to discover the causes of this voluntary disengagement from students and instructors' viewpoint. Also, a number of characteristics have been attributed to reluctant writers. For instance, Anderson (2009) describes reluctant writers as students who usually are reluctant readers, slow workers, have poor spelling and punctuation skills, and are easily distracted from writing tasks. Their work is frequently incomplete and messy. Such students avoid starting writing and use excuses, such as 'I can't find my pen', and are not willing to share their written work in a group. Buis (2007) identifies such students as "disillusioned" because they have "little power over what they write"(p. 6). She further argues that reluctant writers begin to feel hopeless and marginalized because they develop a sense of their limitations and become anxious or even apprehensive.

II. Literature Review

Some researchers (e.g. Buis, 2007) believe that 'writing reluctance' is in its inception in terms of construct definition and operationalization, and that there has been a lack of vigorous theoretical conceptualization of reluctant writers and their characteristics. Buis also believed that writing reluctance construct is yet 'under researched and under conceptualized'. Nonetheless, a number of scholars (e.g. Hawthorne, 2008) have attempted to meticulously define this

concept and provide a sound definition for it, and investigate the problem in order to fill in the gap. In order to be able to do this, they have started with other related constructs which are rich in terms of theoretical grounds. Among the related constructs based on which writing reluctance has been formulated was reading reluctance. Beers (1996a) identifies three types of reluctant readers: dormant readers who have a positive attitude to reading but choose not to read very often; uncommitted readers who have a negative view of reading and see it as a skill-based activity only, and unmotivated readers who have negative views about reading and people who read. The uncommitted and unmotivated readers may also have difficulty reading and have poor self-efficacy for reading. They may also hold negative views about themselves as readers (poor reading self-concept) and people who choose to read (Beers, 1996a, 1996b, cited in Hawthorne, 2008). In defining and formulating writing reluctance construct, Hawthorne (2008) introduced a circular model which emphasizes the dynamic nature of the elements involved. Based on this model, students may indicate one of the three components of behavioral, affective, and cognitive dispositions in different ways. The model encompasses social/cultural, task environment, and teacher factors influencing learners' engagement with writing. There are of course different attitudes towards writing reluctance and researchers have investigated it from different angles. For some scholars (e.g. Daly & Miller, 1975), writing reluctance phenomenon is a psychological concept and is, therefore, preferred to as 'writing apprehension'. Writing apprehension was coined by Daly and Miller. They hypothesized that different individuals experienced different levels of anxiety towards writing and that anxiety levels would correlate with levels of writing performance. This construct is similar, in some respects, to writing reluctance, but there are some differences including the fact that writing apprehension has a narrower focus than writing reluctance. In an attempt to present a broader focus and construct Kearney (1997) proposed a construct called 'writing passivity'. Central to the construct was the idea that there existed a strong relationship between 'negative affect and inappropriate cognition' (p. 8). Kearney defines her 'passive writer' as being "distinguished by a dislike of writing, a tendency to hold negative perceptions of self as a writer, and, sporadic, limited, or no use of intentional cognition, that for a writer involves the deliberate and purposeful pursuit of cognitive goals" (ibid., p. 9). Rooted in the above-mentioned theoretical background, some studies have directly investigated 'writing reluctance'. Beattie (2010) considered reluctance as a gender-based construct and studied it with boys and girls. Of findings of this study was that boys are more reluctant than girls in doing writing tasks. In another study, writing reluctance was regarded as a pedagogical phenomenon (Buis, 2007). According to this investigation, ineffective pedagogy may cause reluctance among some learners so that they are unwilling to engage themselves in writing tasks. Some studies have investigated writing reluctance among EFL learners from different levels (e.g. Hawthorn, 2008; Abo Melketo & Tessema, 2012). For instance, Pajares (2003) and Hawthorn (2008) studied reluctance towards writing among students studying at the secondary level. Also, a study was conducted by Melketo and Tessema (2012) in which 'reluctance to write' among university students taking an academic writing course was investigated. In this study twenty students and five instructors were interviewed about the causes of the phenomenon and the characteristic behaviors of reluctant writers. Based on this study, reluctance to write falls into two categories of complete and partial avoidance. Instructors believed that students' lack of requisite skills and preparedness to engage in writing are among the major causes of their reluctance. Students, on the other hand, blamed their instructors for their being unable to engage them actively during the course. Both teachers and instructors agreed, of course, that students' experience and background influence their engagement in the activity. Available literature is indicative of the fact that writing reluctance has been of interest for researchers. However, little research has been conducted specifically with college-level students and English majors. Furthermore, students and teachers' perceptions on this phenomenon have not been fully investigated hence open to research. Intending to fill the gap and explore the issue in a different context, i.e., Iranian EFL learners engaging in academic writing tasks, we conducted a study which addressed the following research questions:

1. Is writing reluctance behavior present in EFL writing classrooms?

2. What factors do English instructors and reluctant learners perceive as contributing to writing reluctance among students?

3. Do instructors and students' perceptions of reasons for writing reluctance match?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The study was conducted with instructors who were teaching in a variety of schools -Public, private, and mostly Iranian universities- and students who were taking academic writing courses. From a total of 60 EFL learners studying at Lorestan University at the time of conducting the experiment, 37 were selected as reluctant writers. The sample included 28 (75.7%) females and 9 (24.35) males. The age range was 20-30. In addition to this, 12 EFL instructors who had been involved in teaching English as a foreign language, specifically writing, for more than 6 years completed the questionnaire on their perceptions towards the possible causes of writing reluctance among students. The teachers were mostly male so that this sample included 10 male (83.3%) and 2 female (16.7%) teachers most of whom (70%) were over 30.

B. Materials

Two questionnaires were used in this study. The first was 'Survey of Motivation to Engage with Writing (SMEW)' developed and used by Hawthorne (2008). SMEW was used in order to choose reluctant students from the whole sample. It contained 40 items. The reliability of the test was calculated using Cronbach's alpha, which was .84. This was indicative of high internal consistency for this measure. The other questionnaire, i.e. 'the Questionnaire of Perception on Writing Reluctance (QPWR)', was developed by the researchers based on a pilot study and interviews conducted with 5 instructors and 10 students, beforehand. It includes 20 items in a Likert type scale. Both groups, i.e. instructors and students were asked to choose from one of the five choices: strongly agree, somewhat agree, unsure, somewhat disagree, and strongly disagree. The scores for each choice were 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1, respectively. QPWR was utilized in order to discover the possible causes of reluctance toward writing among students from both instructors and students' perspective. Based on this pilot study, the factors contributing to students' writing reluctance were categorized as a) learner-related, and b) instructor (teacher)-related categories. Each of these subcategories in turn includes some other factors. It was apparent that most of the factors, i.e. 40% were methodological. Also, 35% were psychological, 20% linguistic and 5% interpersonal factors. Table 1 summarizes both instructors and students' ideas about possible causes of writing reluctance. The developed questionnaire was reported to be valid by a number of TEFL experts and university instructors who had been involved in the job of teaching writing in EFL classes. Also, the reliability for this instrument was calculated using Cronbach's alpha and it was .83. This gave the researchers enough confidence to advance for other steps. The English version of the questionnaire was given to the instructors and the Persian version to students to fill out. It seemed that it would be easier and clearer for the students to answer the questions in Persian. Also, items 1,2,3,4,7,8,9, and 12 were changed so that they became more positive, not to influence students' answers negatively. These items were scored reversely after the administration.

TABLE 1
STUDENTS AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTION ON FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO WRITING RELUCTANCE

Learner-related Factors	
Linguistic factors	Complexity of writing tasks Poor general knowledge Learners' poor linguistic competence Lack of content knowledge
Psychological factors	Having no idea of what writing can be Limited readership (teacher as the only recipient) Low self confidence Anxiety, fear of writing Lack of interest in the topics Resorting to avoidance strategy Low motivation Prior negative experience with writing courses Lack of perceived need
Methodological factors	Lack of perseverance and strategic investment in drafting, editing, etc. stages Inability to transfer writing skills from L1 to L2. Lack of concentration Inability to organize their thoughts Lack of experience in the 1st language (No explicit writing courses at school)
Instructor-related Factors	
Methodological factors	Methodological (inappropriate instruction) Insufficient feedback on students' writings
Interpersonal factors	lack of warmth, enthusiasm ,and vigor

C. Procedure

A sample of 60 EFL students was randomly selected from all students studying at Lorestan state university at the time of conducting the research. The 'survey of motivation to engage with writing (SMEW)' was distributed among them during their class time in the second semester of academic year 2012-2013.students were briefed about the study, and the necessary instructions as to how to answer the questions were given. The administration took about 45 minutes. After collecting the questionnaires, the scores were added up for each participant. It was assumed that respondents with scores higher than the mean (Mean=135) would be 'engaged' writers and respondents with scores below the mean across the whole questionnaire would be 'reluctant' writers. 37 students were selected to be reluctant writers based on the data from the questionnaire. SPSS version 20 was used to conduct the various analyses performed with the data. To deal with the research questions, and in order to elicit the causes of the phenomenon, i.e. writing reluctance, from the viewpoint of instructors and students, the Questionnaire of Perception on Writing Reluctance (QPWR) was given to 'reluctant' students and EFL instructors. The scores were added up for both groups on their perceptions toward writing reluctance. The researchers were looking for any convergence, specifically, and divergence of the instructors and students' perceived causes of this kind of reluctance.

IV. RESULTS

According to the data collected from the questionnaires, it was apparent that there was, of course, some overlap between students and instructors' perceptions on factors affecting reluctance among learners in an academic context. Nonetheless, there were obvious cases indicating that students and instructors' ideas diverged. That is students do not believe, to some extent, that what the instructors claim to be the cause of writing reluctance is true about them. The first factor that all instructors (100%) agreed to be one of the causes with regard to writing reluctance was that most of the writing tasks are difficult to do. Only 16% of the students agreed with the instructors in this regard; 54% attributed this phenomenon to factors other than task difficulty. Another similar factor that instructors definitely (100%) considered to be one of the main causes was students' lack of sufficient linguistic knowledge. One fifth (21%) of the students thought so. In the case of students' content knowledge, however, the situation was different so that students' and instructors' ideas converged to a convincing degree. In other words, 43% of the students and 60% of the instructors agreed that insufficient content knowledge was one of the causes of writing reluctance among students. Although the instructors , to a great extent, i.e. 67%, regarded students' lack of general knowledge about 'writing topics' as an influencing factor , most students (68%) believed that this was not the case so that it was not a determinant factor in writing reluctance. A large number of students (70%) believed that they were reluctant to write because their teacher was the only audience they had for their writings. 50% of the teachers believed that students' limited readership was an important factor in this regard. Another area of disagreement was students' low self-confidence. Instructors conceived of students' self-confidence as an important factor in writing reluctance. However, for more than half (52%) of the students, this was not a causing factor in their reluctance toward writing. The degree of anxiety experienced by student learners was reported by nearly half of the teachers to be among important factors whereas 65% of the students reported that anxiety was not so influencing. Students' interest in the writing topics seemed to be important for both students and teachers. It was implied that 50% of the teachers and 33% of the students believed that students' writing reluctance could be attributed to the fact that topics are not interesting to write about. Although half of the teachers reported that students' prior negative experience with writing causes a degree of reluctance in writing, most students (67%) disagreed with the instructors in this regard. Among other factors both students and instructors were asked about was students' prior negative experience with writing tasks. 50% of the teachers and 22% of the students agreed that this could be a cause of writing reluctance. A large number of instructors (75%) believed that one of the causing factors in students' writing reluctance is that they think they would not need such writing tasks in future. Students disagreed so that 65% of them found writing tasks helpful. Of other important factors from the instructors' point of view was that students are unable to transfer their writing skills from their L1 to English writing tasks. Although 67% of the instructors believed so, only 35% of students agreed with this idea. Also, teachers (92%) believed that students are reluctant to write because they cannot organize their thoughts while writing whereas nearly half of the students thought so. An interesting point was that both students (79%) and instructors (92) agreed that students do not have enough writing experience in Farsi writing tasks hence they are reluctant to do writing tasks due to unfamiliarity with similar tasks in their L1. Another area in which a great degree of overlap was seen between students (79%) and instructors' (100%) opinion with regard to writing reluctance was that students are not taught necessary writing skills ,instructions, and strategies such as pre-writing, drafting, editing etc. Moreover a large number of students (70%) and instructors (84%) believed that an important source of writing reluctance is insufficient feedback from teachers. It seems that students are reluctant toward writing because, among other reasons, their works are not corrected by teachers and they do not know if they are improving their skill. Additionally some interpersonal factors seemed to be influencing. For instance, students (54%) and instructors (84%) believed that lack of appropriate interpersonal relationship between students and teachers may cause students to lose their interest in doing writing tasks. More than half of the students and teachers agreed that students may be reluctant because they do not have set goals before they start writing. Finally students and instructors, almost equally (60%, and 65%, respectively), agreed that writing textbooks did not have adequate writing activities to encourage students to write and caused their reluctance. Students believed that lack of readership was the most effective factor in their reluctance (Mean= 27.32) and writing tasks difficulty the least effective one (Mean=19.82). For instructors, however, it was quite the reverse. Most of the teachers believed that task difficulty is the main cause of students' writing reluctance (Mean=40.75) whereas lack of readership has the least effect in this regard (Mean= 17.83). To sum up this section, although there is a great amount of convergence between students and instructors' opinions on the possible causes of writing reluctance among students, there are also cases that students and teachers misunderstand each other and attribute writing reluctance to different and/or opposing factors.

V. Discussion

The first research question was if writing reluctance existed among EFL learners and if so, to what degree. It was concluded from the results that there is a high degree of reluctance among students. In other words, if students are asked to choose from language skills, writing activities are perhaps among their last choices, or they try not to engage themselves in writing unless they have to. This inclination toward disengagement may be attributed to some of the factors mentioned earlier in this study. Part of the solution could be considering students' perceptions on what writing is and their reported areas of difficulty. As another main research question, the researchers were looking for any convergence between students and instructors' perceptions on writing reluctance. From comparing means and utilizing inferential statistics it was apparent that students and teachers' viewpoints, in spite of some degree of overlap, do not

match. Considering this discrepancy between the two groups, the decisions made as to how to solve students' problems related to their writing reluctance may not be as fruitful as expected. Most of the time, what instructors detect , as the causes of the problem, and try to solve accordingly, is based on what they experience in the classrooms. However, it happens frequently that instructors' perceptions are far from what students feel, and even the reality. In what follows, some of the areas of mismatch as well as convergence are discussed in more detail along with possible pedagogical implications and suggestions. Most students believed that their reluctance was attributed to lack of readership. It seems that using alternatives such as peer readers, hence student feedback, can help alleviate the problem to a great extent. Writing, as it may be the case, is a skill which needs systematic, and objective feedback and correction by the teacher, rather than mere spontaneous, and general feedback given to students in class. Therefore, when the students feel their works may not be thoroughly checked, they gradually lose their interest in writing hence reluctance may be the outcome. On the other hand, students may be encouraged to write if they feel that their writings will be evaluated by people other than their teachers, especially by their peers. One of the reasons why teachers may not give sufficient feedback to students' writings as Jones (2011) reports is that feedback on the final drafts is frustrating for teachers. However, there are some alternatives available for teachers. For instance, they can implement the concept of "feed-forward" by encouraging students to engage actively with final draft feedback and be more proactive in the feedback process through feedback dialogues with the teacher. Another issues related to written feedback is the difficulty students have with interpreting it and whether or not the students respond to feedback. Sometimes feedback is confusing as Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990) believe. Nonetheless, many students respond to feedback when they rewrite their papers (Ferris, 1997). Similarly, Lee (2007) attempted to explore how the teacher-student relationship affects the ways a teacher comments on student writing and students respond to teacher comments. The study indicated that teachers interact in four major ways: written commentary, peer feedback, conference and online feedback. Therefore, it is the teacher's job to choose, among the available alternatives, the best possible way to interact. A point in case is that most instructors think that this lack has the least effect on students writing reluctance whereas most students believe the opposite. Another area of flagrant mismatch is that most teachers believe that students' reluctance originates in writing tasks being difficult whereas most students disagree. This may create problems in decision making unless both groups' perceptions are taken into consideration. From the results it is implied that if students' writing skill is dealt with systematically, writing in English would not be considered as an unfamiliar and difficult skill to master as some researchers believe (e.g. Reid; and Richards et al., 2002). Also, teaching students necessary strategies will, to a great extent, encourage them to write more, following those helpful strategies. Even higher level EFL students sometimes are unaware of the mechanics of writing. In other words they may have not been taught the necessary skills and strategies to know how to write, so they gradually turn into reluctant writers. They may know what to write, be interested in the topic, and have necessary related content knowledge, but do not know how to put all these things together and organize their thoughts in written form. Therefore, teaching specific writing skills and strategies in writing classes will, to a great extent, alleviate this problem. There has not been always a consensus on teaching writing strategies among researchers, though. In the past, there were debates on if writing should be taught or not, let alone to teach strategies. However, many techniques and methods have proved successful in teaching writing (Reid, 2002). For example, process and product writing are two possible and effective methods which can be applied in writing classrooms. Seow (2002) lists the steps a teacher can follow in process writing including planning, drafting, responding, revising, editing, evaluating, and post-writing. Reppen (2002) and Ferris (2002) elaborate on a genre-based approach to content writing instruction and teaching students to self-edit, respectively. It is hoped that the results of this study are beneficial for language pedagogy, specifically teaching writing.

APPENDIX. THE QUESTIONNAIRE OF PERCEPTION ON WRITING RELUCTANCE

Teacher Version

Dear Instructor,

This questionnaire includes items that might be indicative of what causes learners' reluctance toward writing tasks. Please read each question and then fill in the appropriate square.

For each question, type an * inside the corresponding square, like the one below.

Your anonymity is guaranteed and your responses are considered as confidential. Use the scale below to answer the questions. Rate the following questions as you think they are most appropriate.

		1	2	3	4	5
1	Learners find most writing tasks difficult to do.					
2	Learners do not have sufficient linguistic knowledge.					
3	Learners do not have sufficient content knowledge.					
4	Learners do not have enough general knowledge about the topics.					
5	Learners do not write because the 'teacher' is the only person who may read their works.					
6	Learners have low self-confidence toward writing tasks.					
7	Learners have great amount of anxiety when writing.					
8	Learners are not interested in the topics.					
9	Learners do not have enough motivation to write.					
10	Learners are not willing to write due to their prior negative experiences with writing tasks.					
11	Learners do not write because they think they will not need such writing in future.					
12	Learners are unable to transfer writing skills from their L1 to the foreign language.					
13	Learners are unable to organize their thoughts while writing.					
14	Learners do not have enough writing experience in their first language. (writing is not taught systematically in local schools)					
15	Learners do not know enough writing strategies such as pre-writing, drafting, editing, etc.					
16	Learners do not receive sufficient feedback from teachers.					
17	Learners do not receive enough writing instruction in class.					
18	Lack of appropriate interpersonal relationships (teacher- learner) results in learners' reluctance.					
19	Learners do not have set goals when they start to write.					
20	The textbook does not have adequate writing activities to encourage students to write.					

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Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): A Critical and Comparative Perspective

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Abstract—**Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) came up at the beginning of the nineteenth century, and formalized in the late 1960s, reflecting the social changes. It is critically evaluated as a theory in foreign language teaching based on an overall review of its history, theory and application. However, the difficulties of its application in certain countries are continually discussed, such as cultural conflicts and teacher training. Based on the evaluation, this essay points out that only combined with the characters like teaching environment, educational background and cultural background of teachers and learners, as well as test systems will CLT play a more significant role in language teaching.**

Index Terms—**critical evaluation, CLT, SLT, language teaching, cultural background, test systems, challenges**

I. Purpose of this Essay

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), rooted in the multidiscipline, the initiation of communicative approach, which is regarded as a revolution, impinges on the outmoded teaching schema and the newcomers of disciplines, such as psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics, is an innovative language teaching approach formed in the late 1960s, when pragmaticism prevailed much more than ever in the West, and when the post World-War II world called much more dialogue and communications. CLT has greatly influenced language teaching both theoretically and practically. The past half century has witnessed many scholars around the world discussing, reviewing and improving the approach, with many textbooks, syllabus designed based on it. Many teachers and learners came to know this theory and benefited from it. It cannot be denied that CLT has made a significant contribution to foreign language teaching, though it does consist of some shortcomings that are innate in the formulation of the theory or in the application. In this essay, based on a brief review of its history, theory and application, and compared with Situational Language Teaching (SLT), I will critically evaluate CLT as a theory as well as its practice in foreign language teaching.

II. Why Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): A Comparative Perspective between Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Situational Language Teaching (SLT)

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) appeared in the 1960s when language studies and foreign language teaching ideas made big changes in America, Britain and Europe. Before that, Situational Language Teaching (SLT) had dominated foreign language teaching in Britain for many years as a conventional language teaching approach. However, in the mid-1960s, linguists in the United States, based on Chomsky's view of the language acquisition device and linguistic competence, began to critically review SLT and even rejected Audiolingualism (AL), an approach which is based on behaviorist psychology and structural linguistics that focuses on "the drilling, the formation of habit and the avoidance of error" (Klapper, 2006, P.107). This change made British linguists aware of the imperfection of SLT and they began to question its theoretical assumptions. "They saw the need to focus in language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than language" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, P.153). Scholars like Candlin, Widdowson, and Wilkins put forward communicative analysis to foreign language teaching and the syllabus design. Another impetus "came from the changing educational realities in Europe" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, P.154). The need to teach more adults the major languages for the European Common Market communication called for a more effective foreign language teaching approach. Therefore, Chomsky's view of linguistic competence, the writings of British linguistics and the work of the European Council brought about the advent of Communicative Language Teaching and expanded it to a larger scale (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, P.154-155).

The theory of the communicative approach has been influenced by many disciplines like sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, language philosophy, anthropology, among which the most influential factor is sociolinguistics. As Fishman says, the task of sociolinguistics is to study "who speaks what language to whom and where" (cited in Hu, 1982, P.15). Moreover, Hymes (1971 cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, P.159) coined the term "Communicative Competence" in order to "contrast a communicative view of language and Chomsky's theory of competence". In Chomsky's view, linguistic theory studies are only concerned about abstract language in a vacuum, the perfect language which is not affected by actual practice in the society. But Hymes holds the view that "a learner's need to focus on appropriate use, which is on using language for particular purposes and in particular situations and settings" (Klapper, 2006, P.109). This notion has been specified by Canale and Swain's "four dimensions of communicative competence",

namely, "grammatical competence, sociolingual competence, discourse competence and strategic competence" (1980 cited in Klapper, 2006, P.109) and later extended in turn by Bachman, Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrell (1997 cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, P.160).

According to this theory, the aim of language learning is to acquire communicative competence, or the four dimensions of competence. Some principles have been proposed by Richards and Rodgers (2001, P.161) with regard to language learning:

"Communication principle: Activities that involve real communication promote learning…task principle: Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning…meaningfulness principle: Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process."

Consequently, language learning activities are supposed to be developed and fulfilled around these principles. The "desired outcome", as Knight (2001, P.155) states, "is that the learner can communicate successfully in the target language in real situations, rather than have a conscious understanding of the rules governing that language."

The aims and principles of CLT alternate the content, strategies and methods of language teaching and learning, and also change the roles of language teachers as well as learners. Compared with its previous approaches, CLT has greatly reformed language teaching and made a huge contribution to the language learners, but in its application the problems also occur.

Different from the traditional SLT approach, the aim of CLT emphasizes language learners' "communicative proficiency" rather than "a mere mastery of grammar and structures" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, P.161), which caters to the learner's actual communicative needs and thus allows more efficient interaction for learners. Learners do not learn the language for the purpose of acquiring the grammars and vocabularies per se; rather, they use the language to communicate with others or to comprehend the information others send to them (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, P.160). Moreover, with a clear instrumental purpose, learners tend to have a stronger motivation for learning language.

With regard to syllabus design, "the first element", according to Klapper's (2006, P.109) view, "ought to be a consideration of what learners are likely to have to do in the language, of their needs, expressed in terms of function (e.g. thinking, expressing sadness) and notions (e.g. time), onto which should then be mapped the expressions, vocabulary and grammar required to articulate them". Here needs analysis is regarded as the primary step in CLT course design. It may be a professional need to pursue a better performance in the career, or a social need to travel in another country, or even a relaxation need to have some fun in the process of learning. Generally speaking, most learners have at least one or two kinds of motivation to learn a language. But how about a child or a teenager in the school who has no interest in language learning and is reluctant to learn it? What can teachers do to assess these learners' needs and work out a syllabus for them? In this sense, the drawbacks of CLT are most obvious when specific interaction in a certain field is required.

With regard to the content or the materials of language learning, CLT stresses real and authentic materials that cater to learners' real communicative needs. CLT practitioners believe that materials play "a primary role of promoting communicative use" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, P.168). They limit the use of conventional grammatical drilling exercises and add other means such as role play, cue cards, activity cards, and other audio or visual forms to practice learner's interactive competence. Three kinds of materials have been commonly used, namely, "text-based materials, task-based materials and realia" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, P.169-170). Various kinds of materials provide learners the resources they may encounter in real communication in a vivid way, which also bring interests to the class. It is superior to SLT that learners are taught how to appropriately interact in real situations and settings, instead of being taught how to correctly use grammatical structures. But through this way and under this settings and situations, learners are not likely to get a comprehensive and systematic mastery of all grammars that they may require since all the situations and settings cannot be covered in a systematic way. This problem lay on the notion of "competence" in the CLT theory itself. It is still a question whether the notions of extended competences can be all covered or not. Moreover, CLT practitioners all agree that learners should be taught with grammatical rules, and what is more, they should be taught with rules of speaking (Hu, 1982, P.20). But it has no certain answers for what are the rules of speaking and whether all the rules of speaking can be listed.

The insufficient and unsystematic learning of grammar may result in inaccurate expressions, which brings about another issue concerning language learning: fluency and accuracy. CLT focuses on fluent interaction with others, even at the expense of accuracy. Errors are tolerable since they do not interfere with the successful transformation of information. This focus met the original British and European teaching requirements, because the language learners at that time were mainly for the purpose of studying, working or living abroad. To be able to interact with native speakers successfully was their primary purpose of learning a language. However, this theory does not meet with all the language learners' needs. For example, in China, there is a large number of English learners (as L2) who expect that they will be able to publish academic articles in international journals (needless to say, most of them are English version). They do not care much about their speaking ability because most of them have little chance to communicate with native speakers face to face. For those people, writing accurately in English, instead of "writing fluently", is their language need. Obviously, how to cater to this group of learners is a big challenge for CLT practitioners since they do not care much about accuracy of language.

Another aspect closely relates to syllabus design is the roles of learners and teachers. The emphasis of

communication in CLT theory calls for the maximum presentation of learners and the minimum appearance of teachers. On the one hand, learners' role, as illustrated by Breen and Candlin (1980 cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, P.166), is like this:

"Negotiator-between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning-emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way."

On the other hand, Breen and Candlin (1980:99 cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, P.167) give a very detailed description of a teacher's roles:

"The teacher has two main roles: the first role is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group…These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher; first, as an organizer of resources and as a resource himself, second as a guide within the classroom procedure and activities…A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner, with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and observed experience of the nature of learning and organizational capacities."

With CLT, learners are placed in the communicative settings and acquire language knowledge and communicative competence through active participation and interaction; while teachers change from a knowledge-giver to an organizer, facilitator and researcher. Sometimes teachers turn into a participant in the class activities. In other words, teachers stand back like an observer and manager to stimulate and direct successful communication by means of role plays, games, presentations and so on, whereas learners are put in the center of the class to participate in various kinds of communicative activities. By completing these activities, learners get a huge amount of chances to practice and produce their language, and thus their motivation will be increased and enlarged and their fluency will be improved. Meanwhile, they can learn from hearing other members' presentations (Richards, 2006, P.20). The learner-centered class has been proved to be very beneficial in language teaching. What is more, the replacement broke the traditional authentic role of teachers and gives a new vision for language teachers to rethink about their roles. This influence is even greater in these countries like China and India where the traditional image of teachers is respectful, authoritative, and superior. CLT offers the chance for the teachers to put off the dress of God and get involved with learners in a more friendly way.

However, the application of CLT also encounters difficulties in these countries. Theoretically speaking, needs analysis should be undertaken by the language teacher in a detailed way and individualized direction is recommended to offer to the students. However, because of the large population, English teaching in China always takes the form of big classes with more students. The number of students in English classes is generally over 30, and in many cases, the number rises to over 50, sometimes even more than a hundred. It is almost impossible for English teachers to analyze each learner's need and put forward an effective instruction which correspond to all learners' needs. Even if the teacher can deal with all the needs, how can he or she work out a plan which is suitable for such a large group of students who certainly have a variety of needs in the aspects of level and category? Besides, such a large number of students are not easy to take individual activities in class because of the limit of time in class. The most possible solution for the teacher may be a compromising way to cater for most students as a group.

Apart from these, the cultural conflicts embraced in the CLT approach do affect its application to some extent, role changes, for example. The advocacy of individualism in the student role shows the disagreement with the oriental value of collectivism, and the democracy and equality between teachers and students also destroys the values of authority and distance in education in China. As a result, educators have many controversies and arguments in carrying out the CLT in China and up to now no satisfactory models have been put forward to compromise all the disagreements in value.

Teacher training is another big problem in the countries where real information exchange and authentic communications situation are insufficient. The lack of communication in a real situation with foreigners causes problems for both teachers and learners. Theoretically, CLT emphasizes communicative competence and encourages the fulfillment of successful interaction in dealing with real tasks. The idealist teachers of CLT should be fully competent in language competence, and a good command of the knowledge of linguistics and teaching methodologies. But practically, foreign language users, both teachers and learners, in these countries are unable to receive enough input of communicative practices since they have little chance to meet with native speakers. This kind of language environment is by no means good for the sustainable development of foreign language teaching and learning in these countries. For teachers, the lack of real communication situations makes it more difficult for them to be native-like and their language quality is hard to depend on. For the mass learners, on the other hand, since their communicative needs are not so strong and many of them do not have the specific or urgent requirements to live or work in a foreign country, their motivation to "communicate" in a foreign language is not strong at all and their practice and language abilities in class is difficult to test in real situations. Therefore, how to effectively carry out the CLT approach is really not an easy task in the countries with insufficient foreign language-speaking environment and situations.

Furthermore, there also exists the issue of how to assess teaching results, namely, how to present the result of CLT effectively in different assessment and language tests in different countries. The learners trained by CLT usually have a good performance in their actual work and communication because they have a relatively high communicative proficiency. But their test ability and scores, say in TOEEL or IELTS, may not be higher than other learners trained by

other approaches. The reason for this is that the aims of the training are different. In some countries, CLT learners still need to find other ways to strengthen their test ability, hoping they can get a more satisfactory score in a certain exam.

To take a deeper study on the application of CLT enables us to find that some controversies and the problems may result from the "lacks of closely prescribed classroom techniques …and there is no easily recognizable pedagogical framework, no single agreed version of CLT" (Klapper, 2006, P.109). That is why CLT has been adjusted and amended again and again and there are many versions and distortions in the past 50 years.

III. CHALLENGES AND CHANGES: CLT IN THE FUTURE

(1) Different learning purposes decide different learning methods and no one specific method are suitable for a specific learner.

When talking about CLT or SLT, researchers and scholars sometimes (or usually) fail to decide and determine the purpose of a learner as why he or she learns a foreign language, and even neglect a language-learner's cultural-national background. Definitely, different learning purpose decides different learning methods and no one specific method are suitable for a specific learner. Moreover, people with various cultural-national background may call for different learning methods. Generally speaking, the purposes of people's learning a foreign language could be classified into two types: first, learning a foreign language is for daily use, which could be termed as a communicative-oriented purpose; second, learning a foreign language is for academic use (For example, for future study and research in the field of literature, linguistics, translation and interpretation, etc.), which could be termed as an academic-oriented purpose. Obviously, for people with a communicative-oriented purpose, most probably it is more efficient to adopt the CLT strategy, and they(including learners and teachers) may not pay much attention to the strict grammar rules as well as sentence structures. That is, no matter what grammar errors or pronunciation errors or sentence errors the speaker makes, only on condition that he makes himself understood, all that is ok. We can easily find enough evidence in children who learn a foreign language. When boys and girls learning a foreign language are put under the foreign language-speaking situations where people are all native speakers, they come to learn to speak and talk and could use the language much quickly with no much notice of the grammar rules and sentence structures. For people with an academic-oriented purpose, perhaps it is much more necessary to adopt both the CLT and SLT strategy. Because, CLT emphasizes language learners' communicative competence, while SLT stresses language learners' academic ability of using the language accurately, precisely, properly, gentlemanly and scholarly. In this sense, CLT and SLT is definitely not contradictory to each other, actually they are applied in language teaching and learning side by side, sometimes consciously, sometimes unconsciously to learners and teachers. In another word, CLT and SLT must co-exist to develop in the future so as to facilitate language learners.

(2) New technologies facilitate CLT and SLT or not?

Technologies and new inventions as well as new instruments are pushing human societies forward dramatically and quickly, and it is also the case in the field of language study and learning. In recent years, with the fast development of the Internet technologies, language teaching and learning is undergoing a brand-new reform, which differs dramatically from the traditional language teaching and learning styles: textbooks, additional teaching materials and study strategies are so delicately designed and put into the web, by the means of computers, teachers (educators) can freely arrange, manipulate, direct and assess learning results of the learners, they even do not need go to classes so often than before. That is why nowadays in many universities of China, and also in many middle-schools, much of foreign language teaching is undertaken by the means of computer-aided contents, especially for the listening and speaking lessons. Computer-aided language teaching and learning (namely, E-learning) has made it unnecessary for teachers to go to the class personally. To some extent, whether CLT or SLT, they could be practiced and evaluated by the means of computers. Language learners could easily and freely communicate with a computer to learn a foreign language, anytime and anywhere. Compared with the traditional language teaching and learning, Computer-aided language teaching and learning is both a big challenge and also a benefit to educators, as well as to CLT and SLT. On the one hand, computer-aided language teaching and learning greatly alleviate educators' labor, greatly save educators' energy. Much of the learners' work and exercises, as well as educators' check-up could be finished through computers, face-to-face communications between educators and learners is much reduced. In this sense, computer-aided language teaching greatly freed educators. On the other hand, we face the problem of whether computer-aided language teaching could replace educators in part or in whole. Meanwhile, under computer-aided language teaching circumstances, could CLT and SLT achieve a better result? Are the two methods more welcome to educators or learners than before? All these call for further study, and the answers may be vary for different study target (for example, children, adults, middle school students and college students, as well as learners' cultural-national background should also be taken into consideration. Learners from different countries may also have various attitude towards CLT and SLT, study and research in this regard definitely will not be the same, thus will be of special value.) To sum up, research about CLT and SLT under computer-aided teaching and learning circumstance may be of much significance to language researchers, as well as language linguists. It could be estimated that in the near future more textbooks and syllabus will be designed and carried out in accordance with the computer-aided teaching and learning styles.

IV. CONCLUSION

Language teaching and language learning is an endless process, just the same as the development of Communicative Language Teaching. With its unique focus and perspective, CLT is still "fashionable" in language teaching and learning field, as can be seen in the updating research and adjustment of CLT linguists and educators, and in the large amount of course designs and textbooks in this regard. Moreover, CLT brings rethinking to language learning and teaching, which has influenced other later linguistic approaches and teaching methodologies. On the other hand, it is impossible to find a perfect approach or methodology which can cater for all learners and be applicable in all situations. All of them need to be continuously adjusted and enriched in real teaching practice situations, and the same is true to CLT. Only combined with the characteristics like teaching environment, educational background and cultural background of teachers and learners, as well as test systems will CLT play a more significant role in language teaching. Whether CLT or SLT, they are all approaches for language learning, and maybe it is more effective to combine both to achieve a more ideal language-learning result, and only taking all new factors such as computer-aided teaching and learning into consideration, could CLT keep vitality and extend influence continuously.

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Interaction of Multimodal Metaphor and Metonymy in Public Service Advertising: A Case Study[*]

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Abstract—This paper provides an analysis of a public service advertising in terms of a metaphor: A SEAT BELT IS A FAMILY, a variant of the metaphor A CAR IS A LIVING ROOM. The analysis shows how aspects of metaphors and metonymies surface in various modes and how metaphor and metonymy interaction fulfils different cognitive and persuasive roles in a multimodal genre. This paper proposes that two domains are reversible in multimodal discourse; metonymy is more fundamental than metaphor and the former serves as the basis and motivation for the latter. Because of genric features of PSA, the "embodied" aspects of metaphors and metonymies need to be universally comprehensible.

Index Terms—metaphor, metonymy, multimodal metaphor-metonymy interaction, public service advertising

I. INTRODUCTION

An "Embrace Life"[1] video by the Sussex Safer Roads Partnership in the United Kingdom has been spreading rapidly online and achieved a million hits on its first two weeks on YouTube in 2010. The video is part of a larger "Embrace Life" campaign designed to remind individuals of the importance of wearing their seat belts. An advertising of this kind is called public service advertising (PSA). According to *en.wikipedia.org*, in contrast with business commercials, which are designed for the purpose of financial profits, PSAs are messages in the public interest disseminated by the media without charge, with the objective of raising awareness, changing public attitudes and behavior towards a social issue. Put it different, PSAs are seeking to raise public awareness of social issues via mass media and encourage more people to get involved in creation and interpretation of the advertisements. The metaphor "public service advertisements are also a lamp" reveals the purpose of PSAs, which is to shed light on something so that the viewers can see it.

In the context of advertising, metaphor is an integrated experience of words, images, sounds and meanings. As Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996) suggest, of the visual and verbal modes, each has "its own possibilities and limitations of meaning."(p.17) and "particular modes of communication should be seen in their environment, in the environment of all the other modes of communication which surround them, and of their functions." (p.33) Multimodal metaphors are metaphors whose target and source are each represented exclusively or predominantly in different modes. The qualification "exclusively or predominantly" is necessary because non-verbal metaphors often have targets and/or sources that are cued in more than one mode simultaneously. (Forceville & Urios-Aparisi, 2009, p.24)

In contrast with metaphor, which can be either referential or predicative (Warren 2006), metonymy has been considered to have mostly a referential function (Lakoff and Turner, 1989, p.103). Metonymy, as an important cognitive process, not only is a rhetorical strategy but also has an important role in motivating metaphor and highlighting its mappings. Metonymy can define and represent reality and show how the product should be perceived by the audience. Barcelona (2000b) points out that metonymy is a more fundamental cognitive phenomenon than metaphor, and metaphor is very often motivated by metonymy. Actually, "the distinction between metaphor and metonymy is scalar, rather than discrete: they seem to be points on a continuum of mapping processes" (p.16). Just like Radden (2000) suggests, "the interaction of metonymy and metaphor shows that they are not two opposite poles, but two parts of a continuum from literalness to metaphor."(p.409)

This paper looks at multimodal metaphor and metonymy in the PSA "Embrace Life". It argues that a seat belt is cognitively structured by a metaphor: A SEAT BELT IS A FAMILY, a variant of the metaphor A CAR IS A LIVING ROOM. As an intangible abstraction, a seat belt, is made comprehensible by being metaphorized as a family endowed with the traits that are positively evaluated in PSA discourse: safety, warmth, protection. These metaphorical character traits of a seat belt are expressed by the interplay of verbal, aural and visual features in advertising discourse, in particular, the illustrations, music, the logo and legend.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

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[1] http://www.sussexsaferroads.gov.uk/safer-for-all-drivers/embrace-life-seatbelt-campaign.html

Charles Forceville (1996) has extended studies on metaphor into the realm of multimodality and has exerted a profound influence on metaphor studies. Forceville & Urios—Aparisi's collection *Multimodal Metaphor* (2009) shows all the latest research results at abroad. All scholars are primarily concerned with the respects like the value and effect of modality as well as its interaction, dynamic interplay of metaphor and metonymy, stylistic dimensions of metaphor as well as the cultural and the embodimental foundation of metaphor.

The chapters of the book are organized by the modes playing a role in the identification and interpretation of the metaphors studied. And it takes into account the genre to discourses: advertisements, political cartoons, comics, animation, musical compositions, oral conversations and lectures, feature films.

Since advertising has been the subject of a number of studies on pictorial metaphor, it is not surprising advertising which integrates with the modes of language, visuals and sound/music attracts most scholarly attention.

In this book, Koller (2009) charts how the logos, visuals, and layouts that are used to create companies' corporate identities and they often require or invite the construal of metaphors. Tying in with the pervasive BRANDS ARE LIVING ORGANISMS metaphor, visual elements often subtly encourage the inference of positive corporate qualities that are not necessarily verbalized. Identifying the metaphorical mechanisms deployed to achieve this goal points the way to how the inevitably biased nature of companies' self-portraits can be critically examined.

Caballero (2009) is part of an ongoing research project which is partly based on an impressive corpus of 12,000 wine tasting notes in professional journals, and here takes into account Spanish and French wine advertisements as well. An important issue in the paper is the difficulty of the "translation" of these hardly theorized modes of taste and smell into a shared "vocabulary" of pictures and words. Another pertinent issue is the role of the cultural background governing both the choice of source domain in purely verbal metaphors describing wines and the choice of visuals in the advertisements.

Urios-Aparisi (2009) discusses instances of Spanish television commercials. He addresses how Forceville's multimodal metaphor interacts with metonymical mappings, and applies the taxonomy to multimodal advertising texts, identifying their cognitive value and communicative strategies within this genre.

Yu (2009) provides an in-depth analysis of a single educational message broadcast on Chinese Central Television (CCTV) in terms of two conceptual metaphors whose purely verbal varieties have often been discussed: LIFE IS A JOURNEY and LIFE IS A STAGE. He shows how aspects of these metaphors, which in some passages are "blended", surface in various modes. In several scenes, moreover, other conceptual metaphors such as UNDERSTANDING IS SEEING and SUCCESSFUL IS UP are shown to play a role, as well as a range of metonymies. The analysis makes clear that whereas thanks to the visuals, the "embodied" aspects of the metaphors are presumably universally comprehensible, many details can only be fully appreciated by viewers aware of specific Chinese myths and beliefs.

In China, four papers published in *Foreign Language Research* in 2011 symbolize the beginning of multimodal metaphor study. Studies on multimodal metaphor can be divided into two categories. One is the theoretical study. Zhao (2011) presents a brief literature review over multimodal metaphor studies in reference to Forceville & Urios-Aparisi's collection (2009), covering its origin, development, focus, achievements, challenges and prospects as well. Xie (2011) presents some key issues based on the explanation of Forceville & Urios-Aparisi's theory. Firstly, Lakoff's Embodied Philosophy could account for the philosophical basis of multimodal metaphor. Secondly, due to various genres and modes, two domains are possibly reversible. Thirdly, compared to verbal metaphor, the representations are likely to be multidimensional and informative, which could make a deep impression on the readers with the help of concrete images. Finally, the findings of the experiment display that verbal texts in a multimodal metaphor could exert influence on non-verbal texts. Li & Shi (2010) attempts to discuss the possibility and necessity of multimodal metaphor studies in foreign languages as the future research direction in applied linguistics.

Another is the empirical study which applies the multimodal metaphor theory to different discourses. Zhang & Zhan (2011) show us the essence of multimodal metaphor and metonymy and their cognitive model. They analyze the dynamic construal and verbal-visual relation of multimodal metaphor and multimodal metonymy in advertising discourses. Pan (2011) conducts a cognitive study of two political cartoons with its generic features in order to analyze interplay between multimodal metaphor and multimodal metonymy and their dynamic construal and then accounts for choices of source domain and target domain. Zhao & Su (2010) focus on dynamic process of integrative meaning construction of the metaphorical multimodal discourse. Based on the generalization of features of multimodal metaphor, they propose that the integrative meaning of metaphorical multimodal discourse derives from a complex conceptual blending involved with interplay of metonymy and metaphor. It reveals that the cognitive approach helps to explain the psychological motivations for the persuasive and aesthetic function.

As we can observe, with reference to multimodal metaphor theory, all studies analyze business commercials, there are few about non-commercial advertising, in particular, PSA. This paper is part of the attempt to refine the present theories of conceptual metaphor/metonymy, their dynamic interaction, and their different functions in the interplay.

III. SYNOPSIS OF THE ADVERTISING

Embrace Life is an award winning short British public information film made for the Sussex Safer Roads Partnership (SSRP) about the importance of wearing seat belts. Here is a synopsis of the advertising under discussion.

At the beginning, with the playing of the slow-tempo music, a close-up shot focuses on a hand turns an imaginary ignition key and a foot operating an imaginary foot pedal. A mother and a daughter watch the father from the sofa in their living room which is decorated in orange and yellow hue. The father with a relaxed smile is playacting at driving a car and steers an imaginary wheel. The father turns to look at them, and the daughter responds to him with a big smile. However, as he turns back, he sees some sort of danger approaching. Meanwhile, the daughter's smile disappears. He grimaces and turns the wheel to the left to avoid the oncoming threat. The daughter rushes to him when realizing he is in danger. Her hands (a close-up shot) embrace him around the waist. His wife follows and put her arms around his upper body. All of a sudden, the audio shifts from the slow-tempo music to a fast-tempo one. The impact occurs, and the man is violently thrown in his seat; his legs jolt out and kick over a table with a bowl holding small metallic decorations. The bowl is thrown upwards and the metal decorations shower down. The daughter and mother successfully restrain the father, and he recovers, bringing his arms up to embrace his family who have saved him. (The music comes back to the slow-tempo one.) The legend "Embrace Life" in orange appears on the left of the screen, followed by "Always wear your seat belt" in white. The picture then dissolves into a view of the legend. As the film fades to black, the triangular grey, orange and blue *Embrace Life* logo is shown above that of the Sussex Safer Roads Partnership.

The name of the advertising, *Embrace Life*, reflects its focus on life rather than the death and injury often associated with car crashes. A lot of the " Embrace Life" campaigns focus on the more graphic and horrific outcomes of accidents, while this advertising doesn't take a conventional route to shock and scare the audience, rather it brings the audience in on the conversation of road safety, specifically seat belts.

IV. ANALYSIS

In this section, I analyze the advertising to show that its persuasive and aesthetic effects are achieved through, among other things, nonverbal and multimodal manifestations of a metaphor: A SEAT BELT IS A FAMILY, a variant of the metaphor A CAR IS A LIVING ROOM. While the latter is realized almost exclusively through moving images, accompanied by musical sounds, the former one is manifested visually and aurally, as well as verbally through the legend: "Embrace Life. Always wear your seat belt." Other than these two metaphors, the advertising also contains several metonymies which motivate and constitute the metaphors.

A. Multimodal Metonymy

The advertising has deployed a lot of metonymies to achieve its persuasive and aesthetic effects. The camera focuses on a man turning an imaginary ignition key, operating an imaginary foot pedal and steering an imaginary wheel with a relaxed smile. This image is easily identifiable with driving by the metonymy MANNER OF ACTION FOR THE ACTION. This driving is accompanied by metonymical music (from slow-tempo music to fast-tempo one) and images(from a relaxed smile to his grimacing and turning the wheel to the left) which can be associated with driving conditions. The representation of a seat belt follows three metonymies: EMBLEM FOR PRODUCT ("Embrace Life" logo for A Seat Belt), EFFECT FOR CAUSE (Safety for Wrapping Arms) and PART FOR WHOLE(Arms for A family). These metonymies under analysis are all integrated into the metaphor A FAMILY IS A SEAT BELT which is analyzed in next section. All the metonymies are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1
METONYMIES IN THE ADVERTISING

Metonymy type	Metonymy in advertising	Explanation
MANNER OF ACTION FOR THE ACTION	Turning an imaginary ignition key, operating an imaginary foot pedal and steering an imaginary wheel for Driving	Visual representation of the action
EMBLEM FOR PRODUCT	"Embrace Life" logo for A Seat Belt	Visual representation of the product
EFFECT FOR CAUSE	Safety for Wrapping Arms	Highlighted consequence of wrapping arms
PART FOR WHOLE	Arms for A family	The salient parts of the whole

Another metonymy to be discussed is DEFINING PROPERTY FOR CATEGORY. The legend "Embrace Life. Always wear your seat belt", the triangular grey, orange and blue *Embrace Life* logo and the click sound of fastening a seat belt manifest the category (seat belt) visually and aurally as well as verbally, summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2
MODES IN A METONYMY

Figure	Components	Visual	Words	Sound
Metonymy	TARGET		Always wear your seat belt	
	SOURCE	Embrace Life logo		The click sound of fastening a seat belt

As we can observe, this advertising features good examples of metonymic references in various modes. Metonymies,

in this case, are mostly referential with respect to driving and a family, but these metonymies can create further implicit meanings by the audience's knowledge of the importance of safety and a family. Besides these components, there is one obvious absence in the visual representations: that of the seat belt which is directly addressed in the words and indirectly in visual images. During the advertising, seat belt is not mentioned until it is metonymically implied by the sound "click", the logo and the legend "wear seat belt".

B. Multimodal Metaphor

In non-verbal and multimodal metaphors, the signals that cue metaphorical similarity between two phenomena are different, and bound to differ depending on the mode(s) in which the metaphorical terms are represented. Forceville (2009) summarizes three metaphorical similarities: perceptual resemblance, filling a schematic slot unexpectedly and simultaneous cueing. Perceptual resemblance can only function as a trigger in the case of monomodal metaphors: only a visual representation can perceptually resemble another visual representation; only a sound can perceptually resemble another sound in volume, timbre, or pitch. In the case of visual resemblance, "there is a larger range of choices: two things can resemble one another because they have the same size, color, position, posture, texture, materiality, *etc.*"(p.31) In the advertising, the daughter's wrapping arms are similar to the lap belts and the positioning of the mother's arms reflects the position of the upper seat belt strap for the driver. That is, their wrapping arms resemble the two parts of a seat belt. Therefore, the metaphor WRAPPING ARMS ARE A SEAT BELT is manifested based on perceptual resemblance, which is a monomodal metaphor. Another similarity comes from filling a schematic slot unexpectedly. It means "placing a thing in a certain context may strongly, even inescapably, evoke a different kind of thing, namely the thing for which the given context is the natural or conventional place."(p.31) In *Embrace Life,* when the father is playacting at driving a car, the target domain——which in advertising usually is identical with, or metonymically connected to, arms——occurs in a place where one expects a seat belt. We encounter wrapping arms from the typical gestalts or schemas of a seat belt. Here the metaphor WRAPPING ARMS ARE A SEAT BELT comes into being based on filling a schematic slot unexpectedly.

In the advertising, another metaphor is explicitly represented in the images: A CAR IS A LIVING ROOM. The source domain is shown in the first image, while the target is never mentioned, but it is metonymically implied by the father's playacting. The target and source domains in the metaphor establish symmetrical correspondences between various items within the two domains, such as those shown in Table 3. The living room represents the feelings of safety and protection from the "outer" world, which is similar to the feelings their car brings. The house represents a safety area where you're normally surrounded by your loved ones, and the car can be an extension of that. The small metallic decorations of the room graphically represent the shattered windscreen glass and metal fragments generated during a car accident.

TABLE 3
A CAR IS A LIVING ROOM

SOURCE	TARGET
LIVING ROOM	CAR
SAFETY AND PROTECTION FROM OUTSIDE	SAFETY AND PROTECTION FROM OUTSIDE
BE SURROUNDED BY THE LOVED ONES	BE ACCOMPANIED BY FAMILY AND FRIENDS
SMALL METALLIC DECORATIONS	SHATTERED WINDSCREEN GLASS AND METAL FRAGMENTS
THE DAUGHTER'S AND MOTHER'S WRAPPING ARMS	A SEAT BELT

The visual mode could be divided into several submodes such as color or facial expression. The submodes are building blocks of each mode. The soft colors of the living room in an orange and yellow hue and smile of the father represent he is relaxed in good driving condition and the family is full of love. The hue and colors are stereotypically warm and thus represent the feeling of safety that a seat belt is supposed to give and associate to the metaphor SOFT COLOR IS WARMTH and, thus, to the metaphor AFFECTION IS WARMTH and, if that is the case, the color submode would integrate experiences of love and safety with safe driving. The last screen fades to black and the triangular grey, orange and blue *Embrace Life* logo is shown. The contrast between warm colors and cold colors acts as a warning to the audience of safe driving. Each mode and submode associates a seat belt with the main metaphor A SEAT BELT IS A FAMILY and relates it to sensations of safety and warmth, and relaxation. The modes and their association with different components in the metaphor in this commercial are listed in Table 4.

C. Interaction of Multimodal Metaphor and Metonymy

In the dynamics of a TV advertising, metonymical mappings do not only substitute for or represent the target, but expand the interpretation of metaphorical mappings. The metaphor WRAPPING ARMS ARE A SEAT BELT, which highlights wrapping arms as it can resemble a seat belt, with the help of the metonymy PART FOR WHOLE(Arms for A family), allows for the metaphor A FAMILY IS A SEAT BELT to be enacted. The protection of a family to a person is like that of a seat belt to a person. The metaphor makes the metonymy progress towards mappings and tries to convey additional meanings such as emotional representation and didactic effects in the cognitive environment of the audience.

The metonymy EFFECT FOR CAUSE(Safety for Wrapping Arms) and legend "Embrace Life" motivate another metaphor A SEAT BELT IS A FAMILY. As a family is associated with safety and warmth, the PSA enacts the

quintessential feature of seat belt by identifying and making a seat belt as wrapping arms. The importance of a seat belt to a person is similar to that of a family (far from arms) to a person. The two metaphors mentioned above show that two domains of a metaphor are reversible. The reversibility depends on the multipurpose of the communication or action.

In conclusion, the metaphor A SEAT BELT IS A FAMILY is elaborated through a complex interaction of modal techniques and metonymies. The modes and their association with different components in the metaphor and metonymy are listed in Table 4.

TABLE 4
A SEAT BELT IS A FAMILY

Figure	Components	Visual	Words	Sound
Metaphor	TARGET	The logo of seat belt		The click sound of fastening a seat belt
	SOURCE	A family: metonymical implied by wrapping arms(PART FOR WHOLE) Submode 1: facial expression of the family Submode 2: Soft color of the living room	Legend "Embrace life"	

D. Selection of Source and Target Domain

The advertising roots the concept of wearing a seat belt firmly in the family domain so that it could be viewed by anyone of any age. Children are as important as opinion formers within their family and a child takes a pivotal role in relaying the message that it's not only yourself that's impacted if something unfortunately goes wrong, but also family and friends too. The choices of family and kids as source or target domain in a traffic safety public service advertising can be explained by Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943). Maslow used the terms physiological, safety, belongingness and love, esteem, self-Actualization and self-Transcendence needs to describe the pattern that human motivations generally move through. Safety and Security needs include: personal security, financial security, health and well-being and safety net against accidents/illness and their adverse impacts. Love and belonging, the third level of human needs, are especially strong in childhood. The advertising created to raise awareness of the importance of wearing a seat belt meets safety need and the choices of family and kids as source or target domain meet love need.

The advertising was primarily designed for and its spread has been almost entirely through the internet. Another key aspect to the storytelling is that *Embrace Life* to be non-language specific, so that the message wouldn't become lost when viewed by visitors whose first language is not English. The lack of dialogue means *Embrace Life* is accessible to all viewers, no matter what nationality. To summarize, just as Forceville (2007, p.27) puts it, "metaphors whose targets and sources are cued wholly or partly via visual, sonic, or musical cues, may be understood, maybe in rudimentary fashion only, by an audience unfamiliar with the language of the country from which the metaphorical representation originates. Apart from their greater degree of comprehensibility, metaphors drawing on images, sounds, and music also, I submit, have a more intense, immediate emotional impact than verbal ones."

Because of genric features of PSA, the "embodied" aspects of metaphors and metonymies need to be universally comprehensible. The daughter is wearing fairy wings as angel wings, symbolizing a guardian angel. Belief in both the East and the West is that guardian angels serve to protect whichever person God assigns them to, and present prayer to God on that person's behalf. In such special genre, the cultural or group-specific environment within which metaphors occur can be avoided in order to guarantee the construal and interpretation of multimodal metaphors.

V. CONCLUSION

PSAs are dynamic discourses in which all modes can contribute to multimodal metaphors either in the source domain or the target domain. The modes and submodes in the advertising are structured around a clearly defined target, and the need to persuade or represent the target in a positive light. All elements addressed in the advertising contribute to the need for interaction of metaphors and metonymies which follows cognitive patterns which restrict and define their design and persuasion.

Metonymy has two functions. The first is to identify those entities which are to be transferred from the two domains. The second is to represent the target for the metaphor in a way that can be realistic for the metaphorical representation and motivate the message of the advertising.

In multimodal discourses, two domains of a metaphor are reversible. The reversibility depends on the multipurpose of the communication or action. If the target audience of PSAS are not cultural or group-specific community, the creative team need to ground the metaphors in common experience and make full use of each mode and its submodes to elicit audience's attention and emotions.

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On Situating the Stance of Socio-cognitive Approach to Language Acquisition

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Abstract—A growing number of studies that are founded on such socio-cognitive views have been undertaken in the past decade. Socio-cognitive approach attempts to compromise between the communication from pragmatic view and that from cognitive view, and has a strong inclination toward a dialectical approach. Not only is communication an intention-directed practice, but it also displays an attention-oriented traits. And socio-cognitive approaches attempt to make them closer. The paper is not in attempt to elaborate the difference between pragmatic and cognitive view of communication but to elucidate the shared feature of them in favor of socio-cognitive paradigm.

Index Terms—socio-cultural, socio-cognitive, situated learning, restructuring

I. INTRODUCTION

The term socio-cognitive is raised by Atkinson (2002) as the social-cognitive hybrid (Matsuoka & Evans, 2004). Atkinson calls it socio-cognitive, to emphasize the interplay between the patterns in the physical world and the social world to which we become attuned, and the patterns we develop and employ internally (cited in Mislevy, 2008). The social is related to what is going on in the outside world; the cognitive is related to what is going on the inside world. Hence, as to Meskill and Rangelov (2000), the term socio-cognitive grows an attempt to reconcile the social and affective side of learning with what happens in the black box as it were. Along the same line, within a socio-cognitive framework, learners are seen as dialectically connected to the social contexts in a synergetic relation (Meskill & Rangelova, 2000). In fact, marshaling from the known to unknown takes place at the point where sociology and psychology intersects, and this intersection occurs when mind is mediated. The paper is in attempt to cast light upon the theoretical background of socio-cognitive linchpins in second language acquisition.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Socio-cognitivists in Parallel with Socio-culturalists

Long can be put from socio-cognitive and socio-cultural perspectives to second language acquisition, but what causes a bone of contention is the shared pedestal between. From socio-cognitive perspective, human behavior is the result of integration of mediation into human activity. This activity might be either psychological or social. Henceforth, to some extent, it is plausible to use socio-cognitive instead of Vygotskan's socio-cultural framework. However, there are some essential differences. The differences proposed by practitioners (e.g., Glaveanu, 2011) are not contradictory, but complementary. Among the features signifying the differences between socio-cognitive models and socio-cultural models, individuality and universality are repeatedly pointed out. As Glaveanu asserts, the dialogical ontogeny supporting socio-cultural models considers how identity and knowledge are co-constructed through interaction by sharing. The socio-cognitive models, in contrast, look at sharing as the ways in which group members code and decode information, translating it from the private to the public realm and vice versa while the moments if actual transformation happen inside the individual mental processor (Glaveanu, 2011). Glaveanu further maintains that the notion of universality also leads us to a divergence between socio-cognitive and socio-cultural models in that socio-cognitivists claim to be studying creativity per se; then, their conclusions are generalized to a great number of group situations. Socio-culturalists, in contrast, are interested in specificity of the context and of particular creative problem at hand and are inclined to show how the dynamics and even the meaning of creativity change across situations. However, although such differences are not contradictory, but complementary, and the common elements between socio-cognitive and socio-cultural models are seldom salient, the author is in an attempt to revitalize some of these commonalities.

The study of relationship between language and thought has become a bone of contention among practitioners in the history of second language acquisition. However, in essence, they are not that much different. Both share with this view that language acquisition is the result of social-cognitive construction. To better appreciate this relationship, always can a type of polarization be traced. On the one end, we have Vygotskey who asserts that language is the basis of thought; that is, it is language that forms thought. On the other end, we have Piaget who holds that thought is the fundamental

cornerstone of language. As to Piaget, it is thought that forms language. Socio-cognitive approaches to language acquisition take advantage of Piagetian and Vygotskian perspectives toward second language acquisition. In effect, for both Piaget and Vygotsky, the social character is respected as a necessary aspect of human development (Tudge & Rogoff, 1989).

To give a direction to our topic in order to better appreciate the notions of socio-cognitive approaches to second language acquisition, and see that socio-cognitive tenets are not so far from socio-cultural ones, two claims, according to Kecskes (2010), can be exercised on. First, speaker and hearer, considered as complete individuals, are equal participants in the communicative process. Second, communication is a dynamic process, in which individuals are not only constrained by societal conditions but they also shape at the same time. Thus, communication is the interplay of two traits: individual and social. Individual traits include attention, private experience, egocentrism and salience, while the latter—social traits—include intention, actual situational experience, cooperation and relevance. Accordingly, Kecskes defines communication as "the result of the interplay of intention and attention, as this interplay is motivated by the individuals' private socio-cultural backgrounds" (p. 58). Put similarly, socio-cognitive approaches reap the benefits of both pragmatic views and cognitive views. As to Kecskes and Zhang (2009), from pragmatic view, communication is considered as an intention-directed practice during which the interlocutors mutually recognize the intentions and goals, and make joint effort to achieve them (Clark, 1996, cited in Kecskes & Zhang, 2009). Accordingly, Clark (1996) claims, "communication is supposed to be smooth if the speaker's intentions are recognized by the hearer through pragmatic inferences" (p. 335). What makes socio-cultural theory distinct from socio-cognitive is the fact that "the socio-cultural-interactional paradigm does not consider intention as central to communication" (Kecskes & Zhang, 2009, p. 336). The cognitive view of communication reports the egocentrism of speaker-hearers in mental processing of communication and postulated the emergent property of common ground. It is called egocentric as it is rooted in the speakers' or hearers' own knowledge instead of in mutual knowledge (Kecskes & Zhang, 2009, p. 336). In a nutshell, in a socio-cognitive view, as claimed by Kecskes and Zhang (2009), "communication is the result of the interplay of intention and attention motivated by the socio-cultural background" (p. 338). They also maintain, "both cooperation and egocentrism are manifested in all phases of communication" (p. 338).

Kecskes (2010) also argues if we compare the pragmatic view and the cognitive view of communication, we see that the two approaches are not contradictory, but rather complement each other. Along the same line, Kecskes adds from a dialectical perspective, cooperation and egocentrism are not conflicting. Hence, the aim of the socio-cognitive approach is to eliminate the ostensible conflicts between the two views, and propose an approach that integrates their considerations into a holistic concept of communication (p. 58).

Glaveanu (2011) maintains that socio-cognitive approach and socio-cultural approach have relatively in common. More meticulously, considering the role of creativity, Glaveanu links collaborative creativity to socio-cultural framework, while socio-cognitive gets close to the concept of group creativity. From epistemological position, socio-cognitive approach considers the social as external and creativity embedded in the mind, while in socio-cultural the social is considered as internal and creativity is embedded in interaction. This implies that language learning should not be respected "as an end itself to a child, but rather as a means of finding out about the world, of forming new concepts and associations" (Shakouri-Masouleh & Bahraminezhad-Jooneghani, 2012, p. 1058). Nevertheless, the central issue among practitioners is that how these concepts are constructed. As to Piaget, a child appears to be an active participant and a sense maker (Cameron, 2001). Contending that the child is an active participant implies that while interacting with the world, the child constructs his or her view of the world in order to solve the problem alone. Shakouri-Masouleh and Bahraminezhad-Jooneghani (2012) state that the knowledge that results in this way is neither imitated nor inborn, but is relatively constructed. Piaget, in contrast with Vyogtsky, gives a less important role to language. To him cognitive development is the prerequisite of language development (Shakouri-Masouleh & Bahraminezhad-Jooneghani, 2012). Furthermore, Piaget sees cognitive development as the process of maturation with which both genetics and experience interact. In such a way, as Brown (2000) states the developing mind is seeking equilibration. He continues that equilibration is accomplished by the two complementary processes of assimilation and accommodation. By assimilation, it is meant that the incoming information is modified so that can fit in what we knew earlier. Accommodation, in contrast, is defined as the modification of what we know in order to take into account new information. The term accommodation is coined restructuring in second language acquisition (Brown, 2000).

B. Restructuring

The idea of restructuring which is in contrast with proceduralization "refers to qualitative changes in the learners' interlanguage as they move from stage to stage" (Jordon, 2004, p. 211). While proceduralization entails accelerating learning processes performed more slowly by novices at the task, restructuring according to McLaughlin (1986, cited in Shakouri- Masouleh & Bahraminezhad-Jooneghani, 2012) refers to the process of imposing a new organization on information already stored in long-term memory. In other words, as Mitchell and Myles (2004) puts forth, "restructuring destabilizes some structures in the interlanguage, which seemed to have been previously acquired, and hence leads to the temporary reappearance of second language errors" (p. 101).

For Vygotsky (1962), children's cognitive development is the result of interaction with other members of the society. In effect, socio-cultural theories place the social environment at the center of learning (Hall, 2007), and without which, the "development of the mind is impossible" (Cole & Wertsch, 2001, cited in Hall, 2007, p. 96). Put similarly, to

Vygotsky (cited in Shakouri-Masouleh & Bahraminezhad-Jooneghani, 2012), language development is prerequisite to cognitive development, as language provides an individual with a tool. As Cameron (2001) states, language provides new chances for doing things and for organizing information through the use of words as symbols. In a nutshell, the child of Vygotsky, unlike Piaget's, is not alone (Shakouri-Masouleh & Bahraminezhad-Jooneghani, 2012). The child of Vygotsky is born in public and is social. And the things around, either animate or inanimate, mediate the world for children and make it accessible to them (Shakouri-Masouleh & Bahraminezhad-Jooneghani, 2012). Therefore, learning is the result of mediation. For this learning to occur, the participants employ tools—symbolic or physical. Cognitive development is not the direct result of activity, but it is indirect; other people play a part; they must interact and use tools as mediators that contribute to cognitive development. In other words, a learner has not yet learned but with help of his peers he/she is capable of learning (Brown, 2000).

To reap the benefit of socio-cognitive approach to language acquisition form Piaget's and Vygotsky's perspectives, some more recent socio-cultural theories provide examples of the ways that learners can be supported such as Rogoff's apprenticeship theory. Accordingly, as Matsuoka and Evans (2004) brought, Atkinson' socio-cognitive approach besides including Vygotsky's approach, uses Rogoff's apprenticeship theory (1990) and Lave and Wenger's theory of community of practice.

C. Cognitive Apprenticeship Theory

An impressive figure in the development of cognitive apprenticeship theory is Rogoff (1990). Disregarding the traditional meaning of apprenticeship as the attachment of a young person to the employer over a period of years, apprenticeship also involves formal education. However, the difference between apprenticeship and the other forms of learning is a matter of degree rather than kind. In the cognitive apprenticeship theory in education, the teacher, or more experienced peer, models the use mediatory tools and provides the scaffolding for learners to practice. Scaffolding is gradually withdrawn as the learner gains expertise (Hall, 2007). To give support to the cognitive development of learners, using strategies such as modeling, coaching, and fading are suggested by Rogoff (1990). Accordingly, modeling concerns providing examples of expert behavior that include explanations, coaching concerns encouragement, diagnosis, and direction; and scaffolding is the provision of structure or prompts in the learning environment. To provide further examples of cognitive apprenticeship, reciprocal teaching suggested by Palincsar and Brown (1984) is notable. As put by Palincsar and Brown (1984), reciprocal teaching is a dialogue held between teachers and students in order to jointly construct the meaning of text. They go on to hold that reciprocal teaching is designed to improve students' reading comprehension by teaching four key reading strategies: (1) summarizing the main content; (2) formulating questions; (3) clarifying ambiguities; and (4) predicting what may come next. In the same vein, Oliver (1999) maintains that in reciprocal teaching, the teacher models expert reading strategies such as making predictions, formulating questions, clarifying uncertain phrases/new vocabulary and verbally summarizing texts. Next, the teacher coaches and scaffolds students to use strategies correctly as they take turn applying them. At the end, the teacher's consistent guiding fades as the students become proficient in reading comprehension (Oliver, 1999).

Learning emerged as the result of apprenticeship inspired by the situated learning. Along the same line, situated learning theory suggests that learning is "naturally tied to authentic activity, context, and culture" (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989). Also, this theory suggests that it is more difficult to learn from un-natural activities. Situated learning examples include more "apprentice-like" situations such as carpenters, mechanics, printers, and sculptors (Oliver, 1999). According to Smith (2003, 2009) situational learning is more than learning by doing or experiential learning. Lave's and Weneger's concept of situatedness involves people being full participants in the world and in generating meaning (cited in Smiths, 2003, 2009). Tennant (1997) also reports that situated learning depends on two claims: (1) it makes no sense to talk of knowledge that is decontextualized, abstract or general; and (2) new knowledge and learning are properly conceived as being located in communities of practice.

D. Community of Practice Theory

The term community of practice as a component of social theory of learning has recently shouldered its way into the sociolinguistic lexicon. Wenger (1998b) uses it to critique traditional models of learning that knowledge was considered as a property and the teacher's responsibility was to transmit information in an artificial environment. Wenger suggests instead that learning is a natural and inevitable aspect of life, and a fundamentally social process (Holmes & Meyerhoff, 1999). Wenger (1998b) identifies three crucial dimensions of community of practice: (1) mutual engagement, (2) a joint negotiated enterprise, and (3) a shared repertoire of negotiable resources accumulated over time. Mutual engagement entails regular interaction by the members of community. Joint negotiated enterprise implies the individuals in a community build their contributions toward the larger enterprise. It involves mutual accountability on the part of participants, and the shared repertoire shows that the joint pursuit of an enterprise results in a shared repertoire of joint resources for negotiated meaning. The sources might be linguistic (e.g., specialized terminology) or non-linguistic (e.g., pictures, gestures etc.). The members of the community might be either core or peripheral. The basis of this variation is how successfully an individual has acquired the shared repertoire.

The concept of a community of practice builds on a pedagogical tradition of viewing learning as a socially mediated activity (Campbell, 2007). Salomon (as cited in Campbell, 2007, p. 134) asserts that:
     … a clearer understanding of human cognition would be achieved if studies were based on the concept that cognition

is distributed among individuals, that knowledge is socially constructed through collaborative efforts to achieve shared objectives in cultural surroundings and that information is processed between individuals and tools and artifacts provided by the culture.

What Lave and Wenger (1991) argue is that the teacher-student relationship of an apprenticeship model of learning is in favor of a bilateral recognition of learning as shaping both the expert and the novice. This notion aligns with the ideas of Vygotsky, in particular, and socio-cultural learning, in general (Campbell, 2007).

Vygotsky, in support of apprentice-like coaching, holds that the acquirement of task in a community of practice must be situated in ZPD. The term ZPD connotes the distance between individual's existing developmental level and his/her potential level. That is, learning task must be beyond what a student can accomplish alone; however, it must be at the level of impossibility. Thus to get to the level of achievement, one must be scaffolded.

E. Situated Learning

Situated learning was earlier projected by Lave and Wenger (1991) who introduced the communities of practice (Engeström, 2007). Put simply, this type of learning, i.e., situated learning, occurs in the context not in the abstract (Vincini, 2003). Lave and Wenger (1991) argue that learning should not be considered as simply the transmission of decontextualized knowledge from one person to another. To Lave and Wenger learning is respected as a social process whereby knowledge is cooperatively constructed; they, henceforth, assert that this type of learning is situated in a specific context and embedded within a particular social and physical environment. Accordingly, Sholes (2003) continues in situated learning, students learn content through immersion in the activities of their discipline of study. From ecological perspective, posited by van Lier (2000), cognition is situated or viewed in terms of the relationship between the learners and the specific environment (Haas, 2003).

However, as Liu and Matthews (2005) maintain, "the philosophy underpinning situativity theory is that individuals as non-initiative beings receive one-sided external forces from the social" (p. 392). Hence, the ecological tenets of situativity connote the notion of direct perception without the need for mediating variables that exist in one's head. The epistemology of situativity is thus inspired from direct realism. Instead of viewing experiences as constituting the mind, the existence of the mind is suggested.

Although Vygotsky is associated with situated learning theory, several scholars hold his theory is not social enough (Liu & Matthews, 2005). As Liu and Mattews state, "Lave and Wenger (1991), for example, in postulating their situated learning theory, disapproves of Vygotsky's concept of learning internalization, generalization, and scientific concepts, for they contain only a small aura of socialness that provides input for the process of internalization, viewed as individualistic acquisition of the cultural given" (p. 391). Vygotsky takes a dualistic perspective towards the social and the individual. In the same line, Renick (1996 cited in Liu & Mattews, 2005) holds Vygotsky ignores the role of individual and fails to address how the external world is bridged across the internal mind (Fox, 2001, cited in Liu & Mattews, 2005, p. 391). In sum, Vygotsky's idea is more or less socially relativist, as he considers the multiplicity of peer perspectives (Tsai, 2012). What is explicit in Tsai's (2012) claim is that in Vygotsky's theory, the central aim of education is the development of intellect and rationality beyond situations.

Situated learning also proposes that learning involves a process of engagement in a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Looking closely at everyday activity, Lave (1993) has argued, it is clear that "learning is ubiquitous in ongoing activity, though often unrecognized as such" (Lave, 1993, p. 5). He later with Wenger develops a theory called theory of community of practice. Thus, communities of practice are groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly (Wenger, 2007). What brought the members of communities are the activities and what they have learned through their mutual engagement in their activities (Wenger 1998a). Moreover, Wenger (2007) argues that three elements are essential in distinguishing a community of practice from other groups and communities: the domain, the community, and the practice. The domain of community implies that the member of which have commitments to it; thus, a shared competence makes the members of which distinct from other people. In pursuing their interest in their domain, members of the community getting engaged in shared activities help each other and share information. Also, the members of community develop a shared repertoire of resources: experiences, stories, tools, etc. Accordingly, for a community of practice to function well, it needs to generate and appropriate a shared repertoire of ideas, commitments, and memories. It is worth mentioning, for this whole to occur, it needs to get involved in praxis. Praxis involves a give-and-take relationship between theory and practice—between theorizing practice and practicing theory. As Freir (1985, cited in Monchinski, 2008) warns "Cut-off from practice theory becomes a simple verbalism and separated from theory is nothing but blind activism" (p. 1-2). In Freire's philosophy, praxis and dialogue are closely related: genuine dialogue represents a form of humanizing praxis.

III. CONCLUSION

What socio-cognitive approaches share with socio-cultural approaches is that their ontology is relativistic and its epistemology is subjective. In sum, the ways in which the world is viewed are different. As each one perceives the world from his/her own point of view. Furthermore, this meaning is only interpreted with respect to relationships. Thus, it is impossible to learn by discovering what is in the head or in the outside world. The notion of 'social mind'

(Matsuoka & Evans, 2004) is the product of social interaction. Hence, as Atkinson (2002) insists "language is always mutually, simultaneously and co-constitutively in the head and in the world" (p.537)—between inside schema and outside tool. Accordingly, Atkinson touches down on four implications of socio-cognitive approach to SLA: (1) the apprentice learns from the master in the classroom as well as the world outside the classroom; (2) viewing language as social connotes that second language acquisition is able to reinforce related fields such as discourse, identity and culture; (3) considering humans as holistic in existence, the employment of qualitative research in general and ethnography in particular; and (4) through learning one's identities are going to be constructed. Along the same line, Smiths (2009) inspiring from the notion of community of practice, provides three significant pointers of practice: (1) learning is situated through the interrelationship among people; (2) people are regarded as the active participants in communities of practice; and (3) knowledge and activity are highly connected.

As stated earlier, cooperation and egocentrism are the necessary tools for promoting communication. For communication to take place, a sophisticated degree of empathy is going to be established. If empathy is established, a considerable degree of cooperation is established that is considered pivotal. From the other side, by egocentrism, it is meant "that interlocutors activate the most salient information to their attention in the construction (speaker) and comprehension (hearer) of communication" (Kecskes & Zhang, 2009, p. 343).

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A Study on the Vagueness in English Language Teaching from the Pragmatic Perspective

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Abstract—**Vagueness, as an intrinsic feature of human language, has caused much attention. Many researches on vagueness have already been done in different fields, namely in daily conversations, newspapers, advertisements, science, literature, business affairs, and the like. However, up to now, most researches on vagueness have been confined to the semantic field, while the pragmatic perspective had not been paid much attention to yet. Besides, so far, much effort has been made on the theoretical study of language vagueness, but less on that in different aspects of English Language Teaching. Since vagueness plays a very important role in English language teaching, a research on this topic is necessary and essential. Based on the theories of pragmatic vagueness, this paper attempts to analyze the pragmatic function of vagueness, various language vagueness phenomena existing in the whole process of English language teaching and its functions. Then some possible suggestions for vague language teaching are proposed, namely, teaching with reference to Chinese, practice based on text, and a thorough understanding of English culture. It is hoped that it is beneficial to English language teaching.**

Index Terms—**vagueness, pragmatic function, implication, suggestion**

I. INTRODUCTION

It is impossible and unnecessary for language, an indispensable component of our daily life, to be clear and precise all along, in communicative activity in particular. We need and we often use vagueness in thinking and communication, yet we may not be aware of the fact that the language we are employing is fuzzy. As vagueness is an intrinsic feature of human language, many researches on vagueness have already been done in different fields, namely, in daily conversations, newspapers, advertisements, science, literature, business affairs, press conferences, and the like. However, up to now, most researches on vagueness have been confined to the semantic field, while the pragmatic perspective has not been paid much attention to yet. Besides, so far more effort has been made on the theoretical study of language vagueness, but less on that in different aspects of English Language Teaching. Accordingly, based on the theories of pragmatic vagueness, this paper attempts to analyze various language vagueness phenomenon existing in the whole process of English language teaching, put forward the idea of employing vague language in teaching environment, and raise the teachers and students' awareness of vagueness in human language.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Research on Vagueness Abroad

The study of vagueness in language has a long history. It could be originated from the study of philosophy, as philosophy is the origin and essence of other disciplines. The research on vagueness in philosophy can be traced back to ancient period. Eubulides, a Greek logician and Philosopher, might have been the first person to introduce the concept of vagueness into the study of philosophy. At the end of the nineteenth century, there were three Philosophers: Gottlob Frege, Charles Sanders Peirce and Berrand Russell, whose researches inspired people's great interest in the study of vagueness.

In 1937, Max Black published his Paper *Vagueness*: *An Exercise in Logic Analysis*. This paper can be taken as a kind of transition, and it has transferred the philosophic attention on vagueness to human language. Since then, vagueness has acquired a more positive image. On the other hand, one of Black's leading ideas is that vagueness could be measured in an experimental way, which later becomes the foundation of the fuzzy sets theory of Zadeh from the perspective of philosophy.

Professor Rosch and Williamson from University of Edinburgh studied vagueness from the cognitive perspective. Rosch found out that categorization played an essential role as a typical model in fuzzy set and thus exerting great influence on semantic category. In his book *Vagueness*, Williamson proposed metalanguage vagueness and argued that "People's knowledge was so limited that it couldn't explain the meaning of vagueness in metalanguage (Zhang, 2005)."

In 1965, the American scientist L.A. Zadeh proposed the "fuzzy set theory", which successfully broke through the previous concept of "two-valued logic". Zadeh pointed out that not only objects in the real world but also languages and thought of human beings are always lack of sharply defined boundaries. His theory about vagueness made vagueness become a study of science and has influenced a lot of studies in other fields. Edified by Zadeh's vagueness theory,

American linguist G. Lakoff introduced "fuzzy set theory" into natural language, and he also proposed the concept of ranking from "degree of membership" into "true value" (Lakoff, 1973). McCawley also made great contribution to this research, as he further emphasized the true value of ranking and thus made a more elaborate research on vagueness (McCawley, 1981).

In 2000, Australian linguist Burns tried to study human language and vagueness in human being's concept from the pragmatic perspective. She did researches on how Sorites Paradox resulted in philosophers' confusion, and also made comments on the theories, trying to provide solutions to the problems. She believed that people could figure out some principles of the language vagueness, which gave some directions to the study of vagueness in the pragmatic perspective.

Nowadays, pragmatics has attracted many scholars and linguists' attention, thus tends to become a basically independent discipline. Joanna Channell described the pragmatic functions of vague language in detailed information. She holds the opinion that "understanding vagueness requires hearers to bear not just knowledge of the lexis and grammar of English, but also pragmatic knowledge about how language is used, and how it relates to its settings (Channell, 2000).

In conclusion, the above researches are mainly made by linguists abroad in different fields, from which it is found that their researches mainly focus on the meaning of language vagueness. To be specific, they did researches on vagueness respectively from the view of philosophy, semantics, psychology, cognition and pragmatics, and accordingly promoted prosperous development of language vagueness.

B.   Research on Vagueness in China

The first linguist to study vagueness in China is Professor Wu Tieping, who introduced Zadeh's fuzzy set theory into China in 1975. Since then, Chinese scholars began to show great interest in language vagueness. Wu Tieping pointed out that vagueness is a quite common language phenomenon and he made a very careful study on vague words, such as the vagueness of words for time, color and gender, etc, which has laid a solid foundation for further researches on vagueness.

In the 1990s, Wang Rongpei translated some sections of J. Tylor's *Linguistic Categorization* and S.L. Tsohatzidis' *Meanings and Properties* into Chinese, making linguists in China begin to know the current trend of combination of vague linguistics and cognitive linguistics abroad. Zhang Qiao in *Vague Semantics* also illustrates the academic trend of vague language in overseas countries (Zhang, 1998). Later, Shi Anshi and other scholars have made a detailed study of vague semantics.

He Ziran, Yang Xianyu, Li Zuowen, etc, have discussed the pragmatic functions of language vagueness in daily communication. Yet all these studies are merely limited to vague words, vague sentences, vagueness in discourses or its pragmatic meanings, and pragmatic functions of vague language are seldom touched.

In recent years, many scholars like Chen Yide (2001), Xia Yun (2001), Xiao Yunshu (2001), Yu Jianshu (2000) and Ma Li (2003) have tried to study vagueness from a stylistic point of view, for example, vague rhetoric in poems, application and translation of vague language in law documents, diplomacy, advertisements, literature works, etc.

With the rapid development of applied linguistics, vagueness has drawn people's great attention in English Language Teaching. However, the previous studies merely focus on the vague meaning of words which appeared in the comprehension texts or passages. According to their researches, teachers only mention the surface of vague phrases or expressions in English language teaching, while the use of vague language in communication has been ignored. As a result, teachers, on the whole, fail to arouse students' interest in using vague language.

In fact, the study of pragmatic functions of vague language comprises the effects of using vague expressions and the goals the speakers intend to achieve, both of which must be solved in English Language teaching, because its purpose is to improve the students' communicative competence. Accordingly, the present study of vagueness in English Language Teaching is a new trial and a significant one.

III.   PRAGMATIC FUNCTIONS OF VAGUE LANGUAGE

In classroom communication, teachers and students frequently use vague language, because it has specific pragmatic functions: creating a mild tone, filling lexical gaps, giving the right amount of information, withholding information deliberately. The proper use of vague language is an important strategy for effective classroom communication.

A.   Creating a Mild Tone

In classroom communication, the teachers and students often use vague language to create a mild tone in their speeches in order to be polite and maintain good atmosphere and facilitate the teaching process. It is an important function of vague language, because it can make the utterance more objective and euphemistic. The teachers and students often add plausibility vague language like I think, seem to, may, possible to their speech to weaken the tone of affirmation. The following statement by a teacher may serve as an example.

Teacher: Last time, when I mentioned this word, I saw some students were talking to each other. I think that possibly some students may not know much about this word. Here I would like to emphasize it again...The teacher uses "I think" and "possibly" to make the utterance less assertive and lessen the force of their expression.

B. Filling Lexical Gaps

Sometimes, in classroom communication, teachers or students may not come up with the very word they want to say. That is to say, teachers and students do not know that word or they just forget it. The following utterance of a student may serve as an example.

Student: He is…er…kind of doctor who takes care of people's mental health.

It occurs to us that the student wants to say the word "psychologist". However, either because she does not remember this word, or because she never knows this word anyhow, she uses kind of doctor as a substitute.

In classroom communicative activity, an important function of vague language is to fill the lexical gaps. In the process of learning a foreign language, the application of vague language can assist the learners to say words or convey ideas of which they do not know or precise information is not required. Besides, in this way communication can go smoother and embarrassment avoided.

C. Giving the Right Amount of Information

Grice noticed that speakers appear to tailor their contributions in particular ways, and he pointed out that vague language is just the kind of device which speakers employ to tailor their conversation. For example:

- Oh, what a beautiful dress. How much does it cost, Mary?
- It cost five hundred pound or so.
- It is a good buy.

The approximate number is more often used because it doesn't convey more information than if you knew the exact figure. In this example, even if they knew it cost five hundred and thirty-nine, it won't get them any further.

D. Withholding Information Deliberately

Sometimes, when speaker do not have the intention to offer accurate information, they may resort to vague terms on purpose in order to solve the problem. The utterance of a woman might be a typical example: "I am about 28 years old." The woman seems to withhold her exact age. When questioned, she deliberately chose the figure 28 and added a vague word "about" before it. Since in some cultural tradition, women are kind of sensitive when they are about or a little over thirty.

IV. THE ANALYSIS OF VAGUENESS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

This part focuses on analyzing various vagueness phenomena existing in the whole process of ELT. The teaching process mainly includes English pronunciation, vocabulary, discourse, etc, aiming to raise both the teachers and students' awareness of using vague language.

A. Vagueness in Evaluation

Vagueness in evaluation generally means that teachers should try to use vague expressions to evaluate the students. For example, when talking about a student who is not good at learning, a teacher should say "He/she is working at his/her own level." instead of saying "He/she is a below-average student". When speaking of a student who is not so clever, a teacher should say "He/she can do better with help" instead of saying "He is stupid or a slow learner."

In this way, vague words will be more flexible, and much easier to be accepted by students. And also they will be helpful to protect the students' self-esteem and finally to enhance their self-confidence.

B. Vagueness in Pronunciation

It is known to us that in English there are altogether twelve single vowels. And these twelve single vowels are spoken out from approximate positions of people's organs. However, drawing a clear-cut borderline between the vowels near to each other proves not to be easy. These vowels are vague because of the simple fact that they are decided by high, low, front or back tongue position and also round degree of lips. As a result, it is hard to classify them into different groups. Besides, there is still no clear borderline between vowels and consonants. For instance, [w] and [j] are called semivowels or glides, which possess both the features of vowels and consonants. So whether they belong to vowels or consonants is still vague.

C. Vagueness in Lexics

Vagueness in lexics is very common. There are plenty of vague expressions in English vocabularies. For example, vague words expressing time include spring, summer, autumn, winter; in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening; a few days ago, a few days later; sooner or later; in recent years, in the past few years, etc.

Vague words expressing amount include a large number of, a large amount of, a great many, hundreds of, thousands of, a little, a few, etc. Vague words expressing age comprises the childhood, the juvenile, the young, the middle-aged, the aged, etc.

There are also many pronouns and adverbs denoting vague meanings, such as some, someone, something, anyone, anything, somewhat, somewhere, somehow, about, just, around, kind of, sort of,　possibly, probably, perhaps, almost, nearly, that depends, I'm afraid, generally speaking, so to speak, etc.

From the above vague words or expressions, it is obvious that vagueness is a common phenomenon in English lexics,

thus we should pay special attention to the vague expressions and try to employ them flexibly in communication.

D. Vagueness in Grammar

Concerning vagueness in Grammar, the present tense is typical. Here is an example: this plane takes off at eight o'clock and gets to Beijing airport at ten o'clock.

This sentence has two different senses: one refers to the habitual action that often occurs, stressing time and repeatability; the other refers to the action that will surely happen in the future. Therefore, we may notice that in the above sentence vagueness occurs because of the different borderlines of the time in present tense.

Accordingly, in grammar teaching, teachers should attach importance to its vagueness, so that students will get a comparatively clearer understanding.

E. Vagueness in Discourse

In this section, discourse consists of both text books and literature works.

For the text books, this paper chooses some typical vague expressions from *Advanced English (*Book1 & Book11) according to different text styles.

1. Vagueness in Exposition

Middle Eastern bazaar takes you back hundreds— even thousands— of years.

(Zhang & Wang, 1999, P1. The Middle Eastern Bazaar)

In this sentence, it is not necessary for the vague expression "hundreds—even thousands—of years" to be of exact number, because as readers enters the Middle Eastern Bazaar with the author's depiction, they find the bricks and stones aged, the architecture ancient, and a handicraft economy thriving. However, the author only used one sentence expressing so many details, which shows one of the pragmatic functions of vague language, i.e., to give the right amount of information. Suppose the author described the Middle Eastern Bazaar in a more detailed way, it would break the maxim of quantity. Here it should be noticed that vague language is very useful in expository texts. When teaching this part, if the teacher could introduce some basic pragmatic knowledge, such as vague language and maxim of quantity even cooperative principle, it will be easier for the students to study pragmatics in the future. And meanwhile, they will be more interested in linguistics, which in return will reduce the teacher's task when teaching linguistics.

2. Vagueness in Narration

A wave of cigar smoke accompanied Ogilvie in. When he had followed her to the living room, the Duchess looked pointedly at the half-burned cigar in the fat man's mouth, "My husband and I find strong smoke offensive. Would you kindly put them out." (Zhang & Wang, 1999, P 91. *Blackmail*)

Normally, the Duchess' last sentence "Would you kindly put them out" should end with a question mark instead of a full stop. This falling tone shows that the Duchess is forcing the detective Ogilvie to stop smoking. Pragmatically speaking, the sentence "Would you kindly put them out" is a vague expression. The speaker, the Duchess used passive politeness strategy to save the hearer Ogilvie's passive face. In fact, the Duchess didn't welcome Ogilvie at all. This sentence shows that the speaker's vague expressions are properly used to achieve power and politeness.

When learning this part, teachers could first introduce the pragmatic function of vague language, its power and politeness, to the students. And after that, some other pragmatic functions of vague language in narration (mainly in conversation) could also be explained to the students. With a good understanding and mastery of pragmatic functions of vague language, the students will be likely to find and analyze some other vague expressions in the text by themselves.

3. Vagueness in Prose

The Colonel, who is not too offensively an Empire-builder, sometimes tries to talk to me about public affairs; he says he used to read me, and is rather charmingly deferential, prefacing his remarks "Of course it's not for me to suggest to you…" and then proceeding to tell me exactly how he thinks some topical item of our domestic or foreign policy should be handled He is by no means stupid or ill-informed: a little opinionated perhaps, and just about as far to the Right as anybody could go, but I like him, and try not to tease him by putting forward views which would only bring a puzzle look to his face. Besides I do not want to become involved in discussion. I observe with amusement how totally the concerns of the world, which once absorbed me to the exclusion of all else except an occasional relaxation with poetry or music, have lost interest for me even to the extent of a bred distaste. (Zhang & Wang, 1999, P 289. *No Signposts in the Sea*)

In the above paragraph, a lot of English hedges, which are the core of vague language, have been employed. To be more specific, "by no means", "a little", "just", "anybody" are alterable hedges, which clearly show the degree and scope of the description. The author uses these alterable hedges to describe the characteristics of the Colonel, so as to give the readers a more objective impression of the Colonel.

Besides, some mitigating hedges such as "Of course", "Perhaps" help to make a direct guess or evaluation of the Colonel, so as to help the readers get more familiar with him.

4. Vagueness in Public Speeches

The main characteristic of public speeches lies in its appeal and implicitness, which are achieved by the speakers' vague thinking pattern. In their speeches, the speakers usually use vague language intentionally to set up certain artistic conception to express strong emotion, which cannot be achieved by using exact description. Let's take the inaugural address given by President Kennedy as an example:

To our sister republics south of our border, we offer a special pledge: to convert our good words into good deeds，in a new alliance for progress, to assist free men and free governments in casting off the chains of poverty.

In the above sentence, Kennedy chose the ordinary word "sister" from thousands of English vocabularies. Of course he intended to express his implied meaning. As is known to all, America has already been a powerful and dominant country in the world at that time. And many small undeveloped counties were afraid of America and intended to be "loved" by America. Kennedy was quite clear about that, so he used the word "sister", to modify "republics". In this way, he did not only cover America's ambition of dominating the whole world but also left a good impression to those small undeveloped countries. The word "special" also has a vague and implied meaning. Seen from the surface, American government was quite generous and willing to offer help. As a matter of fact, it shows that America always regards itself as No. l, and thus merely considers its invasion and deprivation of those small countries as a special policy. Here we may notice that Kennedy is a very careful and smart speaker, who is good at the choice of vague words.

5. Vagueness in Literature

In literary works, if vague language can be used properly, they would certainly have some aesthetic values, which will be missed if there is not any vague language at all. Sometimes, too much exactness or precision would change or even destroy the beautiful values of literature works. The famous Chinese linguist Wu Tieping holds that there will be no literary works at all without vague language, and this is believed to be the key and essence of modern literary works.

For many years, love has been a topic explored by millions of writers or poets. However, it is not easy for them to give an exact definition of love. It is obvious that it should not be touched upon directly and mechanically, for that will destroy the beauty of poems. For instance, in William Shakespeare's Sonnet18, the poet compared his lover to a summer's day as well as the sun in the eye of heaven. By employing some other vague expressions, such as "more temperate" more lovely, etc. William Shakespeare has vividly described the inner feeling of a man who admired and cherished love for his beautiful girl. Therefore, by using vague expressions and necessary similes or metaphors, the poet has successfully portrayed a vivid and lovely figure to his readers.

To sum up, the above section analyzes the functions of vague language both in text books and literary works for English majors. From the above analysis, we may find that vague language is not only widely used in spoken language such as in daily communications, but also in written language such as in the literary works.

V. IMPLICATIONS OF VAGUENESS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

We know that vague language is very common both in text books and literary works from the last part, now the present paper is to probe into its pragmatic functions in real teaching environment and to find out how it benefit teachers and students. In teaching practices, teachers and students may face with various unpredictable circumstances where vagueness may come to our rescue. To a certain extent, the adoption of vague language may sometimes work out wonders for them.

A. Benefiting Students

1. Appreciating the Beauty of Vagueness

The use of vague language can not only achieve aesthetic effect, but also develop student' imagination. The well-known monologue in Shakespeare's famous play *Hamlet* may serve as a convincing example:

"To be, or not to be — that is a question."

Owing to their different experiences, characters and insights, students' perception of Hamlet may vary. In other words, people hold different versions of Hamlet in their mind. In their teaching practice, what teachers should do is that they should nurture students' ability in appreciating language beauty.

Besides, some rhetoric effects can be achieved through the use of vague language. Let's take the following two sentences as examples:

a. The enemy soldiers were scared like anything.

b. He is ten times the man you are.

Sentence **a** achieves the effect of exaggeration, and sentence **b** gains the effect of emphasis. Students, under the guidance of their teachers, should acquire the use of vague language so that they can speak and write more effectively, even humorously.

2. Achieving a Better Understanding of Culture

In their learning of a foreign language, students may attach great importance to speech sounds, intonation, vocabulary, grammar, etc. They may neglect differences between their native and foreign cultural traditions. It has been acknowledged that spoken words or written words convey only part of the meaning, and the remaining part is conveyed either through conversational implicature or culture background. Therefore, teachers should remind their students of the employment of vague language whenever it is possible.

3. Saving Face

In classroom activity, students make errors all the time, instead of criticizing them point-blank, teachers may choose some fuzzy terms to alleviate their judging utterance. The following utterance of a teacher may give us some enlightenment.

These days, I found **most** of the students **behave well** in the composition assignment, yet **some** of you did not pay

much attention to what I have told you in class, and their compositions leave **a lot** to be improved.

In this utterance, "these days", "most", "behave well", "some", "much" and "a lot" are resorted to in demonstrating the problems of the students, thus students' faces are saved. In other words, such utterances as "most of the students behaved well in this dictation, only some of you leave a lot to be desired" and "I would suggest that you practice more after class" are all very useful for teachers to save students faces.

B.   Benefiting Teachers

1. Creating a Comfortable Atmosphere

When asking questions, teachers may resort to some demonstrative pronouns to allay the students' nervousness and stimulate their participation. For instance, teachers may habitually say "Any volunteers?" Owing to the reserved character of the Chinese students, they tend to act passively in class, and they seldom speak out their minds aloud in public. Through the employment of vague terms, students are entitled with the right to choose to participate or not. Teachers create a comfortable classroom atmosphere tactically.

2. Comforting the Students

When teachers give students assignment, vague language are frequently used to reduce the difficulty, which could, to some degree, lessen students' rejecting mood so that it could arouse students' interest in finishing the assignments willingly instead of reluctantly. Teacher may use "I am afraid, I think, I would, etc." in their evaluation of the students' classroom activities or in their assessment of students' homework. The following remarks may be of value, "I think you may sum up the main idea in this way…", "I would suggest you practice more after class", "if you speak a bit louder, it would be much better". Suggestions like that would be more agreeable and acceptable to the students. Thus, teaching objectives are more likely to be achieved.

3. Coping with Abruptness

Though teachers make careful plans for every task beforehand, a certain unexpected changes are bound to happen in actual teaching practice. Consequently, the allocated time for each task needs proper adjustment. Under this circumstance, such fuzzy terms as "about", "approximately", "at least", "at most", "or so", "under", "over", etc. could be used. Let's take the following instruction of a teacher as an example:

Now class, I wi11 give you about 5 minutes to discuss this topic. And then I wi11 ask 2 or 3 of you to present their ideas. As there are 50 students or so in our class, I would divide you into 13 groups, about 4 in each group.

By using these vague terms, this teacher carried out his classroom activity more effectively and flexibly.

4. Avoiding Awkwardness

In actual teaching practice, teachers at times may fail to come up with the very word or expression they wish to use. In this case, they may turn to vague terms as a way out. A teacher, for instance, gave the following statement when she forgot a word, "When it is on fire, people usually use, umm…er…kind of tool which contains dry ice and is often seen in the wall in public place to put out fire." We realize the word this teacher wanted to say is "fire-extinguisher". This teacher forgets the exact word for "fire-extinguisher"; with the help of his explanation, some top students may speak out the right word "fire-extinguisher". Thus, the teacher saves his own face.

To sum up, teachers should develop students' awareness of the vague property of language; effective use of it can benefit them greatly.

C.   Possible Suggestions for Teaching Vague Language

1. Teaching Vague Language with Reference to Chinese

As a Chinese student, Chinese will more or less interfere with the study of a foreign language. Chinese will certainly influence the learning process. The learner will resort to Chinese when they have difficulty in expressing their idea or understanding something. In this circumstance, we can make full use of Chinese in the learning process. That is to say, we can learn the use of vague language through Chinese. Speakers can understand the pragmatic rules of their own language and know what is proper and what is improper in the communication. This can be applied to both Chinese and a foreign language. The same phenomenon exists in the two languages. On the one hand, learning vague language is a part of pragmatic competence. In Chinese, hedges like "大概", "有点", "稍微", "很", "我认为", "可能", "据说"…are used very frequently. Teachers should make the students aware that the use of vagueness is important and necessary in expressing certain meanings. Sometimes the use of vagueness is more proper than the exact expression. And this applies to Chinese as well as English. On the other hand, Chinese is much different from English. Sometimes a speech considered polite and proper in Chinese might not be so in English. Therefore, when teaching students, teachers should make a comparison of the vague language in English and Chinese. In this way, students distinguish the difference and make full use of the similarities between English and Chinese. In this way, students may have a better command of vague language.

2. Practice Based on the Text

In order to use a foreign language appropriately and politely, learners should know a lot about the vague language and how to use them to express their ideas successfully. After that, the students should make a lot of practice. Practice based on the text fragments is one way to make better use of vague language. Teachers could make good use of the vague language in the text and explain the usage and functions in detail, and help the students use vague language properly in communication. Some steps are as follows: students are required to find out the vague items used in the text

and classify them according to the pragmatic classification. Then they are asked to discuss the pragmatic functions of the items. Finally, they are required to remove all the vague items in the text and see what effect will be achieved without the use of those items.

3. Teaching Vague Language by Introduction of Culture

Language and culture are closely related with each other. When we study a language, we should take the culture into consideration. It is the same case with the study of vagueness. What is appropriate in one culture may not be appropriate in another culture, so teachers should give due weight to culture when teaching the proper use of vagueness.

There are a lot of differences between English and Chinese culture, and it is reflected in the two languages. Sometimes, students may not make any grammatical mistakes when they say something, but their speech may be inappropriate or they may not be able to be understood by others. In the process of teaching or learning a language, we should have a thorough understanding of different cultures to ensure the successful communication. Teachers may present the students with a full picture of the English culture. When they communicate with others, they are more likely to choose the proper way of talking.

VI. Summary

Vague language is very common in English learning and plays an important role in English language teaching. A study of vague language from the pragmatic perspective is something novel, and it may be beneficial to English Language Teaching, for a good command of some pragmatic functions of vague language and a full awareness of using vague language will not only facilitate teachers' teaching practice but also improve students' communicative competence as well. Through analyzing the pragmatic function of vagueness, various language vagueness phenomena existing in the whole process of English language teaching and its functions, the present paper comes up with some suggestions for the teaching of vague language. It is hoped that it may be beneficial to English language teaching.

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A Contrastive Analysis of Patterns of Grammatical Collocations between the English "Animal Farm" and Its Azeri Turkish Translation

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Abstract—The present study investigates the patterns of English and Azeri Turkish grammatical collocations in the original English novella "Animal Farm" and its Turkish translation. The specific objective of this study is to identify the similarities and differences of the patterns of English and Azeri Turkish grammatical collocations. To answer the research questions of the study, grammatical collocations throughout the English novella have been identified and categorized on the basis of Benson's (1986b) categorization of English grammatical collocations. The classified English collocations were then compared and contrasted with their Turkish correspondences. As a result of comparison and contrast of these collocations in English and Turkish it became clear that the word order patterns in the grammatical collocations of these two languages are different in most cases. Accordingly, on the basis of the strong version of contrastive analysis it is predicted that learning English grammatical collocations will be troublesome for Iranian Azeri Turkish speakers.

Index Terms—collocation, grammatical collocation, lexical collocation

I. INTRODUCTION

Collocation is the co-occurrence of words in every natural language. Analyzing languages from different aspects reveals similarities and differences in their structure, grammar, lexis, etc. The differences between languages and the way in which words appear with each other urges the translator to pay special attention to the differences between the languages, their collocations, and patterns of collocations in order to produce a natural and clear translation.

Collocation has gained a high degree of attention over the last decades. Different researchers have focused on various aspects of collocation and have provided definitions and classifications of it. The notion of collocation was first introduced by Firth (1957) who has stated that "you shall know a word by the company it keeps" (p. 168). Firth (1957) has defined collocation "as part of the meaning of a word" (as cited in Carter, 1998). Laufer - Dvorkin (1991, p.19) has pointed out that "knowing a word implies the knowledge of possible combinations into which a given item can enter. Such combinations are called collocations." She (1991) has also mentioned that "collocations are problematic when their meaning is apparent at first glance but their constituent elements cannot be given their translation equivalents" (p.19).

The present study intends to investigate the notion and characteristics of English grammatical collocations and their Azeri Turkish translations. It also aims at identifying the similarities and differences of these collocations in structure and pattern. Specifically, this study addresses the following questions:

1. Is there any changes in the *word order* of grammatical collocations in the process of translating them from English into Turkish?

2. Is the classification of English grammatical collocations different from Turkish ones?

The study further aims to identify the similarities and differences between the order and patterns of English grammatical collocations selected from the English novella "Animal farm" and its Turkish translation. It is hoped that findings of the present study will be of use for novice translators and students of EFL who are engaged in the translation of collocation. The results of this study will hopefully also be beneficial for those who want to get familiar with how words co-occur in Turkish.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Collocation

The term collocation is used to refer to specific words which co-occur with each other in particular ways and following specific patterns which may be different from language to language. Below, we will give a brief account of some of the observations by different scholars on collocation.

Cruse (1986) has defined collocation as "sequences of lexical items which habitually co-occur, but which are nonetheless fully transparent in the sense that each lexical constituent is also a semantic constituent" (p.40). *Fine weather, light drizzle, high winds,* and *torrential rain* are examples of collocations provided by Cruse (1986, p. 40). *Cruse (1986) has also stated that collocations are distinct from idioms in that collocations have a kind of semantic cohesion and "constituent elements are, to varying degrees, mutually selective" (p.40).*

Sinclair (1991) has pointed out that "collocation is the co-occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text. The usual measure of proximity is a maximum of four words intervening" (p.170).

Smadja (1993, p.143) has defined collocation as "recurrent combinations of words that co-occur more often than expected by chance and that corresponds to arbitrary word usages." He (1993) has also argued that all natural languages make use of collocations.

Carter (1998) has described collocation as "a group of words which occur repeatedly in a language" (p.51). According to him (1998), these patterns of co-occurrence can be either grammatical or lexical.

Larson (1998, p.155) has observed that collocation "is concerned with how words go together, i.e., which words may occur in constructions with which other words." According to Larson (1998), combination of some words with each other may occur often, others occasionally, and some others rarely. Larson (1998) has referred to the meaning of the word 'collocate' as "to put side by side" (p.155). He has also maintained that words may collocate with each other in different ways across languages.

Moon (1998) has argued that languages are strongly patterned and words occur in specific lexicogrammatical patterns. She (1998) has continued that "collocation typically donates frequently repeated or statistically significant co-occurrences, whether or not there are any special semantic bound between collocating items" (p.26). According to her (1998), collocations are lexical evidences which indicate that words are not combined randomly, but follow certain rules and principles.

Hatim and Munday (2004) have defined collocation as "the way that words are typically used together" (p.249). They (2004) have provided two examples of collocation which are pretty woman and handsome man and have maintained that they are examples of typical (strong) collocation in English. They (2004) have further conveyed that this does not imply that handsome woman and pretty man are impossible but they are rather very unusual or marked. Marked collocations as in the example of Hatim and Munday (2004) can be used for the purpose of humor.

Martelli (2007) still another scholar has stated that:

The term collocation is used to indicate the repeated co-occurrence of lexical items. The main assumption behind the idea of collocation is that some words attract each other thus forming natural sounding combinations while other combinations, although acceptable from a syntactic and semantic point of view, are not considered acceptable and are not used. (p.11)

Finally, Cowie (2009, p.49) has mentioned that "a collocation is memorized as a lexical unity, but at the same time it is typically divided in two, both semantically and grammatically." In another definition Cowie (2009) has pointed out that "collocations are combinations of two or more lexical items in a grammatical pattern in which one is used in a literal sense and the other in a figurative sense" (p.122).

B. Classification of Collocation

Collocation has been studied from different perspectives and accordingly different classifications have been provided by scholars. Since the present study is on the basis of Benson, Benson, and Ilson's (1986b) classification of English collocations, the summary of their work is provided here.

Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1986 as cited in Chaun Li, 2005, p.7) have introduced two types of collocations: *lexical* and *grammatical* collocations. According to this classification, lexical collocations are combinations of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs and are further divided into seven types. Grammatical collocations on the other hand contain a dominant word, such as a noun, a verb, or an adjective and a preposition or grammatical structure. Grammatical collocations are further divided into eight types. Table I provides classification of English grammatical collocations by Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1986b).

TABLE I.
GRAMMATICAL COLLOCATION ACCORDING TO BENSON, BENSON, AND ILSON(1986B)

Type	Pattern	Example
G1	Noun + Preposition	a blockade against, a claim for, a pride in
G2	Noun + to + Infinitive	an attempt to do it
G3	Noun + that-clause	He took an oath that he would do his duty.
G4	Preposition + Noun	by accident, in advance
G5	Adjective+ preposition	angry at, full of, fond of
G6	Adjective + to + Infinitive	ready to go, heavy to lift
G7	Adjective + that-clause	She was afraid that she would fail the exam.
G8(A)	Verb+ direct object+ to+ indirect object= V + indirect O + direct O	She sent the book to him. = She sent him the book.
G8(B)	Verb + direct O + to + indirect O	They mentioned the book to her.
G8(C)	Verb + direct O + for + indirect O = Verb + indirect O + direct O	She bought a shirt for her husband = She bought her husband a shirt.
G8(D)	Verb + preposition + Object	They came by train. call at, protest against
G8(d)	Verb + O + preposition + O	We invited them to the meeting.
G8(E)	Verb + to + Infinitive	She continued to work.
G8(F)	Verb + bare infinitive	Mary had better go.
G8(G)	Verb + V-ing	They enjoy watching TV.
G8(H)	Verb + Object + to Infinitive	We forced them to leave.
G8(I)	Verb + Object + infinitive	She heard them leave.
G8(J)	Verb + Object + V-ing	He felt his heart beating.
G8(K)	Verb + a possessive + V-ing	I cannot image their staling apples.
G8(L)	Verb + that clause	The doctor suggests me that I take Vitamins.
G8(M)	Verb + O + to be + Complement	We consider her to be well-trained.
G8(N)	Verb + O + Complement	She dyed her hair red.
G8(O)	Verb + Object1 + Object2	The teacher asked the pupil a question.
G8(P)	Verb + (O) + Adverbial	He carried himself well.
G8(Q)	Verb + (O) + wh-clause/ wh-phrase	She asked why we had come.
G8(R)	It + Verb + Object + to infinitive	It surprised me to learn of her decision.
	It + V + Object + that-clause	It surprised me that our offer was rejected.
G8(S)	V + Complement (Adjective or Noun)	He was a teacher.
G8(s)	V + Complement (Adjective)	The food tastes good.

Adapted from Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1986b, as cited in Chaun Li, 2005, p.8)

C. Azeri Turkish

As mentioned earlier the present study aims at investigating the similarities and differences between patterns of grammatical collocations in English and Azeri Turkish. As a result, a description of the later language is provided here. Azeri Turkish is one of the dominant languages spoken in Iran. It belongs to the agglutinative family of Ural-Altaic languages and is believed to be one of the major offsprings of the south western Oghuz languages. Anatolian or

Ottoman Turkish is the other major subdivision which is spoken in Turkey. Katamba (2006) has stated that Turkish is considered to be one of the agglutinating languages in which there is "a more or less one-to-one matching of morphemes with morphs" (p.61). He (2006, p. 59) has provided an example of this feature of Turkish:

el	'the hand'	elimde	'in my hand'
elim	'my hand'	ellerim	'my hands'
eler	'the hands'	ellerimde	'in my hands'

Morpheme: 'hand'   plural   1st person positive   'in'

Morph: el   ler   im   de

Berengian (2006) has used the term "*Azerbaijani*" as a branch and descendent of *Oghuz Turkic*. She (2006) has stated that the oldest use of the term Azerbaijani referring to a unique language goes back to 10th to 13th century. When in the 19th century, the study of Eastern languages drew the attention of western scholars the term Azerbaijani was used to represent Oghuz Turkic or Azerbaijani Turkish.

Different dialects of Turkish language are widely spoken in many parts of Iran. This language is also spoken in the republic of Azerbaijan, Turkey, southern Dagestan, Armenia, Estonia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Russia, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Afghanistan, Iraq, Jordan, Syria, and even USA. Mohammad Panaah (2008, p. 4) has observed that the number of people speaking Turkish goes beyond 200 million, who are living in different countries from east of Siberia to Balkans in Europe. Nowadays in the republic of Azerbaijan Turkish language is written in Roman alphabet. However, in Iran infinitesimal numbers of Azeris have been able to develop the ability to read and write in their mother tongue since the language of education in this country is Farsi. Therefore, in Iran Turkish, if at all, is written in Farsi alphabet which is a version of Arabic orthography.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. The Present Study

The present study attempts to investigate the similarities and differences between patterns of grammatical collocations in English and Azeri Turkish. To achieve the objective of this study, grammatical collocations have been selected from the original English novella "Animal Farm" and categorized on the basis of Benson's (1998b) classification of English grammatical collocations. The corresponding Turkish counterparts were then identified in the Turkish translation and were next compared and contrasted with the English collocations. Before presenting the analyses of the extracted data, a brief definition of the materials and procedures applied in this research seems necessary.

B. Method

This study aimed at extracting English grammatical collocations from the original English novella on the basis of Benson's (1998b) classification of English grammatical collocations and comparing and contrasting them with their Azeri Turkish translations.

C. Source Materials

In order achieve the objective of this study, the English Novella "Animal Farm" by George Orwell was selected as the source material and its grammatical collocations were compared and contrasted with its translation by Vilayat Quliyev into Azeri Turkish. The Azeri Turkish version of this book used in this research was edited and published by Akbar Rahimzad Faraci in 2010 under the title of "Heyvanlar Qalasi" by Akhtar publishing house in Tabriz, Iran.

D. Procedures

English grammatical collocations in the original English novella were identified and categorized on the basis of Benson's (1986) category of English collocations and with resort to English dictionaries of collocations. The corresponding Turkish items were then identified in the Azeri Turkish translation. The next step was to utilize Turkish dictionaries in order to ascertain the parts of speech of different components of the categorized collocations. Finally, the classified English grammatical collocations and their Azeri Turkish translations were compared and contrasted to reveal the similarities and differences between their patterns and word order.

IV. ANALYSIS

To achieve the objective of the present study, grammatical collocations throughout the original novella have been identified and categorized based on Benson's (1986b) category of collocation. That is to say 734 grammatical collocations have been extracted from the text and placed in 27 related categories. Comparing and contrasting these collocations with their Turkish equivalents revealed some similarities and differences in their patterns and word order. Table II presents the patterns of English grammatical collocations in the original English novella and the most frequent patterns in which Turkish collocations appeared in the Turkish translation. It also summarizes the similarities and

differences which have been observed in comparison and contrast of patterns of English and Turkish grammatical collocations.

English→ Turkish
1) G1: Noun + Preposition→ Preposition + Noun
2) G2: Noun +to+ Infinitive →Infinitive +Noun
3) G3: Noun + that-clause→ Noun + Clause
4) G4: Preposition + Noun → Noun + Preposition
5) G5: Adjective + Preposition→ Preposition +Adjective
6) G6: Adjective+ to+ infinitive → Infinitive+ Verb
7) G7: Adjective + that-clause → clause + verb
8) G8(A): Verb+ direct O+ to +indirect O = Verb+ indirect O + direct O → Direct O+ Indirect O+ Verb
9) G8(B): Verb+ direct O+ to +indirect O → Direct O+ Indirect O +Verb
10) G8(C): Verb+ direct O+ to +indirect O → Indirect O+ Direct O +Verb
11) G8(D): Verb+ preposition+ Object → Object +Preposition +Verb
12) G8(d): Verb+ O+ preposition+ O→ Object 1 +Object2 +Verb
13) G8(E): Verb + to+ Infinitive→ Infinitive + Verb
14) G8(F): Verb + Bare infinitive→ Infinitive + Verb
15) G8(G): Verb+ V-ing→ Verb2 + Verb1
16) G8(H): Verb+ Object+ to+ infinitive→ Object+ Infinitive+ Verb
17) G8(I): Verb+ Object+ infinitive→ Object+ Verb+ Infinitive
18) G8(J): Verb+ Object+ Verb-ing→ Object+ Verb2+ Verb1
19) G8(L): Verb+ that clause→ Clause + Verb
20) G8(M): Verb+ Object+ to be+ Complement→ Object + Complement + Verb
21) G8(N): Verb+ Object+ Complement→ Object + Complement + Verb
22) G8(O): Verb+ Object1+ Object2→ Object1+ Object2+Verb
23) G8(P): Verb+ Object+ Adverbial→ Object+ Verb (instead of adverbial) + Verb 1
24) G8(Q): V + Object + Wh-clause/ Wh-phrase→ Clause + Verb
25) G8(R): It+ Verb+ Object+ to+ Infinitive→ Infinitive +Object+ Verb
26) G8(S): Verb+ Complement→ Complement +Verb
27) G8(s): Verb+ Complement → Complement +Verb

As presented in table II, the differences in the orders of the words which constitute the English and Turkish grammatical collocations indicate that grammatical collocations in English and Turkish follow different patterns and in almost all of the categories we face an alteration of word order. The only exception in which English and Turkish grammatical collocations seem to follow similar patterns is grammatical collocation type 3. It can therefore be concluded that among 27 categories of English grammatical collocations extracted from the original English novella and its Azeri Turkish translation, 26 categories followed different patterns in these two languages.

Since the number of grammatical collocations which were studied in this research was high, only some examples are provided here to present the similar and different patterns in which English and Turkish grammatical collocations appear. Tables III and IV present examples of grammatical collocations type 3 and type 8(D) selected at random with similar and different patterns in English and Turkish respectively. It is worth mentioning that in this research LC transliteration system is used in order to transliterate Azeri Turkish collocations.

English (Noun + that-clause)	Turkish (Noun + Clause)
1. The very day (noun) that the great muscles of yours lose their power, Jones will sell you to a knacker	١. ز امان کئچه جک، قووتلی عضله لرین گۆجدن دوشنده جونس تردود ائتمه دن سنی سالاقخانایا ساتاجاق zāmān (noun) ke ça cak,quvvatdi az ülalarīn gücdan düşanda Jones taraddüd etma`dan sani sālāq xānāyā sātācāk (clause)
2. Do you give me your word of honor (noun) that that man was not stroking your nose?	٢. ناموسونا آند ایچه بیلرسنمی کی، همین آدام سنین بورنونو قاشیمایيب؟ nāmusunā (noun) ānd īça bīlar sanmī kī, hamīn ādām sanīn burnunu qāşimāyib (clause)

Grammatical collocation type3 happened 16 times in the original English novella. Comparing and contrasting these collocations with their Turkish equivalents showed that 10 of these collocations were translated into Turkish with the nouns at the beginning and the clauses in question followed them. There were also instances where the clauses were placed at the beginning and the nouns were following them or the nouns were totally deleted. In addition, the analysis revealed that, the Turkish version did not have the corresponding word to the English THAT. However, since the frequency of nouns followed by clauses is more than clauses followed by nouns it can be inferred that in Turkish, this type of collocation follows a similar pattern as the one in English.

TABLE IV.
EXAMPLES OF ENGLISH AND TURKISH GRAMMATICAL COLLOCATIONS TYPE 8(D)

English (Verb+ preposition+ Object)	Turkish (Object +Preposition +Verb)
1. …have gone to the market…	bāzārā (object) göndarīb (v) ۱. بازاراگوندریلیب
2. …sprang from his place…	yerīn (object) dan qālxdi (v) ۲. یئریندن قالخدی
3. …remained on his foot…	۳. آرخا آیاقلاری اوزرینده گزیشیردی ārxā āyāqlāri (object) özarīnda gazīşīrdī(v)

The total number of grammatical collocations type 8(D) in the original novella was 82, among which 76 instances in Azeri Turkish appeared to follow a pattern of "object + preposition + verb". Since the order of this collocation in English is "verb +preposition+ object", it can be realized that collocations of this type follow different patterns in English and Turkish.

V. RESULTS

Attempts have been made in the present study to identify, classify, and compare and contrast English grammatical collocations with their Azeri Turkish translations to find out how English grammatical collocations are translated into Turkish.

Specifically, the purpose of this study was to identify and classify English grammatical collocations throughout the original English novella "Animal Farm" and compare and contrast them with their Azeri Turkish translation so as to discover the potential similarities and differences of their patterns of occurrence. To arrive at the objective of this study, 734 English and Turkish grammatical collocations were identified and categorized into 27 categories based on Benson's (1986b) classification of English collocations. (See table II above). Results from comparing and contrasting these collocations with their Turkish equivalents made it clear that the word order pattern changes in 26 categories of grammatical collocations between these two languages. The only category in which the words tend to appear in a similar order in English and Turkish grammatical collocations is grammatical collocation type 3.

Consequently, it can be concluded that:

1. The word order in 26 categories of grammatical collocations changes in the translation of English grammatical collocations into Turkish and grammatical collocations in these two languages appear to follow different patterns in most cases.

2. Since the grammatical collocations in English and Turkish follow different word orders and patterns, it can be concluded that the classification of grammatical collocations in English and Turkish is different from one another. The only exception in which English and Turkish grammatical collocations appear to follow a similar pattern and fall into similar classification is grammatical collocation type3.

VI. CONCLUSION

Analyzing the extracted data and comparing and contrasting grammatical collocations in English "Animal Farm" and its Turkish translation "Heyvanalr Qalasi", it became clear that English and Turkish grammatical collocations tend to appear in different patterns and orders. In other words the number of instances in which differences were observed among patterns of these collocations was much more than the cases in which similarities were detected. This indicates that the collocational patterns and the way in which words appear with each other in these two languages are different. Only one category of English and Turkish grammatical collocations appeared in a more or less similar pattern which was grammatical collocation type 3. Therefore, according to the strong version of contrastive analysis it can be predicted that learning English grammatical collocations will be troublesome for Iranian Azeri Turkish speakers.

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William Blake and His Poem "London"

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Abstract—This paper gives a detailed introduction to William Blake, a versatile poet, dramatist, artist, engraver, and publisher; and the most original romantic poet as well as painter and printmaker of the 18th century. Then his works are also introduced according to time order among which two of his collections of poems, i.e. "the songs of innocence" and "the songs of experiences" are given special attention. The features and comments on his works are introduced and demonstrated in his most famous poem "London", from "the songs of experiences". The paper analyzes the various technical features in this poem respectively—key image and three encounters around which the whole poem is centered; symbolism and capitalization which are used a lot in it; the choice and repetition of words which enhance the theme of the poem; and the rhyme and rhythm which give the poem a musical pattern. And then a conclusion is made that through these features, William Blake did achieve an overall impact which convey the horror and injustice that was London.

Index Terms—William Blake, London, technical features, image, capitalization, repetition, rhyme and rhythm

I. An Introduction to William Blake

A. William Blake's Life

William Blake was a versatile poet, dramatist, artist, engraver, and publisher. He was the most independent and the most original romantic poet as well as painter and printmaker of the 18th century. He was born in November 1757 in London. Among the seven children in his family, he was the third one. His father, James, an Irish man, ran a hosiery business. When he was only ten years old, he left school where he had learned reading and writing. Then his mother Catherine Wright Armitage Blake taught him at home. Blake was baptised at St James's Church, and Bible had a profound influence on Blake, and remained a source of inspiration throughout his life (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/William_Blake, May, 2013).

At home, his father bought him some Greek antiquities and he began engraving copies of drawings of them. In these drawings Blake had his first chance to get to know the classical forms through the work of Raphael, Michelangelo, Marten Heemskerk and Albrecht Dürer(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/William_Blake, May, 2013). He was sent to a drawing school at the age of ten. He studied his favorite subjects actively and it was in this period that Blake made his first explorations in poetry.

At 15, in the year 1772, William Blake became apprenticed to engraver James Basire of Great Queen Street, for the term of seven years. He was once sent by Basire to copy the Gothic churches in London. His experiences in Westminster Abbey helped him a lot in forming his own artistic style and his own ideas. At the age of 21, he ended his apprenticeship and he began graving on his own. He started being a professional engraver.

In 1779, he was enrolled as a student for six years at the school of the Royal Academy of Arts. Although the terms of his studying there were tuition free, he had to pay for all the daily expenses by himself for all the six years. In the school, he got to learn the styles of many famous and fashionable painters among whom Rubens' style was considered by him as unfinished and he rebelled against it. But the school's first president, Joshua Reynolds, championed his style. Over time, Blake came to detest Reynolds' attitude towards art, especially his pursuit of "general truth" and "general beauty". Reynolds wrote in his *Discourses* that the "disposition to abstractions, to generalizing and classification, is the great glory of the human mind"; Blake responded, in marginalia to his personal copy, that "To Generalize is to be an Idiot; To Particularize is the Alone Distinction of Merit". Blake also disliked Reynolds' apparent humility, which he held to be a form of hypocrisy. Against Reynolds' fashionable oil painting, Blake preferred the Classical precision of his early influences, Michelangelo and Raphael (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/William_Blake, May, 2013).

In 1782, when he was 24 he married Catherine Boucher, the daughter of a market gardener. William not only taught Catherine to read and write, but he also trained her as an engraver. It turned out that his wife was of great help to his career. She gave him invaluable assistant in his works and endless spiritual support in his misfortunes. She assisted with the printing and hand coloring of his poems. They worked together to publish the "songs of innocence" in a "DIY" way which is quite popular today, in which William engraved his poems and paintings on the bronze board and Catherine helped with coloring and binding. But their works didn't sell well and their efforts earned him neither money nor reputation because their works were not appreciated by many people at the time. Despite the poverty and hardships, they insisted on publishing their works on their own instead of signing contracts with any publishers. His works hadn't got the attention they deserved before he died.

B. William Blake's Works

1. General introduction to his works.

Between his 12th and his 20th years he had written poems. These poems were printed around the year 1783 under the title of "Poetical Sketches" , which was his first collection of poems. In 1784, after his father died, William Blake and his former fellow apprentice, James Parker opened a print shop, and they began to operate with the well-known publisher Joseph Johnson, among whose cooperators there are many big names and excellent artists like John Flaxman, Thomas Stothard and George Cumberland. He became friends with many of them during his first year at the Royal Academy. They shared radical views, with Stothard and Cumberland joining the Society for Constitutional Information. Along with William Wordsworth and William Godwin, Blake had great hopes for the French and American revolutions but despaired with the rise of Robespierre and the Reign of Terror in France. In 1784 Blake composed his unfinished manuscript *An Island in the Moon* (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/William_Blake, May, 2013).

After 1788 he published several collections of poems, "There Is No Natural Religion" and "All Religions Are one" were written by him in about 1788. He wrote poems and printed "The song of Experiences" in 1789 and then etched his earliest "Prophetic Books", "The Book of Thel". Blake illustrated <u>Original Stories from Real Life</u> (1788; 1791) by Mary Wollstonecraft. They seem to have shared some views on sexual equality and the institution of marriage. In 1793's <u>Visions of the Daughters of Albion</u>, Blake condemned the cruel absurdity of enforced chastity and marriage without love and defended the right of women to complete self-fulfillment. In 1780s and 1790s the influence of American Revolution and French Revolution spread to Europe, and the fight against colonialism and feudalism was also widespread in England. During the years 1788-1793 Blake blended a lot with the political radicals and the social reformers at that time. As early as 1789, Blake wrote "French Revolution" and Prophetic Book". In 1790, "The Marriage of Heaven and Hell". In 1793, Blake issued a "Prospectus, To the Public". In 1794, "The Songs of Innocence" was published again, together with "The Songs of Experience". In 1804, Blake started to etch both "Milton" and "Jerusalem". Blake's poetry has generally been divided into two groups:

(1)Lyrical poems: "Poetical Sketches"(1783); "The Songs of Innocence"(1789);"The Songs of Experience" (1794)

(2)Prophetic Books contain:"Tiriel"(1789);"The Book of Thel"(1789);"Milton"(1808);"Jerusalem"(1818);"The Ghost of Abel"(1822).

2. "The Songs of Innocence" and "The song of Experiences"

"The Songs of Innocence" shows Blake's advance in his artistic achievement as a poet, though some poems are not serious and thought-provoking. The appeal seems to be chiefly to children, and most of the poems in the collection have a strange, simple beauty both in their themes and their language and verse form and rhythm. It is a volume of lovely poems, depicting a enjoyable and innocent world with its evils and sufferings. However, in "The little black boy" and "The chimney sweeper", we find racial discrimination and sufferings of the poor. On the whole, the poems in this collection are short and lyrical and are indeed "happy songs" in which one feels the existence of social; harmony or at least a child's feeling of "God's in his heaven, All's s right with the world." But there are exceptions, like "The Little Black Boy" and "The Chimney-Sweeper".

"The Songs of Experience" (1794) was a much mature work. It showed the sufferings of the miserable. It marked the poet's progress in his outlook on life. To him, experience had brought a fuller sense of the power of evil, and of the great misery and pain of the people's life. Its symbol changes from the lamb to the tiger. It is certainly about the most important volume of all Blake's poetry, because it is maturer work than either "Poetical Sketches".(1783) or "The Songs of Innocence"(1789) The poems are short and lyrical and still assume the childlike tongue and use simple language, but we could find poet's deeper and more penetrating observation of reality. There are a lot of poems in the "Songs of Experience" that are pervaded with an atmosphere of intense sorrow and sadness, especially for small children (e.g. "The Angel", "Ah! Sun-flower", "The Human Abstract", "Infant Sorrow", The School Boy"). Many of the poems in the "The Songs of Innocence" (1789) are rewritten or revised in the "Songs of Experience", with the result that joyful atmosphere or the harmonious ending is in each case changed into a bitter mood or a sad story. The most outstanding poem in "The Songs of Experience" (1794) is the poem "London" in which Blake utters his social criticism. It shows the miseries of the common people. The poems in "The Songs of Experience" (1794) have attained to strange height of lyrical beauty, because in form these songs hearken back to the great lyrics of the Renaissance era, but the very somberness of their themes, with the curious mixture of social criticism and otherworldly mysticism, gives these poems high seriousness that stands in sharp contrast with the light-hearted fun of 16th-century lyrics.

Many poems in the two collections contradict each other. They have the same title in the two books, but are opposite in meanings. The contrast is of great significance. It marks a progress in the poet's outlook on life. For example, in both collections there're poems entitled *The Chimney Sweeper*, but the tone and atmosphere are entirely different.

3. Features of William Blake's poems

Blake employs plain and direct language to writes his poems. We can always find the beauty of the lyric and the profound meaning of his poems. He doesn't like and doesn't believe in the abstract things, so he is fond of showing his views with vivid visual images. Another distinctive feature in his poem is the wildly used symbolism. Blake should be remembered chiefly for his "Songs of experience" in which he poured out his bitter social criticism on the reality of his day, but also for the topical references to the fight for the freedom and the expose of tyranny in "The French Revolution" and "America" and "The Songs of Los", and for the great lyricism with which these poems and these great pages are written. The most extraordinary literary genius of his age. His lyrics display all the characteristics of the

romantic spirit (natural sentiment & individual originality). He influenced the Romantic poets with recurring themes of good and evil, heaven and hell, knowledge and innocence, and external reality versus inner imagination. Blake was opposed to the classicism of the 18th century. His poems were full of romantic spirit, imagery symbolism and revolutionary spirit. A Pre-Romanticist or forerunner of romantic poetry of the 19th century.

II. An Analysis of William Blake's "London"

As is mentioned above, "London" is the most outstanding poem in "The Songs of Experience". In this poem, William Blake utters his social criticism. It shows the miseries of the common people.

I wandered thro each chartered street,
Near where the charted Thames does flow,
And mark in every face I meet
Marks of weakness, marks of woe
In every cry of every man,
In every infant's cry of fear,
In every choice, in every ban,
The mind-forged manacles I hear.
How the chimney-sweeper's cry
Every blackening church appals;
And the hapless soldier's sigh
Runs in blood down palace walls.
But most through midnight streets I hear
How the youthful harlot's curse
Blasts the new-born infant's tear,
And blights with plagues the marriage hearse.
(http://wenku.baidu.com/view/ba3b3bd026fff705cc170a1f.html May, 2013)

A. An Introduction to the Poem

Often referred to as a social commentator, a large number of Blake's poems focused on similar themes that were relevant to the society in which he was writing, such as poems on industrialization, child labor and the more general notions of man versus nature and the individual against society, etc. "London" is no exception to this, acting as a social commentary on Blake's time. At first, Blake loved London, he wrote that "golden London and her silver Thames, throng'd with shining spires and corded ships"(Poetical Sketches), but after French Revolution, the British government began to oppress the civil democratic activities. Then London was quite different from before: everything was covered with darkness, terrors and miseries.

In this poem, Blake draws from his personal observations and gives a comprehensive picture of the many miseries, physical and spiritual, in the English capital London. He paints a picture of the dirty, miserable streets of London and describes the wretched people at the bottom of the society: the chimney-sweepers, soldiers, and harlots. The entire poem centers on the wails of these people from their pain and the injustices done to them, and exposes the gap between those in power and the misery of poor people. The poem is representative of English economic problems of the time, condemning many powerful institutions such as the church, royalty, the new industries, and the military. The main subject and theme of this poem is man's lack of freedom and the causes of this lack. It is a relatively unique poem, in that it takes such a negative and critical view of London, when at the time the city represented the pinnacle of technology, and was considered the center of western culture and Brutish Empire.

B. Technical Features in the Poem

"London" is an outstanding poem not only due to the subject and theme reflected in it but also due to the almost flawless writing techniques used by the poet. The following are some of the technical features in this poem.

1. Images.

The key image in this poem is "the mind-forg'd manacles"—attitudes which take away our freedom of thought and action. Three powerful examples of those who are not free, or three encounters who have "weakness" and "woe" are the chimney-sweeper, the soldier and the harlot.

The "mind-forged manacles" of the second stanza is the key image and the central metaphor of this poem. Blake imagines the mind as a forge where "manacles" are made. Manacles and shackles for the legs, would be seen on convicts, perhaps passing along the streets on their way to prison or, commonly in London in Blake's time, on their way to ships, for transportation to Australia. For Blake and his readers, the image is very striking and horrible. The image is also an allusion to an even more famous statement. In 1762, some thirty years before Blake wrote "London", the Swiss philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau wrote in "The Social Contract", "Man is born free, but everywhere he is in chains". Blake agrees with Rousseau that man's lack of freedom, his "manacles" are "mind-forged"—they come from the ideas and outlook imposed on us by external authority. Mind forged manacles lie at the heart of the poem.

The examples of the "the mind-forg'd manacles" start with the chimney-sweeper. As the church building is literally

"black'ning" with smoke from the chimneys, so the church as an organization, which should help the poor, is blackened, metaphorically, with shame at its failure to give that help. The church should be appalled by the cry of the "chimney-sweeper".

The second image is the "hapless" solider. The poem was written shortly after the start of the French Revolution: the uprising was so bloody that the figure of speech called hyperbole was often used, as blood was said to be running down the walls. Blake shows how the unhappiness of the English soldier could, if its causes were ignored, lead to similar bloodshed here.

The last image —the harlot, is the most shocking to Blake as well as to us. The harlot is the truth behind respectable ideas of marriage. New birth is not a happy event but only to continue the cycle of misery, and the wedding carriage is seen as a hearse, leading to a kind of death. The word "plagues" here suggests the sexually transmitted diseases, which the "youthful harlot" would contract, and pass on to others, giving her cursing words real destructive power.

2. Capitalization

Capitalization is used extensively throughout the poem, to infer something beyond the simple meaning of the word—it usually means something deeper. For instance, the capitalization of Man in the second stanza suggests that the whole of urbanized society has gone to the state of moral decay and misery. "every Infants cry"—the capital letter shows that there is something beyond just children that the persona meets—also innocence, which is being corrupted by fear; instead of child idealistically being given security or a haven, here they have to fear and be afraid. Capitalization is also used in "Chimney-sweeper's cry", "Church", "Soldier", "Palace", "Harlot", and "Marriage"—usually to represent an idea beyond just the word, or an institution which will be criticized. For instance, "Soldier" represents the army, "Chimney-sweeper" represents child labor, "Harlot" represents prostitution, "Palace" symbolizes royal family, etc. Capitalization is used a lot, and represents the institutions, and is accompanied by the reason why Blake is criticizing these institutions.

3. Choice of words

The careful choice of some words also enhanced the theme of this poem. The following are some examples.

The use of the word "charter'd" in the first line is rich in imagery. It introduces imagery of mankind in bondage—showing that oppression, not freedom or individuality is the condition of the London that Blake writes about. "Charter'd" also means hired out, or leased, and shows that the city is in the hands of the merchants, and even the streets and the river Thames is being controlled for profits.

The use of "face" in the first stanza dehumanizes the words—the persona is not seeing marks of weakness or woe in a human person, just a blank face. The poet chooses the word "face" instead of "person" to show the loss and sorrow of the people.

"Blackening" is an easy and common word, but in this poem, the poet wonderfully chooses this word which literally means blackening with smoke, but metaphorically means blackening with shame at its failure to give that help. At the same time, this word contrasts with "appalls" which means makes pale. Such a simple word conveys so much information, so we have to admire the poet's technique in choosing words.

"Harlot" is a Biblical word, and is stronger than "prostitute". By using this word, the poet expresses his deep worry and strong condemnation of the society. And thus, the last stanza is the most powerful part of the poem. The unfortunate women are forced to be harlots. Just according to their curses, we can see everything covered with darkness, so the wedding becomes a funeral. Here "marriage hearse" is an apparent contradiction and is a figure of speech known as an oxymoron. It is used satirically to compare the wedding to a funeral and foretells what kind of future England must be faced with if things go like this.

4. Repetitions

In this poem, Blake uses many powerful devices to enhance the expression of the theme, one of which is the use of repetition for special purposes.

In the first stanza, there is something awkward in the repetition of the word "mark". The first "mark" is a verb, the second and last are nouns. So there were two complex effects: The observer "marks", but he marks "marks". Blake reinforces the effect of being dragged into an imprisoned world, where nothing reveals from the faces he meets, but weakness and woe. In the second stanza, the poet even uses "every" for five times, showing that no one can escape from the miserable and tragic reality, that is, there are "The mind-forg'd manacles" everywhere. The repetition of "cry", "cry of every man", "Infant's cry of fear", "the Chimney-sweeper's cry" and even "the hapless Soldier's sigh", emphasize how the people in London suffered at that time.

5. Rhyme and rhythm

This poem is famous for highly strong musical pattern. Generally speaking, the rhyme and rhythm is very definite and structured—the rhyme is ABAB CDCD, and this poem is written with a metrical pattern of iambic tetrameter sporadically blended with trochaic tetrameter—which can help to accentuate the line, with 7 syllables and the first word stressed. The changes are acquired by the special purposes, i.e. the emphasis of the meaning. The alteration of the stresses on the syllables in each line makes the poem sound like striking of the anvil, and also helps the poem to be more powerful. So one of the most striking characteristics of this poem is the anvil music.

In addition to the technical features mentioned above, "London" begins with the verb set in the present tense. This

implies that the poem concerns timeless realities unbounded by references to any particular incident. The use of a persona in this poem who clearly has firsthand knowledge of London's conditions lends credibility to the poem, making it more personal and emotive.

III. CONCLUSION

William Blake was the most extraordinary literary genius of his age. His lyrics display all the characteristics of the romantic spirit. He influenced the Romantic poets with recurring themes of good and evil, heaven and hell, knowledge and innocence, and external reality versus inner imagination. His poems were full of romantic spirit, imagery symbolism and revolutionary spirit. He was the forerunner of romantic poetry of the 19th century.

As for his poem "London", as is all shown above, with the vivid images and the various techniques, Blake shows us the great suffering of the British society during the French Revolution and Industrial Revolution, so that "London" deserves "the mightiest brief poem". Overall "London" is a very pessimistic poem that expresses no solutions to the issues mentioned within each line. By its conclusion, this nightmarish impression of darkness is heavily imbued within the thoughts of the reader. Perhaps just as William Blake would have intended, this poem is to truly convey the horror and injustice that was London.

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An Investigation into the Use of Cohesive Devices in Second Language Writings

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Abstract—As far as the communicative nature of writing is concerned, cohesion is regarded as an essential textual component both in creating organized texts and rendering the content comprehensible to the reader. Many researchers have explored the connection between the use of cohesive devices (CDs) and the quality of the writing. To gain more insight into this area, this study reviewed some studies focusing on the use of CDs and the relationship between the number of CDs and writing quality. The analysis of collected data from different EFL/ESL researchers has shown that the learners were able to use various CDs in their writings. Additionally, the study highlighted some of the cohesive problems in writing and the possible pedagogical implications for teachers. The purpose of the present study is to investigate CDs used in different genres composed by learners from around the globe and the relationship between the use of CDs and quality of their essays. The findings also provide insight into the abilities of native and nonnative writers to convey their ideas into written forms. The results of this research will provide us with insights into the general pattern of CDs in EFL/ESL learners' academic and nonacademic writing. This would help to identify students' problems in using CDs, for instance, overuse or underuse of certain categories, and, thereby, modify teaching writing and incorporate a more precise plan for teaching the appropriate use of CDs.

Index Terms—cohesive devices, cohesion, coherence, writing genres, writing quality

I. INTRODUCTION

Undoubtedly writing as one of the second language skills is really arduous. According to Richards and Renandya (2002) the difficulty emanates both from generating and organizing ideas and translating these ideas into readable text. Halliday and Hasan (1976, 1989) believed that cohesion and coherence, as the two important textual elements have long been recognized as important features of good writing. So, language learners indispensably need to write coherent and cohesive texts if they wish to prove to be qualified English writers, whether they are EFL or ESL learners. This is the case especially in EFL contexts in which there is much little direct exposure to English. Recently, researchers the way in which EFL/ESL learners actually write and what problems they usually encounter in their writing have attracted considerable attention. Research in the field of cohesion and coherence in the English texts has been increasingly done since the publication of Cohesion in English (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). L2 writers should always keep in their mind that readers would not be able to trace the ideas in any written text unless they signal the interconnections of the preceding and following pieces of message through contextual clues.

A text is considered to not be a unit of syntax but a unit of semantics. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), the concept of texture displays the feature of being a text. It is obvious that all languages have texts and so do certain linguistic features that create texture. Therefore, it can be concluded that any texture is made up of two different levels: the sentential and textual. Also, it should be reminded that the fundamental building blocks from which all texts are constructed are four independent components on the two aforementioned levels. The sentential level, on the one hand, is grammatical features of syntax at surface level representing semantics at deep structure. On the sentential level are syntax and semantics. Syntactic component involves types of phrasing, types of clause constructions, and types of passive structures, clausal combinations, and word order within a sentence. Semantic component involves the senses and mappings from word meanings to sentential meanings.

The textual level, on the other hand, is functional features of cohesion at surface level leading to coherence at deep structure. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) believed that cohesion and coherence are on textual level. This level is the underlying structure of the surface structure achieved through the use of grammatical elements to form the sentences and the first stage to the formation of the text through cohesion and coherence constructed on the basis of the textual cohesion through the readers' efforts to interpret. The relations between the sentences, at this level, play a major role in the achievement of coherence. Cohesion can be established by various means. These means include reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical relationships. Based on the classification of the sub-categories by Halliday and Hasan (1976), reference can be grouped into four categories: pronominal, demonstrative, definite article 'the', and comparative. Substitution has been classified into four sub-categories, too: one/some/ones (as substitutes of noun phrases), do so/it/that (as substitutes of predicate), here/there/then (as substitutes of adverbials), and finally so/not (as substitutes of clauses). Ellipsis has been divided into three sub-categories: noun phrases, the predication, and a clause. The fourth is conjunction, which can be subcategorized into five: additive, adversative, causative, temporal and continuative.

On the one hand, at the sentence level, analysis of cohesion provides a useful measure of the effectiveness and quality of written text. On the other hand, the analysis at textual level includes functional features of cohesion and coherence, which requires counting CDs such as reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunctions. To shed light on these issues, this study is an attempt to give readers an overview of the way EFL/ESL learners use CDs in writings, especially the expository, descriptive, and argumentative texts, to see which CDs and with how densely they are used to maintain text coherence and cohesion and produce relations between different parts of the text.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Recently, researchers have given considerable attention to how EFL/ESL learners write and what problems they encounter in writing a text. The construct of cohesion is one of the widely explored sub-fields of second language writing. By the application of Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework, a great many of studies about cohesion and coherence in ESL/EFL writing and even in English itself (Jafarpur, 1991, Johns, 1980, Johnson, 1992; Zhang, 2000; Hartnett, 1989 cited in Johnson, 1992) have been done. Although some researchers came to similar findings, the findings of these studies in some cases have been somewhat contradictory. Some have found that there is no difference in the use of CDs in *good* and *weak* writings (Johnson, 1992; Zhang, 2000). Others showed that highly rated essays is different from low rated ones in the use of CDs (Jafarpur, 1991).   Some researchers proved that highly scored compositions contain more cohesion than low scored ones (Jafarpur, 1991). Furthermore, it is commonly believed that highly scored essays include more lexical collocations than do low scored ones (Johns, 1980; Zhang, 2000). They also held that lexical cohesion is the most commonly used category in both good and weak essays, followed by conjunction and reference (Johns, 1980; Zhang, 2000).

In the writing of ESL/EFL learners, some peculiar features have also been identified (Olateju, 2006; Khalil, 1989; Wikborg, 1990; Dueraman, 2007). Olateju (2006) stated that some of the CDs were used wrongly or insufficiently and this may be associated to the insufficient direct exposure to the English and the misuse of these affected or even broke the coherence of the text. Irwin (1982) showed how mature readers use cohesion in text and showed that the increase in the number of CDs, in turn, can improve readers' comprehension. These studies explicitly bespoke that cohesion is a significant underlying feature of any type of writing and that L1 and L2 learners of English have considerable difficulty in applying CDs. Novice writers ten to one will use more CDs to produce a superficially logic text, but actually there may be no logicality in their writing.

Coherence, one of the influential features in judging the quality of a writing, has been considered to be a subjective and hazy concept which is hard to learn and teach (Crewe, 1990; Lee, 2002) in spite of the fact that cohesion and coherence being so intertwined are not easily distinguished and defined a separate entities. Lee (2002), as a writing teacher and researcher, also believed that the concept of coherence was not definite so that writing teachers had difficulties in teaching and assessing students' writing. Meanwhile, a number of researchers have defined coherence from different perspectives. However, as Grabe and Kaplan (1996, p. 67) stated, "there is little consensus on the matter of an overall definition of coherence". Castro (2004) defines coherence as the link in a text connecting ideas and making the flow of thoughts meaningful and clear for readers. So, it accounts for the meaningful and logical relationship among elements in a text, which stems from "thematic development, organization of information, or communicative purpose of the particular discourse" (Kuo, 1995, p.48). In Halliday and Hasan's definition in their book *Cohesion in English* (1976, p.23), coherence refers to the internal elements of a text, consisting of cohesion and register. They further added that "A text is a passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards: it is coherent with respect to the context of situation, and therefore consistent in register; and it is coherent with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive".

Cohesion, based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesion theory as the major characteristic of coherence considering linguistic properties of the language, gives a sequence of sentences a coherent texture. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. vii) pointed out that cohesion is one of the linguistic system's major resources for text construction. In fact, cohesion represents the presence of explicit cues in the text that allow readers/listeners to find semantic relations within it as part of linguistic system enhancing the semantic potentials of text. A text is meaningful only when elements referring to each other in the text set up a relation. The relation can be set up through reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction as grammatical and lexical cohesion. So, the grammar and lexicon are two forms of cohesion. These CDs used by speakers and writers in order to express meaning based on the interpretations of the listeners and readers provide semantic relations for the semantic units whose interpretations they facilitate.

Cohesion depicts how meaning-based relationship is set up by lexical and syntactic features. These explicit lexical and syntactic features are known as CDs, signaling the relationship in sentences and paragraphs. Halliday and Hasan (1976) introduced five different types of CDs in order to provide a guideline for studying and judging the cohesion and coherence of writing: (a) reference (i.e., the indication of information from elsewhere such as personals, demonstratives, and comparatives), (b) substitution (i.e., the replacement of one component by another), (c) ellipsis (i.e., the omission of a component), (d) conjunction (i.e., the indication of specific meaning which presupposes present items in the discourse, such as additive, adversative, casual, and temporal), and finally (e) lexical cohesion (i.e., the repetition of the same or

relative lexical items). They contended that through analyzing the use of CDs, one could evaluate or assess writing quality from the perspective of coherence.

Criticisms against the Cohesive Theory

The cohesive theory proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) was challenged by Carrell (1982) and Johns (1986) who argued for the importance of readers' background knowledge. Based on schema theory, Carrell (1982, p.482) contended that "processing a text is an interactive process between the text and the prior background knowledge or memory schemata of the listener or reader". In other words, both the structure and content of the text and the readers' operation on the text should be taken into consideration. To support his criticisms of the cohesive view of coherence, Carrell (1982) meticulously scrutinized three empirical studies and claimed that there is no meaningful relationship between the number of CDs and coherence.

III. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE USE OF CDs AND THE QUALITY OF L2 WRITING

Zhang (2000) investigated the relative importance of various grammatical and discourse features in the evaluation of second language writing samples and found that raters heavily depended upon cohesion in evaluating the overall quality of the essays. This also pointed to the idea of considering CDs as an important element in judging the quality of essays. Lee (2002) investigated how CDs were used in the compositions of 107 Chinese undergraduates through both quantitative and qualitative methods. The research found that lexical devices were used most frequently, conjunctions and reference devices are used less and that certain CDs included ambiguity in reference, overuse and misuse of conjunctions, and restricted use of lexical cohesion. Lee (2002) did a research with 16 ESL students to reveal whether explicit teaching of coherence creating devices may contribute to the coherence in writing and found a positive relation between the pedagogical materials based on promoting the CDs and the improvement of the student writing. Zhang (2000) investigated the application of CDs in 50 argumentative compositions written by Chinese undergraduate non-English majors and found that among a variety of CDs the lexical CDs were the most frequently employed, followed by references and conjunctives. And the number of lexical CDs was significantly related to the quality of writing. However, it was identified that there were some problems in applying reference and lexical devices. One other research by Olateju (2006) investigated to what extent ESL learners achieve cohesion in written texts by examining students at different writing sessions. The study revealed that the students lacked competence in their use of CDs. In the study on cohesion on oral English, Wu (2006) found that substitution and ellipsis are neglected and less used forms of CDs. It was also clarified that foreign language learners probably use such devices less even in their oral performance, which is in contrast to what is commonly thought. Field and Yip (1992) in Hong Kong examined the use of three types of CDs, say, reference, conjunction, and lexis in essays of 150 foreign language learners referring to their narrative and descriptive essays. They found that the three easiest writing devices were remote CDs, immediate CDs, and mediate CDs and the three hardest writing devices were temporal conjunctions, causal conjunctions, and adversative conjunctions. Several studies have indicated the problems that L2 writers have while writing (Crewe, 1990; Kanno, 1989; Wu, 2006).

IV. NATIVES' WRITINGS IN CONTRAST TO THOSE OF NONNATIVES

According to Khalil (1989), the Arab students overused reiteration of the same lexical item as a cohesive device, while they underused other lexical and grammatical CDs. With regard to incoherent writings of Hong Kong college students, Crewe (1990) recognized two problems: using numerous connectives without discerning the semantic differences among them, such as using *on the contrary* instead of *however*, and overusing connectives. Wikborg (1990) found that Swedish students often showed cohesion problems ranging from missing or misleading sentence connection to too great a distance between the cohesive items in a cohesive chain to malfunctioning CDs in their writing. Johnson (1992) proved that there was not any difference in the degree of cohesion between good and weak compositions written in Malay by native speakers or in English by native and Malay speakers. Comparing 67 Hong Kong students' argumentative writings with those of 29 Australian students in English, Field and Yip (1992) concluded that Hong Kong students used more conjunctions especially at the beginning of sentences. With regard to Palmer's (1999) survey, the writings of Spanish-speaking students abound in reiteration of the same lexical item as a cohesive device, but other lexical and grammatical CDs were rare. This is the case considering Zhang's (2000) findings on Chinese undergraduate English majors. Zhang (2000) in the survey of cohesion in 107 Chinese English majors' expository essays found that there was no difference in the number of CDs between good and weak essays. Dueraman's (2007) study about cohesion and coherence in English narrative essays written by Malaysian and Thai medical students also explicitly supported the fact that both groups used more syntactic ties (reference and conjunction) than semantic ties (reiteration and collocation).

V. CORRELATION BETWEEN CDs AND QUALITY OF WRITING

There are both positive and negative correlation between the use of CDs and the quality of writing. To shed light on the construct of coherence and the relationship between cohesion and coherence, empirical studies that investigated the correlation of the use of CDs and the overall quality of writing have been reviewed and it was found that the studies contained controversial results. On the one hand, some studies proved a positive correlation between the number of CDs

and good writing (Ferris, 1994; Field & Oi, 1992; Jin, 2001; Liu & Braine, 2005). On the other hand, other studies have not shown a significant link between the number of CDs and the quality of writing (Castro, 2004; Jafarpur, 1991; Johnson, 1992; Neuner, 1987; Zhang, 2000). Among the studies, two studies (i.e., Liu & Braine, 2005; Zhang, 2000) were conducted in China and one in Iran (Jafapur, 1991).

A. Research on CDs Based on Frequency of CDs Used in the Students' Writing

These studies concentrated on the frequency of DMs used in the learners' writing, some investigating the use of DMs in one language (L1 or L2) and others comparing the frequency of the use of DMs between L1 and L2. For example, Connor (1984) contrasted six argumentative essays written by English native and ESL learners based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework. Any major difference was found between native and ESL students in the frequency of DMs. The writings of 67 Hong Kong students with 29 Australians on an argumentative topic were compared by Field and Yip (1992). They proved that non-native learners of English used more conjunctions than Australians and they usually put all conjunctions at the beginning of sentences. In a study of this type, comparing the number of DMs used by native and non-native speakers of English, Karasi (1994) scrutinized 135 expository essays by Singaporean secondary students. They showed no difference between native and ESL students in the frequency of CDs. Intarprawat and Steffensen (1995) dissected the DMs used in persuasive essays by ESL university students. They unraveled that differences between highly and poorly rated essays were found in the number of words, T-units, and density of DMs. That is, the former was characterized by a high density of these features. A study by Steffensen and Cheng (1996) concentrated on argumentative texts written by students working on the propositional content of their essays and being taught using a process approach and focusing on the pragmatic functions of DMs by enjoying direct teaching of DMs. The results showed that students receiving direct instruction on DMs used them more effectively and also became more sensitive to their readers' needs, thereby making global changes that improved their papers. Jalilifar (2008) following Fraser's (1999) classification of DMs focused on DMs in descriptive compositions of 90 junior and senior Iranian EFL students. Findings of the research provided evidence that elaborative markers were the most frequently used, then inferential, contrastive, and causative and least frequently used are topic relating markers. A direct and positive relationship was also found between the quality of the compositions and the number of DMs used.

B. Research on DMs Based on the Nature of DMs Used in Students' Writing

This group of studies has put the nature of DMs used in students' writing under the microscope. Liu and Braine (2005), based on Haliday and Hassan's (1976) taxonomy of CDs, dissected the use of CDs in 50 Chinese undergraduate non-English majors' argumentative compositions and examined the relationship between the number of CDs and the quality of writing. Among the sub-categories of conjunction devices, additive, causal, temporal, and adversative devices were used in decreasing order. 'And', 'also', and 'or' were the cohesive items with the highest frequency. Among adversative devices, 'on the contrary' and 'instead' occurred very little in their writings, while, 'but' was used with the highest frequency. Other items such as 'as a result' and 'thus' were rarely used. Using frequency counts, Hu, Brown, D., and Brown, L. (1982), investigated the use of CDs by 12 Chinese university students in contrast to 12 Australian university students based on the Halliday's functional grammar. They proved that Chinese used more conjunctions and Australians used more lexical cohesion. Bell (2010) scrutinized the contrastive DMs of 'nevertheless', 'still', and 'yet' by focusing on an 8 million-word corpus of fiction, news, and academic spoken and written English. The results proved 'nevertheless' to be the most limited scope and 'yet' the largest scope. Hays (1992) put the use of DMs by Japanese learners of English in their first, second, or third year of study under the microscope and found that though DMs 'but', 'and', and 'so' were used frequently, very few learners used 'well' and 'you know' and speculated that there is a developmental order for the acquisition of DMs. That is, the DMs which are on the ideational plane are taught and used earlier than those that are more pragmatic in the subjects' speech. This fact was supported by the findings of Trillo's (2002) corpus based study comparing DMs usage between native speakers and learners of English. Trillo (2002) demonstrated that learners of English used the DMs 'well' and 'you know' (among others) much less frequently than native speakers and that when learners used these lexical items, they were much more likely to be in their ideational, non-pragmatic usages.

C. Research on the Relationship between DMs and Writing Quality

The studies in this sub-section investigated the correlation of DMs and writing quality. Allard and Ulatowska (1991), based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework, analyzed the writings of 30 fifth-grade native English children and found a high relationship between the number of lexical ties and the quality of writing. Narrative and procedural texts were used and found that for narratives, but procedural texts, CDs were highly correlated with writing quality and there were marked differences in cohesive properties across discourse types. Zhang (2000) concentrated on the use of CDs in Chinese undergraduates' expository compositions, 107 essays from two universities, based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy of CDs and their framework and proved that students employed a variety of CDs with some categories of ties used more frequently than the others, lexical devices were the most frequently used, followed by conjunctions and reference devices. There found not to be statistically significant relationship between the number of CDs and the quality of writing. Certain CDs were identified in the expository writing of Chinese undergraduates which included overuse and misuse of conjunctions and restricted use of lexical cohesion. Liu and Braine (2005), to analyze the

relationship between the number of CDs and writing quality in argumentative compositions written by Chinese undergraduate EFL learners, did a correlational survey between the numerical composition scores and the frequency of CDs in every composition with regard to their categories (reference, conjunction, and lexical cohesion). The findings showed that the composition scores significantly correlated with the number of CDs, highly correlated with lexical devices among the three main categories of CDs. Johnson (1992) investigated expository essays in Malay, essays in English by the same group of Malay students, and essays in English by native speakers, each 20 but did not find any difference in the degree of cohesion between good and weak compositions written in Malay by native speakers or in English by native and Malay speakers. Generally speaking, results suggested that L2 learners compared to native speakers underuse DMs.

D. Research on the Relationship between DMs and Writing Genres

Both being acquainted with different writing genres and being familiar with the internal features of written texts can affect learners' writing quality to a large extent. The notion of genre is defined as "abstract, socially recognized ways of using language" (Hyland, 2003, p. 21) which are purposeful communicative activities applied by members of a particular discourse community (Swales, 1990). Here some writing genres and the correlation of genre and use of CDs will be briefly discussed.

Argumentative writing as a fundamental writing style is required in higher education to compose various types of writings, to pursue the goal of convincing an audience. Where there exists a conflict between the beliefs and attitudes of the writer/speaker and the reader/audience, this type of writing genre is often used in a situation (Hinkel, 2002). Based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework, Connor (1984) compared six argumentative essays written by English native and ESL learners. There found to be not any significant difference between native and ESL students in the frequency of DMs. Field and Yip (1992) analyzed and compared the argumentative writings of 67 Hong Kong with 29 Australians. They pointed out that nonnative learners of English used more conjunctions than Australians and nonnatives usually use all conjunctions at the beginning of the sentences. Using the same framework, Liu and Braine (2005) investigated the use of CDs in 50 argumentative compositions written by Chinese undergraduate non-English majors and also critically dissected the relationship between the number of CDs and writing quality.

Descriptive writings, on the other hand were widely used by English learners and users to explain and describe the events etc. Jalilifar (2008), according to Fraser's (1999) classification of DMs, focused on DMs in descriptive compositions of 90 Iranian EFL juniors and seniors. Results proved that elaborative markers were the most frequently used DMs, inferential, contrastive, and causative markers are descending in terms of frequency, and topic relating markers are least frequently used). There found to be a direct and positive correlation between the quality of the compositions and the number of DMs used.

Expository writing is the other genre of writing used frequently by ESL/EFL learners and users. Johnson (1992) dissected 20 expository essays in the country Malay and 20 essays in English by the same group of Malay students and 20 essays in English by native speakers. There found to be no significant difference in the degree of cohesion between good and weak compositions written by native speakers in Malay or in English by native and Malay speakers. Generally speaking, findings suggested that L2 learners underuse DMs compared to the native speakers especially for their pragmatic functions. Karasi (1994) comparing the frequency of DMs used by native and non-native speakers of English, analyzed 135 expository essays composed by Singaporean secondary students and pointed out that there is no difference between native and ESL students in the frequency of CDs. In a similar study, Zhang (2000) concentrated on the application of CDs in the expository compositions of 107 Chinese undergraduates from two Chinese universities. Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy and framework were utilized. A variety of CDs were used by the students. Some categories of ties were used more frequently than the others. Lexical devices were the most frequently used, followed by conjunctions and reference devices were used least frequently. Findings showed no statistically significant relationship between the number of CDs and the quality of students' writings. Some CDs were misused or overused in the expository writing of Chinese undergraduates.

VI. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Lexical items, as the main carrier of message and the means of expression, are the major building blocks of any composition. The fact that lexical devices are the most broadly used may affect cohesion in language users' writings. As mentioned earlier, language learners are able to apply a variety of conjunctive devices to bridge the previous and following sentence(s) both to make their writing more clear, orderly, and logical and to make their writings semantically, pragmatically, and grammatically well formed. Although, only those commonly used items as and, but, however, also, first, second, and conclusion were the students' favorites, the items learned later such as furthermore, on the contrary, moreover, in addition, on the whole, and nevertheless seldom occurred in their writing. As a consequence, much needs to be done in the teaching of writing to enhance the students' awareness of the importance and use of CDs in their writing.

Widdowson (1983) believed that enough attention has not been paid to the way in which sentences are used in combination in order to form stretches of connected discourse. This connotes that in the classroom settings, the teachers look at language as essentially knowledge of the syntactic structure of sentences. In fact, students face difficulty coping

with language in its normal communicative use. This problem requires a new orientation both in teaching and research. Hymes (1971) suggested that there should be a shift from grammatical competence to emphasis on the discourse skills. This new orientation imposes a change of focus from the sentence as the basic unit of study to the use of a series of sentences in a discourse. In sum, a need to study the nature of discourse has been felt recently. Writing in English is being felt to be more important thanks to the fact that even EFL learners have to write papers and theses in English, and also send job application letters and economic activities on an international scale. So, the role of English language in international communications has been magnified (Arvani, 2006).

VII. THE QUESTIONS UNDER INVESTIGATION

Since it is the sentence rather than the text as a whole, that has received the primary focus (Johns, 1980) and on the other hand, cohesion is important both to the reader and writer to create and comprehend a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), so more attention should be paid to writing generally and to the role of CDs particularly. Sticking to Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesion theory as the most frequently used framework, the reviewed studies seek to identify the general CDs in writing composed by EFL/ESL learners. It aims to answer the following questions:

1. Do the learners use CDs in their writing? To what extent? Which category of CDs?
2. What is the relationship between the number of CDs and the scores of the same compositions?
3. What is the correlation in frequency of CDs within different categories of cohesion produced in the compositions? To what extent does the use of CDs influence the quality of writings?
4. What is the difference in the frequency of using CDs between highly-rated and poorly-rated compositions? Is there any relationship between the number of CDs and good writing?
5. What is the difference in the frequency of CDs among different genres of writings? Is there a significant difference between the DMs used in different types of genres?
6. What problems do language users face while using CDs?
7. Is there a quantitative difference between the L1 writing samples and L2 writing samples at the sentential level?
8. Is there a difference in the L2 writers' use of CDs compared to those of native writers?

VIII. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

This study, on the one hand, was based on the Fraser's (1999) taxonomy of DMs categories. In contrast to the similar taxonomies of CDs, this typology is mainly used for the classification of written discourse and seems to be the most comprehensive classification in written discourse. Fraser (1999) defined DMs as a pragmatic class, lexical expressions drawn primarily from the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbials, and prepositional phrases. In accordance with the proposed model, there are two types of DMs: (a) Those that relate aspects of the explicit message conveyed by S2 with aspects of a message, direct or indirect, associated with S1, and (b) Those that relate the topic of S2 to that of S1. Fraser's (1999) taxonomy includes six main subclasses. These subcategories are presented below: (a) conclusive DMs: in sum, in conclusion, to sum up, etc., (b) reason DMs: because, since, due to, etc., (c) elaborative DMs: and, also, moreover, in addition, etc., (d) contrastive DMs: but, however, although, etc., (e) inferential DMs: thus, hence, so, therefore, etc., and finally (f) exemplifiers: for example, such as, for instance, etc.

On the other hand, according to Halliday and Hasan's cohesion theory (1976), cohesion, as the major characteristic of coherence covering linguistic properties of the language, gives a sequence of sentences a coherent texture. Cohesion shows how semantic relationships are set up by lexical and syntactic features. Such overt lexical and syntactic features are called CDs, which signal the relationship among sentences. To provide a framework for studying and judging the cohesion and coherence of writing, Halliday and Hasan (1976) introduced five different types of CDs: (a) reference (i.e., the indication of information from elsewhere such as personals, demonstratives, and comparatives), (b) substitution (i.e., the replacement of one component by another), (c) ellipsis (i.e., the omission of a component), (d) conjunction (i.e., the indication of specific meaning which presupposes present items in the discourse, such as additive, adversative, casual, and temporal), and finally (e) lexical cohesion (i.e., the repetition of the same or relative lexical items). They contended that through analyzing the use of cohesive device, one could evaluate or assess writing quality from the perspective of coherence.

IX. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The present study, based on the findings and discussions illustrated above, provided some suggestions for both writing teachers and EFL/ESL learners. Firstly, since the number of CDs affects the quality of writing, "cohesion is not coherence" (Carrell, 1982) could be realized. So, a composition with more CDs cannot be considered as a coherent one. Therefore, when teachers are teaching their students how to use CDs, it is worth reminding that a proper dose of CDs makes writing better.

Secondly, since the findings indicated that the participants preferred repeating words rather than using synonyms and antonyms to describe the main points of their topic, teachers should help students enlarge their choice of vocabulary. Teachers could engage the students in some vocabulary activities such as word association game before writing to elicit and build students' vocabulary.

Thirdly, writing teachers could introduce corpora to students since corpora can enhance learners' awareness of lexico-grammatical patterning of texts (Thurstun & Candlin, 1998; Yoon, 2008). Corpus-informed syllabi can be mixed with writing courses wherein students learn to solve their lexical problems through concordances and collocation samplers.

Fourthly, learners did not apply a vast range of CDs and that they used some particular elaborative markers like and in higher than other markers and overuse of and can be a sign of weakness on the part of these learners in their writings. This denotes that teachers can work more on incorporating the use of DMs in their teaching. In other words, teachers need to raise the students' awareness of textual norms of practice and sensitize them to the application of specific CDs and their frequency in particular types of texts. Therefore, the learners will undoubtedly learn how to produce texts with different purposes and structures, and which types of DMs are more commonly used in which particular text types, when writing in English.

Fifthly, the rarity of the relationship between writing quality and the use of cohesive devices can connote that their use has not been done appropriately and purposefully by EFL/ESL learners. Therefore, teachers can work not only on the quantity of CDs but also on their quality. It is needed to raise the learners' awareness of the correct use of individual categories of CDs and how they can be used in creating a coherent text. It is also needed to let the learners realize CDs are not the mere textual devices which can add to the quality of a text, rather, there are other elements that making a text more cohesive and thus adding to the quality of the texts.

Last but not least, it is essential to incorporate reading into writing in order to enhance students' awareness of coherence and cohesion (Heller, 1999; Hirvela, 2004). Students can acquire syntactic structures, features of genre, or vocabulary through the process of reading to write. What's more, observing the use of CDs can also enhance students' awareness of the characteristics of good English writing. It is expected that the suggestions briefly mentioned above could improve students' writing skills and promote writing teachers' teaching quality.

X. Conclusion

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that some CDs were more preferred than some others for a variety of reasons. This dynamic nature in the use of CDs could be contributed to the nature of the data collection procedure since some CDs belong to the conversational data in oral performance. The other reason might be minimal amount of knowledge and necessary discourse in which such structures are used. Also, it could be related to this fact that language learners lack the ability to use syntactic and lexical tools to enable them to produce competent written text as also indicated by Hinkle (2008). There are cross linguistic differences in the use of CDs by native and nonnative learners. Findings proved that language users resorted to pronominal more than other CDs in order for creating textuality between the sentences. There might be some other reasons for the distinct differences between the natives and nonnatives in the use of certain CDs on account of cross-linguistic differences. On the one hand, it could be emanated from the lack of nonnatives' English language proficiency, especially, because nonnatives may lack knowledge of what makes a written material a meaningful English text. This may be resulted from little exposure to or insufficient feedback, which in turn lead to little knowledge of how language users connect sentences to create textuality. So, they lack the competence in producing linguistically well-formed written material to create meaningful texts that convey the information appropriately and accurately as well as coherently. On the other hand, these difficulties could also be due to the linguistic knowledge of English they have been offered so far. They may have been taught by inexperienced teachers with limited discourse knowledge and experience in teaching cohesion and coherence. As far as language acquisition is concerned, it was stressed that it is not enough to look at input and to look at frequency of occurrences. Instead, looking at the corpus as a whole and examining discourse to determine both the frequency of forms and how it shows language function evolving is of value. This implies the trend from a product-oriented view to a process-oriented view of second language acquisition.

XI. Limitations

This study was based on the collected data from the written discourse of native and nonnative learners, expecting that this could reveal the CDs they choose to use in their writings. However, the uses of CDs vary in the mode of communication, written or oral. Some CDs are used in verbal communication while some others are in written communication. Therefore, data could have been collected from oral performances of both native and nonnative learners in EFL/ESL situations to provide better picture of the ways CDs are used. Another limitation is the limited number of the studies reviewed by the researcher judging about the cohesion quality of the sample writings. More studies could yield a more reliable result of the use of CDs. Further, the reviewed studies had not been exactly corresponded to what Halliday and Hasan (1976) introduced because some researchers focused on some perspectives of their framework and ignore other ones. The main reason for excluding some and including the others may be that writers' production considerably depends on the quality and competence of the vocabulary development. And the vocabulary potential of each natives and nonnatives may vary remarkably depending on various factors.

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The New Exploration to *The Merchant of Venice**

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Abstract—**The authors of the thesis hold that Shylock, one of the key characters of *The Merchant of Venice* written by William Shakespeare, is the scapegoat of anti-Zionism in Britain at the time, for Shakespeare, was first influenced by Christian background of his own; second, by his contemporaries at home, and third, by the anti-Zionism in European Continent abroad as well. Furthermore, Shakespeare, as a realist dramatist with sharp sense, could hardly transcend the historical ideology, and Shylock would inevitably become the sacrifice to the ideology. Finally, the authors put forward that, as a humanist, Shylock is subversive to the dominant society, which can be regarded as a prelude to other four Shakespearian classics of tragedies.**

Index Terms--*The Merchant of Venice,* **Shylock, scapegoat, subversiveness**

I. INTRODUCTION

Shylock, one of the key characters in *The Merchant of Venice* written by Shakespeare, is a hot topic argued by critics of Shakespeare, who have had different opinions all the time. Till the present time, the debates about Shylock are generally put into three kinds: The first one of the ideas is negative, the second is tragic, and the third dual. The negative thinks that Shylock is a greedy usurer, who lives on interests, so he deserves to be cursed; the tragic holds that "the whole play is covered with tense anti-Zionism. Throughout the play, the prejudices against Jews can be felt as everybody who has eyes can. Shylock, as a Jew, is tragic indeed… He is doomed to be a loser in Christian court of legislation; his sword of revenge failed to thrust Antonio in the least but himself severely." (Zheng, 1995, p.62) And others agree that Shylock's end is tragic "because his daughter Jessica is eloped with her lover, and Shylock lost his wealth and behaved crazily; he is horrible to the extreme for he could not wait to revenge any longer, who looked exactly like an angry butcher with a newly sharpened axe towards his animal. It was sympathetic for him to be converted to Christian, and to lose his daughter and fortune. As a strong-willed man, Shylock tries to defend sincerely his equal rights on politics, economics and law only to meet his tragic end."(Zhang, 1996, p.56) For the tragic school of Shylock, they think that the conflicts between Judaism and Christianity are attributed to the tragedy; and Shylock's conversion is not only a personal tragedy but his racial one as well. As to the dualists, they are mixture of the negative and the tragic, i.e. Shylock is both pitiable and negative. The authors of the thesis hold that the three classifications are too rough and sketchy, which simply inherited the legacy of Hegel's methodology, a German philosopher, who is said to be the first advocate of the divisions, i.e. positive, negative, and dual. So the labels of Shakespearian characters are easy to lead to criticism of Shakespearian critics. Anixter, a Russian literary critic, is just one of the critical voices. He remarked, "It's quite contradictory to Shakespeare that we classify Shakespearian characters into negative or positive; for Shakespeare, all his characters are multi-faced and characterized vividly…"(Anixter, 1955, p.55). And Pushkin, a Russian poet, even directly points out that Shakespearian characters are multiple dimensional (Morozov, 1987, p.65). Hence the tag divisions of Shakespearian characters are inappropriate. Based on the opinions mentioned above, the thesis is going to explore Shylock again.

II. THE ORIGIN OF EUROPEAN PLAY

The European play derives from the sacrificial rituals in ancient Greece. Jane Ellen Harrison, an English scholar of anthropology, made convincing analyses of the birth of the play in her article, entitled to "*Ancient Art and Ritual*". First, she analyzes the Greek words "drama" and "dromenon" by comparison. She thinks that it's not just coincident that the two words are similar to each other in etymology. Second, borrowing from the abundant materials in *The Golden Bough* written by James George Fraser, an English anthropologist, she has traced further back to the yearly sacrificial rituals in ancient Egypt and Babylon, boarding on the religious performance of ancient Greece. And so she comes to a conclusion: The ancient art and ritual are born from the same impulse of human instinct and are supplement and complement respectively, so they are both subjective expressions of emotion by imitating actions (Ye, (ed.), 2011, p. 28~36). And Northrop Frye, a Canadian literary critic, holds that the factors occurred repeatedly in literary works are not created by writers' personal talent but traditions in literary development. And the factors are something called "archetypes". "An

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archetype functions not only as a player of united category but also a part and parcel in literary forms.… Studying literary history, we can see that, literature, as an organic system, is rooted in primitive culture. The primary literary form is necessarily trailed back to the religious ceremonies, myths and legends from the time immemorial on." And the play, as one of the earliest primary performance of literary forms, descends from "the religious ceremonies, myths and legends from the time immemorial on", according to Frye (Ye, (ed.), 2011, p.13~14).

There were sacrificial rituals practiced widely in the areas, such as Greece, Egypt, Babylon, etc, during ancient times, in which human civilization was in its early childhood. In the areas there was a specific sacrificial ritual, which was a must every year. In Ancient Egypt, it's to offer sacrifices to its God Osiris; in Ancient Greece it is to offer sacrifices to God Adonis; in Ancient Babylonian area old Jewish peoples offer sacrifices to their God Tammuz. Though the names and rites of the sacrifice are different and diversified, their intentions are identical to each other, that is to say, they pray for a good harvest next year by making use of the rites to imitate the process of the growth, withering and cycle of crops. For ancient people, they believe that everything is spiritual. And they think that everything under the sun, like the phenomena of nature, for example, rain, wind, thunder, lightning, birth or death, and the like, is predominantly controlled by some divine spirits. That is why ancient peoples regularly hold lots of sacrificial rites to their God or Goddess to expel the evils and to get a good harvest of crops every year. Actually, their sacrifices are simply signified a pretty strong yearning for pleasant life. In *The Golden Bough,* there records a lot of similar rites over the world as well. And the rites have evolved into a formula as the subsequent ones: birth—death--revival, birth--half dying--death, birth--death substitute--scapegoat (Fraser, 1996, p.405~459).

There are lots of myths, legends, customs and traditions about scapegoat spread widely among the peoples over the world. The earliest recordings about the scapegoat can been found in *Genesis* (22:16) and *Leviticus* (14, 16) of *The Old Testament*. The central points of the story in *Genesis* (22:16) are the following:

Some time later God tested Abraham. He asked Abraham to take his only son, Isaac, to the region of Moriah and sacrifice him there as a burnt offering on one of the mountains he would tell him about. Early next morning Abraham got up and saddled his donkey. He took with him two of his servants and his son Isaac. When he had cut enough wood for the burnt offering, he set out for the place God had told him about. On the third day Abraham looked up and saw the place in the distance. He said to his servants, "Stay here with the donkey while I and the boy go over there. We will worship and then we will come back to you."

Abraham took the wood for the burnt offering and placed it on his son Isaac, and he himself carried the fire and the knife. As the two of them went on together, Isaac spoke up and said to his father, "Father?"

"Yes, my son?" replied Abraham. "The fire and wood are here," Isaac said, "but where is the lamb for burnt offering?"

Abraham answered, "God himself will provide the lamb for the burnt offering, my son." And the two of them went on together. When they reached the place God had told him about, Abraham built an altar there and arranged the wood on it. He bound his son and laid him on the altar, on top of the wood. Then he reached out his hand and took the knife to slay his son. But the angel of the Lord called out to stop him. "Do not lay a hand on the boy," he said, "Now I know that you fear God, because you have not withheld from your son, your only son."

Abraham looked up and there in a thicket he saw a ram caught by its horns. He took it and sacrificed it as a burnt offering instead of his son.[1]

In *The Golden Bough* and *The Devil's Lawyer* (both books are written by Fraser) there records abundant stories or folklore like the scapegoat. *The Golden Bough* has lots of recordings of witchcraft and sacrifice in different regions over the world. One of the most influential sacrifices, which is sacrificed to God Adonis in Ancient Asia and the Middle East, is described in detail. And then, he concluded that: The witchcraft, sacrifice and the like are closely connected with human survivals; and the sacrifice is substituted by a kind of performance in the developments of civilization. So Fraser's recordings, which are most influential in the school of myth-archetype, have convincingly proved the conclusion, i.e. a play is born from the sacrificial rituals. However, the other book *The Devil's Lawyer* has enough to say the protective intentions of the sacrificial offerings: for instance, goat, chicken, fish, and pig, etc, used as sacrificial offerings to replace the charged, the crimes and offence done by the charged are said to transfer to the offerings. And the charged is protected and freed from some kind of punishment.[2] In Ancient China there are customs and sacrificial rituals too, which a young boy or girl is sacrificed to the River God to pray for safety and security. Fortunately in the end, the boy or girl is substituted by the Three Offerings, i.e. cattle, goat and pig. We find that all the rites are identical to one extent or another, that is, a goat or other animal is used as offerings to substitute the criminal's offence to free from the punishment upon him. Though the rituals are a little bit different over the world cultures, the intention, process and essential are identical. The authors of the paper hold that the phenomena of the rites, in a way, are embodied the cultural universality. That is why we can see so many identical rites among the peoples over the world. And they are transcribed or transfigured more or less, which are no easy for modernists to discern in the world literatures, especially in classics or masterpieces. There are some cases in point, such as *King Oedipus* written by Sophocles, a drama-writer in Ancient Greece, *Hamlet* by William Shakespeare, *The Flies* by French writer Jean-Paul Sartre, *The Desire Under the Elms* by American play-writer O'Neill, and *The Judgment* by Czech writer Kafka. We know that the tragedy *King*

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[1] Here the quotations are taken from *Holy Bible*, New International Version, Hong Kong: International Bible Society, July, 2004.
[2] Here the authors have referred to *The Devil's Lawyer,* written by James George Fraser, Beijing: Oriental Publishing House, 1998, p.1~3.

Oedipus is ended by King Oedipus' exile, who stabbed his eyes himself to subside the plague in Thebe; *Hamlet* ends in the Prince Hamlet's death with his opponents, who fulfilled his revenge for his father in the end; *The Flies* mainly tells a story about Agamemnon, a commander-in-chief of the Greek Allies, whose death led to a series of revenges; *The Desire Under the Elms* tells the story of Ebon, who slew his father and married his mother; *The Judgment* describes a story, in which a father demands his son to drown immediately, and the son followed his father's command and did commit suicide by throwing himself into a river…; Of course we could easily find more works whose plot is different. As for the works' plots mentioned above, we can come to a modal from their diversified plots: the modal is "birth – death substitute or criminal substitute", i.e. kind of transfigured versions of scapegoat format. Central characters' death functions as a substitute in the works. Hence, we regard the central characters as a scapegoat.

III. Shylock as a Scapegoat

In the first part we discussed the origin of the European play, which has derived from the sacrificial rituals, and the formula of scapegoat, the vital of the rites. Boarding on the platform of the scapegoat, we can see Shylock in *The Merchant of Venice* more clearly. For the better studies of Shylock, we roughly outline the plot of the play as the following.

Bassanio, a noble but poor Venetian, asks his friend Antonio, a rich merchant, for three thousand ducats to enable him to prosecute fittingly his suit of the rich heiress Portia at Belmont. Antonio, whose money is all employed in foreign ventures, undertakes to borrow the sum from the Shylock, a Jewish usurer, whom has been wont to upbraid for his extortions. Shylock consents to lend the sum against a bond by which, if the sum is not repaid at the appointed day, Antonio shall forfeit a pound of flesh. In the end, Shylock was forced to turn Christian and make over his property on his death to his daughter Jessica, who has run away and married a Christian and been disinherited; to which Shylock has to agree.

As we know that Jews believe their only God—Jehovah, the Christian conversion to Shylock is a disaster like a bolt over his head, which is not only a personal insult but also a blasphemy against Jewish peoples. The conversion is also exposed to the severe conflicts between Judaism and Christianity, which signifies the prevailing anti-Semites of the age in Britain. And Shakespeare, confined as a realist drama-writer, could not escape from the social currents of ideology inevitably. So it is no wonder that Shylock, a Jewish usurer, is taken as the natural scapegoat of the history.

We hold that Shakespeare's family background is a direct dimension which has impacted his prejudice against Jews. First, Shakespeare is born in a Christian family, whose parents must have imbued him with Christianity. Because Judaism and Christianity have been controversial since Christianity was born, the two religious sects were opponents each other for their doctrines, especially after Christianity had been legitimized by Roman Emperor; the conflicts have lasted more 1, 500 years until Shakespeare's time. Second, because the social ideology of his times is dominated by the only religion—Christianity (Tong, 1982, p.89~91), it is understandable that he is baptized to be a Christian three days after his birth. During his growth he goes to church and prays to Jesus like his fellow Christians. From his childhood on William has begun to recite some passages excerpted from *Proverbs*, *The Prayer's Book,* and *The New Testament,* which have fed him with much food to ingenious imagination. "The ceremonies, morning and evening pray, holy meals, baptism, services and the like in Holy Trinity Church have impressed in his mind, and are expressed in his plays." (Shoenbaum, 1977, p.59)We may safely say that the church bells, music, and the beautiful psalms have encouraged him to be a play-writer. Anthropologists think that child memory plays a key role in fostering the outlook of the world in the future. So does Shakespeare's occurrences in childhood to him as well. Though Shakespeare has come to further understand the life, society in his living and writing, who has even conceived a concept of equality and freedom with the rise of the Renaissance over Europe, and because he is surrounded by the religious society, which is filled with church and the Cross, it is hard for us to admit that he has no religious prejudice against the Judaism in his drama writings.

Besides the family background, *The Merchant of Venice* is affected by British contemporizes, including the theme, plot and hero. As we mentioned above, the anti-Zionism adopted as a theme, which has been presented in play-writing by other play-writers in Britain, has existed for a long time. The previous fellow writers' works will foreshadow Shakespeare, i.e. borrowing or imitating other fellow men of letters, which is good tradition among British writers. In 1579, i.e. 17 years ahead of performing *The Merchant of Venice* (1596), there was a play on show, which "set forth the greediness of worldly choosers, and the bloody minds of usurers". There are some similarities between the 1579-play and *The Merchant of Venice,* especially both of which have represented Jew's characters vividly; both of the plays are almost identical in plot. Annette T. Rubinstein, an American literary critic, remarked that "the casket-plot and the pound of flesh were already combined in one play" (Rubinstein, 1988, p.32). And there is another play-writer Christopher Marlow, Shakespeare's contemporary, who created *The Jews of Malta,* which was successfully put on show in 1589, whose hero is called Barabas. Hence, Marlow will influence Shakespeare, or vice versa. We can make a rough comparison between Barabas and Shylock to see them better: First, both Barabas and Shylock are rich Jewish usurers, avaricious for wealth and are intoxicated by the magic power of money; second, both of them are bloody-hearted and eager avengers. Thirdly, in *The Jews of Malta,* Marlow set Barabas's conflicts against the political struggles, economical crisis, religious prejudices and racial disputes to characterize his character, so did *The Merchant of Venice* to Shylock. Undoubtedly, there are "some other now forgotten similar pieces" between the two plays (Rubinstein, 1988, p.32).

Therefore, in Shakespeare's time, the other play, such as Marlow's, of this period, "at which we take a particular look has, partly for extraneous reasons, become one of the most controversial of Shakespeare's works." The inaccurate but frequent use of the term "a Shylock" for avaricious or heartless person, and the stereotype of a sadistic Jewish money lender are well known to many who have never read or seen *The Merchant of Venice* (Rubinstein, 1988, p.32). If we take a glance over from 1579 to 1596, we know that there are at least three plays performed in public, whose themes are centralized around Jewish usurers, which indicates the anti-Zionism is long lasted and dominant ideology related to history and political affairs. After we have taken the historical background, Shakespeare's contemporaries' works, social ideologies into our account, we see that Shakespeare has learnt, borrowed, or imitated others' theme, characters, plot, materials and settings, he is an apprentice in his early career of writing. He, as a great play writer of realism, has inherited and applied literary traditions to his best efforts. And *The Merchant of Venice* is one typical example of his early career on literary stage, which has reflected the social ideologies. However, he is confined to the history and society, and hasn't transcended them; he has still started to make his voice of protest against the reality heard. His voices of protest are not shown perfectly until in his four classics of pure tragedy, i.e. *Hamlet*, *Othello*, *King Lear* and *Macbeth*.

The anti-Zionism of the age has also plunged Shakespeare into the abyss of the racial prejudice. It is known to us that European countries have prevailed the policy of anti-Semite since the Middle Ages. There are various laws to restrict Jew's activity among the major European countries. And the 13th century has witnessed the peak of the laws and the policies employed wildly. The living conditions for Jews are going down from bad to worse; they have no choice but to be money-lender or trades of medical practice. That is the root of reason that Shylock is a usurer in *The Merchant of Venice*. And there is a celebrity named Martin Luther, a forerunner of religious reformation in the 16th century, whose speech and act have connected with the anti-Semite. One of Luther's works, entitled to *Jew and Lies* written in 1543, is full of the attacks against Jews (Luo, 2003, p.73), whose attacks are fuel added to the anti-Zionism both in Germany and other European countries. Throughout the 16th century anti-Zionism spread over European Continent, especially Western Europe. Because of the English Channel, Great Britain has much less Jews than other European country in the Continent has. Nevertheless, after several hundred years of immigration and the Diaspora in the Middle Ages, Jews can be seen here and there over British Isles. Until Shakespearean times, there is prevailing anti-Semite in England just at its full play. What's worse, a murder has turned into a fuse of the anti-Zionists. The abortive murder, taken place in 1594, which is only two years early ahead of the completion of *The Merchant of Venice*, is a great shock in London. It is said that a wealthy Spanish Jewish doctor, named Lopez, who had been instigated by Spanish King, was charged against murdering Queen Elizabeth of Great Britain. Worse is that Spain and Great Britain are opponents each other at the time, who have waged wars, especially in marine to struggle for overseas colonies. One of the decisive wars, which even is recorded in world history, is the Invincible Warship of Spain was destroyed by British navy in 1588. So the murder, though abortive, is the right excuse to put him on the gallows with massive curses. It seems that the murderer is put to death, and the case is also taken granted to be over. But no, a wild anti-Semite wave is surging throughout the whole London after the murder. What makes us be worthy of further thinking is why such a case turns into a fuse to lead to anti-Zionism against the Jewish race. Undoubtedly, there are religious causes behind the wave, which has everything to be tied up with the European anti-Zionism. In Europe Jews have been suffered from all kinds of crimes given to them and been regarded as poor scapegoats by vast majority of the governments. Even an unimportant offence, which might be done by careless Jews, would directly bring about the attacks or protests of the social walks. Let alone the governments would ignore of the murder of Lopez. Under the anti-Zionist's circumstance at its peak, it is impossible for Shakespeare to stand alone to see the riots against anti-Semites on street in London. Certainly, he is involved into the movement and puzzled by the movement. And as a realist play-writer with sense, Shakespeare could not turn a blind an eye or a deaf ear to the murder and riots at the time, which are great materials for his play-writing. Or he "would likely represent the Spanish doctor's characters. Undoubtedly, on stage the central character Shylock of *The Merchant of Venice* reminds William's audiences of the horrible doctor Lopez." In reality, basing on many aspects, the thoughtful spectators of *The Merchant of Venice* can find that Shylock indicates Lopez. For instance, in Act IV, Scene I of *The Merchant of Venice*, Gratiano, a friend of Antonio in the play, curses that Shylock is merciless and evil-hearted like a wolf.

Thou almost mak'st me waver in my faith,
To hold opinion with Pythagoras
That souls of animals infuse themselves
Into the trunks of men. Thy currish spirit
Governed a wolf who, hanged for human slaughter,
Even from the gallows did his fell soul fleet,
And whilst thou layest in thy unhallowed dam,
Infused itself in thee; for thy desires,
Are wolvish, bloody, starved, and ravenous. (Act IV, Scene I) (emphasis added)

And even there are some scholars of Shakespearian studies, who said that Shakespeare probably has given hints at the Spaniard, Doctor Lopez, because the name Lopez, borrowed from Latin word "Lupus", means "wolf", the same meaning with English word "wolf" (Wang, 1999, p.103~5). So the performance of *The Merchant of Venice* at the time

would add fuel to the current anti-Zionism. Or otherwise, some other Shakespearian scholars think that the play could also be a satire or an irony to the reality, through which he shows his sympathy to Shylock. If the interpretation is reasonable and convincible, Shakespeare's play can be regarded as a tool to express his anger or dissent to the anti-Zionism. Whatever the interpretations are, it is hard for us to take them for granted today. And the uncertainty is kind of "blank spots or empty space" in literary text, which is like the empty-space-leaving technique intentionally used to arouse spectators' imagination in Chinese ink painting, and so is *The Merchant of Venice.* The blank spot or empty space is a an appeal or a call to readers as well as clue to reader's imagination, which are looking forward to reader's interpreting; the blank spots or empty space could be called "silent spots" to be confirmed by later readers. We can't transcend the historical valley to catch what Shakespeare intends to express by returning to his times. What we have talked about his ideas today probably is only a drop of his oceanic connotation or denotation after over 400 years. No wonder, Goldman, a French thinker and critic, said that a classic lies in its silent spots.

George Lukacs, a Hungarian Marxist literary critic, claims that totality is a dialectical, historical method to remark a work. We may make use of the concept of the totality to study Shylock as well. Here, the totality has at least two meanings; first, we should set Shylock in the web of *The Merchant of Venice,* which is supposed to be seen as an organic system, seen in both synchronic and diachronic system, including others' works concerned with Jewish usurers, accidents, background, history, political affairs, in brief, anything related to Shylock but Shakespeare's works; second, the studies of Shylock should be associated with Shakespeare's complete works so that we may see Shylock in the Gallery of Shakespearian characters, by contrast and comparison. Taken from "the totality" of Shakespeare, Shylock could be seen as a mouth organ substitute for Shakespeare to express his angry voices; and we can see that Shakespeare takes pity on Shylock because his representation of the racial prejudices against Jews is an exposition to the dark side of the British society, or a kind of muckraking. In fact, the exposition or muckraking is subversive to the ruling class. Stephen Greenblatt, the leading proponent of American New Historicism, said that the three of Spencer, Marlow and Shakespeare are singing songs for rebellion and turn to subversive, apparent docility (Zhu, 2009, p.403). The remarks indicate that their works keep up with the social ideology of the times apparently; but on the hand, they are subversive, whose works reveal the writers' rebel and challenge against the specific ideology of the times. Consequently, we may take Shylock as one of Shakespearian images to oppose the anti-Zionism. In Act I, Scene III, making use of Shylock, Shakespeare has expressed his fury about the prejudices:

…he hath disgrac'd me, and hinder'd me half a million, laugh'd at my losses, mock'd at my gains, scorned my nation, thwarted my bargains, cooled my friends, heated mine enemies, and what's his reason? I am a Jew: hath not a Jew eyes? Hath not a Jew hands, organs, dimensions, senses, affections, passions, fed with the same food, hurt with the same weapons, subject to the same disease, healed by the same means, warmed and cooled by the same winter and summer as a Christian is: if you prick us do we not bleed? If you tickle us do we not laugh? If you poison us do we not die? And if you wrong us shall we not revenge? If we like you in the rest, we resemble you in that. If a Jew wrong a Christian, what is his humility, revenge! If a Christian wrong a Jew, what should his sufferance be by Christian example, why revenge! The villainy you teach me I will execute, and it shall go hard but I will better the instruction. (Act III, Scene I)

The denunciation from Shylock's mouth reveals Shakespeare's wrath and protest against the anti-Zionists as well his appeal to humanitarian equality, which shows his pity to Shylock, a victim of the racial prejudices. Up to the modern times, because of Jews' continuous miseries and disasters in human history, mercy and sympathy are easily tended to give Jews. So, Shylock, as a forerunner image of suffered Jews, is given more sympathy than before, for instance, the film *The Merchant of Venice* produced in USA in 2004, which expresses a sympathetic attitude to Shylock.[3] Though Shylock wins our pitiful tears, seen from the total system of Shakespeare's works, such subversive heroes depicted more vividly can't be perfect till in Shakespeare's four classics of pure tragedy in his latter writing period.

IV. CONCLUSION

Shakespeare's dualistic features, which he is both a feudalist with strong religious sense and a humanist, determine his attitude to depict Shylock; on one hand Shylock is characterized as the scapegoat of the racial prejudices to defend the ruling class's ideology; on the other hand he shows his great sympathy to Shylock's surroundings. By observing Shylock, we readers can see clearly the social walks of life of the times; bloody, greedy people may be suffered unfair treatments; but sometimes, good and just men might do something ungraceful because of selfishness, which provide us with realistic pictures of the reality. It is Shakespeare's multiple dimensional explorations to his heroes that his characterizations of characters are life-like, and thought-provoking, such as Hamlet, Falstaff, King Lear, Macbeth, Timon, etc, who are types of literary images in the history of world literature. And in the later period of his pure tragedies, Shakespeare has thrown off his apparent docility and made fury to rebuke the dark sides of the times.

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The Relationship between Project-based Instruction and Motivation: A Study of EFL Learners in Iran

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Abstract—**Project-Based Instruction (PBI) is believed to enjoy a strong theoretical foundation; however, the practical relevance of this sort of instruction is associated with lots of controversies. This study focused on the application of PBI to the Iranian university context. The objective was to find out whether this kind of instruction exerts positive effects on the motivation of university students majoring in English language. The measuring instrument used was the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS). Eighty BA students from Islamic Azad University (Kermanshah and Sanandaj Branches) and Payame Nour University (Eslamabad Gharb and Kermanshah Branches) participated in the study. The design of the study was Solomon four-group (SFG) in which there was one research question addressed by six complementary hypotheses. On the basis of the results, it was concluded that 1) this type of instruction leads to motivation improvement for the participants who receive the treatment both in the pretest/posttest and experimental/control groups, 2) SFG provides the necessary framework to keep the influences of the pretests under control, and 3) there are statistical justifications to be cautious when generalizing the findings.**

Index Terms—**Project-Based Instruction, motivation, self-determination theory, solomon four-group**

I. INTRODUCTION

Language teaching methods were either explicitly or implicitly influenced by general and language learning theories/hypotheses, and the employments of methods were often justified on the basis of the underlying theories (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). This was one of the reasons why a particular way of teaching was rejected and another introduced. To provide common examples, instructional practice on the basis of Audio-lingual drew upon and received justification from Structural Linguistics and Behaviorist Psychology, Communicative Language Teaching from the notion of communicative as opposed to linguistics competence, and Natural Approach from certain learning hypotheses.

After the inauguration of the Post-method Era the focus of attention shifted from the employment of methods in language instruction due to a number of reasons. Richards and Rogers (2001) suggested five reasons in this regard including the top-down criticism, the role of contextual factors, the need for curriculum development processes, the lack of research basis, and the similarity of classroom practices. In addition, this shift from method employment was justified on the basis of the need for three main parameters in language pedagogy, namely parameters of particularity, possibility, and practicality (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2003).

Nevertheless, there are particular instructional procedures that have still kept their impact on language teaching. Among these instructional procedures, Project-Based Instruction (PBI) is considered to be associated with quite effective learning opportunities for teaching languages in various contexts. This can be understood based on the writings of such language teaching scholars as Ke (2010), Smith (2005), and Stoller (2002).To exemplify the case, according to Stoller (2002),

Project-based learning should be viewed as a versatile vehicle for fully integrated language and content learning, making it a viable option for language educators working in a variety of instructional setting, including general English, English for academic purposes (EAP), English for specific purposes (ESP), and English for occupational/vocational/professional purposes. (Stoller, 2002, p. 109)

However, the issue is not that straightforward and there are difficulties which might arise in practice. To clarify the point, in a study of secondary school language students reported by Beckett (2002), it was found that less than one fifth of the participants deemed PBI a favorable approach. Twenty-five percent of the students had mixed feelings towards the approach. The rest of the learners had a negative feeling, and they were of the opinion that this type of instruction

hindered them from learning the components they required in order to improve their English. In another study which focused on integrating writing and presentation skills necessary for academic success, Moulton and Holmes (2000, p. 28) noticed that the completion rate for the course was quite low. These controversies over the credibility of Project-Based Instruction are the reason why the present study is concerned with the question of whether this type of instruction exerts positive effects on a construct believed to have a lot to do with language teaching. More specifically, the objective is to assess experimentally the extent to which the employment of PBI exerts positive effects on motivation of the Iranian university students majoring in English language.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Project Based Instruction (PBI)

Particular learning activities called 'project work' and 'project approach' come under Project-Based Instruction which is a type of instruction emphasizing the role of projects. Projects are "defined as a long-term (several weeks) activity that involves a variety of individual or cooperative tasks such as developing a research plan and questions, and implementing the plan through empirical or document research that includes collecting, analyzing, and reporting data orally and/or in writing" (Beckett, 2002, p. 54). The advocates of PBI consider this type of instruction to be based upon Vygotsky's constructivist theory as well as Dewey's experiential learning (Smith, 2005).

The first theory places emphasis upon the individual's construction of reality in the social context. More specifically, according to this theory, there are two phases in children's cultural development, and any action in this process appears twice: It first appears on the social plane, between people, and inter-psychologically. Only then can it develop the potential to appear on the psychological phase, within people, and intra-psychologically (Johnson, 2004). According to Murphy (1997), "the way in which knowledge is conceived and acquired, the types of knowledge, skills and activities emphasized, the role of the learners and teacher, how goals are established; all of these factors are articulated differently in the constructivist's perspective" (p. 4). That is why this theory is considered a much more effective perspective to inform language learning practitioners than a mere attachment to the place of cognition (Johnson, 2004).

In a similar vein, the proponents of experiential learning attach importance to the role of the learners' first-hand involvement in the learning process and their direct experiences with the real world as the learning environment. This type of learning is associated most with John Dewey who believed "that children must start with direct, concrete, real-life experience to help connect learning to their world, and to set foundations for abstract notions" (Smith, 2005, p. 222). Hence, one of the fundamental principles underlying PBI can be considered as the notion that knowledge is acquired and expanded as we draw upon our previous experiences to solve new problems and that learning on the basis of books cannot be an adequate substitute for actually doing things. This is in line with the educational view suggested by Dewey where teachers are to "know how to utilize the surroundings, physical and social, that exist so as to extract from them all that they have to contribute to building up experiences that are worthwhile" (Dewey, 1938, p. 15).

B. Motivation

Motivation has been studied and defined by a number of learning scholars. As far as Keller (1983) is concerned, motivation "refers to the choice people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect" (p. 389). In a similar vein, as fundamental to his social-psychological model, Gardener (1985) considers motivation the combination of three factors, namely the learners' efforts to learn, their desires to achieve this goal, and their favorable attitudes towards it. Chastain (1990) also defines motivation as "some incentive that causes the individual to participate in an activity leading towards a goal and to persevere until the goal is reached" (p. 172). He classifies it into three types, viz cognitive drive, ego enhancement, and social affiliation. The first, in this framework, is the outcome of a desire to learn, the second is a means of enhancing self-concept, and the third is the result of a desire to integrate with the members of a speech community.

Brown (2001, p. 73-4) believes that the notion of motivation can be interpreted differently by people following different schools of thought. For the advocates of the behaviorist learning theory, he argues, motivation is considered as the expectation of reinforcement while in a cognitive point of view, the argument continues, motivation is illustrated in accordance with three different theories. The first is drive theory in which motivation is an inner drive, impulse or desire that moves individuals to take particular actions as the results of their needs for exploration, activity, manipulation, knowledge, stimulation, and ego-enhancement. The second refers to the hierarchy of needs theory where motivation is approached in accordance with Maslow's hierarchy of needs, and according to which "a person is not adequately energized to pursue some of the higher needs until the lower foundations of the pyramid are satisfied" (p. 74). The third theory relevant in a cognitive perspective of motivation, according to Brown (2001), is self-control theory where "motivation is highest when people make their own choices whether they are in short-term or long-term contexts" (p. 75)

As another cognitive approach to the theory of motivation, Deci and Ryan (1985, 1991) suggested self-determination theory (SDT) which is deemed a theory concerned with individuals' goal-directed behavior. Ryan (2009) considers SDT as a macro-theory of motivation drawing on Jean Piaget and Carl Rodgers' learning views and involving five sub-theories. The first sub-theory, cognitive valuation theory, is suggested as a mini-theory accounting for "how social

contexts and interpersonal interaction either facilitate or undermine intrinsic motivation" (p. 1). Here, it is important to know that within the framework of SDT a distinction is made between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation concerns behavior performed for its own sake in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction such as the joy of satisfying one's curiosity. Extrinsic motivation, however, involves performing behavior as a means to an end, i.e., to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. receiving good marks) or to avoid punishment.

The second mini-theory suggested is organismic integration theory, which is believed to be a mini-theory addressing "the process of internalization of various extrinsic motives" (Ryan, 2009, p. 1). The focus of consideration here is internalization and how it is accomplished in accordance with extrinsic motivation which is believed to run the gamut from "external regulation, to introjection (for example, engaging in behaviors to avoid guilt or feel approval), to identification, to integration" (p. 1). The third mini-theory proposed for SDT is causality orientations theory which is expected to describe "individual differences in how people orient to different aspects of the environment in regulating behavior" (Ryan, 2009, p. 2). As still another sub-theory, basic psychological needs theory is concerned with "the concept of basic needs by connecting them directly with wellness" (p. 2). According to this theory, "each need exerts independent effects on wellness, and moreover that the impact of any behavior or event on well-being is largely a function of its relations with need satisfaction" (p. 2). Finally, the fifth mini-theory underlying SDT is goal contents theory on the basis of which,

Materialism and other extrinsic goals such as fame or image do not tend to enhance need satisfaction … even when one is successful at attaining them. In contrast, goals such as intimate relationships, personal growth, or contributing to one's community are conducive to need satisfaction. (Kasser & Ryan, 1996 cited by Ryan, 2009, p. 2)

Among all the motivational formulations discussed above, Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory has recently been one of the widely-adopted approaches to study motivation in accordance with other constructs of importance in language instruction. Conttia (2007), for example, used SDT as a motivation theoretical foundation to study the impact of learner motivation on the development of learner autonomy in an English-for-specific-purposes course. Ziahosseini and Salehi (2008), however, drew upon SDT to investigate the relationship between motivation and the use of language learning strategies by university students in Iran. The motivation instrument used in both of the studies was the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) suggested by Vallerand et al. (1992, 1993).

III. RESEARCH QUESTION

What are the effects of Project-Based Instruction on language students' motivation as measured by the Academic Motivation Scale?

IV. RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Since the design used in this study was Solomon four-group (SFG), the research question was addressed from six complementary perspectives. Hence, there are six hypotheses as follows:

1) There is a significant difference between the means of T2 (posttest for the experimental group A) and T6 (posttest for the control group C).

2) There is a significant difference between the means of T1 (pretest for the experimental group B) and T3 (posttest for the experimental group B).

3) There is a significant difference between the means of T3 (posttest for the experimental group B) and T5 (posttest for the control group D).

4) There is no significant difference between the means of T4 (pretest for the control group D) and T2 (posttest for the experimental group A).

5) There is no significant difference between the means of T2+T6 (posttests for the experimental group A and control group C) and T3+T5 (posttest for the experimental group B and posttest for the control group D).

6) There is a significant difference between the means of T2+T3 (posttests for the experimental groups A and B) and T5+T6 (posttests for the control groups D and C).

V. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 80 undergraduate students from Islamic Azad University (Kermanshah and Sanandaj branches) and Payame Nour University (Eslamabad Gharb and Kermanshah Branches). All the students were freshmen majoring in English Language. They included four classes (each class from one university branch) altogether. They all had Conversation One as their specialist course for the term.

B. Instruments

The measuring instrument employed in this research, the motivation questionnaire was originally developed in French and called the Echelle de Motivation en Education (Vallerand et al., 1992). This questionnaire was developed in accordance with the tenets of self-determination theory in the sense that it was composed of items aimed at assessing

intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation along the lines suggested by Deci and Ryan (1985, 1991). To accomplish such an objective, all the 28 items of the scale are divided into seven sub-scales assessing (a) three types of intrinsic motivation (intrinsic motivation to know, to accomplish things, and to experience stimulation), (b) three types of extrinsic motivation (external, introjected, and identified regulation), and (c) amotivation. Due to the language, this questionnaire could not be used for students learning English in the majority of other communities than France. Thus, Vallerand et al. (1992) attempted to first translate this measuring instrument into English and next to cross-culturally validate it in this language. The validation results demonstrated that the English version of the scale, relabeled the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS), enjoys an internal consistency reliability level of 0.81 (α = .81). Furthermore, the results of a confirmatory factor analysis established the factorial validity of the instrument on the basis of balanced loading of the items on the seven-factor structure of the AMS. Another study, Vallerand et al. (1993), focused on the analysis of the Concurrent and Construct Validity of the instrument and found support in these respects as well.

C. Data Collection

The data in this research was collected within the framework of the Solomon four-group design. Thus, in each of the two four university branches focused on in the study, a class (Conversation One) was randomly selected and each was randomly assigned to either an experimental or to a control group. At the beginning of the term, among the four participating classes two were randomly selected (one experimental and one control) and tested to decide students' pretest scores on the variable under study. The next step involved the question of treatment. The control groups did not receive any special instruction and followed the language instructional procedures common for Iranian university context. The experimental groups, however, over fifteen sessions held during the same number of consecutive weeks, received treatment on the basis of PBI procedures involving the following steps.

(1) In collaboration with the students, attempts were made to identify a theme that was of interest to all, and if not possible, at least the majority of the students. (2) The grounds were paved to decide collaboratively the objective of the course as regards both content and language and to determine the steps to be taken by the students to reach the final outcome. (3) The teacher took into consideration all possible dimensions of the students' learning needs to pave the way for the language demands associated with the following steps. (4) The students were assisted to gather information inside and outside the classroom, individually, in pairs, or in groups. (5) Working individually or in groups and drawing upon the teachers' guidelines, students presented the materials the way they found appropriate. (6) Students got motivated as well as assisted to reflect on (a) the steps taken to accomplish their objectives and (b) the language, communicative skills as well as information acquired in the process. (7) In collaboration with the students, the teacher decided on a framework to evaluate the students and decide their final marks.

This sequence shared features with and differed in a number of ways from the procedures suggested project work by such scholars as Sheppard and Stoller (1995, p. 10) and Heilman and Stout (2005, pp. 589-91). Nevertheless, due to the importance attached to student collaboration and the primary part it has in this sort of project based learning, the sequence was naturally affected by such factors as the interest and motivation of the students, the amount of cooperation between the students and the teacher, and the educational setting in which the instructional program materialized. At the end of the term, all four groups of the participants were given the posttests using those same two measuring instruments employed for the pretest.

Furthermore, the design used in this study was Solomon four-group (see Braver & Braver, 1988; Kirk, 2009 among others for more on this). This design is believed not only to control the majority of factors threatening internal validity but also to provide the researcher with the opportunity to check the influence of the pretest. That is because this design is a combination of pretest-posttest two-group design and the posttest only control design as we can see according to the following table.

TABLE I
SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE DESIGN

Group		Pretest	Treatment	Posttest
Experimental 1	A	--	X	T2
Experimental 2	B	T1	X	T3
Control 1	C	--	--	T6
Control 2	D	T4	--	T5

D. Data Analysis

Regarding data analysis in current study, there are several issues to pay attention to. First, the participants of the study, as a requirement of the design, involved four groups: two experimental (A and B) and two control groups (C and D). Among these groups only two were pretested while all the four groups were given posttests. Secondly, since one of the tenets of SFG is the credibility of test/retest for measuring purposes, we needed to pay attention to the reliability limitations of the stability estimates pointed out by such testing scholars as Bachman (1990, pp. 181-182; 2004, pp. 166-167). Hence, it should be noted that (1) the differential practice effects argued to lead to drawbacks in test/retest estimates was accounted for since the time duration between the pretest and the posttest was well over two months. (2) Learning/unlearning effects believed to exert negative consequences was also accounted for since it was the purpose of

the study to find out about the systematic gains and improvements students experienced on the two variables. (3) The internal consistency reliability turned out to exceed what Vallerand et al. (1992) had statistically proposed for the scale (they had suggested an Alpha Cronbach level of .81 and here it turned out to be .85)

There are some other issues to address in relation with the data analysis in this study: (1) the collected data on motivation consisted of the performances of the participants on the AMS for six different situations which were represented as T1, T2, T3, T4, T5 and T6. In addition, the tests were combined in four different ways as T3+T6, T2+T5, T5+T6 and T2+T3. (2) The data on the pretest and posttest for group B were analyzed in the same way as pretest/posttest designs. (3) The data for groups B and D were analyzed in the same way as in an experimental/control design.

In addition, we were aware of the statistical significance of several issues as follows: (1) the comparison between the group D pretest and the group A posttest could help our understanding on the impact of pretest to some extent. In addition, the comparison between the posttest results of groups A+C versus B+D could provide further assistance giving us the chance to determine if the actual act of pretesting influenced the results. In other words, these two could furnish sufficient statistical justification on whether the experimental groups with no pretest were performing differently from the other groups in terms of mean gain. (2) The comparison of the group D pretest (T4) with group C posttest (T6) could help us decide whether external factors had exerted impacts. For instance, it could provide clues to the role of a particular factor other than the treatment. And (3) A comparison between the posttest results for groups A and B (the two groups receiving treatment) with the posttest results for groups C and D (the two control groups) could help us decide the strength of the treatment and decide whether it would lead to mean gain in the two groups considered together.

VI. RESULTS

As pointed out above, the objective of this research was to find out whether Project-Based Instruction exerts positive effects on the motivation of university students majoring in English. The design employed was SFG and the research question was hypothesized from six different perspectives. The first hypothesis was that there is a significant difference between the mean of the T2 and that of the T6. The t-test result for this first hypothesis comes in the following table.

TABLE II
T-TESTS RESULTS FOR HYPOTHESIS ONE

Tests	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Difference	T	Sig. (2-tailed)
T2	20	148.3500	17.39412	-4.47500	-.576	.572
T6	20	152.4250	24.17550			

As the table shows (Sig. = .572), H1 does not find support in this hypothesis demonstrating that there is not a significant difference between the mean of the posttest for the experimental group A and that of the posttest for the control group C. Regarding the second research hypothesis, we need to know whether there is a significant difference between the means of T1 and T3. We have the t-test information for the second hypothesis in Table 3 below.

TABLE III
T-TESTS RESULTS FOR THE HYPOTHESIS TWO

Tests	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Difference	T	Sig. (2-tailed)
T1	20	144.2756	14.50772	16.71107	-6.317	.000
T3	20	160.9867	15.80522			

Taking into account the significance level, H0 is rejected for this second hypothesis and H1 finds support meaning there is a significant difference between the mean of the pretest for the experimental group B and that of the posttest for the same group. Nonetheless, since SFD paves the grounds for approaching the research question from various complementary perspectives, we need to move on further to the third hypothesis according to which there is a significant difference between the means of T3 and T5. Table 4 below provides the statistical t-test information for this hypothesis.

TABLE IV
T-TESTS RESULTS FOR THE HYPOTHESIS THREE

Tests	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Difference	T	Sig. (2-tailed)
T3	20	160.9867	15.80322	11.67184	2.148	.045
T5	20	149.3149	19.62908			

Taking into consideration the significance level, contrary to the first and similar to the second hypothesis but of course not as strong (Sig. = .045), this third hypothesis finds support. Nonetheless, there are other factors to take into account important among which whether the pretests are exerting negative effects on the results of the research. One way to do this is to check whether the experimental group which does not have a pretest is performing differently from the other group in terms of mean gain. Hence, we need to make a comparison between the mean gain in T2 and T4. The t-test information for this hypothesis comes next.

TABLE V
T-TESTS RESULTS FOR THE HYPOTHESIS FOUR

Tests	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Difference	T	Sig. (2-tailed)
T4	20	136.6833	17.42896	11.66667	2.008	.059
T2	20	148.3500	17.39412			

Paying attention to the significance level (Sig. = .059), hypothesis four supported revealing that the experimental group with no pretest is not performing differently from the other group in terms of mean gain. This takes us one step further to our certainty about the positive impact of PBI on motivation. However, in order to make sure that the treatment has actually been the source of improvement, the t-test results for hypothesis five (Table 6) can provide further insights.

TABLE VI
T-TESTS RESULTS FOR THE HYPOTHESIS FIVE

Tests	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Difference	T	Sig. (2-tailed)
T2+T6	20	301.1750	23.78482	9.12658	1.043	.310
T3+T5	20	310.3016	26.06539			

What understood on the basis of the table is that the mean gains for posttests of the two groups lacking pretests (groups A and C) are not significantly different from those of the groups pretested. This strengthens our certainty even more regarding the positive effects of PBI on motivation. Nonetheless, SFG design furnishes another complementary perspective which in this study provides statistical information to question the results in part (Table 7).

TABLE VII
T-TESTS RESULTS FOR THE HYPOTHESIS SIX

Tests	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Difference	T	Sig. (2-tailed)
T2+T3	20	309.3367	24.27832	-7.19684	-.785	.442
T5+T6	20	302.1399	27.00734			

As the result of the statistical information provided by this table, we see that the added mean of the two experimental groups is not significantly different from that of the two control groups. In other words, among the four groups of participants two receiving the treatment and two lacking it (and for each pair one pretested), the mean gain for the two groups having the treatment has not significantly improved in comparison with the other two groups.

VII. DISCUSSIONS

As it is understood on the basis of the t-test table for the first hypothesis (Sig. = .572), there is not a significant difference between the means of posttest for the experimental group A and posttest for the control group C. These two groups of participants share features in the sense that they do not have any pretests, but they are different in another respect: one group receives the treatment (PBI) while the other does not. Thus, the first impression is that the treatment does not exert any effects on the motivation of university students majoring in English in Iranian context. Nevertheless, within the framework of Solomon four-group statistical design, we are not justified to take a one-dimensional approach towards any research question. Hence, we move to the second hypothesis in which H0 is rejected and H1 finds support. This reveals that, contrary to the result of the first hypothesis, there is a significant difference between the mean of the pretest for the experimental group B and that of the posttest for the same group. Therefore, under the condition that the design used for the study was narrowed down to this second hypothesis and the pretest/posttest framework underlying it, on the basis of the result here, we could have concluded that PBI is suitable for the Iranian university context at least as far as those majoring in English are concerned because, as we see in Table 3, the alpha decision level was set at a conservative level of lower than .01.

Regarding the third hypothesis as we can see according to the significance level (Sig. = .045), contrary to the first and similar to the second hypothesis but of course not as strong (since the alpha decision level is more liberal), H1 once again finds support showing that there is a significant difference between the mean of posttest for the experimental group B and that of the posttest for the control group D. Data collection procedures for T3 and T5, if considered separately, enjoys all the features of a true experimental design (random selection, pretests, treatment and posttests). Therefore, it seems quite reasonable to think that the treatment did have positive effects on the motivation of the participants particularly considering that the treatment led to significant mean gain for the previous hypothesis as well. Nevertheless, one of the problems with the pretest/posttest and true experimental designs is that we are not certain how much of the posttest gain is due to the treatment because it might be due to the mere impact of the pretests per se. Within the framework of the current design, this difficulty is accounted for in a number of ways. One way to do this is to make a comparison between the pretest mean of the control Group D (the one pretested) with the posttest mean of the experimental group which is not pretested (Group A), and this is the issue which is addressed by hypothesis four.

The significance level for this hypothesis equals .059 meaning there is no significant difference between the mean of the pretest for group D and the posttest for the experimental group. Data collection procedures for these two groups, if considered alongside each other can be considered a pretest/posttest framework in which we do not have the possible

side effects of the pretest. Here, we have a mean difference of 11.66667 which, although not significant, is similar in direction and even in amount for those we have regarding the t-test results in hypothesis two (mean difference = 16.71107) and hypothesis three (mean difference = 11.67148). In addition, we have the t-test results for hypothesis five (Table 7) according to which the mean gains for posttests of the two groups lacking pretests (groups A and C) are not significantly different from those of the groups pretested. In other words, as far as treatment is concerned, each pair is similar to the other. Hence, the only source of variance (in addition of course to the uncontrolled variables) could have been learning/unlearning and practice effects due to the pretests which as we see have not led to any significant mean difference (Sig. = .310). Thus, another line of justification is provided to believe that the motivation improvement of participants is due to PBI and not the impact of the pretests. In sum, hypotheses four and five furnished sufficient statistical justification to say that the experimental groups with pretests were not performing differently from the other groups in terms of mean gain.

Nonetheless, the design furnishes another complementary perspective. This last line of reasoning on the basis of SFG statistical information seems to question our findings at least in part (Table 7). As the result of the statistical information provided by this table, we see that the added mean of the two experimental groups is not significantly different from that of the two control groups. In other words, among the four groups of participants two receiving the treatment and two lacking it (and for each pair one pretested), the mean gain for the two groups having the treatment has not significantly improved in comparison with the other groups. This could mean that the impact of the treatment in the two groups together cannot be considered as the source sufficient mean gain in motivation which if true can question the results reached in this study.

VIII. CONCLUSION

To know if PBI exerts positive effects on the motivation of Iranian university students majoring in English, drawing on SFG design, six complementary hypotheses were tested in this study. As regards the first hypothesis and whether there is a significant difference between the means of posttest for the experimental group A and the posttest for the control group C, the hypothesis was rejected. Regarding the second hypothesis, the result was different from the first, and it was found that there is a significant difference between the mean of the pretest for the experimental group B and that of the posttest for the same group. This was also the case with the third hypothesis as well, and it was found that there is a significant difference between the mean of the posttest for the experimental group B and that of the posttest for the control group D. In other words, the treatment led to significant mean gain for two of the first three hypotheses.

Since the second hypothesis rested on a pretest/posttest statistical basis and the data collected for the third hypothesis enjoyed all the features of a true experimental design (random selection, pretests, treatment and posttests), the conclusion is that the treatment (PBI) did have positive effects on the motivation of the participants. Nevertheless, one of the problems with the pretest/posttest and true experimental designs is that we are not certain how much of the posttest gain is because of the treatment since it might be due to the mere impact of the pretesting per se.

The design furnished the opportunity to account for this difficulty by testing three more hypotheses. The first hypothesis in this respect (the forth of the study) concentrated on the difference between the mean of the pretest for the control group D and that of the posttest for the experimental group A. The data collected for these two groups, considered alongside each other, can be considered as a pretest/posttest framework in which we do not have the possible side effects of the pretests. Making a comparison between the mean gain here (mean difference = 11.66667) and those for hypothesis two (mean difference = 16.71107) and hypothesis three (mean difference = 11.67148), it was concluded that the pretest has most possibly not distorted the results and that the treatment has led to motivation improvement. In order to change this possibility into certainty in our conclusion, we drew on the results for the test combinations underlying the last two hypothesis of the research (the fifth and the sixth).

For hypothesis five, H0 was not rejected: the mean gains for posttests of the two groups lacking pretests (groups A and C) were not significantly different from those of the groups pretested, and because of which it was concluded that the motivation improvement of participants was due to PBI and not the impact of the pretest. Regarding hypothesis six, we expected to have a significant difference between the means of T2+T3 (posttests for the experimental groups A and B) and T5+T6 (posttests for the control groups A and B) due to the combined effects of the treatment, but we had the opposite result: the mean gain for the two groups having the treatment had not significantly improved in comparison with the other groups. Hence, it was concluded that there is the need to handle the results with caution when we intend to generalize the findings.

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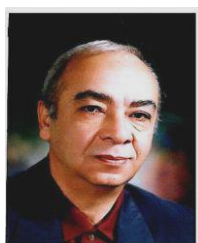
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The Exploration of the Topical Progression Patterns in English Discourse Analysis

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Abstract—On the basis of a brief literature review about the major topical progression and thematic progression theory models proposed by the scholars at home and overseas, the present article incorporates the TP modal of Converse Linear Progression maintained by Hu Yinglin into the four types of TSP advocated by Simpson. Meanwhile, the paper attempts to make the addition of the Extended Converse Linear Progression to analyze the topical progression in the available popular English narrative discourse "a private conversation" which achieves coherence and finally points out the limitations of thus doing with one text in expectancy to testify the hypothesized pattern within more various genres of discourses.

Index Terms—discourse analysis, thematic progression, topical progression extended converse linear progression modal

## I. A Brief Literature Review of Topical Progression and Thematic Progression Studies

In order to be able to understand fully the coherence and cohesion achieved within a paragraph or text, the different predecessors in the area of discourse analysis made good use of the quite similar but somewhat different theoretical models. Danes (1974) held that a textual information construction was decided by the thematic progression and the characteristics of thematic progression determined the kinds of textual genres. Since then, many linguists began to research theme and thematic progression models. According to Qi Wang & Xiaotang Cheng (2004), Danes (1974) , and Fries (1983, 1995) have induced such four fundamental TP models as Simple Linear TP or chain model, TP with a continuous Theme ,TP with derived Themes and the exposition of a split Rheme. Michael McCarthy (1991) concluded the pattern of TP with derived rheme via analyzing the postcard discourse. Shenghuan Xu (1982, 1985) advanced two brand-new TP patterns: TP with the same rheme and crossed pattern which are totally distinct from those put forward by Danes, Fries and Michael McCarthy. Based on the work done by the previous linguists, Yan Huang (1985) summarized seven models of TP: the same theme pattern, simple linear TP, the same rheme pattern, crossed pattern, parallel progression pattern, the rheme of the 1st clause becoming the theme of the following clauses, and there being no clear relation between or among the theme and rheme of the clauses in a discourse. Recent years has witnessed some further studies about theme and rheme. Yan Liu (2010) commented on the basic three topical progression patterns: parallel progression, sequential progression and extended parallel progression by disclosing their advantages and disadvantages respectively and maintained the extended parallel progression was superior to the other two. Bing Li (2012) conducted an experimental study of coherence of argumentative writings from the perspectives of genre theory and thematic progression theory. And still Mei Chen (2005), Guoqing Li (2003), Lan Xiang (2002) etc. among many others carried out some practical studies to relate the TP modals with the teaching of English reading, writing and translating.

In this paper, the author tentatively makes the comparison between TSP which was proposed by Lautimatti in 1987, then developed by Simposon in 2000 and the main patterns of thematic progression modals in English discourse explicated by Yinglin Hu in 2006, hoping to find out their own merits and demerits in an expectation to extract their advantageous thinking modes by combining them to analyze the topical progression patterns of the English discourses.

A. The Models of TSP

The theme-rheme theory is the basis of the systematic-functional linguistic approach. Halliday(1985) takes the theme as "the point of departure of the message" and says that it is developed in the rheme which is "the remainder of the message" within the sentence. The theme can be identified as that element which comes first position in the clause. The thematic patterning is called "thematic structure" (Halliday, 1985) or "thematic progression (TP)" (Danes, 1974) or "method of development" (Fries, 1983; Martin, 1992). The topical structure analysis (TSP) refers to the analyzing of coherence derived by examining the internal topical structure of the paragraph as reflected by the repetition of key words and phrases. Lautimatti(1987) proposed three types of topical structure analysis , namely Parallel Progression(PP two consecutive clauses with the same topical subject), Sequential Progression(SP the comment element of a clause becoming the topic element of the consecutive clause) and the Extended Parallel Progression(EPP a topical subject occurs in two clauses that are not consecutive). Simpson (2000) suggested that there should be the addition of the fourth category---Extended Sequential Progression (ESP, the comment element of a clause becoming the topic element of the discontinuous clause). The extended sequential progression can be regarded as a strategy to link ideas together across a distance in a paragraph. In the TSP model, both Lautimatti and Simpson employ three basic sentence elements which

play important roles in analyzing the thematic progression. They identified the initial sentence element (ISE), which is what comes first in the sentence. This may be the subject of the sentence, an introductory phrase or clause; the second element is the mood subject (MS) or the grammatical subject of the sentence. And the third element is the topical subject (TS), which may or may not the mood subject. The three TSP modals by Lautimatti and the newly-added modal by Simpson can be diagrammed as follows (cited from Huisong Zhang (2006)):
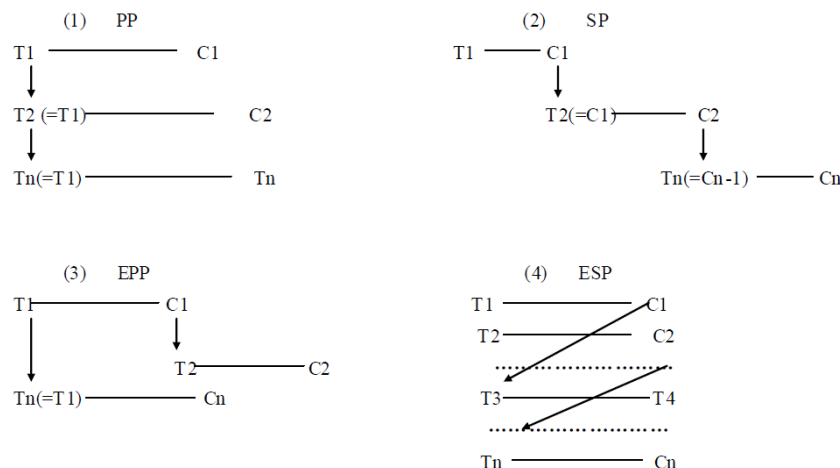
B. Main Patterns of TP Maintained By Yinglin Hu

From the viewpoint of Yinglin Hu, there just generally lies the parallelism, a kind of rhetorical device, as a kind of link of ideas within a paragraph or discourse.

And he categorizes the main patterns of thematic progression in English as the following four types: Simple Linear Progression (SLP, the rheme in the previous sentence becomes the theme of the next sentence), Constant Theme Progression (CTP, the theme is identical in a sequence of sentences), Constant Rheme Progression (CRP, the rheme is identical in a sequence of sentences) and the Converse Linear Progression (CLP, each theme becomes the rheme of the next sentence). They are diagramed as follows:
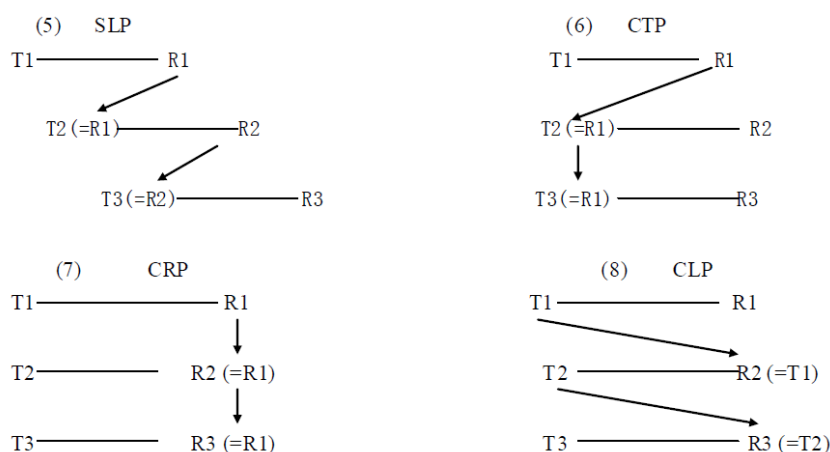
C. Comparison between TSP and HU's Patterns of TP

In the Models of TSP, parallelism is dichotomously divided into two subcategories: the parallelism progression and the extended parallelism progression, whereas HU only vaguely put forward the parallelism. Apparently, TSP model is much more concrete and conveniently operationalized.

The four types of thematic progression embraced in the main patterns of Hu deserve respective concern and treatment. The Constant Theme Progression and the Constant Rheme Progression are very formal, much too fixed and metaphysically, which are merely applicable to analyze certain genres of discourse. The Simple Linear Progression is rather identical with the Sequential Progression in TSP, the rheme of the clause changes into the theme of the consecutive clause. What the TSP model ignores here is the opposite phenomenon that the theme of the previous clause becomes the rheme of the following clause. The Converse Linear Progression put forward by Hu fills the gap, which is worthy of our attention and should be integrated into the model of TSP.

Topic structure progression and thematic progression are both concerned about the organizing mode of a paragraph or discourse, but they are also different to some extent. According to Xuanwei Peng (2005), theme is the starting point and

foundation of the information expressed in a clause and is the first element of relevant information. Huisong Zhang (2005) believed that TSP and TP possessed the common purpose and similar progression models, but differed in their basic analyzing units and priorities. Theme is a position-oriented grammatical formal category while topic belongs to the semantic one. Although TSP and TP show differentiated priorities in the developing methods of texts, they share some similarities in the spreading patterns.

II. EMPIRICAL STUDY--APPLICATION OF THE TWO THEORY MODELS IN PRACTICAL TEXTS

In the above section of the article, the author expounds two kinds of theory models as regards the modes of development within a paragraph or discourse, making a thorough comparison between them so as to be aware of their individual strengths and shortcomings. It is obvious that the TSP model is a lot advantageous than the patterns held by Hu in discomposing the unity of discourse development. Hence, the author personally adopts a strong preference for the model of topical structure analysis of Lautimatti and Simpson, suggesting the combination of the TSP model and part of the patterns of thematic progression of Hu. To put it simply, the Converse Linear Progression in the Hu's pattern should be incorporated into the TSP model to analyze the various English Paragraphs and discourses.

A. The Thematic Progression in an Expository Text

The following paragraph is selected for the discussion of applying the different models of thematic progressions. Italics are used for ISE, underlining is employed to signal mood subject (grammatical subject of the verb), and bold face is for the topical subject.

(1)._Every people_ has its own special **words and expression** that become part of the language. **(2).** _One such American expression_ is "**eager beaver**". **(3).** _An "eager beaver"_ is a person who is always willing and excited to do what is expected of him. **(4).** _The expression_ comes from the name of **a hard working animal ---the beavers**. **(5).** _Beavers_ are strange looking **animals**. **(6).** _They_ are rodents, like mice and rats, but much larger. **(7).** _Some_ weigh more than 25 kilograms. **(8).** _Beavers_ have a large, black, flat tail to help them swim. **(9).** _They_ also have thick, brown hair of fur to keep them warm in cold water _**and they**_ have front teeth sharp enough to cut down large trees. **(10).** _Beavers_ spend a lot of time in the water building dams to create little lakes or ponds. **(11).** _They_ work hard to cut down trees, remove branches and put them together with mud to make dams. **(12).** _Few other animals_ are so hard-working. **(13).** _Historians_ say **the beaver** had an important part in the settlement of North America. **(14).** There were hundreds of millions of _beavers_ when **European settlers** first arrived. **(15).** _The settlers_ put great value on the fur of **the beavers.** **(16).** In fact, for 200 years or more, _beaver_ was the most valuable fur in North America. **(17).**_Most of the beavers_ were trapped or killed. **(18).** For a time, _they_ were in danger of disappearing completely. **(19).** But _laws_ were passed to protect **the beaver**. **(20).**And today **the population** is rising. **(21).** In fact, **wild beavers** are building dams in a national park only 50 kilometers from Washington. **(22).** And like the animal, the**expression "eager-beaver"** is in no danger of dying out.

Parallel Progression: In the clause number (5), the noun phrase "Beavers" functions as the ISE, the mood subject and the topical subject. In the next independent clause number (6), the three clause elements coincide in the pronoun "they". Here the word "they" in clause (6) refers to the same topic as the noun phrase "Beavers" from the clause (5). Thereby, this is an example of parallel progression. Similarly , the noun "Beavers" in clause number (8), the pronoun "They" in clause number (9), the noun "Beavers" in clause number (10) and the pronoun "They" in clause number (11) commonly share the three clause elements and co-refers to the same entity and completely illustrate the models of parallel progression.

Extended Parallel Progression: As mentioned above, the relationship between clause (5) and clause (6) as well as the relationship among clauses (8), (9), (10) and (11) is parallel progression because the same topical subject is used in the consecutive clauses. As a matter of fact, unless there is no such topical subject "some" in clause numbers (7), clauses from number (5) to number (11) constitute the global parallel progression because the topical subjects in the latter clauses refer back to the former clauses. In other words, clauses from number (5) to number (11) form the extended parallel progression due to the fact that there is one clause with different topical subjects between the first mention of the topic in clause number (5) and its recurrence in clause number (8). Another parallel progression which is much more covert is between clause (2) and the clause (22), with so many clauses of different topical subjects in between. The theme "one such American expression" alters into the theme "the expression" in clause number (22); referring to the identical topical subject though the two linguistic expressions are a little bit different.

Sequential Progression: The comment in clause number (1) "words and expressions" becomes part of the topic of the next clause number (2), viz. "one such American expression". And again the comment "eager beaver" in clause number (2) turns into the topic of the following clause number (3), viz. "an eager beaver" .This is the typical exemplification of the Sequential Progression in TSP or the Simple Linear Progression involved in the Hu's Patterns of thematic progression. In the case of clause number (15) and (16), they also fall into the category of Sequential Progression.

Extended Sequential Progression: The comment "the beaver" in clause number (18) changes into the topic of clause number (21) "wild beavers", inserting two clauses with different topical subjects between them. This conforms to the definition of the extended sequential progression: the comment element of a clause is taken up as the topic of a

non-consecutive clause.

The article explains the origin of the American idiomatic expression "eager-beaver". The "Expression" is the major content and the ultimate purpose that the writer desired to convey. To drive home this point, "expression" itself is used three times in the article. From theme 5 to theme 10, the writer reveals the eager-beaver's character step by step. He changes the subject from theme13 and expresses the effect of the eager-beaver in history. The theme returned to "expression" at the end of the discourse. The whole discourse is complete and coherent because it works in concern with the front and the back. Hence, we can conclude that this piece of expository discourse achieves unity and coherence with the smooth progression of the theme.

B.   The Thematic Progression in a Narrative Text

This piece of chosen discourse "a private conversation" is a rather classic and typical narration popular both in some English course books and via the Internet webpage. A lot of discourse analysts utilize this to expound the Labov Model, an analytic model of narrative. To verify the thematic progression models explicated in the first section of the present paper, the author carries out a discourse analysis of this well-known narrative text through considering the pattern of thematic progression. For the sake of conformity, the writer employs the same symbols as above to notify the different sentence elements: Italics are used for ISE, underlining is employed to signal mood subject (grammatical subject of the verb), and bold face is for the topical subject.

(1) *Last week* <u>I</u> went to the theatre. **(2)**<u>*I*</u> had a very good seat. **(3)** <u>**The play**</u> was very interesting. **(4)** <u>*I*</u> did not enjoy **it.** **(5)**<u>*A young man and a young woman*</u> were sitting behind **me**. **(6)**<u>*They*</u> were talking loudly. **(7)**<u>*I*</u> got very angry. **(8)**<u>*I*</u> could not hear **the actors. (9)**<u>*I*</u> turned round. **(10)** <u>*I*</u> looked at **the man and the woman** angrily. **(11)**<u>*They*</u> did not pay any attention.**(12)** In the end, <u>**I**</u> could not bear **it**. **(13)**<u>*I*</u> turned round again. 'I can't hear a word!' <u>**I**</u> said angrily. **(14)** 'It's none of your business,' <u>**the young man**</u> said rudely.' This is a private conversation!'

Parallel Progression: In the clause number (5), "a young man and a young woman" acts as the ISE, the mood subject and the topical subject. And the pronoun "they" in the clause number (6) embodies the three sentence elements at the same time and refers back to the young man and young woman. Therefore, the thematic progression here is a parallel one. Clauses (7), (8), (9) and (10) are obviously the parallel progression since they all share the same topical subject , playing the part of the three sentence elements concurrently, which all stand for the author oneself.

Extended Parallel Progression: The Pronoun "I" in clause number (2) and The Pronoun "I" in clause number (4) co-refer to the author ,intervened by the topical subject "The play" of the clause number (3) in between, which interrupts the continuous progression of the theme from clause (2) to clause (4). Such strategy of topical progression is defined as the extended parallel progression. In the same way, the topical subject "they" in clause (11) breaks the chain of the topical progression among clauses (7), (8), (9), (10) and clauses (12) and (13). This way of topical progression can be classified into the extended parallel progression.

Sequential Progression: In this short piece of discourse, there exists only one sequential progression. The comment element "the man and the woman" changes into the topic of the approaching clause, despite the truth that the different linguistic expressions are used to signify the same entity within the discourse.

Extended Sequential Progression: The topical subject "me" in the rheme part of clause (5) turns into the theme of clause (7), between which lies in the clause (6) with a different topical subject.

The above analysis goes completely well with the TSP of Lautimatti and Simpson. Apart from the four kinds of topical progression in this piece of discourse, we can unveil another kind of progression mode which is not mentioned in TSP but in the Main Patterns of the thematic progression patterns proposed by Hu. It is the Converse Linear Progression that is identical with the cross pattern proposed by Shenghuan Xu (1982), which is why this piece of text is coherently organized. The converse Linear Progression can be diagramed as follows: (refer to Hu, P93)
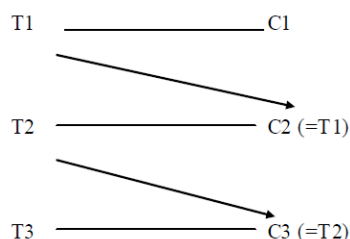
Converse Linear Progression: The topic "the play" in clause number (3) turns into the comment element "it" in clause (4), which has never been mentioned by the TSP model.

Up to now, borrowing from the experience of Simpson's revision to the Lautimatti's three types of TSP, the author preliminarily attempts to make the addition of another type of the topical progression---the extended converse linear progression, which is of much great necessity in analyzing the present text. The so-called extended converse linear progression can be defined as follows: the topic of the previous clause becomes the comment element of the latter clause between which there stand many other clauses, which is labeled as follows:
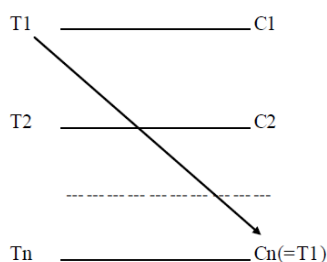
Now let's apply this new model to the analysis of the narrative discourse.

Extended Converse Linear Progression: The topic "a young man and a young woman" in clause number (5) changes into the comment element "the man and the woman" in clause number (10), with clauses (6), (7), (8) and (9) intervened in between.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Enlightenment from the Combination between TSP and Hu's Patterns of TP

Based on Lautimatti's three types of TSP, Simpson proposed that it was essential to put forward the fourth type of TSP, namely the extended sequential progression. The author's analysis of the first piece of discourse in the present article utterly follows the four models and thoroughly understand the internal coherence and cohesion .when it comes to the second text, a much familiar one, the paper finds that only the four types of TSP can not satisfy the needs of the explication of the topical progression so that it advises that we should combine the Converse Linear Progression in the Hu's TP Pattern with the original four types of topical progression in TSP(the reason has been expounded in the comparison of the two models of theory in the section of literature review of the paper) and accordingly finds out the corresponding examples to prove this. Furthermore, while carefully analyzing the topical progression in the second text, the author thinks that the already mentioned five types TSP can not totally meet the requirements of the analyzing the second piece of discourse. Therefore, the author here tries to advance the sixth type of topical progression –the extended converse linear progression to perfect the incorporation.

The present paper has done two innovative things: firstly, through the comparison and contrast of Simpson's(2000) new models of TSP and the main patterns of TP held by Yinglin Hu (2006), the author proposes that we should build a new model of TSP by means of incorporation of the two models. Secondly, during the course of analysis by way of the newly incorporated model, it is reflected that the five types of TSP are still not enough to interpret the topic progression models in such a classic narration. Hence, the author makes a tentative attempt to put forward the sixth type of TSP, viz. the extended converse linear progression.

How the themes relate to other themes and rhemes in a well-organized text is much more diversified and most linguists only recommend some primary progression models. A discourse can reach cohesion and coherence in various ways by setting up relations between and among the themes and rhemes of the clauses or between and among the topics and comments of the sentences, adopting more than one progression model. This paper, on the ground of combining the major modes of topical progression submitted by Simpson and Yinglin Hu, discovers two new TSP models: Converse Linear Progression and Extended Converse Linear Progression.

Jian Shi (2009) confused the concepts differences between theme and rheme as well as topic and comment and deduced some ambiguous progression modals, so this paper, clarifying such basic conceptions firstly, takes preference to Simpson's TSP modal combining itself with Yingling Hu's TP patterns and revised the hypothesized TSP modals with C replacing R(C Signifying Comment while R denoting Rheme), T referring to Topic instead of Theme.

B. The Limitations of the Study

The author tries to enrich the models of topical structure progression based on the theoretical comparison between the Simpson's TSP model and the TP Patterns maintained by Yinglin Hu as well as the practical analysis of the popular narrative discourse "a private conversation". There is not shortage of appropriateness for us to put the two models together after comparing and contrasting their strong points and weaknesses respectively. The real problem lies in the fact that in the present article, the author merely locates the uniqueness of the thematic progression in one part of the available discourse although it is a well-known one, which lacks adequate evidence to prove its acceptability. What is in great need is that we should not only test the newly suggested six types of TSP in a large quantities of narratives, but in the vast amount of other genres of discourse such as expository writing, argumentative writing as well. Due to the limitations of time and space of the present article, we will discuss these questions and testify the hypothesized model of TSP in other articles.

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Listening Practice Influence on the Use of Communication Strategies in Oral Translation

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Abstract—Effective communication plays an important role in translation. In oral translation, translation major students must understand the meaning well enough to translate orally or employ some strategies to compensate for the lack of their linguistic knowledge. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to find out the types of communication strategies undergraduate students employ during oral translation and examine the relationship between authentic listening materials' practice and employment of these strategies. To this end, 34 senior translation major students were videotaped and represented some CNN news samples in the laboratory and their oral translation performance was recorded, for three weeks, and extracted based on Tarone's taxonomy (1977).The students listened to the audio materials of TOFEL IBT for 5 to 10 minutes a day 4 or 5 times a week at home for two months. Then the same news was represented in the laboratory for three weeks after listening to find whether the frequency of communication strategies has changed and listening materials have affected the frequencies. Despite the unawareness of communication strategies, the students locate them in oral translation. Finally, the statistical results revealed a significant relationship between authentic listening materials' practice and the use of communication strategies.

Index Terms—communication, communicative competence, strategic competence, communication strategy, oral translation strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a human characteristic with the power to unite and divide large groups of people. Human beings have entered an age of knowledge and need interaction and communication. Communication is the exchange of ideas, information, etc between two or more people; it is a process, by which a communicator conveys meaning and tries to create understanding. This process requires a vast range of skills in listening, observing, speaking, questioning, analyzing, and evaluating. Berelson and Steiner (1964) argued that "Communication: the transmission of information, idea, emotion, skills, etc., by the use of symbols-words, pictures, figures, graphs, etc. It is the act or process of transmission that is usually called communication" (p.254). For most language learners, the main goal of learning a foreign language is to be able to communicate.

According to Berlo (1960) any communication model has some basic elements: the communication source, the encoder, the message, the channel, the decoder, and the communication receiver. Effective communication starts with hearing and understanding rather than talking and trying to convince. Consequently, developing good listening skill and effective understanding should be an integral part of everyone's personal development. Since listening and understanding play an important role in translation, especially in oral translation, translation major students must understand the meaning well enough to respond to or act upon it. Foreign language learners' especially academic students, despite spending years developing their language competences, have all probably; experience the frustrating feeling of not being able to participate effectively in L2 oral communication (Jamshidnejad, 2011). Faerch & Kasper (1983b) acknowledge the fact that much communication is conducted without any indication of problematicity because it is concealed (p.235). As second language learners and speakers under the condition of communication demands, learners need communication and interpretation, include university translation courses such as oral translation, as an important requirement in most of activities. Learner's main concern in communication is accuracy and fluency. Once learners concentrate on form or accuracy they will encounter with problems, because a non native speaker dose not master all the language forms and rules. Therefore, when L2 learners recognize that there is a lack of linguistic knowledge in the realm of communication; learners try to solve these problems by using communication strategies to achieve communicative goals.

The primary goal of communication is to share meaning which leads to effective decision-making and problem-solving. As a result, the significance of effectiveness in an interaction and the competence of a communication become more important. But how does one determine the effectiveness and appropriateness of any given interaction? And even more important, how do we know if communication is fulfilled?

II. COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

The term communicative competence is comprised of two words, the combination of which means competence to communicate. Canale and Swain (1980) develop this notion, identifying four dimensions of communicative competence: grammatical competence (knowledge of what is grammatically correct in a language), sociolinguistic competence (knowledge of what is socially acceptable in a language), discourse competence (knowledge of intersentential relationships), and strategic competence (the knowledge of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies). They think that when once grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and discourse competence are developed, learners will be able to communicate effectively in the real world. Brown (1994) maintains that communicative competence is "that aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts" (p.27). Despite an inadequate command of linguistic knowledge, students or learners necessarily rely upon some plans or strategies to set out communicative goals. It is especially occurred when students or learners have no ready- made solutions to cope with unexpected problems. Canale and Swain (1980) describe strategic competence as providing a *compensatory* function when the linguistic competence of the language user is inadequate (p.30). In Canale and Swain's definition, strategic competence is called into action to" compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence"(ibid).

Bachman (1990) regards strategic competence as a capacity that put language competence into real communication contexts (p.107). According to Bachman (ibid) strategic competence embraces all aspects of the assessment, planning and execution of communicative tasks. He sees strategic competence not only as a component of communicative competence, but also as a more general cognitive capacity.

According to Canale and Swain (1980) strategic competence consists of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies (p.30).

The term communication strategy appeared first in literature in the early of 1970s, which was coined by Selinker (1972), to connect CSs with 'errors in learner's interlanguage system'. Communication strategies are those strategies that a language user or translator makes use of whenever she/ he feels some deficiencies in vocabulary and grammar leading to partial or complete misunderstanding or interruption in communication. Tarone (1980) defines communication strategies as "a speaker's attempt to communicate meaningful content in the face of some apparent deficiencies in the interlanguage strategies and to distinguish them from those that promote learning or language production" (285). Several authors and researchers in this field have written about communication strategies, types of them, and propose new taxonomies of communication strategies from time to time (Tarone taxonomy1977; - Bialystock &Fröhlich taxonomy 1980; - Corder taxonomy1983; - Faerch & Kasper taxonomy 1983; - Dornyei & Scott taxonomy 1997). Despite all the talk about communication strategies in oral translation, the much researches which have been conducted discussing the various aspects and problems of learners of English language, there has been very little or no discussion to the listening practice influence on the use of communication strategies to solve communication problems, an essential component of communicative competence. This study attempted to investigate the types of CSs based on Tarone's (1977/1983) taxonomy, when the students encounter with problems in oral translation, and find whether authentic listening materials' practice may have affected the use of these strategies. For this purpose, the following research questions and corresponding null hypothesis were formed:

Q1: What kinds of communication strategies do University students use during oral translation?

Q2: Is there a significant relationship between authentic listening materials' practice and the use of communication strategies in oral translation?

H02 There is no significant relationship between authentic listening materials practice and the use of communication strategies in oral translation.

III. METHODOLOGY

The participants of the study were 34 senior undergraduate translation major students who were studying at Islamic Azad University of Tabriz. Out of the 34 subjects, 23were female and 11 were male. All students fall into the 22-25 age range. They had similar socio-cultural and educational background and had never been to any English speaking country before. All the participants had passed 60 to 65 credits of specific courses and had 15 to 20 credits left to graduate.

Procedure

The data collection procedure was started at the beginning of the academic year at Islamic Azad University of Tabriz. Before the training started, the students were given a copy of the CNN news for getting familiar with the sample types in this study. These samples were used during two months of self –listening at the laboratory. The aim of giving this copy was to help students to activate their background knowledge and make them think about the different types of the news which may be used in this research. The researcher tried to choose shorter news as much as possible and the news were deliberately chosen in social, entertainment, and family hood areas (because audio materials of TOFEL IBT in the second phase falls in these categories) to meet circumstances of the research. From the second week of the new semester the students were videotaped and their performance in oral translation was recorded to identify the type and frequency of communication strategies, according to Tarone's taxonomy, employed by the students in the laboratory. It continued for three weeks. The aim of this phase was to find out whether or not they were aware of the strategies and

what is the frequency of the strategies used in oral translation of the English news as a target language. During three weeks all the students were videotaped. Depending on the length of the sentences, structures, and difficult vocabularies which might be used in the sample news, students were asked to translate them orally. The sentences or small chunks of the news were asked to be translated orally either one time, when it was clear, or two or three times. During these three weeks 9 news samples were played at laboratory and students' oral translation were recorded. The recorded data was extracted, through audio listening, and analyzed. Then the frequency and number of instances of communication strategies that were used, extracted from the audio listening of the recorded data, was represented in different categories in tables.

At the second stage students were asked to listen to the audio materials of (TOFEL IBT) over 2 months period. These audio materials were taken from the fourth edition of TOFEL (IBT) written by Jolene Gear and Robert Gear (2006). The aim of listening practice was to help students to strengthen their audition. This process was self listening at home. Students had to often listen, but they should listen for short periods- five to ten minutes. This should happen four or five times a week. Even if they did not understand anything, five to ten minutes was a minor investment. In the time of self-listening process, playing the news was continued once a week in the laboratory.

At the second stage the nature of assignment (self Listening) required some motivation to inspire, challenge and stimulate students. Effective strategy in this case was to maintain the interest that can bring students to the course of the assignment. On the other hand, students did not work for free and need to satisfy a course prerequisite, so there should be something that made students to embrace their work. The researcher asked the instructor of oral translation course to maintain and support the project by appointing 3 marks reward for all the students who participated in this study. This process could convince students to share in activities of the course. In order to control the self-listening process the researcher asked the instructor of the course to provide the researcher with a report of the scores students obtained with regard to the evaluation of their listening, by getting feedback which he has grasped the students' performance, done by their instructor during the course. The percentages of the scores students obtained out of 3 marks reward, are presented in the following table.

TABLE 1
THE STUDENTS' REWARD SCORES

The number of the students	Reward	Percentages
19	3	55.88
10	2.5	29.41
3	2	8.82
2	1	5.88
34		100

At the third stage, the researcher attended the laboratory after that the two months practice was over. Then the samples of the same news, translating orally by the students were recorded for more analysis. The aim was to find out the influence and significance effect of listening practice process on oral translation of the news. The recording process continued for three weeks, one session in a week. Then the data was extracted and analyzed by audio listening measuring which communication strategies were used by the students.

To make sure the researcher's extracting and analyzing of the recoded data was reliable, the university instructor was asked to rate the recorded data, by audio listening, of two phases of this study based on Tarone's (1977) model. The inter-rater reliability of the two phases was calculated and the result of independent sample test showed that there was no significant relationship between the two ranges of extracted and analyzed data (sig = .606 > .05). It means that there was no difference between the two datasets. The high correlation allowed the researcher to trust this procedure.

TABLE 2
GROUP STATISTICS

group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
VAR00001 t1	9	12.1111	6.50854	2.16951
t2	9	10.3333	7.77817	2.59272

TABLE 3
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
VAR00001 Equal variances assumed		.073	.791	.526	16	.606
Equal variances not assumed				.526	15.517	.606

IV. RESULTS

To answer the question intended to investigate the kinds of communication strategies employed by the students, the excerpts were extracted from the students' performances by audio listening. According to the Tarone's model (1977), communication strategies divided into five main types which were further divided into seven sub-categories, the communication strategies used by the students are reported in tables 4 &5.

TABLE 4
THE DISTRIBUTION OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Types of communication strategies	Paraphrase			Transfer		Appeal for assistance	Mime	Avoidance		
Communication strategies	approximation	word coinage	circumlocution	literal translation	language switch	3	5	topic avoidance	message abandonment	
Frequency	17	4	20	18	12			14	16	97
Percentage	15.60%	3.66%	18.35%	16.51%	11%	2.75%	4.59%	12.84%	14.68%	100

When listening process was over, the same approach was used as it had been used at the first stage. Table 5 showed the result after authentic listening materials' practice.

TABLE 5
THE DISTRIBUTION OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Types of communication strategies	Paraphrase			Transfer		Appeal for assistance	Mime	Avoidance		
Communication strategies	approximation	word coinage	circumlocution	literal translation	language switch	9	1	topic avoidance	message abandonment	
Frequency	26	1	29	9	5			8	9	97
Percentage	26.80%	1.03%	29.89%	9.28%	5.15%	9.28%	1.03%	8.25%	9.28%	100

Despite the unawareness of communication strategies, the students locate them in oral translation.

Regarding the second question of this study which covers the authentic listening materials' influence on the use of communication strategies, a null hypothesis was proposed and the result of the data analysis and calculations to test the null hypothesis is as follows:

Table 6 gives a basic picture of how two variables inter-relate.

TABLE 6
TIME * COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES CROSSTABULATION

	Communication Strategies									Total
	approximation	Word coinage	circumlocution	Literal translation	Language switch	Appeal for assistance	mime	Topic avoidance	Message abandonment	
Time before count	17	4	20	18	12	3	5	14	16	109
Expected count	22.8	2.6	25.9	14.3	9.0	603	3.2	11.6	13.2	109.0
% within communication strategies	39.5%	80.0%	40.08%	66.7%	70.06%	25.0%	83.3%	63.6%	64.0%	52.9%
Time after count	26	1	29	9	5	9	1	8	9	97
Expected count	20.2	2.4	23.1	12.7	8.0	5.7	2.8	10.4	11.8	97.0
% within communication strategies	60.5%	20.0%	59.2%	33.3%	29.4%	75.0%	16.7%	36.4%	36.0%	47.1%
Total count	43	5	49	27	17	12	6	22	25	206
Expected count	43.0	5.0	49.0	27.0	17.0	12.0	6.0	22.0	25.0	206.0
% within communication strategies	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

According to crosstabulation, which is the process of creating a contingency table from the multivariate frequency distribution of statistical variables, circumlocution was most frequently used strategy in both phases of the study (before listening process and after listening process). Approximation was in the next range. Appeal for assistance was the least used strategy in the first stage but it changed its place to mime in the second phase.

In order to reject or accept the null hypothesis a chi-square or χ^2 test was run. A chi square (X^2) statistic was used to investigate whether distributions of categorical variables differ from one another. Table 7 presented the result of χ^2 test.

TABLE 7
CHI-SQUARE TEST

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	19.850	8	.011
Likelihood Ratio	20.511	8	.009
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.461	1	.019
N of Valid Cases	206		

The chi-square test compared the two phases of the study and the result showed that the listening process had influenced the numbers of the strategies which were used in this study (X^2=19.85 & sig < 0.05).

Cramer's V is a post-test to give additional information and predicts how significant relationship between variables is. Table 4-7 presented the association between variables.

TABLE 8
SYMMETRIC MEASURES

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Normal by Nominal	Phi	.310	.011
	Cramer's V	.310	.011
N of Valid Cases		206	

The result showed that the association between variables was 0.31 between 0 and 1 and it means that there is an average association between variables (V=0.31 & Sig< 0.05).

V. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The descriptive analysis showed that the students employed strategies, to serve as a lexical and functional substitute to fill a gap, for maintaining their interactions in communication. This interaction is evident in the number of frequencies employed, in replaying the CNN news samples in the third phase, by the students.

The result of this study showed that, despite the unawareness of communication strategies, when the students could not convey their ideas, students tend to replace the original intent with other easy words or simple expressions. It is undeniable that in an authentic conversation and oral translation, communication breakdowns may occur anytime and communication strategies are accessible tools in hand to help the students obviate their problems.

In line with the findings of Poulisse and Schils (1989), Chen (1990), Wanaruk (2003) and Mei (2010) which investigated the use of communication strategies by learners with different levels of English proficiency, this study had similar results. Most of the participants employed the paraphrase strategy to solve their communicative problems. In real situations, students always encounter difficulties in expressing their meaning. One possible explanation for this is that they are not able to access a word that is actually stored in their memory. They may simply be unable to recall a particular word at a given moment (Mei, 2010). Paraphrase (Approximation, Word coinage, Circumlocution), based on Tarone's model (1977), can help students convey their meanings.

Moreover, most studies also found that the high proficiency students used more efficient strategies (e.g. L2-based strategies and linguistics-based strategies). On the other hand, the low proficiency students employed more inefficient strategies (e.g. avoidance strategies) because of their limited knowledge of the target language (Binhayeearong, 2009).

In contrast to what Huang (2010) found, the result of avoidance strategy ranked in the least used strategy among those strategies which were used in his study.

In the following the significance value obtained by Chi-Square test is 19.85 & ρ = 0.011which is less than the determined value of $\propto$=0.05 (chi-square=19.850, df = 8, ρ = 0.011 < 0.05). A Chi-Square test explains a significant difference between the two samples and Cramer's V value which is V=0.31indicates the amount of association.

Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. It means that there is a significant relationship between listening to authentic materials practice and the use of communication strategies.

The results of this study provide the following beneficial implications for compensation in oral translation.

Since the goal of communication among ESL learners is to share meaning to develop communicative competence, the development of strategic competence which helps students handle breakdowns due to the lack of knowledge should be get focused in language learning process. To this end, instructors should help students get familiar with possible and available communication strategies to play their part in classroom activities. It may help students take risk and use these strategies to be in the line of oral translation to prompt the development of strategic competence. The findings showed that students used fillers such as "emm", and intended to use gestures and facial expressions to help convey their message (non-verbal strategies). Communication strategies are essential tools in hand in the time of need to help students avoid breaking down the authentic conversation and having enough time to compensate the original message in oral translation. Furthermore, communication strategies are remedies to fill the gap of non mastered students' background knowledge in the realm of communication and oral translation.

Since language proficiency plays an important role in effective conversation, therefore the learners' different level of proficiency influence employment of communication strategies. In this case the instructor should choose materials

based on students' level of proficiency that is suitable and appropriate. In addition, it is necessary for instructors to know how high and law proficiency students solve their communicative problems by using communication strategies. As an example most of students prefer to use paraphrase and circumlocution strategies to convey their meaning. It is beneficial for instructors to know and encourage students to use the functional strategies rather than being in peace or asking for assistance. The appropriate use of communication strategies increases the students' communicative competence and it influences students' usage of communication strategies in its turn.

Finally, the instructors should aware students of the importance of employing appropriate communication strategies. Not only some strategies do not enhance students' communication but they make students skip some useful strategies in the favor of the more easy cases. Appropriate examples are avoidance strategies and appeal for assistance. However, these strategies are useful in its exact place to obviate breakdown but the y can be replaced with effective and more functional items when the students face communication difficulties. The awareness of students to get benefit from appropriate strategies helps them appear more effective in any given communication.

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Probing Possibilities of Applying Productive Pedagogy to English Teaching in China[*]

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Abstract—**Productive Pedagogy has been proved an effective teaching approach in Australia for its combination of a diversity of essential teaching aspects. It takes four dimensions into consideration, namely intellectual quality, connectedness, supportive environment and recognition of differences, which is supposed a very comprehensive understanding of the essence of teaching. Productive Pedagogy stresses a high level studying and improved learning outcomes over superficial knowledge knowing. With the help of this teaching approach, students are more likely to develop a variety of abilities such as deep learning, critical thinking, problem solving and so on. Different from Productive Pedagogy, English teaching in China still exists in grammar-translation, schools, teachers, parents and students are stopping at fragmented language learning. As a result, Chinese students are weak at thinking critically and solving real problems. How to change teaching model in China and by what way? Is it possible to apply completely this new teaching approach to China's English teaching? Productive Pedagogy is discussed in this paper for its advantages to produce students' learning outcomes. However, different countries have different culture and teaching and learning environment, when applying a new way, it needs to take the real context into account. In China, it is possibly to introduce Productive Pedagogy in private schools initially rather than public schools due to the supportive leadership, learning community, teaching and assessment philosophy in private schools. To specific, some productive activities together with Productive Pedagogy moving beyond China's current English teaching model have also been suggested.**

Index Terms—**productive pedagogy, problems, possibilities, suggestions, English teaching in China**

I. INTRODUCTION

Many English teachers in China claim their teaching approaches are practical and systematic. They regard their particular techniques superior to the exclusion of the others. However, despite these claims, there is no single teaching methodology covering the needs of all English-language students (Wilhoit, 1994). On the contrary, it is believed that a variety of methodologies, if they could be skillfully combined, can complement each other and form a set of cohesive, realistic and highly motivated teaching pedagogy. The combination of varied methodologies is a practical approach suited to students' needs. This is because learning is not just for knowing superficial knowledge, rather, it should reinforce students' deep learning and higher-order thinking and improve students' problem solving ability.

Productive Pedagogy as a new approach to teaching is constructed by the Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study (QSRLS) in Australia. Productive Pedagogy reassembles familiar classroom techniques into a workable model that focuses on high quality student learning and improved outcomes (Gore, 2002). Since China's English teaching is probing new methodologies and approaches, as a new teaching approach, is it possible to introduce Productive Pedagogy to China? In this paper the possibilities and suggestions of applying Productive Pedagogy to China's English teaching will be mainly discussed out of a general introduction and evaluation of Productive Pedagogy.

II. A GENERAL UNDERSTANDING OF PRODUCTIVE PEDAGOGY

Productive pedagogy is about teaching behavior identified by QSRLS as being characteristics of good teaching practice (Education Queensland 2001). According to Dashwood (2004), Productive Pedagogy was taken from Newmann and Associates' authentic pedagogy, an approach to classroom teaching. With this approach, students' learning results were described by academic and social terms and a backward mapping process. Gore (2002) explains that productive pedagogy as drawing teachers' attention to what really matters is helping kids to learn. Gore argues a focus on challenging, intellectually demanding learning for all students has been neglected. It leads to a basic difference between Productive Pedagogy and other teaching methods. Besides, it stresses on a comprehensive teaching progress rather than only one aspect of teaching. More importantly, it highlights different essential aspects of classroom teaching. These essential aspects can be separated into four dimensions according to Gore (2002):

1. Intellectual quality, which stimulates students' high-level thinking and bears a problematic approach to knowledge which encourages communicating thoughts and arguments as opposed to a "give" approach. It aims to enable students

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to think deeply and develop comprehensive understandings.

2. Connectedness, which aims to help students link different aspects of school learning with connections to their past experiences and the world out of the classroom.

3. Supportive environment, where students are able to impact activities and how they are implemented. It also requires students to highly discipline themselves. It is kinds of promise to assure the classroom supports learning.

4. Recognition of differences, which takes non-dominant groups into consideration and aims at recognizing group differences and identities.

III. REASONS TO INTRODUCE PRODUCTIVE PEDAGOGY TO ENGLISH TEACHING IN CHINA

Since China opened her door to the international world, English played an important role in almost every field in China including business trading, science and technology, intercultural communication and so on. English proficiency was more and more stressed by different people from different enterprises. It has no doubt to bring a blossom in English teaching and learning. From kindergarten to university, from unique family to big companies, people are harboring a strong passion to learn English. English lessons are compulsory from junior high school till Phd's level. More importantly, English score has been used as a standard to measure students' ability to pass school's entrance test. But having a general overlook of the current English teaching we can see English teaching model in China still stops at grammar-oriented, while the teaching attention focuses on the analysis of grammatical points, the expansion of vocabulary, the translation of sentences and the understanding of sentence meaning. Teachers rarely teach students how to think critically and deeply and how to connect what they have learned to the real world. As a result, English teaching and learning stands at the surface level, leading a fragmented knowledge learning to most students, and connectedness between teaching and the real life is broken up. Even worse, teaching benefits higher level students more than lower level students, which leads to a bigger gap between "strong" students and "weak" students.

Compared with China's English teaching model, Productive Pedagogy provides a more holistic perspective. It not only benefits students at deep knowledge learning, deep understanding and problematic knowledge learning, but also helps students make connections between in and out of school learning, provides an effective environment where students harbors high expectation and are willing to learn and supports students from non-dominant groups to learn.

School leaders and teachers would not like to take risks to develop students' higher-order thinking, deep learning and problem solving ability. This is particularly true in public schools. In these schools, teachers' major task is to enable students to pass exams, and they are under less pressure to help students improve comprehensive learning abilities. Consequently, students' learning cannot be broadened and deepened, the unitary teaching belief and pedagogy have limited the development of students' learning ability.

IV. POSSIBILITIES TO INTRODUCE PRODUCTIVE PEDAGOGY TO ENGLISH TEACHING IN CHINA

Because of the problems in China's current English teaching, it is necessary to seek for new approaches for English teaching in China. Productive Pedagogy, rooted in authentic pedagogy, but expanded to advance students' academic and social achievements is one of the possible approaching. However, the introduction of Productive Pedagogy must take China's real context into its account, and this introduction should be entered into primary and second schools in China step by step. After all, the current teaching model has existed for a relatively long period, the introduction of Productive Pedagogy needs time and hard work.

In China, since it is not easy to change school's culture and policy, in particular in public schools, is it possible to introduce Productive Pedagogy to private schools initially? It's possibly because private schools have flexible management systems which will facilitate the introduction of Productive Pedagogy. In addition, from school leaders to teachers, they are easy to share common beliefs consistent with the school's goal. Furthermore, they are under pressure to improve teaching quality to attract as many students as they can to help the school survive. Specifically, supportive leadership, a professional learning community, changing teaching and assessing philosophy provide possibilities for private schools to accept Productive Pedagogy.

1. Supportive leadership in private schools

Leadership is considered an important factor to support a school's development. From Blackmore (1999) and Lingard and Douglas (1999), leadership creates an emotional economy within the school that is supportive of teachers and students and encourages innovation and risk taking. Teaching and learning are attached the greatest importance within the organization of the school. Leaders who act as "keepers of the vision" and who are able to identify and reward actions that further the vision and mission of the school are crucial for organizational innovation (Louis, Marks, & Kurse, 1996, p.757). They act as a critical source of information on how to deviate from the existing situation (Louis & Murphy, 1994). As school leaders work toward building new cultures, they can create coherence and unity and establish a sense of internal quality for innovative efforts within the community (Vandenberghe & Staessens, 1991).

School's different features talks louder in private schools than in public schools. Public schools usually have existed for a long period, which makes themselves difficult to have some changes, while some private schools are quite new and the organizational structure is relatively flexible, it is easier for them to adopt more advanced philosophies to develop well. Moreover, private schools' management is more a "bottom-up" than a "top-down" , which means teachers

have much freedom to select what they want to do. In order to provide more effective teaching, most leaders in private schools hold a positive attitude toward education innovation. They support new methods, encourage effective actions and prepare well to meet changes and challenges. The culture in private schools is more democratic and focusing on teaching. Principals will consider more about how to improve teaching quality and enhance students' learning outcomes instead of binding themselves to lots of meetings. Hence, the principal and teachers will find it more possible to share ideas and understandings consistent with the school's goals. This supportive leadership environment will facilitate the introduction of Productive Pedagogy.

2. A learning community in private schools

According to Louis, Kruse and Marks (1996), a teacher professional learning community stresses reflective collaboration among teachers around the relationship between their pedagogy and student learning outcomes. A learning community is an effective way for teachers to learn from each other, share experiences with each other and improve teaching quality together (Lingard, 2000, p.24). The realistic situation in China's teaching shows that private school teachers have built up a more efficient learning community than public schools teachers, which helps private schools teachers benefiting from this community by improving teaching strategies and enriching productive practices.

3. Teaching and assessment philosophy is changing in private schools

Searching for high quality teaching and effective learning promotes leaders and teachers in private schools to rethink that teaching and assessments are not just a means of grading. Teaching and assessment should be used to help students learn. Teachers should use examinations, assignments, observations and questionnaires to facilitate students understanding of their progress in learning and to improve the quality of teaching programs, services and facilities. Bain (2004) points out that assessment stresses learning rather than performance. The teacher should keep in mind that what kind of intellectual and individual development does a student achieve but not if the student behaves properly in class and if he or she completes assignments timely.

In some private schools, teachers are trying student-centered teaching methods. They have placed students at the centre of learning and made them responsible for their own learning. In this way, students will be provided the necessary information and skills to take full advantage of learning. In this learning-centered environment, students are not just fed knowledge by teachers, on the contrary, students are provided the necessary information and skills to take full advantage of learning. They are expected to have discussions, do group work, and achieve authentic learning. Under these circumstances, scores that reflects rote learning or surface learning of concepts are not important. Instead, how to use different forms of assessment, and create connections between the outside world, the community, and the classroom are essential to have a positive impact on students (Bain, 2004). This transformation from teacher-centered to student-centered and the new reorganization of assessment also help Productive Pedagogy be introduced.

V. Suggestions to Apply Productive Pedagogy to English Teaching in China

Theoretically, Productive Pedagogy is a comprehensive understanding of teaching and learning philosophy. Though it comes from authentic pedagogy, it is beyond it and expands teaching practice to enhance students' social outcomes. Practically, when Productive Pedagogy is applied to real class teaching in China, it needs to be critically adapted and changed. What applies to one country may not fit for another country very well. For instance, Productive Pedagogy emphasizes recognition of cultural differences and group identity, and in comparison with cultural diversity in Australia, most Chinese students come from the same cultural background and hold similar identities. Rather than valuing diverse cultures, respecting different cultural identities and treating minority students as the same as mainstream students, English teaching in China appeals more activities to enhance students' higher-order thinking, deep thinking, collaborative learning and problem solving. So, Productive Pedagogy must be localized to satisfy the needs of Chinese students.

How to critically apply Productive Pedagogy aligning with Productive activities to China's English teaching moving beyond its current grammar-translation model? Some possible suggestions are provided for reference.
- Teach complex thinking
- Teach from authentic conversation
- Provide supporting class atmosphere to all students
- Develop language competence across the problem-based curriculum
- Connect school to students' real life

Taken together, these activities describe how to organize student to participate in a variety of activities and to guide their learning in meaningful ways. Some activities intend to improve students' intellectual quality and enhance their ability to integrate knowledge, to connect knowledge to the real world, and to solve real problems. For instance, teaching complex thinking, developing language competence across curriculum, connecting school to students' real life, and teaching from authentic conversation. Some activities provide a supporting environment for student to receive teacher's attention and interaction. Every individual student is respected and included in the classroom learning no matter if they are high-level students or low-level students. In another word, supporting class atmosphere is equal to all students. All students are expected to learn in and out class by their teachers, likewise, they themselves harbor the same expectation, and most importantly, teachers can provide instruction to them to learn by implementing class activities.

When evaluating theses innovative activities, it is not difficult to identify that these activities have gone beyond the idea that English teaching and learning is for exam purposes, for mastery of grammar rules and memorizing vocabulary, they transfer teaching philosophy from teacher-centered, teacher "given" and student "taken" style to student-centered and students and the teacher interacting and collaborating together. By using these productive activities, students' learning motivation, interest, creativity and problem solving abilities will be improved. Students will not be the learning machines any more, rather, they will control themselves in the learning process and act as the master of learning activities.

1. Teach complex thinking

According to Ramsden (2003), learning should be about changing the ways in which learners understand, or experience, or conceptualize the world around them. Learning should help students to widen their insights, broaden their knowledge, deepen their comprehension of the world. Specifically, the teacher can present student performance standards, design challenging tasks which enhance student understanding from superficial level to deep level, assist students to settle problems by combining their knowledge with real-life experience, and provide clear, direct feedback about how student performance compares with the standards (Dalton, 1998). An example of this is as follows:

Activity one	Learning cultural knowledge through learning a festival
Description	The teacher designs open-ended questions aimed to enable students to learn culture, history, custom, and religious knowledge through learning a festival. Students read books, magazines, or surf on the Internet to collect festival information in different countries. To demonstrate more complex understandings, students classify different types of festivals, make words or photographic illustrations of their findings, and compare differences and similarities of festivals. Furthermore, students summarize the general cultural characteristic of a country through analyzing information they collect. By having students collect, sort, and analyze the information, they complete open-ended questions from a cultural, historical and religious perspective.
Effect	Students are challenged to a high level's learning. They are required not only to do surface learning, such as looking for information, but more importantly to go up to a higher level of learning. Students' learning is deepened, insight is broadened, and intellectual abilities are improved. The teacher also expects students' deep learning by giving comment on how their performance compares to the standard. The benefits exist in that students not only learn clearly standards, but they obtain teacher's guidance.

2. Teach from authentic conversation

Dalton (1998) reviews authentic conversation offering chances to teachers to provide necessary and helpful assistance. When conducting learning from individual experience to text analysis, it is possible for students to make clear about the text's complex meanings. When dealing with subjective matters, students are expected to understand content deeply and to develop the ability to involve themselves in conversation about problem solving or probing the related issues. The teacher knows clearly if every student get an understanding (e.g., Are we clear?), provides opportunities for students to explain their reason (e.g., How do you know?), and encourages students to negotiate with each other (e.g., Do we agree?). disagree?). An example of this is as follows:

Activity	Talking about old people and the aging process
Description	The teacher and students have a conversation about their experience of old people. The teacher asks students' feeling about old people, according to students' answers, the teacher asks other questions such as listing reasons, comparison and summary. The teacher intends to elicit students' deep thinking. **Teacher:** How do you feel about old people? **Student A:** I like old people, and my grandpa is getting older. **Teacher**: How do you know people getting old? Or what signs do you think when your grandpa is getting older? **Student A**: He gets gray hair, and his face gets wrinkled, and he cannot hear so good. **Teacher:** See, body differences such as graying hair, wrinkle face reveal one's physical changes. But are physical changes the only sign of getting old? **Student B:** No, I don't think so, my grandpa isn't like that. He always goes to Gym. **Teacher:** Alight, although your grandpa get old, he is pretty active, isn't he? How old is your grandfather? **Student B:** He is 80. **Teacher:** Well, since your grandfather is 80, why don't you think of him as an elderly man? **Student B:** Because he likes sports and he's quite active. **Teacher:** Then what do you think to act young? **Student B:** One may like sports and fashion, he is interested in new things and he doesn't always talk about the past things. **Teacher**: What might keep an older person healthy and active? **Student B:** No junk food, eat fresh vegetables, fruit, and drink water. Live happily and like sports and traveling. **Teacher:** In brief, in order to keep one healthy and active, he or she should have a good... **Student:** Hobby.
Effect	The instructional conversation enables students to understand the central topic, characters, and events they are learning. The teacher's goal of assessing students' experience with elderly people is realized by questioning students constantly in the progress of conversation and helping them think more about aging. The teacher's responses and comments advance the instructional goals, and elicits and encourages students' deep thinking.

3. Provide supporting atmosphere to all students

The teacher explicitly conveys high expectations for all students. The teacher encourages students to take risks and master challenging academic work. The teacher designs classroom activities which require students to work together to fulfill the goal. The teacher deliberately mixes high-level students with low-level students in the groups, and encourages their cooperation and sharing opinions with each other. An example of this is as follows:

Activity	Group role playing
Description	The teacher designs group role-playing activity for students. Each group is asked to prepare an English playing and assess each other after the playing. Students in each group collaborate to organize what they will say and how they will perform. Students with more English skills and proficiency are expected to lead the group, and students with less skills and proficiency also are expected to give their valuable opinions and take responsibilities for their roles. After each group's playing, students in other groups will make comments on the work and give suggestions for improvement.
Effect	By implementing group role-playing, high English level students and low level students work together toward a common goal and share experiences and understandings in the activity. Cooperative learning helps low level students increase their academic achievement, motivation and self-esteem; meanwhile, it strengthens high-level students to take more responsibilities in a group work. In addition, students are encouraged to take risks to provide comments that could help improve their own work.

4. Develop language competence across the problem-based curriculum

The teacher presents students with real or practical problems and encourages them to solve them. Problems are defined as having no single correct solution, requiring the construction of knowledge by the students (The State of Queensland Department of Education, 2002). An example of this is as follows:

Activity	Finding solutions
Description	The teacher was working with the class on a unit about traveling. The teacher asked the students to discuss the unit and prepared for a discussion about a real traveling. The discussion could base on the personal experience or what the student had known from TV, magazines and books etc. The discussion was towards what work would be done before the traveling, what problems might be met and how the problems might be solved. After the general questions were answered, the discussion was directed by the teacher to expand to wider aspects. Students were not limited to specific questions; furthermore, they were elicited to broaden their insights into social and economic aspects. For instance, from traveling problems to lead to the transportation problem, the pollution problem, the criminal problem and the economic problem etc. The students argued why these problems related to traveling problems, gave suggestions of these problems and explained their reasons.
Effect	Based on problem-based curriculum, students will find it easier to integrate their prior knowledge to new situations. Meanwhile, teachers' instruction is important in problem-solving activities. By linking real life to class teaching or creating interactive contexts, students' abilities of analyzing problems and solving real life problems will be reinforced.

5. Connect school to students' real life

Real life starts from home, school, community, society and it is about what one has already known and being familiar

with. To connect school education to student's real life, the teacher is able to design instructional activities that are meaningful to students and assist students to connect and apply what they have learned to their real life. Students are expected to solve real problems by integrating their learning and their own experience. The teacher organizes various activities to include students' preferences, from collective and cooperative to individual and competitive (Dalton, 1998). An example of this is as follows:

Activity	Preparing a Christmas Party
Description	The teacher talks with students about how to prepare a Christmas Party. The teacher raises requirements such as creative, interesting, and fancy. Students start to design Christmas Party activities. **Teacher**: What will you do in the party Ming? **Ming**: I think I will sing a song. I really like the song in cartoon movies. **Teacher**: Good. How about you, Hua? **Hua**: I will tell a story. My mum often tells me nice fairy tale stories. **Teacher**: Excellent. What will you guys do? **Ping and Yang and Lin**: Could we play a drama? We had taken drama lessons when we were in Kindergarten, we want to play a short drama. **Teacher**: What a nice idea. Do you have a favorite topic? **Ping and Yang and Lin**: Mm, we are planning a topic about how to protect lawns in our school. We had very nice lawns before, but after they were trampled time and time again, they were not beautiful any more, and nearly broke. We want to evoke people's attention to protect lawns by playing this drama. **Teacher**: Wonderful, you are touching the real life problems. You are using what you have learned to relate to your life and intend to solve real problems. I'd like other students to think about this issue as well, and write a letter to the whole school to help Ping and Yang and Lin realize their desire.
Effect	This activity involves the contexts external to school where student learning is situated. Students apply what they have learned from their family, movies, books, and communities to class activities. Students might confront an actual issue or problem, such as write a letter to protect the school environment. This high level of connectedness to students' life can help students improve their problem-solving abilities.

VI. CONCLUSION

Productive Pedagogy takes all students' academic and social success into its account. Students' success relies greatly on teachers' purposive intention and practical activities, regardless of the background, identities as well as student diversities. (August & Hakuta, 1996; Milk, 1990). In other words, teachers' competence overweighs the other elements in helping a great range of students accomplish the goal of improved achievement (Darling-Hammond, 1997). Productive Pedagogy is an effective teaching model, the introduction of Productive Pedagogy to China needs it to be integrated with the real contexts. It will be more possible to introduce it to private schools initially. The Productive Pedagogy offers guidance for teaching that aims to produce complex learning in classrooms. Meanwhile, it raises higher requirements for teachers and challenges the current teaching model in China. With the increasing development of China, the introduction of Productive Pedagogy to China's English teaching will be the trend, still it needs strong leadership support, individual teacher's efforts and most importantly, the setting up of a professional learning community to enhance cooperation with each other. Now that Productive Pedagogy has been proved an effective teaching approach in improving students' learning outcome, it is worthwhile to try it into China's English class no matter what efforts and hard work will be paid.

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On the Relation between English Textbooks and Iranian EFL Learners' Acculturation

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Abstract—**The cultural influence of foreign languages has always been a matter of concern for the learners of languages. The present study aimed at examining the relationship between English Textbooks and the cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners at English language schools. To this end, two of the widely used series of English textbooks in Iranian context (Interchange and American File) were analyzed to extract all the possible cultural issues embedded within the units. A researcher made questionnaire was designed based on the cultural issues extracted from the English textbooks. It was validated by two experts in the field, also its reliability, using the data from pilot study through Cronbach's Alpha, was estimated to be (.870). The questionnaire was administered to 210 learners of English followed by an interview for follow up purposes. For measuring the probable correlation between the English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of the learners, Correlation as well as cross tabulation were run through SPSS for analysis of the obtained data. The results exhibited a significant correlation between English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners. Moreover, the relationship found to be positive i.e. their attitudes significantly changed after studying these English textbooks.**

Index Terms—**English textbook, EFL, and cultural attitudes**

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background and Purpose

Language learning in academic contexts happens through means such as: teachers' instruction and use of textbooks. Therefore, it is asserted that the totality of language learning comprises three integrated components: linguistic, cultural, and attitudinal (Wilkes, 1983).Thus, based on what Wilkes puts forward, positively sensitizing students to cultural phenomena seems urgent and crucial. A positive attitude toward L2culture is a factor in language learning that leads to cross-cultural understanding. According to Cortazzi and Jin (1999; as cited in Cheng, Hung & Chieh, 2011), the textbook "can be a teacher, a map, a resource, a trainer, an authority, and an ideology." Hence, the textbook can be a major source of cultural elements besides providing linguistic and topical contents which necessarily reflect the ideology inherent in the EFL context of a particular circle. Consequently, there seems to be a widespread attention and research done regarding textbooks including their contents and effects.

B. Statement of the Problem

Textbooks play a very crucial role in the process of language teaching and learning mainly due to the fact that textbooks are very important resources for teachers in assisting students to learn every subject including English in particular(Azizifar, A., Koosha, M. & Lotfi, A., 2010).It also seems that textbooks are at the heart of crucial innovations occurring within the educational systems, therefore, they need to be studied thoroughly in order to inform any further changes the stakeholders may deem useful and needed.

Moreover, it seems that there is an opposing view regarding the cultural content of EFL courses (Widdowson, 1990; as cited in Sardi, 2002). He stated that English teaching should be carried out independently of its cultural context. Instead, familiar contexts seem more suitable to be inserted within the textbooks. It is considered that children acquire the formal properties of their native language (i.e. its semantic and syntactic systems) together with their cultural knowledge. The situation is different in the case of foreign language learning in that the learners are already culturally and linguistically competent members of one community, and they aim to acquire the language code of another community (Widdowson, 1990; as cited in Sardi, 2002).

C. Research Questions

To address the above mentioned problem, the researchers tried to answer the following questions:

Q1. Is there any significant relationship between English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners?

Q2. What are Iranian EFL learners' attitudes about the use of original English textbooks versus textbooks that have been localized?

D. Research Hypothesis

To avoid subjectivity the researchers propose the following null hypothesis:

HO. There is not any significant relationship between English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners.

E. Significance of the Study

Many teachers and school authorities believe that there are different factors involved in the Iranian students' achievement in English language (Azizifar, A.,Koosha, M. & Lotfi, A. 2010). One of these factors may refer to the culture which is directly mentioned or implied in the various exercises included in the textbooks which may result in the probable change in the EFL learners' attitudes towards a foreign language.

Besides, if we look meaningfully at what culture means, we would come up with the fact that culture is an inseparable part of societal life that cannot be ignored easily. Accordingly, based on what is cited in Csilla Sárdi (2002),the term 'culture', as the Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus define it, refers to the total of the inherited ideas, beliefs, values, and knowledge, which constitute the shared basis of social action. This system is acquired socially and is organized in our minds in culturally specific ways forming a framework which largely determines the way we perceive and define the world around us (Alptekin, 1993; as cited in Sardi, 2002).

F. (De)Limitations of the Study

In the academic community of Iran, it is observed that some English textbooks available in the market are left untouched in case of the cultural issues, e.g. no case of censorship is observed in some English textbooks while on the other hand, some of the other English textbooks are highly distorted by ministry of indoctrination in Iran. Consequently, we would see some learners to be under greater cultural influences in comparison to those who use the latter case of the English textbooks. Anyhow, it is believed that even under such absence of those cultural clusters, students are still seeking to experience and accumulate information related to those cultural instances which are facially eliminated from the textbooks.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Culture and ELT

The need to integrate culture into teaching the second language particularly teaching English in a foreign context is not a new debate and has long been highlighted in countless studies. Societal values, attitudes and cultural elements are integrated with the communicative approach to enhance the effectiveness of L2 acquisition. Conversely, textbooks are an integral part of language learning in the classrooms. Yet, it seems to be a common practice that foreign language textbooks and classrooms frequently overlook the conclusions drawn in such studies and neglect the essential information about the target language culture that would help students reach a cultural understanding to accompany their linguistic knowledge (Rajabi, S. & Ketabi, S., 2012).

Based on Adaskou, K.,Britten, D. & Fashi, B.(1990), it is possible to divide 'culture' into three different subcategories for the purposes of language teaching. First, Culture in the aesthetic sense involves literature, music, films and the fine arts. Second, Culture in the sociological sense refers to the way of life in the target community. This category includes the structure of different institutions from the national health system to the family, and the interpersonal relations at home, at work, and during free time activities. Third, culture in the pragmatic sense refers to the social skills that make it possible for learners to communicate successfully with other members of the target language community according to setting, audience, purpose and genre.

The above categories are useful for our purposes because they incorporate topics, which are normally dealt with in general English language courses. The relative importance of such culture-related topics may of course vary according to the aims of the courses.

B. Opposing Views on the Cultural Content of EFL Courses

According to Csilla Sárdi (2002), there are two widely spread and opposing views regarding the relationship between culture and EFL. These are the following (Svanes, 1988; Prodromou, 1992; as cited in Sardi, 2002). First, Culture and language are inseparable; therefore, English cannot be taught without its culture (or, given the geographical position of English, cultures).Second, English teaching should be carried out independently of its cultural context. Instead, contexts familiar to the students should be used.

It is important to note that both views support the inclusion of cultural elements in the English language course. The second statement, as well as the first one, assumes that language cannot be separated from the larger contexts in which it is used, and that these contexts are determined, among other variables, by the cultural background of the participants.

The question, then, is not whether to include cultural elements in the teaching of English, but which culture or cultures should receive focus and how this should be done.

C. Textbooks and Culture

A discussion on textbooks is inevitable in light of the arguments advocating the infusion of culture in EFL education. The significance of textbooks is seen in the many roles textbooks play in facilitating the second language teaching and learning process in the classroom. Textbooks across the world are of different cultural orientations; whether they are based on source cultures, target culture or international target cultures. Source cultures refer to learners' own culture, target culture is the culture in which the target language is used as a first language while international target cultures refer to various cultures in English, or non-English-speaking countries which use English as an international language. (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; as cited in Norhana & Sanda, 2011).

D. Related Studies

As the topic is related to Sociolinguistics, which has turned into a new and novel area of research, few but almost recent studies have been conducted regarding either of the variables in this research. For instance, Shams (2008; as cited in Zainol Abidin, Mohammadi & Alzwari, 2012) conducted a study attempting to investigate students' attitudes, motivation and anxiety towards the learning of English. The findings underlined that the students had affirmative attitudes and high enthusiasm towards English. This also highlighted that most of them showed positive attitudes towards English language and its learning which, in turn, emphasized the value of English language efficiency in the daily life.

Zainol Abidin, M. J., Pour Mohammadi, M. & Alzwari, H. (2012) investigated the EFL students' attitudes towards learning English language: The Case of Libyan Secondary School Students. The findings indicated that most of the participants in his study showed a negative attitude, and it was also proposed that the reason of such a negative attitude might have been a reaction to the instructional and traditional techniques used by some of the English language teachers. This is overlapping with the current status of English teaching strategies in the Libyan educational system. On the other hand, Csilla Sárdi (2002) investigates the relationship between culture and English language teaching. The overall results indicated that the recognized usefulness of English for international and instrumental purposes plays a significant role in students' reasons for learning the language. Every respondent (100%) agrees that English is a very powerful tool for success worldwide. This clearly indicates that students are aware of the effects of globalization from the point of view of language use.

There have also been studies carried out in Iran as an EFL context. For example, the study carried out by Rezaee, Kouhpaeenejad, and Mohammadi,(2012) under the title: Iranian EFL learners' perspectives on New Interchange series and Top-Notch series was centered on finding the EFL learners' perspective on New Interchange series. The researchers asked 42 Iranian EFL learners to complete an evaluation questionnaire about the Interchange and Top-Notch series. The questionnaire which was administered in this study contained several categories (25 items) each of which centered on a specified aspect of the books. These categories included practical considerations, layout and design of the book, activities, skills, language type, subject and content of the books. The findings of the study indicated an insignificant difference between the two series.

Zarei, G.R. and Khalessi, M. (2011) investigated the cultural load in English language textbooks which was specifically designed to focus on Interchange series. To this end, a careful analysis of the content of the English books was done based on a model of cultural patterns. These categories mainly included: values, norms, institutions, and artifacts. Each of these four categories contained some sub-components. The results exhibited that textbooks are artifacts which are strongly grounded in cultural assumptions and biases.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In order to collect the required data, a sample of 210 intermediate and above intermediate male (83) and female (117) EFL students who had recently finished studying these levels at language schools in Iran participated in this study. Half of the participants had an age range of 21 to 30 years old and the rest were under 20 and more than half of the participants (50%) had B.A. degree. The majority of the participants had studied Interchange series or American File series as the main required textbook at the institute. In order to control the probable effects of other factors on the learners' cultural attitudes, two control questions were included to the end of the first section of the questionnaire, to which 10 learners had answered positively and as a result they were excluded from the study at first place. All these intermediate learners had spent a minimum amount of two years studying English.

B. Instrumentation

The elicited instruments used in this study were a researcher made questionnaire i.e. an Acculturation test, and an interview.

C. Acculturation Test

The acculturation test which was used in this study was a researcher made questionnaire that checked the cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners. In order to design the questionnaire, the researchers analyzed two prominent English textbooks (Interchange series, and American File series) with regard to the cultural issues. The result was the exclusion of 60 cultural elements from the mentioned textbooks. In order to validate the questionnaire, two experts in the field were asked to check and give comments on the items included in the questionnaire, and as a result 16 items were excluded from the total amount of questions. As for the reliability of the questionnaire, Cronbach's Alpha was run through SPSS 16 and the estimated reliability turned out to be 0.870. The questionnaire consisted of 44 items and was a five-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) "strongly agree" to (5) "no idea". The time allotted for answering the questionnaire was estimated to be 15 minutes. The questionnaire included items which measured the cultural attitudes such as:"I like western music more than Iranian ones"; "I enjoy it if some information about western celebrities be included in textbooks"; or "In my free time, I prefer to do other kinds of entertainments including music, rather than reading books". The questionnaire is included in the appendix.

D. Interview

In order to answer the second research question: what the Iranian EFL learners' attitudes about the use of original English textbooks versus textbooks that have been localized are, an interview was run as the qualitative means of gathering data in this study. There existed two questions which were asked during the interview: 1) What is your idea about using English textbooks that are culturally localized instead of those which are currently used? 2) Do you think you have been under the influence of the English Textbooks you have studied so far?

The total number of the learners who took part in the interview was 20. The choice of the participants, who took the interview, largely depended on the willingness of the participants and their availability to the researcher at the time carrying out the interview. The time allotted to the interview was about 10 minutes per learner.

E. Procedure

In this study, the researchers investigated the probable relationship between English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of EFL learners. To this end, the date and time were arranged with the institutes in order to be able to administer the questionnaire to intermediate or above intermediate EFL learners. Prior to administering the questionnaire in intermediate classes, the researcher made sure about the English background of participants and their level of proficiency by checking the placement test they had taken when entering the institute. Finally, an interview was run in order to check the EFL learners' attitudes towards studying English and its probable effects on their cultural attitudes.

Data collection started in March 2013 and finished in May 2013. When data collection was over, the results were analyzed using SPSS, Correlation, Cross tabulation and Chi square test, and then they were discussed in the teaching and learning context e.g. what the probable effect of English textbooks is, and what probable implications in the EFL context it could have.

IV. ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

A. The Quantitative Data

Considering the first research question i.e."Is there any significant relationship between English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners? Crosstabulation, Chi square test as well as Spearman correlation were employed to check whether learners' cultural attitudes have changed or not. The way data is explained according to the Crosstabulation table, is based on the differences in the scores participants have gained on the questionnaire, which put them under four different categories which moved from "Strongly Affected to Not Affected". The interpretation of Crosstabulation table was based on four categories ranging from "Strongly Affected to Not Affected". Mainly those who obtained above 133 out of 176 in the test were placed in the first rank under "Strongly Affected", 89 to 132 in the second part labeled as "Affected", 45 to 88 in the third one under "Less Affected", and under 44 were placed in the fourth group labeled as "Not Affected" respectively. The results of the analysis are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.
BOOKS * SUM RANKS CROSSTABULATION

| | | | SUM Ranks | | | | Total |
			Strongly Affected	Affected	Lees Affected	Not Affected	
books	Interchange	Count	25	89	21	0	135
		% within books	18.5%	65.9%	15.6%	.0%	100.0%
		% within SUM Ranks	64.1%	66.9%	56.8%	.0%	64.3%
		% of Total	11.9%	42.4%	10.0%	.0%	64.3%
	American File	Count	14	44	16	1	75
		% within books	18.7%	58.7%	21.3%	1.3%	100.0%
		% within SUM Ranks	35.9%	33.1%	43.2%	100.0%	35.7%
		% of Total	6.7%	21.0%	7.6%	.5%	35.7%
Total		Count	39	133	37	1	210
		% within books	18.6%	63.3%	17.6%	.5%	100.0%
		% within SUM Ranks	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	18.6%	63.3%	17.6%	.5%	100.0%

Table 1 exhibits that 135 (64.3 percent)of the total participants of this research had studied Interchange series in their process of language learning, out of which 25 (18.5%) were 'strongly affected' by Interchange books, 89 (65.9%) were 'affected', 21 (15.6%) were 'less affected' and there were no results found in the last group. This indicates that all and all, Interchange series 'affect' the EFL learners' cultural attitudes.

The second part of the table focuses on the results obtained from those participants (75 = 35.7 %) who had studied American File series as their major English textbook. Out of the mentioned participants 14 (18.7%) were 'strongly affected' by American File books, 44 (58.7.9%) were 'affected', 16 (21.3%) were 'less affected' and there was only one person who was not affected by the American File series(1.3%).Once again the results show that English textbooks affect learners' cultural attitudes. And it is also revealed that Interchange series had greater popularity as well as influence on the learners' cultural attitudes.

To make sure about the significance of the relation, Chi-Square in table 2 was employed to check the significance. The difference is significant if Pearson value is bigger than P-value or if P-value is less than the level of significance (i.e. .05 for the present study).

TABLE 2.
CHI-SQUARE TESTS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.115[a]	3	.374
Likelihood Ratio	3.355	3	.340
Linear-by-Linear Association	.867	1	.352
N of Valid Cases	210		

According to Chi-Square table (Table2), the Pearson Chi-Square value is 3.115. Its Asymp. Sig (two-sided) value is .374 which is smaller than Pearson Chi-Square value at an alpha level of 0.05. Thus, there is a significant relationship between English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of EFL learners.

To sum up, as the analysis of the result exhibited, the null hypothesis i.e. "there is not any significant relation between English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of EFL learners" was rejected. This accounts for the fact that these EFL learners have been influenced by the textbooks they have studied, since their cultural attitudes depicted through the means of this research have changed. Moreover, as other researchers including Zarei, and Khalessi, (2011) concluded in their studies about the cultural load of Interchange series, these textbooks are artifacts which are strongly grounded in cultural assumptions and biases. Also, it was found that both of these books have had a significant impact on EFL learners' cultural attitudes.

B. The Qualitative Data

In order to answer the second research question, an interview was run in which the researchers made use of two questions. The purpose of the first question was to check the EFL learners' ideas about using English textbooks, which are localized instead of the ones which were currently used in all institutes. Table 3 indicates the results of the descriptive analysis of the data from the first question.

TABLE 3.
USING LOCALIZED BOOKS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	4	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Partially Agree	7	35.0	35.0	55.0
	Strongly Disagree	9	45.0	45.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	

As table 3 shows, 45 percent of the learners who took part in the interview were not in favor of using or studying such localized textbooks mainly because they believed that culture and language go hand in hand, thus learning a foreign language is deeply rooted in the culture of that language. Others believed that they have studied all about Iranian culture in their school textbooks, so it is a necessity for learners to know the culture of the foreign or the second language they are learning.

About 35 percent of the participants partially agreed to the question, indicating that they all favored the kind of textbook in which they could read about a mixture of both cultures. They mostly believed this would help learners to learn how to express their ideas and beliefs about their own culture as well as getting to know and read about a foreign culture. Finally, only 20 percent of the participants strongly disagreed with the idea presented. They mostly claimed that a learner should maintain and follow all the customs and cultural features of his own country not a foreign one.

The purpose of the second question in the interview was to check the learners' idea about whether or not they have been affected by the English textbooks they have studied so far. The analysis done based on the responses from the interviewees is shown in Table4.

TABLE 4.
AFFECTED BY ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Affected	4	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Partially Affected	5	25.0	25.0	45.0
	Not Affected	11	55.0	55.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	

As table4exhibits, 55 percent of the population believed that they have not been affected by the English textbooks they have studied so far, which is one of the major outcomes of this study. In the first phase of the study, through checking these learners' responses, the researchers came up with the idea that majority of them were affected by these English textbooks while when directly asked about it, they pretended not be so, and this indicates they have the fear of being culturally alienated.

Around 25 percent of the population expressed that they were 'partially affected' by the textbooks and only in some specific areas, e.g. getting to know the foreign celebrities and being interested in their life styles or talents. Finally, only 20 percent said they were 'strongly affected' by the textbooks they had studied mainly because they were interested in the way foreigners speak or because of some of the personality traits these foreigners possessed.

V. CONCLUSION

Regarding the findings of this study and what the researchers discussed in the previous section, it was proved that English textbooks, Interchange and American file series, have had a significant impact on learners' cultural attitudes. Besides, it was also stated that EFL learners were more in favor of Interchange series rather than American File series.

Moreover, in the second phase of gathering data and analyzing the results, the researchers could witness the fact that almost the majority of EFL learners, while attending classes or reading theses textbooks, are under the influence of English textbooks unconsciously, and the indirect way of asking the learners proved the same fact. But when the researchers resorted to learners to ask their ideas about this issue directly, majority of the learners claimed they weren't under the influence of the aforementioned textbooks. This could imply that learners, no matter which book they study, how old they are, male or female, are all afraid of accepting the fact that they have been affected by a foreign culture.

Above all, through the analysis of the Interchange and American File series in this study, the results indicate that textbooks are artifacts, which are strongly grounded in cultural assumptions and biases. This is partly because English language has gained a world-wide lingua franca status, whose non-native speakers already outnumber native speakers. Following this line of thought, McKay (2004) & Kachru (1986; as cited in Zarei & Khalessi, 2011) suggest that English as an International Language needs to describe one's own culture and concerns to others rather than being linked to the culture of those who speak it.

Fairclaough (1989; as cited in Zarei & Khalessi, 2011) believes that "language is not an independent construct but a social institution that creates and is created by certain forces and structures forming our functions in the society. Thus, learning a foreign language is a particular way of assimilating into a complex system of categorized experiences, thoughts, behaviors, and modes of interaction of certain people".

To sum up, exposing students to aspects of any foreign language is not as harmful as what Iranians believe in. The researchers came up with some cases in which the learners' cultural attitudes have changed for the better not for the worse. Moreover, this cultural awareness helps learners decide and grow a thorough outlook towards people in other communities and afterwards decide upon the best cultural features of each. All and all, the results of this study could be of great benefit for ministry of education as well as all those who have a role in providing the foundation and basis for learning English as a foreign language. They can think of developing textbooks in which a mixture of both native and target cultures are depicted so that a balance between the two are maintained. Moreover, textbook writers, practitioners as well as curriculum developers should bare in mind the crucial role textbooks play in an EFL teaching learning context. Careful attention and awareness is also deemed necessary on the part of those EFL teachers as the ones who

have the responsibility of carrying over the linguistic as well as non-linguistic features of a textbook (in this context the cultural elements).

Other areas for further studies are put forward by the researchers including a kind of cause and effect design in order to check the effects of one or more of these textbooks on the ones who have studied the book and those who have not. Second, studies can be planned to check the role of EFL learners' majors and the extent to which their cultural attitudes might change.

APPENDIX. ACCULTURATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear respondent:

The purpose of the present questionnaire is to carry out a research on the relation between English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of EFL learners. Your personal information and your responses will be used only in this study and will not be used otherwise. Thank you for your cooperation.

Name (Optional) : ………………   Age: below 20□   21-30□   31-40 □   over 40□

Marital Status: Single□   Married□   Gender: Male□   Female□

Name of the language school you are studying at (Optional) : ……………………

Textbooks you use: Interchange □   American File □   Move Up □   Others (please write)……………□

Province: Tehran□   Khorasan Razavi □   Khorasan Jonubi □   Khorasan Shomali□   Semnan □ Ghom □ Yazd □ Kerman □   Shiraz □   Esfahan □ Bandar Abaas □   Others(please write)………………..□

Educational Status: Under Diploma□ Associate of Arts Degree□   B.A. □   M.A. □   Full PhD□

Language learning experience at language schools: less than 2 years□   2-3years□   3-4 years□   over 4years□

Other languages you know except English: German□   French□   Spanish □   Arabic □   Turkish □   Other languages (please write)………………□

How good is your English proficiency: Excellent □ Very Good □ Good □ Average□ Weak □ Too weak□

How much do you watch original English movies per week: Less than 2 hours□ 2-4hours□ 4-6hours □ more than 6 hours □ Don't watch□

How often do you use internet or chat with English native speakers in order to learn the language perweek: Less than 2 hours□ 2-4hours□   4-6hours □   more than 6 hours □   Don't use□

• Which of the following choices best clarifies your idea? Mark the correct answer.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Idea
1. I like western music more than Iranian ones.					
2. I enjoy it if some information about western celebrities be included in textbooks					
3. In my free time, I prefer to do other kinds of entertainments including music, rather than reading books.					
4. I am in favor of learning western cooking methods.					
5. During holidays and vacations, I prefer to travel abroad rather than traveling through Iran.					
6. Household responsibilities should be shared equally among family members.					
7. The best use of computers is downloading foreign movies and visiting non-Iranian websites.					
8. I like modern life in which technology plays an important role in comparison to Iranian traditional life style.					
9. I am in favor of foreign holidays and festivals and if possible I would like to attend them.					
10. Versing some of the marriage customs and tradition of foreign countries into Iran's culture is a good idea.					
11. I like to follow fashion according to what is presented in foreign countries.					
12. Taking care of a pet, including a dog, is not a big deal to me.					
13. For deciding upon a job, my personal interests are more important to me than the pay.					
14. I would like to improve my general knowledge about the famous historical places of other countries.					
15. Museums belonging to other countries are far more interesting than the ones in Iran.					
16. I prefer watching foreign movies than watching Iranian ones.					
17. I would like to know about the body language of other countries.					
18. I prefer to go to parties with a friend.					
19. Having a job for a college student is very necessary even if it is not a suitable one.					
20. For being successful at work, there is no need to voice whatever good ideas that cross your mind.					
21. If some services such as taking care of pets be provided in Iran, it will be welcomed.					
22. Having basic information about the cultural features of other countries is very essential.					

23. Those who have problems finding a partner, may consult the dating companies.					
24. One of the means of getting to know about other people and cultures is the Internet.					
25. The majority of brands, which have a high quality, belong to foreign countries.					
26. Using modern and stylish environments can lead to the attraction of public places, including a restaurant.					
27. Following fashion and offering brand clothes are the reasons to success of many boutiques.					
28. I am more in favor of the film festivals being held in foreign countries rather than the Fajr festival in Iran.					
29. A teacher's responsibility is to increase learners' awareness about plagiarism and its punishments.					
30. Most of the inventions and services, which have helped human beings, have been provided by foreigners.					
31. I like western names more than traditional Iranian names.					
32. I would like to travel to countries in which I can find multicultural communities.					
33. I would like to go to restaurants in which different western foods are served.					
34. I would like to travel to countries that have famous tourist attractions.					
35. Tipping should be customized in Iran and there should also be a guideline for its amount.					
36. One of the most common and easiest ways of shopping is the internet.					
37. For choosing my spouse, I prefer to decide on my own rather than following my family's advice.					
38. True friend is the one who likes and dislikes whatsoever I like or dislike.					
39. Probably, in near future, men will replace women in doing household chores and taking care of children.					
40. It seems a good idea that parents let their grown up children to leave the house and live on their own.					
41. I would like to know about famous sports, even if I do not play any of them.					
42. All the office work should be done through the internet and email.					
43. Foreigners care about their health more than Iranians do.					
44. Finding a new friend is easier than keeping close ones.					

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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Analysis of Prefabricated Chunks Used by Second Language Learners of Different Levels

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Abstract—This paper first briefly introduces the previous studies on second language learners' chunk use. Then it gives the definition and classification of prefabricated chunks. In part two, it explains the process of the research design by introducing three important three important criteria-frequency, accuracy and variation to measure student's ability in chunk use. In part three, the results of the research are discussed in detail which shows that English learners' ability to use chunks is positively correlated with their language level. Second year in college is the most important year for second language learners to acquire prefabricated chunks.

Index Terms—prefabricated chunks, writing, frequency, accuracy, variation

I. Introduction

One's ability to use prefabricated chunks is an important criterion to measure one's language level. Recent years, research in the chunk use by second language learners has been on the increase. Various papers and studies have been published in this field which includes literal reviews and empirical studies. There are some common features concerning these chunk researches: (1) The research content involves chunk using, chunk teaching, chunk defining and measuring of one's chunk ability. (3) The research method is mainly corpus-based and empirical, for example, the relevance between chunk identifying and learners' English level (Huang Qiang 2002, Diao Linlin 2004), analysis of chunk types in second language learners' writing (Xu Xianwen 2010) ect. These studies have arrived at similar conclusions: (1) There is a close relationship between second language learners chunk level and their listening speaking reading and writing abilities. (2) Most of them learners couldn't use English chunks very well, whether they are English majors, non-English majors, lower grade students or higher grade students, especially in writing and speaking. These studies provide the theoretical base for the future research in terms of methodologies. However, there is one issue which has been neglected: There is a common intuition among both English teachers and second language acquisition researchers that second language learners of different levels tend to use these chunks differently. Nevertheless, there has been very few studies as to how different they are or which sections these differences lie in. Therefore, this paper aims to provide some detailed analysis of chunk use by second language learners of different levels in college.

II. Definition and Classification of Prefabricated Chunks

There have always been great controversies about the definition and classification of prefabricated chunks. However, researchers through years of studies and observations reached a consensus: prefabricated chunk is a language structure that combines the features of both vocabulary and grammar; it performs a specific language function. Simply speaking, prefabricated chunk is a set term which may include one or more words. According to the data retrieved from corpus, prefabricated chunks are the meaningful collocations in the text that reach a certain frequency. Nattinger (1992) categorized the lexical phrases into 4 kinds: (1) poly word (so to speak, by the way,) (2) institutionalized expressions (how are you, have a nice day) (3) phrasal constraint (as far as.., a…ago) (4) sentence builder (my point is that…, not only...but also…). Biber (1999), according to the academic terms he studied in research papers, classified the chunks into 12 kinds: (1) noun phrase +phrase fragment (2) noun phrase +attribute post modifier (3) prepositional phrase +of phrase fragment (4) other prepositional phrase fragment (5) it +verb phrase/adjective phrase fragment (6) passive verb+ prepositional phrase fragment (7) be+ noun phrase/adjective phrase fragment (8) verb phrase +that clause (9) verb/ adjective +phrase fragment (10) adverbial clause fragment (11) pronoun/noun +be(+…) (12) other expressions

This paper is to take both categorizations into consideration, leaving out the complex parts which are difficult to retrieve from corpus, and recategorize the studied chunks.

III. Research Design

A. Research Questions

The study aims to answer the 3 questions as follows (1) Among different age groups, what are the differences of chunk use in second language learners of different levels (2) Among the same age groups, what are the differences between students with different language levels? (3) Are there any patterns or features of these usages?

B. Research Subject

The studied second language learners are divided into 2 groups: One group is the second year non-English major undergraduate in college; they are all from school of computer and software engineering. These 60 students include 5 females and 55 males. Based on their English test scores of Chinese College Entrance Examination, their CET4 (College English Test band 4) and their final term examinations, this group is subdivided into 2 groups. One group contains 15 students with higher English scores; the other group contains 15 students with lower English scores. The second group students are the 60 first year graduate students from grads school. They are different majors. According to their scores in graduate entrance exam, they are also subdivided into 2 groups: 15 students with higher English scores and 15 students with lower English scores.

C.　Corpus Source and Data Collection

The corpus of this study comes from the written homework assigned by the English teachers. The homework is an argumentation entitled *Living On Campus or Off Campus.* Students are supposed to write at least 150 words in English. The composition turned in through Email in the form of txt file.

D.　The Indexes to Measure the Chunk Use

This study measures the second language learners' chunk use with three indexes: fluency, accuracy and variation.
1.　Frequency
This index comes from the study by Wolfe-Quintero in 1998. Frequency means the token number of the chunks used in a speech. In this case, it refers to the token number of prefabricated chunks in a written text. Each different chunk is considered to be a type; a type has different tokens. For example, *to look up, looked up, looking up* are regarded as one type with three different tokens. Since token can better explain second language user's ability to use chunks, it is taken as one index. More over, due to the different word number used in the composition, the total token number should be standardized. The formula is: the total token number ÷ total word number × 1000, i.e. the total chunk number in every 1000 words. (Here the total number refers to the total number in each composition)
2.　Accuracy
Accuracy refers to the grammaticality in chunk use; the formula is total number of the correct chunk ÷ total chunk number × 1000. what is needed to point out here is that the identified errors include intralingua errors and interlingua errors. The former kind of error means that the structure of the chunk is incomplete or incorrect; the latter one means that the chunk itself is right but inappropriately used with its context. The grammatical errors which involve the number of noun, verb tense and agreement are not included in this study. For example:
(1) If the house catch fire, what can he do? (grammatical error)
(2) All of us *were addicted in* the story. (intralingua error)
(3) He doesn't care about *that he has no money or power* (interlingua error)
The chunk "catch fire" in the first sentence belongs to the grammatical error, thus not included in the study.
3.　Variation
Variation refers to the ratio of token number and word number. Here, the token number means the token number of chunks. It is one of the criteria to decide whether the students are good at chunk using. Due to the different length of the material, the study adopts the formula proposed by Wolfe-Quintero in 1998: type number × type number ÷ word number. Here the type number refers to the correct type number of the chunks used in every text. The bigger the variation is, the larger the number is, of the chunks students have mastered. Contrarily, students' using the same chunks repeatedly means they are limited in chunk volume.

E.　Corpus Analysis

There are three steps to analyze the corpus: (1) Calculate one by one the fluency, accuracy and variation of the chunks in each written text. (2) Compare the differences between the two groups of students in the above three indexes by using the repeated measures. (3) Compare the differences between students with high English scores and students with low English scores within the same group and analyze the reasons of these differences.

F.　Chunk Defining and Retrieving

The defining of chunks is based on the Longman Modern English Dictionary (2003) combined with English native speaker's intuition. The standards are as follows:
(1) combination of two or more than two words
(2) If the above combination appears in the dictionary, it is considered to be a chunk.
(3) If there is an ambiguous term, it is left to the foreign teacher to decide.
Last, the data are calculated with Excel.

IV.　Result and Discussion

A.　The General Differences of Chunk Use

There are some differences between undergraduate group and graduate group in fluency, accuracy and variation. (see Table 1)

TABLE I.
THE GENERAL CHUNK USE OF THE TWO GROUPS

Group	Fluency		Accuracy		Variation	
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Undergraduate	86.84	20.89	.78	.14	16.07	6.27
Graduate	108.18	22.70	.90	.09	21.30	7.52

TABLE II.
PAIRWISE COMPARISON OF THE TWO GROUPS

	Fluency	Accuracy	Variation
Mean difference	21.34	.12	5.23

The result of the pairwise comparison shows that the graduate group is better than the undergraduate group in all three sections: fluency, accuracy and variation. The graduate group is composed of a number of best students from college. They must be equipped with strong second language ability to be admitted to grad school. According to the interview of these students, 58 of them have passed CET 6 (College English Test Band 6.). By contrast, the undergraduate group has only finished one year learning of English in college. Only 28 students passed CET 4; none of them passed CET6.However, according to table 1, within each group, there is a large standard deviation existing in fluency, accuracy and variation. This means that even in the same group, students tend to develop differently in their ability to use chunk. The reason might be that there are at least one or two students in each group who are much better or much worse than the other students, which is normal considering the individual factors.

This shows that one's ability to use chunks is positively correlated to one's second language ability.

B. The Differences between High Score Students and Low Score Students

In order to know the internal differences within the same group, the researcher divides the group into 2 subgroups: 15 students with high English scores and 15 students with low English scores. The following table is the analysis of the two groups.

TABLE III.
THE CHUNK USE OF THE UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE GROUP

	Fluency				Accuracy				Variation			
	undergraduate		graduate		undergraduate		graduate		undergraduate		graduate	
	M	S	M	S	M	S	M	S	M	S	M	S
H	114.24	11.32	141	14.86	.92	.03	.99	.01	23.93	5.89	31.47	8.8
L	61.24	10.92	86.76	6.21	.60	.12	.80	.09	9.37	2.25	15.75	1.54

M: mean, S: Standard deviation, H: high score group, L: low score group

From table 3, we see that the students with high English scores use chunks better than students with the low English scores; no matter it is in the undergraduate or graduate group. This result shows that student's chunk level is determined by his or her second language level. The higher the score, the stronger their language ability to use chunk is. That means student's second language level is positively correlated with his or her chunk level.

There are three reasons to explain this. First, the conceptions about chunks are different. Learners with higher English scores have a clear conception about prefabricated chunks; they think it extremely important to memorize these set terms. Contrarily, learners with lower English scores couldn't give a clear explanation of it, let alone its functions. In most cases, they tend to solve their learning problems by resorting to grammatical rules. Second, in terms of acquisition, group with high English scores acquire the chunks mainly through recitation and imitation of the phrases they learned in class or saw in the books or movies. However, the students with low English scores merely pay attention to the vocabularies, ignoring their collocations with the context words.

Another interesting fact that comes to the researcher's attention is that when we are observing the data of learners with higher scores, the standard variation of the graduate group is bigger than that of the undergraduate group in all three sections except accuracy. When we compare the learners with low English scores in graduate group and the learners with high English scores in undergraduate group, we may find that the mean value in the undergraduate group is bigger than that of the graduate group in all three sections (fluency, accuracy and variation). On the other hand, the standard variation of high score students in undergraduate group is bigger than low score students in graduate group. There might not be solid reasons to explain this. However, we may infer the in undergraduate group, there might be several students who are extremely good, even better than the graduate students; or we may boldly guess that the best students in the undergraduate group are better than lower score students in graduate group in terms of their language ability. This is probably because second year in college is the year when student make greatest effort to learn English. Thus, their English level is high. According to some previous studies (Qi Yan, 2010; Zhang Jianqin 2004), second year is the critical year for Chinese learners to acquire English. In this year, they make the biggest progress because students have to make preparations for CET 4 and TEM 4. After that, some students are relieved of the pressure and stop working hard. Thus, they couldn't make big progress. This might explain data from the table.

V. CONCLUSION

The conclusions of this study are as follows: first, English learners' ability to use chunks is positively correlated with their language level. The higher their English level is, the stronger their ability to use language. Second, second year in college is the most important year for second language learners to acquire prefabricated chunks. Third, these differences in chunk use are due to various learning strategies adopted by students. High level students have a clear understanding of what chunk is. They will acquire English chunks through memorizing English chunks in class and watching English movies or reading English novels after class. The intentional and unintentional acquisition work together. Low level students attach importance only to vocabulary and grammar, thus neglecting English chunks.

What should be noted here is that this study has limitations. For example, the sample is relatively small; the result needs further testifying and improving. The future study will widen the scope of the sample and detail the definition of prefabricated chunks so as to further analyze the pattern of chunk use and enhance second language learner's understanding of their inter-language development.

APPENDIX I.   DATA OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' CHUNK USE

Note: C refers to Chunk; W refers to word;

No.	WType	CToken	CType	CorrectC	Frequency	Accuracy	Variantion
1	200	18	17	12	90.00	.67	16.06
2	207	22	21	16	106.28	.73	20.05
3	151	12	12	9	79.47	.75	12
4	392	48	38	28	102.04	.70	36.1
5	315	29	28	26	92.06	.90	27.03
6	171	15	15	13	87.71	.87	15
7	160	20	19	15	125.00	.75	18.05
8	396	37	37	30	93.43	.81	37
9	168	19	19	15	113.00	.79	19
10	251	20	19	18	79.68	.90	18.05
11	121	8	8	7	66.11	.88	8
12	151	13	13	12	86.09	.92	13
13	328	21	20	16	64.02	.76	19.05
14	175	16	15	12	91.42	.75	14.06
15	258	18	18	16	69.76	.89	18
16	205	16	15	12	78.04	.75	14.06
17	191	16	14	12	83.76	.75	12.25
18	131	4	4	3	30.53	.75	4
19	161	11	11	9	68.32	.82	11
20	205	18	16	13	87.80	.72	14.22
21	190	17	16	14	89.47	.82	15.06
22	144	12	12	12	89.33	1.0	12
23	207	12	12	10	57.97	.83	12
24	223	21	20	18	89.68	.90	22.05
25	215	17	15	14	79.06	.82	15.05
26	154	12	12	8	77.92	.67	12
27	165	14	13	12	84.84	.86	12.07
28	244	24	23	19	98.36	.79	22.04
29	172	9	9	8	52.32	.89	9
30	165	19	19	18	115.15	.95	19
31	194	18	18	13	92.78	.72	18
32	182	16	16	13	87.91	.81	16
33	273	35	32	31	128.2	.89	29.26
34	160	14	13	9	87.5	.64	12.07
35	244	17	17	10	69.67	.59	17
36	119	9	9	7	75.63	.78	9
37	156	13	12	9	83.33	.69	11.08
38	193	11	11	7	56.99	.64	11
39	145	9	8	4	62.04	.44	7.11
40	180	16	16	8	88.88	.50	16
41	143	20	20	19	139.00	.95	20
42	295	34	28	28	115.25	.82	23.06
43	188	21	20	18	111.70	.86	19.05
44	180	20	19	15	111.11	.75	18.05
45	215	27	25	24	125.58	.89	23.15

46	92	6	6	3	65.21	.50	6
47	162	11	11	10	67.90	.91	11
48	172	15	15	4	87.2	.27	15
49	212	16	16	13	75.47	.81	16
50	258	21	21	20	81.39	.95	21
51	141	17	17	15	120.56	.88	17
52	240	11	10	7	45.83	.64	9.09
53	121	9	9	5	74.38	.56	9
54	184	18	18	16	97.82	.89	18
55	262	23	22	18	87.78	.78	21.04
56	222	15	14	12	67.56	.80	13.07
57	241	21	20	15	87.13	.71	11.25
58	194	20	19	18	103.09	.90	18.05
59	171	17	16	13	99.41	.76	15.06
60	219	20	19	19	91.32	.95	18.05

APPENDIX II.   DATA OF GRADUATE STUDENTS' CHUNK USE

No.	WType	CToken	CType	CorrectC	Frequency	Accuracy	Variantion
1	242	23	19	18	95.04	.83	15.70
2	198	19	19	16	95.96	.84	19
3	149	15	15	15	100.67	.10	15
4	226	21	21	19	92.92	.90	21
5	224	23	23	18	102.68	.57	23
6	223	26	26	24	116.59	.92	26
7	217	17	17	12	78.34	.71	17
8	175	16	16	11	91.43	.69	16
9	182	20	18	17	109.89	.85	16.2
10	406	50	50	47	123.00	.94	50
11	229	26	24	22	113.54	.92	22.15
12	230	25	24	24	108.70	.96	23.04
13	259	33	32	31	127.41	.94	31.03
14	156	17	17	16	108.97	.94	17
15	208	27	27	27	129.81	.10	27
16	217	27	26	26	124.42	.96	25.04
17	218	23	21	23	105.50	.10	19.17
18	286	30	25	26	104.90	.87	20.83
19	198	19	18	18	95.96	.95	17.05
20	148	18	18	18	121.61	1.0	18
21	186	24	24	23	129.03	.96	24
22	186	24	24	23	129.03	.96	24
23	201	22	22	19	109.45	.86	22
24	308	35	34	33	113.64	.94	33.03
25	244	20	20	19	163.93	.95	20
26	244	20	29	19	81.97	.95	20
27	283	23	23	22	81.27	.96	23
28	283	26	25	24	91.87	.92	24.04
29	182	22	22	18	120.88	.82	22
30	220	19	18	17	86.36	.89	17.05
31	158	16	15	14	101.27	.88	14.06
32	181	22	20	22	121.55	1.0	18.18
33	153	20	20	18	130.72	.90	20
34	190	19	18	14	100.00	.74	17.05
35	184	18	18	17	97.83	.94	18
36	145	22	21	20	151.72	.91	20.05
37	162	13	12	10	80.25	.77	11.08
38	165	18	17	17	109.10	.94	16.06
39	321	50	50	49	155.76	.98	50
40	262	43	41	43	164.12	1.0	39.09
41	172	28	28	27	162.80	.96	28
42	222	34	29	32	153.15	.94	24.74

43	213	27	26	23	126.76	.85	25.04
44	180	21	21	20	116.67	.95	21
45	159	17	17	17	106.92	1.0	17
46	188	27	26	27	143.62	1.0	25.04
47	246	19	17	16	77.24	.84	15.21
48	190	23	22	23	121.05	1.0	21.04
49	425	40	40	39	94.12	.98	40
50	224	22	22	22	102.68	1.0	22
51	223	20	19	19	89.69	.95	18.05
52	166	15	15	13	90.36	.87	15
53	222	25	24	24	112.61	.96	23.04
54	169	22	22	21	130.18	.96	22
55	196	21	21	21	107.14	1.0	21
56	170	17	17	15	100.00	.89	17
57	216	17	17	16	78.70	.94	17
58	170	17	17	15	100.00	.89	17
59	187	21	20	20	112.30	.96	19.05
60	196	18	18	16	91.84	.89	18

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Gender Representation in Children's EFL Textbooks

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Abstract—The differences in the speech and behavior of adult males and females may be a consequence of their sexist education in childhood; experimental research suggests that the development of children's gender identity is strongly affected by their reading materials and extensive research on these materials have revealed that gender bias and gender stereotypes are prevalent. The present study examines the representation of gender in conversations, illustrations and graphic design of the cover in nine packages designed to teach English to young children for evidence of bias. From each series, the intermediate level is analyzed. The results revealed that females have equitable visibility in conversations with regard to the number of participants, number of turns and the length of turns. Females however appeared to be the initiator of conversations 30 per cent more times than males. The analysis of illustrations in the second part confirmed the results of previous studies that females were under-represented in children's books. There were no significant differences in the representation of gender in the graphic design of the covers.

Index Terms— gender, bias, children's EFL books, critical discourse analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

We live in an age in which power is predominantly exercised through the generation of consent rather than coercion and through ideology rather than physical force. Educational institutions are heavily involved in the ideological developments that affect language in its relation to power. This is mainly because educational practices themselves constitute the core domain of linguistic and discursive power and much training in education is oriented towards the use of particular discursive practices in educational organization; moreover, many other domains are mediated by educational institutions (Fairclough, 1995). Thus, education is a rich site for the analysis of discourse and discursive practices and in this paper we focus on English education aimed at young children and try to understand how discourse supports or creates gender discrimination in this context.

A. Critical Discourse Analysis

Discourse is a product of society and at the same time a dynamic and changing force that constantly influences and reconstructs social practices and values, either positively or negatively (Bloor & Bloor, 2007, p. 12). Critical discourse analysis approaches this double-faceted concept of discourse analytically in order to illustrate how social power abuse, dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced and resisted through text and talk (van Dijk, 2008b, p. 85). According to Fairclough and Wodak (1997), critical discourse analysis (CDA) addresses social problems and regards power relations to be discursive (in van Dijk, 2008b, p. 86). Fairclough explains that one of the objectives of critical discourse analysis is "helping people to see the extent to which their language does rest upon common-sense assumptions, and the ways in which these common-sense assumptions can be ideologically shaped by relations of power (Fairclough, 2001, p. 3). In critical analysis of discourse the analysts take explicit positions and attempt to expose and ultimately resist social inequality (Van Dijk, 2008b, p. 85). In other words, CDA illuminates ways in which the dominant forces in a society construct versions of reality that favor their own interests and thereby try to encourage the victims of such dominant discourses to resist and transform their lives (Foucault, 2000).

Gender differences in talk and text can be studied, in a general perspective, as instances of 'powerful' and 'powerless' speech (van Dijk, 2008b, p. 44) and therefore analyzed from critical discourse analysis perspective. The intersection of language and gender provides a fertile ground for analyzing how power and solidarity are created in discourse.

B. Gender Bias

One vast field of critical research on discourse and language is that of gender. The power differences between women and men and their manifestations in language and discourse have received extensive attention by researchers, especially the feminists. Butler explains that gender is something people bring into being through their practices (Kendall, 2007, p. 126). Similarly, according to Goffman, gendered self is accomplished through different ways of talking or behaving that are conventionally associated with gender (Kendall, 2007, p. 126). Osch (1992) believes that there is an indirect relationship between gender and language; linguistic features directly communicate acts and constitute stances and the performance of these acts and stances may help constitute the user's gendered identity by being socioculturally associated with sociocultural expectations and beliefs about women and men (Kendall, 2007, p. 127). But what is the

significance of these expectations? These social expectations of the relative roles of women and men hamper the progress towards more egalitarian structures (Bloor & Bloor, 2007, p. 95).

Some of the researches on language and gender have found several differences between the speech of adult males and females. Below we have passed some of these studies under review. But, the description of the (unfair) differences between adult males and females is one thing, and exploring the roots and discovering the causes of such differences is another. Some researchers believe that these differences do not come about overnight and after a certain age; rather, they are the result of years-long education that has started from the early years of life (see Gooden & Gooden, 2001). Therefore, we can hold the education and socialization processes of the childhood partly responsible for later unfair differences. Thus, after a review of the studies on the differences between the speech of adult males and females, we examine some of the studies that have traced the roots of such differences in the reading materials of young children to see whether children are given a balanced picture of gender or the biases start right from early childhood.

Van Dijk, in his review of the research on gender related language differences, observes that women generally do more work than men do in conversations by "giving more topical support, showing more interest, or by withdrawing in situations of conflict". It has also been found that men tend to interrupt women more often (van Dijk, 2008b, p. 44). Van Dijk then refers to the studies collected by Trömel-Plätz (1984), which illustrate that male dominance is not restricted to informal situations and may be observed in public contexts as well (van Dijk, 2008b, p. 44).

Fishman and Lakoff are among the researchers who have been concerned with women's style of language. Fishman (1998), unlike Lakoff (1998) who views the behavior (language included) of adult women as indicative of a gender identity acquired through childhood socialization, tries to explain specific features of women's language based on the forces at work in the immediate context of the speech. She studies two examples of women's conversational style, namely question-asking and the use of 'you know', in an experiment. Fishman challenges the idea that question-asking and 'you know' are indications of women's tendency to be insecure and hesitant and instead sees them as attempted solutions to the problematics of conversation (Fishman, 1998, p. 254). Lakoff, on the other hand, deals with two interrogatory devices, tag questions and questions with declarative functions, and argues that women use them more often than men. Fishman's experiment supports this claim of Lakoff, but as was mentioned, she gives a different reason for this (Fishman, 1998, p. 254). Lakoff also discusses hedging and views it as a sign of women's insecurity. In fact, Lakoff believes that there are two styles of speech: "neutral language" and "women's language" and argues that the latter is characterized by a lack of forcefulness (Cameron, 1992, p. 44). She explains that 'women's language' shows up in all levels of grammar of English; there are also differences in the choice and frequency of lexical items, in the intonational and other supersegmental patterns and in situations where certain syntactic rules are performed (Lakoff, 1998, p. 244).

One of the other differences in the use of language that can be attributed to gender is the positive politeness strategy of making and receiving complaints; Holmes, for example, has found that women in New Zealand both give and receive more compliments than men, a finding that confirms an earlier study of compliments in the USA (van Dijk, 2008a, p. 213). Humor in conversation also varies across gender and cultural boundaries; Lampert (1996) has shown that women use self-directed humor in all-female groups in order to express their feelings about a personal experience or to seek response; this is while men, in mixed groups, use humor to avoid criticism or downplay unacceptable behavior (van Dijk, 2008a, p. 213).

Although many differences can be observed between the language style of men and women, attributing these differences outright to gender would favor a simplistic interpretation. These differences may well depend on situation (Leet-Pelegrinin, 1980) or on social position (Werner, 1933) (in van Dijk, 2008b, p. 44). Tannen (1998, p. 261) maintains that we cannot simply locate the source of male domination in linguistic strategies such as "interruption, volubility, silence and topic raising". Nor can we spot the source of women's powerlessness in such linguistic strategies as indirectness, taciturnity, silence or tag questions (Tannen, 1998, p. 261). She explains that these linguistic strategies are relative concerning the functions they perform in face to face interactions, but in research on language and gender, it is tempting to assume that "whatever women do result from or create their powerlessness and whatever men do result from or creates their dominance" (Tannen, 1998, p. 268). Similarly, van Dijk (2008a, p. 211) warns that even where we seem to find obvious gender differences, they may still depend on complex contextual factors.

We saw that there *are* differences between the speech of adult males and females and it is very possible to attribute such differences to gender, though we should be cautious. Of course we ought to bear in mind that differences are condemned solely when a balance is expected and regarding any gender difference as a type of bias would be very simplistic. In the following part we review some of the studies that examined the representation of gender in children's books.

Gender bias in children's books has been historically widespread. Past and more recent examinations of print media aimed at children reveal both unequal gender representation and common gender stereotypes. In their study of 200 top-selling popular children's books, Hamilton *et al* (2006) looked at gender representation in pictures, characters, characters' behavior and personality as well as setting and they found out that female characters were under-represented in children's picture books. Another research conducted by Fitzpatrick and McPherson (2010) yielded similar results. They analyzed 56 contemporary coloring books published in the United States and examined them for the prevalence of each gender, stereotyping gender roles, age of characters, and activity level and type and concluded that males were

depicted as more active and gender stereotypes were common. They also found out that gender neutral works were more likely to be done by males. These studies confirm the results of the study Creany had conducted in 1995. She had explored the appearance of gender in Caldecott Award winning children's books. The books were inspected for the appearance of sexism and the results revealed sexual bias in the materials: male characters were depicted more often than female characters and both genders were shown in traditional stereotypical roles.

Tiara Antik Sari studied representation of gender in the framework of critical discourse analysis. She worked on a series of Indonesian primary school English textbooks and again obtained the same result: female under-representation. While most of the studies focusing on gender representation in children's books have examined the illustrations and characters, Tepper and Cassidy (1999) examined gender differences in emotional language as well. In their study books that were read by/to a sample of preschool children were examined for evidence of stereotyping. Like previous researches, they found out that males had higher representation in titles, pictures and central role, but as regards emotional language, no meaningful difference was observed. Under-representation of females is not of course specific to printed books and is found to be the case with educational software as well. Sheldon (2004), for instance, performed a content analysis of educational software for preschoolers and reported the depiction of significantly more male characters than females; he also showed that male characters were more likely than female characters to exhibit several masculine-stereotypical traits. Furthermore, female characters more than male characters exhibited counter-stereotypical behavior, yet were more gender stereotyped in appearance. However, the results are not always consistent; in search of evidence for gender stereotyping in books designated as picture books for young readers, Gooden and Gooden (2001) assessed 83 Notable Books for Children from 1995 to 1999. They examined the gender of illustrations, characters and titles and found that in comparison to some previous studies, some steps towards equality have advanced based on the increase in females represented as main characters.

II. METHODOLOGY

As we discussed earlier, much training in education encourages or is oriented toward the use of a specific discourse which inevitably later affects practices. One of the features that can be investigated in the discourse of educational institutions is the representation of gender and this can be studied at different levels ranging from young children to adults. We argued that adults' sexist discourse can be the consequence of their being presented, in their childhood, with a sexist version of reality and the present day children, if not exposed to bias-free materials, may show equal bias when grown up. Therefore, in the present research we intended to investigate gender representation in a collection of books designed to teach young children English. More specifically, we sought to find whether materials developed to teach English to young children have any signs of gender bias in the conversations, illustrations and the graphic designs of the cover.

A. Corpus

The study focused on a corpus of books designed to teach children English; these books are used in different Iranian language institutes as their main course book:

1. "Family and Friends" which is a six-level primary course written by Tamzin Thompson and published by Oxford University Press. From this series the Pupil's Book for level 5 is selected.

2. "Hip Hip Hooray!" is a multi-level course published by Longman. Using well-known classic stories, it teaches children English from beginner to pre-intermediate. Level 5 of this series is chosen for this study.

3. "English Time" is a communicative course from beginner to intermediate level, written by Susan Rivers and Setsuko Toyama and published by Oxford University Press. Level five (special edition) of this series is used in this research.

4. "New Parade" is a seven-level program developed by Mario Herrera and Theresa Chamot and published by Longman. New Parade 5 is used in this study.

5. "Bravo!" is an eight-level course for children from complete beginner to intermediate level. The series is developed by Judy West and published by Heinemann. Level 5 of this series is selected for the corpus of the present study.

6. "English Adventure" is a six-level course of English for young learners. The series is developed by Izabella Hearn and Longman is the publisher. Level four of this series is chosen for this research.

7. "Backpack" (second edition) is published by Pearson Education and written by Mario Herrera and Diane Pinkley. Packpack 5 is used in this study.

8. "Let's Go" (third edition) is another seven-level course written by Pitsuko Nakat *et al* and published by Oxford University Press. Student Book for level five is analyzed in this study.

9. "New Let's Learn English". From this last series developed by Ballas and Pelham and published by Longman, again level five is used.

B. Procedure

Critical discourse analysis looks for manifestations of bias and inequality at both micro and macro levels. Micro level deals with the text and macro level with whatever surrounds the text such as illustrations, graphic design of cover, font,

color, size, etc. The corpus developed for this study was examined at both micro level (part one) and macro level (parts two and three) and analyzed six differing variables.

In the first part, the representation of gender in conversations was investigated. Since the books comprising the corpus were designed to teach English to young children, the chapters and units in all books had a variety of activities such as puzzles, songs, matching tasks as well as conversations. Therefore, the number of conversations was limited to normally one per unit. However, some unites had no conversation at all and in few others, there were more than one conversation. Four variables were examined in all conversations; the first one was the number of participants; to collect data on this variable, the researcher used a coding sheet specifically designed for this study. When the number of male and female participants was equal, the conversation was coded as 'M=F' (M stands for Male and F stands for Female); for conversations with larger number of male participants 'M>F' was used and those with greater number of female participants were coded as 'M<F'. The second variable was the initiator of the conversation which could be either male (coded as M) or female (coded as F). To decide on the gender of the participants, we used different clues including the illustrations, the names of the characters as well as their voices (the conversations of the pupil's books were recorded on audio CDs accompanying each book). Listening to the conversations was particularly helpful in determining the initiator of the conversations because due to the nature of children's books, the turns in a conversation are not necessarily arranged in a sequential order and were sometimes printed in bubbles all around the characters in an illustration and thus difficult to decide on the initiator. The third variable studied was the number of turns that males and females take in a conversation. In cases where more than two characters were involved in the conversation, all turns of each gender were considered in a single category. The data on this variable were collected using the same coding system as the number of participants: 'M=F', 'M>F' and 'M<F'. The length of the turns was the last variable investigated in conversations. This was to see if there was any difference between the length of the turns that males and females take in conversations. The coding system for length of turns was the same as that for the number of turns.

In children's books, besides humans, animals to a greater extent and objects to a lesser degree are used too. In this study we focused merely on the conversations between humans, and since the variable in question was gender, the conversations between participants of a single gender (either all male or all female) were excluded. The conversations between animals were not studied either. Moreover, in some conversations there were a human character and a non-human one (either an animal or a robot). These were excluded too. All in all, sixty-three conversations were analyzed and those eliminated comprised only 10% of the total number of conversations in the corpus.

The second part of the present research sought to find how gender was represented in illustrations. Two variables were examined. In the first place, the number of male and female characters in illustrations was counted. This was done using coding sheets with the following six items: 'M=F', 'M>F', 'M<F', 'M only', 'F only' and 'unclear'. The last category 'unclear' refers to those illustrations where either the gender of the character could not be determined based on visual and verbal clues or those which portrayed a large number of people and it was not possible to count their number. The second variable analyzed in illustrations was prominence. By prominence we mean whether the character is foregrounded or backgrounded in the illustration. However, after the analysis of this feature in four books, it became obvious that this variable cannot be studied in the corpus of this study because almost all illustrations were for teaching purposes and they showed either the state or the action to be learned, and consequently were all of more or less equal prominence.

In the last part, the representation of gender in the cover design of the books was examined and with reference only to the number of male and female characters present.

III. Results And Analysis

Since children's books, besides performing teaching and entertaining functions, serve as a socializing tool and affect the way children perceive themselves, it is expected that the materials developed for young children present to them a version of reality with no bias and discrimination against either female or male population. The analysis of sixty-three conversations extracted from the corpus revealed that in 36 conversations (57%), there were as many male as female participants. 13 conversations had more male participants compared to 14 with more female participants. The next variable was the number of turns. In 35 per cent of conversations, both male and female participants had an equal number of turns. This is while in 33% male participants had more turns and in 32% the number of turns females took was higher. The analysis yielded a similar result for the length of the turns: in 49% of conversations males' turns were longer than females' and in the rest 51% females took longer turns. The results so far suggest that male and female characters have more or less equal presence in conversations and contrary to some of the previous studies, females have achieved an equal visibility. The last factor examined in conversations was the initiator and contrary to our expectation, in 62% of conversations the initiators were female characters compared to 38% male initiators (Table 1).

TABLE I
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF CONVERSATIONAL FEATURES IN THE CORPUS OF THE STUDY

No	Conversation Features / Books	Participants			Initiator		Turns - Number			Turns - Length		
		M=F	M>F	M<F	M	F	M=F	M>F	M<F	M=F	M>F	M<F
1	Bravo	2	0	4	2	4	0	0	6	0	1	5
2	Backpack	4	1	1	2	4	4	1	1	0	3	3
3	New Parade	5	0	1	2	4	5	1	0	0	3	3
4	English Adventure	5	5	1	7	4	6	4	1	0	8	3
5	Family & Friends	8	3	2	4	9	2	4	7	0	4	9
6	English Time	5	0	4	1	8	3	2	4	0	4	5
7	Let's Go	4	0	0	3	1	0	3	1	0	2	2
8	New Let's Learn English	3	4	1	3	5	2	6	0	0	6	2
Total		36	13	14	24	39	22	21	20	0	31	32
		%57	%20.5	%22.5	%38	%62	%35	%33	%32	--	%49	%51

There were 2435 illustrations in the whole corpus of which 5% belonged to the category of 'unclear' and excluded from analysis. The rest of the pictures were coded for the number of male and female characters depicted in each and classified into five categories (see Table 2). In about one fourth of the pictures examined (24%) an equal number of males and females were depicted. In 9% of illustrations depicting both males and females, there were a bigger number of males and in 7.5% of the same category of illustrations, female characters were depicted in a larger number. Males thus appeared 1.5 per cent more times than females. The rest of the illustrations were classified as containing either only male characters or only females with the former comprising 32% and the latter 22.5 per cent. These results demonstrate that unlike conversations, illustrations under-represent females (10% less than males).

TABLE II
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF GENDER REPRESENTATION IN ILLUSTRATIONS

No	Book Title	No of illustrations	Number of males & females depicted in illustrations					
			M<F	M>F	F = M	F only	M only	Unclear
1	Bravo	213	15	4	44	38	92	20
2	Backpack	264	17	15	76	59	73	24
3	New Parade	139	12	9	38	27	43	10
4	Hip Hip Hooray!	461	19	54	129	96	158	5
5	English Adventure	168	5	19	47	33	58	6
6	Family & Friends	249	31	43	39	30	90	16
7	English Time	279	42	24	73	75	63	2
8	Let's Go	261	8	7	43	103	93	7
9	New Let's Learn English	401	31	43	94	87	115	31
Total		2435	180	218	583	548	785	121
			%7.5	%.9	%24	%22.5	%32	%5

In the last part of the study we examined the graphic design of the front covers of the books. The designs of two books out of nine depicted non-human characters (an object and an animal). "English Time", "Let's Go" and "Family & Friends" had an equal number of males and females on their cover design. In "Hip Hip Hooray!" if we ignore the tiny figures in the background, again there is an equal number of males and females (Fig. 1). "English Adventure" has a photo of a young boy on the cover and no female character. On the other hand, "New Let's Learn English" depicts the picture of a young girl in the center, and another girl and a boy in smaller size on either side. The last book "Bravo!" had two non-human pictures in smaller size and two human illustrations in larger size. One of these human illustrations shows a boy playing football and the other a crowd of nine people of both sexes on the beach. We can conclude that there was no meaningful difference in the representation of males and females in cover designs.
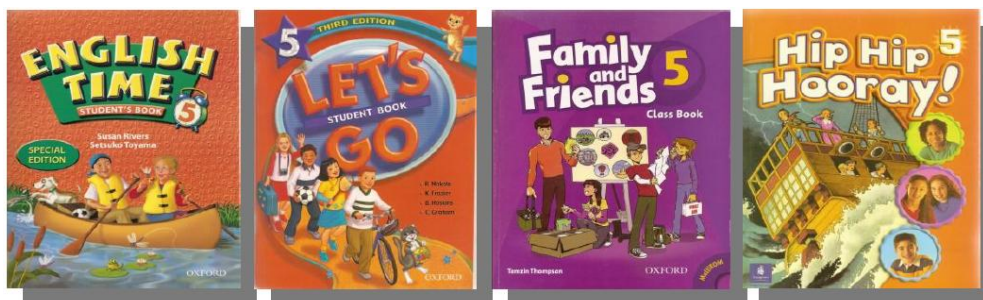

Figure 1. Gender representation in cover designs

IV. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study demonstrated that conversations in EFL books for children have moved toward a more egalitarian representation of females and males, and females have achieved equitable visibility in conversations. The results, however, further showed the under-representation of female characters in illustrations of the books studied.

Children, according to Gooden and Gooden (2001) are not passive observers and as they develop, they look for structure in their lives and are driven by an internal need to fit into this structure. The stereotyped portrayals of the sexes and under-representation of female characters contribute negatively to children's development, limit their career aspirations and frame their attitudes about future roles (Hamilton *et al*, 2006). Therefore, it is essential to present young children with non-sexist and gender-fair reading materials so that they construct a true and balanced picture of their gender identity and get equal opportunities to reach their full potential as human beings.

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The Application of the Individual Teaching Based on Generative Phonology in the University[*]

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Abstract—There are the main differences between traditional phonology and generative phonology in terms of methodologies, depth and scope, which can be applied to the design and interaction in individual teaching. Generative phonology or modern phonology is more advanced than traditional phonology, but most learners can't understand the generative phonology, so their differences can help the students understand phonology and know their nuances. The definition of phonology, the research scope and methodologies of phonology , the contrasts between traditional phonology and generative phonology from the three respects of methodology, depth and scope, which play the instructive significance on the individual teaching and the future of phonology.

Index Terms—phonology, generative phonology, methodology, phonetic

I. HISTORICAL REVIEW AND DEFINITION OF PHONOLOGY AND INDIVIDUAL TEACHING

In the modern history of linguistics, Saussure (Hu Zhuanglin, 2001), one of the founders of structural linguistics, studied the sound absolutely and abstractly. His distinction between langue and parole leads to distinct disciplines that study sounds and their linguistic function. The former studies sound in speech acts from a physical point of view, and the latter focuses on the distinctions between the abstract phonemes and their functions within the linguistic system. He believed that phonetics would describe the actual sounds produced when one utters the form, but the form of a word, e.g. "bed", as a unit of English does not depend on the nature of these actual sounds but on the distinctions which separate "bed" from" bet", "bad", "head", etc. it is just phonology that is the study of these functional distinctions. Take the sound /i/in "lend" and "peel" in English for example, there's a phonetic difference. Another example is the difference between vowels of "feet" and "fit" used to distinguish signs. The difference plays a very important role in the phonological system of English in that it creates a large number of distinct signs.Before the period of Saussure Neogrammarians believed " the sound changes cannot allow the exceptions" in their animism[1] (泛灵论), which is an absolute point of view. After the period of Saussure[2], American structuralists like Sapir[3] proposed the same concepts as allophones which showed that linguists began to observe the truth of language keenly.

The important turning point appeared when the school of Prague[4], whose theories belong to early functionalism linguistics. Functionalism linguists, however, find that mere formal description of language is insufficient. Therefore, they attempt to explain linguistic phenomena from a functional point of view. They aim is not simply to describe language but also to explain it; not simply to show what language is but also why language is what it is.

One of the most outstanding contributions of the Prague School is the distinction they drew between phonetics and phonology. Following Saussure's distinction between langue and parole, they argued that phonetics belonged to parole whereas phonology belonged to langue. On this basis, they developed the notion of phoneme as an abstract unit of the sound system as distinct from the sounds actually produced. To determine these phonemes, they employed, for example, commutation tests, by which significant features of sounds bringing about changes in meaning, e.g. bat, bet, bit, could be established.

Trubertzkoy[5] is the most influential scholar in the Prague School to study the connection between phone and phoneme. His most complete and authoritative statements of principle are formulated in his *Principles of Phonology* published in 1939.Trubetzkoy followed Saussure's theory in his discussion of the phoneme. He said, phonetics belongs to parole, and phonology belongs to langue. As a founder and a leading scholar of the Prague School, he had his own particular approach to the study of phonology. He regarded the approach as the study of the function of speech sounds

[1] The term Animism is derived from the Latin *anima*, meaning "soul". In its most general sense, animism is simply the belief in souls. In this general sense, animism is present in nearly all religions. In a more restrictive sense, *animism is the belief that souls inhabit all or most objects; it attributes personalized souls to animals, vegetables, and minerals wherein the material object is - to some degree - governed by the qualities which comprise its particular soul*.

[2] Ferdinand de Saussure, called Forefather of Modern Linguistics, **made clear the object of study for linguistics as a science.**

[3] Edward **Sapir**, one of American anthropologists, once produced a hypothesis on the relation between language and culture with Benjamin Whorf

[4] The **Prague School**, the functional linguistics in structuralism school, is best known for its contribution to phonology and the distinction between phonetics and phonology.

[5] Prince **Nikolay Sergeyevich Trubetskoy** (or **Nikolai Trubetzkoy**) (April 15, 1890 – June 25, 1938) was a Russian linguist whose teachings formed a nucleus of the Prague School of structural linguistics.

and because of this emphasis he and other Prague linguists are called functionalists. Besides this distinction, Trubetzkoy defined the sphere of phonological studies. He studied the interindependent relations between phonemes and the method of studying phonological combinations, so Trubetzkoy, so Trubetzkoy developed Saussure's theory.

To sum up, the most outstanding contribution of Prague School is the method to study phonology from the aspects of sound and meaning, in other words, in terms of functions of sounds.

In linguistic history, behaviorist Bloomfield didn't consider the meaning when he studied phonology. But Chomsky, who believed the innate theory, in his *The sound Pattern of English* regards the phonology as part of syntax in "generative phonology". He found the phonological rules studied by the inner structure in the sentences. Firth's Prosodic phonology combines phonetics with grammars .Halliday's phonology relates forms to phonetic entities, for example, the relation between grammar and intonation, the grammar and stress and so on.

In 21th century there are most of changes in concrete phonetic alphabet, which influence the signs of phonology such as the KK IPA different from traditional IPA.

From the linguistic history on which we discussed, we define phonology as the science of speech sounds and sound patterns .One goal of phonology is to describe the differences among these speech sounds. And another goal is that of stating the general principles which determine the characteristics of all sound systems.

Phonology has both a physical and a psychological aspect of studying. The physical aspect is embodied in the study of phonetics, and the psychological in the study of naturalness. The information absorbed from phonology has applications in a number of areas, both practical and theoretical. Among these are applications to psychology, philosophy and the teaching of foreign languages.

Phonology has different transcended phonetic speech sounds in different language environment and different accents for different people (Jef Verschueren, 1999). **Learner's individual differences (cognitive style, motivation, personality and affect factors etc) affect second language acquisition (SLA) directly. Good cognitive style, high motivation and enthusiasm benefit the learners.** Individual teaching is an ideal teaching form and also a main stream of educational development in the future. Teaching strategy of teaching learning interaction in classroom is a good experiment to realize individual teaching. The strategy inputs the interaction between students, teachers and students, symbols and persons in emotion releasing, thought conflicting, sense perceiving, conformity of knowledge ability, and constructs abundant interactive scene in classroom, renews and perfects the problem- solving mode by students with the scene force, shapes the rethinking critical ability of students and enlightens students to master the learning strategy.

Above all, individual teaching in phonology can be good for the students to play a solid foundation for the second language learning.

II. THE ADVANTAGES OF GENERATIVE PHONOLOGY IN METHODOLOGY OF ENGLISH INDIVIDUAL TEACHING

The traditional phonologists used the method of description of absolute speech sound, which is abstract, but modern phonologists use the experimental method to measure the relative concept of speech sounds. In other words, traditional phonological rules are absolute, while modern phonological rules are generative rules drawn from the different context. In essence, traditional phonologists describe the isolated speech sound from subjective angle, and generative phonologists pay more attention to the real speech sounds in actual context (Carr, P, 1999).

In the early decades of this century, many traditional phonologists assumed that speech is composed of a series of isolated sounds which are combined into larger units, can be attached to meanings. They also believed that the correct understanding of nature of speech sound is a basic ability of speaker.

One of the traditional methods of phonological analysis is the formation and testing of hypotheses. Suppose, for example, that we describe the relationship between wanted and want. They do not have identical meaning and have only partially similar phonetic shapes though they have the same basic meaning. We at first should have the hypotheses that in the past time "We wanted to do something". Traditional phonologists try to describe the "ed"absolutely that in the past environment, the verb is added "ed" without variations.

In the 1940s and 1950s experiments with speech spectrography and speech synthesis show that speech is better described as a continuum of sound; individual speech sounds were still seen as the basic units of language. In other words, in the processes of production and perception of speech, these distorted basic units are adapted to their context, so the traditional understanding of speech is that speech withy few segments pronounced clearly is far simpler than spontaneous conversational speech. It is the limitation of traditional phonology.

Traditional phonologists have given us a great deal of useful information about nature of speech which is somewhat absolute. But they can not deal with the details of speech sound and the connection among spontaneous speech. From above interpretations, the following questions are raised: What are the rule and principles of combination of the speech sounds? How is the abstract representation of speech converted into concrete actual speech in the context?

Generative phonologists' new philosophical method differs from the traditional phonology in several ways (Chomsky, 1957). But their theories can answer those problems. Contemporary Chinese teaching philosophy results from the reflections on teaching practice, from the inheritance and advancement of the knowledge on teaching, and from the call of the teaching practice for teaching thoughts, with pedagogical thoughtfulness in particular. The generative teaching philosophy, born in the fertile cultural soil of contemporary China and the rich thoughts as to Chinese teaching philosophy, based on the inheritance of the traditional philosophical wisdom and the reference to the brilliant ideas from

home and abroad, has gradually established its fundamental standpoints, thoughts, and methods, which have increasingly closer ties with the external world and have a trend for a unification of its internal elements, with influence over such domains as teaching ontology, axiology, epistemology, aesthetic conception, and the conception of cultural history. Those thoughts combined form the Chinese theories on teaching philosophy, i.e. the generative teaching philosophy, with its core frame including such conceptions as pair-interaction, humanistic transformation, relationship evolution, super art, and cultural history. Such exploration in teaching philosophy, is supposed to undertake the historical mission, with the clarification of teaching value, the nourishing of teaching wisdom, and the leading of teaching innovation as its core. So individual teaching in generative phonology can help the students to develop their own language competence.

The application of Generative phonology need link with the meanings. Generative phonology belongs to generative linguistics, the study of the surface structure of language, which connects with the deep structure of language such as grammar, meaning, lexicology and context.

Modern or generative phonologists observe and understand the real speech sounds in the context from the angle of language functions. They defined the phonology as the component of a grammar made up of the elements and principles that determine how sounds vary and pattern in a language.

Especially their theories on allophones, syllable, a segment prove that speech sounds are changed with different contexts which produce many principles. Phonetic variation is a system of similar segments which are conditioned by the phonetic context or environment. In fact, every speech sound we utter is an allophone of the same phoneme. The different phones occur in different linguistic contexts and represent the same phoneme; they are called the allophones of that phoneme. When two or more allophones of one phoneme never occur in the same linguistic environment they are said to be in complementary distribution. For example, is an English phoneme which is phonetically realized or pronounced as either or [p] or [ph], [p] and [ph] are the allophones of the phoneme. So we can say traditional phonologists describe the isolated and abstract phoneme in the flow of utterances. And modern phonologists study the allophones in the phonological context in addition to the syllables and suprasegments. One reason that syllables are treated as units of phonological structure is that they are relevant to station generalizations about the distribution of allophonic features such as voiced, voiceless or velar and so on. The suprasegmental features such as stress, pitch, juncture and terminal contours are above the phonemic features. These features only can be sensed in the spoken context

All of the theories on allophones, syllables, and suprasegments prove the generative phonology in the context. With the introduction of transformational grammar came the generative phonology which establishes series of universal rules for conversing for the phonemic representation into phonemic representations into phonetic representations. So the generative phonology focuses on the process of conversion from abstract to concrete and vice versa. The phonemic features and suprasegmental features make further evident for generative phonology because they can help summarize the phonological rules.

Generative phonology has the most outstanding advanced method. It combines the morphology and syntax with phonology. Some linguists would say that it is the phoneme [t] that occur finally in both Rad and Rat in German, and account for the change of [d] to [t] in this relation, which describes the intermediate between morphology and phonology, namely so-called morphophonemic. This is a typical approach of generative phonology.

Another typical approach of generative phonology is the combination between phonology and syntax. There are also some phonology rules that depend on certain Kinds of syntactic information. Take some stress patterns of English for example. The stresses are determined by the syntactic category of the form to which the rules apply. A point case is the compound of greenhouse and the syntactic phrase of green house. The primary stress is assigned to the first word in the compound. The primary stress is assigned to the last word in the phrase. So the meanings are different. The former means a place to grow flowers, the latter means a house that is green.

The combination of phonology with morphology and syntax prove the advanced approach of generative phonology for combination of speech sound with meanings which is a creative finding. The recent methods adopted by modern phonologists involve the physics or mathematics and non-linear.

The different methodologies between traditional phonology and generative phonology decide the different depth and breath of their researches.   Of course, traditional depth and breath in phonology are more limited than generative.

III.   Their Advantages of Generative Phonology in Application to Individual Teaching

Traditional phonology shows their descendents about the problem how to convert the simple kind of speech into the more complex patterns of everyday connected speech sounds. But it can't explain the actual speech sound occurred in different spoken environment.

Generative phonology lessens the gap between what the phonologists knows about speech and how we people actually use the speech in real life. The phonological rules are internalized into people's linguistic competence through their combination with morphology and syntax. A point case is children's language acquisition Children can master their mother tongue from one-word phase to one-sentence phase because of their internalized rules in different actual environments.

The present situation for the individual teaching in the university is: Students from the same class are different from

one another in many aspects such as aptitude, motivation, personality, attitude, etc.

(i) Language aptitude refers to a natural ability for learning a second language. It is believed to be related to a learner's general intelligence. It has been generally accepted that learners who achieve high scores in language aptitude tests learn rapidly and achieve high proficiency in second language learning.

(ii) Motivation. While language aptitude works on the learner's cognitive mechanism, motivation, defined as the learner's attitudes and affective state or drive, has a strong impact on his efforts in learning a second language. Learners' motivation may ebb and flow at times and in accordance with their particular interests, learning involvement and the learning context. As learners' strong motivation promotes their learning, their progress or achievement will in return enhance their language learning motivation further.

(iii) Personality. In terms of communicative ability rather than grammatical accuracy or knowledge of grammatical roles, the personality traits such as extroversion, talkative, self-esteem, self-confidence can be found in successful second language learners. Certain personality traits appear helpful in completing certain tasks in learning a second language. Teaching strategies: Teachers face a lesson where the students are at different levels-some with quite competent English, some whose English isn't very good, and some whose English is only just getting started.

What are the possible ways of dealing with the situation?

(i) Use different materials: when teachers know who the good and less good students are, they can form different groups. While one group is working on a piece of language study, the other group might be reading a story or doing a more advanced grammar exercise. Later, while the better group or groups are discussing a topic, the weaker group or groups might be doing a parallel writing exercise, or sitting round a tape recorder listening to a tape. In schools where there are self-study facilities (a study centre, or separate rooms), the teacher can send one group of students off to work there in order to concentrate on another. Provided the self-study task is purposeful, the students who go out of the classroom will not feel cheated. If the self-study area is big enough, of course, it is an ideal place for different-level learning. While one group is working on a grammar activity in one corner, two other students can be listening to a tape and another group again will be consulting an encyclopedia while a different set of colleagues is working at a computer screen.

(ii) Do different tasks with the same material: while teachers use the same material with the whole class, they can encourage students to do different tasks depending on their abilities. A reading text can have questions at three levels, for example. The teacher tells the students to see how far they can get: the better ones will quickly finish the first two and have to work hard on the third. The weakest students may not get past the first task. In a language study exercise, the teacher can ask for simple repetition from some students, but ask others to use the new language in more complex sentences. If the teacher is getting students to give answers or opinions, she can make it clear that one word will do for some students whereas longer and more complex contributions are expected from others. Lastly, in role-play and other speaking or group activities, she can ensure that students have roles or functions which are appropriate to their level.

(iii) Ignore the problem: it is perfectly feasible to hold the belief that, within a heterogeneous group, students will find their own level. In speaking and writing activities, for example, the better students will probably be more daring, in reading and listening, they will understand more completely and more quickly. However, the danger of this position is that students will either be bored by the slowness of their colleagues or frustrated by their inability to keep up.

(iv) Use the students: some teachers adopt a strategy of peer help and teaching so that better students can help weaker ones. They can work with them in pairs or groups, explaining things, or providing good models of language performance in speaking and writing. Thus, when teachers put students in groups, they can ensure that weak and strong students are put together. However, this has to be done with great sensitivity so that students don't get alienated by their over-knowledgeable peers or oppressed by their obligatory teaching role. Many teachers, faced with students at different levels, adopt a mixture of solutions like the ones suggested here. As teachers we should first understand and respect the diversity of learning strengths within any group, and offer choices in how information and skills will be acquired. It is the teacher's responsibility to create in the classroom a democratic educational environment that enables students to equitably develop their individual learning styles to meet the diverse demands of school and life with increased confidence and competence. We can indeed work toward promoting and sustaining greater diversity in our educational system by first assessing the extent to which we truly honor individual differences within our own classes, then by setting incremental personal goals for modifying our instruction to respond to a wider range of learner characteristics.

(v) A new type of evaluation method, operating different evaluation to the individuality of different students, will help stimulate interest in learning. Evaluation can include the language of individual evaluation in the classroom; individual evaluation of students' homework and mutual evaluation in the group.

So we must go further, though, than instructional modification in our efforts to create democratic learning environment we must actively seek and share practices with colleagues that will help our students identify the obstacles that restrict their possibilities in school and in society, and equip all of the unique learners who fill our classes with the knowledge and strategies to take action toward transforming which limits them.

The most advantage of generative phonology can help people generate the different utterances in different context, in other words, it can relate the abstract speech to the actual world. The goal to train the students' language competence will be achieved in the individual teaching of Phonology.

IV. Conclusion

Generative teaching as the spirit of the new curriculum reform is the basic orientation of teaching reform, but at the same time, its own technical tendencies start to breed. Technology - oriented generative teaching will rise to "false generation", "random generation", and "rigid generation". Technology -oriented generative teaching will be to deviate from the purport of the departure from the teaching of liberation, to hinder the teachers are recognized as changes in the main role and the impact of teachers involved in curriculum reform, and to hinder cultivate students' creativity and teaching democracy.

Generative phonology is largely dominated by the theory in Chomsky and Halle's SPE. A significant development in phonology is the appearance of nonlinear phonology. In nonlinear phonology the focus on phonological structure has replaced the formal role of phonological rules.

All in all, generative phonology is more advanced than traditional phonology from those ways. Especially the study of phonological structure instructs effectively on the teaching of foreign language. If it applies to individual teaching, it can be used in the context.

Acknowledgement

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Affect and Strategy Use: The Relationship between EFL Learners' Self-esteem and Language Learning Strategies

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between Language Learning Strategies (LLSs) and Global Self-esteem (GSE) among college-level EFL learners. It was also meant to know which strategies are more frequent among learners. One hundred and twenty seven undergraduate students majoring in English at Lorestan University participated in the study. Two questionnaires, i.e. the Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES), were used for data collection. The data obtained were subjected to descriptive statistics, and correlational analyses were done to determine the relationship between total GSE and total LLSs as well as the six categories of learning strategies, separately. Also, t-tests were conducted to compare self-esteem mean scores of high and low strategy users. Males and females' LLSs and GSE were then compared using t-test. The findings of the study revealed that LLSs correlate significantly with GSE. Among LLS categories, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies indicated the highest correlation with the learners' self-esteem. However, affective strategies were the least correlated category with self-esteem. Furthermore, it was indicated that gender is not a determinant factor for being a high or low strategy user, and does not affect self-esteem.

Index Terms—language learning strategies (LLSs), global self-esteem (GSE), strategy categories

I. INTRODUCTION

The crucial role that affect has in language learning was neglected for long perhaps due to overemphasizing on cognitivity. However, there has been a growing interest in variables related to affective factors (e.g. Shumann, 1997, 1988) and their relationship with other variables in language teaching, with the hope that research findings will help researchers and practitioners who have been always in search of suitable methods to make teaching profession as effective as possible.

Self-esteem is one of the affective factors which seems to be related to strategy use. Nonetheless, insufficient research in this area does not allow a sound judgment about this relationship. Some scholars such as Robin and Stern (1975) believe that frequent strategy use is one of the characteristics of good language learners. Furthermore, it is believed that discovering the relationship between self-esteem and language learning strategies will help understand how students' judgments toward themselves may affect their strategy application and the kind of strategies they use for learning. In so doing, they can also help learners know their potentials better, and be aware of their perceived values of themselves as well. Since one of the aims of teaching is to teach learners how to learn, students' knowledge of their level of self-esteem, which is their judgment of their worth, may help them choose strategies which best fit their personalities. Therefore, discovering the relationship between the two variables, i.e., language learning strategies and self-esteem is of focus in this study.

Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 475) define self-esteem as, "a person's judgment of their own worth or value, based on a feeling of 'efficacy', a sense of interacting effectively with one's own environment". Brown (2000) states with caution that self-esteem is the most widespread aspect of human behavior. He further claims that successful cognitive or affective activities cannot be carried out without 'some degree of self-esteem, self-confidence, knowledge of yourself and belief in your own capabilities for that activity' (p.145). There are also some classifications for self-esteem presented by researchers. We adhere to that of Brown's (2000) based on which self-esteem encompasses three levels: The first is general or global self-esteem. This type of self-esteem seems to be relatively consistent and is not easily changed except for some prolong treatments. It can be interpreted as that kind of self-esteem by which one makes of one's own worth through time and in different situations. It has also been compared to mean score or median point of the total self-appraisal. The second is situational or specific self-esteem. As the name implies, it refers to that kind of self-esteem which is associated with a particular situation, for example social interactions, workplace, or some other specific traits such as communicative and athletic ability and intelligence. Other examples can be personality traits such as 'gregariousness, empathy, and flexibility' (p.145). A third type of self-esteem is associated with specific tasks within

specific situations. This is called 'task self-esteem' such as the self-esteem related to a subject within the broader domain of education. Another example which is related to sports is kicking ability within the broader area of soccer. Task-self-esteem and situational self-esteem have some manifestations in the realm of second language acquisition where learners have different abilities and attitudes toward different tasks. Language skills, as Brown (2000) states, and also specific exercises done in class are clear examples.

There have been many studies carried out on the relationship between people's views of themselves including self-esteem and their success in different aspects of learning. Byrne (2000), for instance, investigated the relationship between anxiety, fear, self-esteem, and coping strategies in post-primary students. Despite measurement difficulties, a large body of research has demonstrated consistently the existence of a positive correlation between high self-esteem and academic achievement (see Burns 1982 for a review of some of this literature). There is little doubt that for most people, positive achievement leads to high self-esteem, but the effect of high self-esteem on achievement is more equivocal. What does seem highly likely, however, is that the self-concept may well perform an important inner mediating function in the learning process (Gurney 1986).

Moreover, a variety of definitions has been presented to describe learning strategies (e.g. Cohen, 1998; O'Malley& Chamot, 1990). We adhere to Oxford's (1990) in which language learning strategies are the operations employed by the learner to acquire, store, retrieve and use information more efficiently. Thus, a language learning strategy is considered as a conscious technique used by a learner to purposely assist the language learning process.

Research on language learning strategies started with the studies of good language learners in the mid-1970s. Brown (2000) believes that the differences among learners in mastering a second language have motivated researchers to investigate the possible causes to this phenomenon. The results of the studies conducted in the last decade is indicative of the influence some factors such as cognitive, affective, and sociocultural factors have on second language acquisition.

Researchers were interested in determining what distinguished "good" from "poor" language learners and thereby characterizing the features of successful language learners (e.g. Robin, 1975). Since then, a large body of research has focused on identifying the strategies employed by language learners to facilitate their learning.

There have been various points of view as to how we should classify strategies .The most recent and comprehensive inventory is that of Oxford's (1990), i.e., Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). It consists of 50 strategies classified into six major categories, including memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social. Memory strategies, like grouping, associating, or using imagery, "have a highly specific function: helping students store and retrieve new information" (Oxford, 1990, p.71); cognitive strategies, such as highlighting, analyzing, or summarizing messages, "enable learners to understand and produce new language by many different means" (p.37); compensation strategies, like guessing or using synonyms, help learners use the language disregarding their deficiency in language knowledge; metacognitive strategies, like arranging, planning, and evaluating one's learning, allow learners to control their own cognition through planning, arranging, focusing, and evaluating their own learning; affective strategies like deep breathing and using checklists, help learners control their feelings, motivations, and attitudes related to language learning; and social strategies, like asking questions or cooperating with others, facilitate learning to learn with others in a discourse situation (p.37). Also, a body of research has been conducted to indicate which group of strategies are the most and least preferred ones (e.g. Oxford et. al., 1989). The researchers, considering what was mentioned above, aimed at discovering the relationship between total language learning strategies along with strategy categories and global self-esteem. At the same time it was meant to discover the frequency of strategies used by EFL learners in the described context.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

The study was conducted with undergraduate students majoring in English at the state University of Lorestan. The age range was 18 to 28. The participants were one hundred and twenty seven college students who were studying English literature at the time of the study. The sample contained 32 males (25.19%), and 95 females (74.80%) and consisted of 36 freshmen (28.34%), 31 sophomores (24.40%), 23 juniors (18.11%), and 37 seniors (29.13%). The results can be generalized to total EFL instruction, in this age range, in Iran since the sample has been selected from this whole population.

B. Instruments

Two questionnaires were used in this study:
1. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES)
2. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)
The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES)

In order to assess global self-esteem, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965) was utilized. This scale is widely used for measuring Global Self-esteem (GSE) and consists of 10 items. The RSES uses a 4-point Likert-type scale. Among different types of self-esteem such as global, specific, task, academic, etc., described above, this scale measures global self-esteem which is of focus in this study. In other words, the items of this scale are not concerned with specific characteristics (Rosenberg, Schooler, & Schoenbach, 1989).

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

The Persian version of the 50-item Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990), was the second instrument utilized in this study. It was translated into Persian by Tahmasebi (1999) and has been used by some researchers (e.g. Rezaei & Almasian, 2007) to investigate Persian speakers' learning strategies.

Issues of Reliability and Validity

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES)

The Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (RSES) is the most widely used scale for measuring GSE (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991; cited in Tahriri, 2003). A number of studies have been carried out to investigate the validity and reliability of the RSES. Positive relationship was found between scores on the RSES and scores on some other scales including the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (Demo, 1985; cited in Tahriri, 2003). In order to determine the reliability of this scale, Cronbach's alpha was utilized. The whole data were subjected to alpha reliability analysis. The RSES achieved an alpha coefficient of .72. This suggests that the items of the RSES are internally consistent based on the data set.

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

In general, the ESL/EFL SILL reliabilities have been very high. A number of studies have revealed high reliabilities for the SILL. To name a few, it was .92 with a sample of 255 Japanese university and college learners (Watanabe, 1990), .93 with 332 Korean university EFL learners (Park, 1994), and in the range of .91 to .95 for the 80-item questionnaire (Oxford and Ehrman, 1995, Oxford and Nykios, 1989). We also calculated the reliability of the 50-item Persian version of SILL utilizing Cronbach's alpha coefficient. It proved to be .91.

C. Data Collection

The two questionnaires were administered by the researchers to the university students at their class time during the second semester of the year 2013. There were seven classes. In each class, students were briefed about the purpose and nature of the study beforehand. Then, they were given instruction as to how to answer the questions. All students agreed to fill in the questionnaires.

The SILL items were in Persian, but RSES questions were in English so the participants were asked to check unknown English words in RSES by using the glossary attached to the RSES or by asking the researcher. The two questionnaires were collected after the participants had finished. The administration of both questionnaires lasted a whole session, i.e., one and a half hours. It should be noted that some of the questionnaires were discarded because they had not been worked on as requested.

D. Analysis Procedures

After the data collection through administration of the questionnaires, a data matrix was prepared. As a result, the FEL learners' LLSs score and self-esteem level could be measured. The questionnaires were of Likert-type with five points for the SILL and four points for the RSES. Each of the items in SILL ranged from "Always true of me" to "Never true of me". The score for the item "Always true of me" was 5, "Generally true of me", 4, "somewhat true of me", 3, "Generally not true of me", 2, and "Never true of me" was equated with 1. A similar method was utilized for GSE in which each item ranged from "Strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". In this scale, selecting "Strongly agree" was equal to 4, "Agree" to 3, "Disagree" to 2, and "Strongly disagree" to 1.

As for SILL, the scores of individual items were added up in order to calculate each strategy category score as well as the total score of all categories for each individual. However, according to the instructions attached to the RSES as how to calculate the score, items 1, 2, 4, 6, and 7 were scored reversely. Then, the sum of the individual items was added to reach each learner's GSE level.

Correlational analysis was done to measure the degree of GSE and total LLSs. Thus it became possible to determine the relationship between the two variables irrespective of the role of sex and instructional level. Also correlation analyses were run for each category and its corresponding GSE. The whole sample was divided into two groups of high and low strategy users, using median-point split procedure. It was meant to know if gender is a determining factor of having high/low self-esteem and being higher/lower strategy users. To this end, the LLSs and GSE scores were divided into two groups, separately, according to the learners' sex. T-tests were run to determine the significance of the difference in the performance of males and females on the SILL and RSES irrespective of their instructional level. The level of 0.05 was used as the criterion of significance.

To analyze the data, the SPSS software (version 20) which is commonly used for analyzing the results of social sciences studies was utilized.

III. RESULTS

The data demonstrated that metacognitive strategies was the most preferred subset (Mean=387.44) among the six categories, while affective strategies (Mean=295.83) was the least frequent strategy subset. The second to the fifth categories were compensation (Mean=351.66), cognitive (Mean=349.66), social (Mean=331.64), and memory (302.11) strategies, respectively. Table 1 below summarizes the results.

TABLE 1
FREQUENCY OF USE FOR STRATEGY CATEGORIES

Rank	St. category	No. of items	Mean	SD
1st	Metacognitive	9	387.44	26.05
2nd	Compensation	6	351.66	35.44
3rd	Cognitive	14	349.66	26.00
4th	Social	6	331.64	40.31
5th	Memory	9	302.11	68.00
6th	Affective	6	295.83	67.22

It was also found that item 33, i.e., "I try to find out how to be a better learner of English", which was one of the metacognitive strategies, was the most preferred strategy used by learners. On the other hand, the least number of learners was proved to choose item 5, namely, "I rhyme to remember new English words". That is to say, this item was the least favored individual strategy by the participants (See appendix A for more information).

To determine the degree of going-togetherness of the learning strategies (LLSs) and global self-esteem (GSE), correlational analyses were done for the whole population's GSE and LLSs. A positive and statistically significant correlation was found between LLSs and GSE ($r= 0.49$, $p< 0.05$, $n= 127$). Also, correlational analyses were done for GSE and the six categories of learning strategies, i.e., memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Metacognitive strategies, among different categories of LLS were the most preferred strategies by the learners and affective strategies were the least used ones. Table 2 below indicates the results of the correlational analyses.

TABLE 2
PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN CATEGORIES OF LLSS AND GSE

Strategies	Memory strategies	Cognitive strategies	Compensation strategies	Metacognitive strategies	Affective strategies	Social strategies
GSE	$r= 0.40$	$r= 0.47$	$r= 0.46$	$r= 0.31$	$r= 0.18$	$r= 0.36$

Some of the results of the present study are in line with the previous studies with regard to the order of strategy subsets, and there are also some differences. Oxford and Ehrman (1995) demonstrated that compensation strategies were the most preferred strategy category among 855 adults in an intensive training at the US Department of State. In the same study, social, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies were the second, third, and the fourth strategy subsets, respectively. The data obtained through this study showed similar results to the aforementioned research concerning the rank order of cognitive, memory, and affective categories which came third, fifth, and sixth in both studies. According to one study by Oxford and Nykios (1989), affective and memory strategies received the lowest frequencies. This is similar to the results of the present study, while the most frequent strategies were social, metacognitive, cognitive, and compensation strategies.

Using median-point split procedure, the sample was divided into two halves: high and low strategy users. The median score was 131. Therefore, the LLS scores above 131 were considered of high strategy users and LLS scores lower than 131 belonged to low strategy users. An F-test was used to determine whether the sample met the criterion of equality of variances. The F-observed (F=4.07) was more than f-critical (f=1.51, one-tailed). The sample did not meet the criterion of equality of variances. However, as Brown (1988) states, violation of the assumption of variance equality has little effect on the result of t-test if the sample sizes are equal (p.166). So, a t-test was done under the assumption of unequal variances. Having conducted the t-tests, the researchers discovered that high LLS use connotes having a high self-esteem level. That is, high LLS users reported a higher level of self-esteem than low LLS users (t-Stat. = 5.63, t-Critical one-tail=1.66, df =88).The findings of the study revealed that the relationship between GSE and LLSs is positive and significant for the whole group. It was also found that gender is not a determining factor neither for GSE level (F-observed= 1.08, f Critical one-tail= 1.68) nor LLSs preference (F-observed= 1, f Critical one-tail= 1.68).

The same result was shown by a study conducted by Tahriri (2003), but it is in contrast with the finding of a study conducted by Cheng and Page (1989) and Pappamihiel (2001) that reported a higher level of self-esteem for males. Another result was that of Blackman and Funder (1996) who found that males and females experience a similar level of self-esteem. What Francis and James (1998) found was also in line with Cheng and Page (1989) with respect to self-esteem.

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Based on the statistical analyses of the obtained data, the following conclusions were drawn. There is a significant and positive correlation between the degree of Language Learning strategy Use and Global Self-esteem level. Of course, the causal relationship is not apparent in correctional analyses. However, strategy training and helping learners improve their self-esteem may have a mutual positive effect hence boost FL learning. Among the six strategy categories, 'cognitive strategies' have the most, and 'affective strategies' the least correlation with their corresponding 'self-esteem', respectively. An implication is that those students who rely on their mental processes to handle learning situations are those who attribute a greater degree of worthiness of themselves. The reverse could be also the case that if learners values themselves more it is more likely to resort to their mental capabilities for learning rather than using other

strategies. This may be because both self-esteem and cognitive strategy type are personal compared to other types of strategies. Among all strategy items listed in SILL, item 33, i.e., 'I try to find out how to be a better learner of English' is the most frequent individual strategy; used by adult EFL learners. This is quite reasonable that every individual learner wants to perform well in his/her learning. Item 5, i.e., 'I use rhymes to remember new English words' is the least frequent strategy use by the same learners. The reason may be that using 'rhymes' is time-consuming and is not of interest for many learners. Besides, for most learning situations, 'rhymes' are nonexistent or a difficult to find. Finally, it was shown that gender does not play a role in neither 'strategy use' nor 'GSE level'. It is hoped that the findings of the present research help EFL practitioners to try to know their students better and decide accordingly.

APPENDIX. THE RANK ORDER OF INDIVIDUAL ITEMS IN SILL

RANK	Q. No.	MEAN	SDDEV.	RANK	Q. No.	MEAN	SDDEV.
1	33	3.33	0.818637	26	35	354	0.8695
2	32	3.30	0.791942	27	8	346	0.842117
3	31	3.25	0.758158	28	21	344	0.926765
4	38	3.22	0.844341	29	27	339	0.968185
5	10	3.21	0.822597	30	42	332	0.943207
6	28	3.19	0.816879	31	20	329	0.986853
7	11	3.11	0.850902	32	19	324	0.973528
8	48	3.11	0.901747	33	29	323	1.021638
9	39	3.03	0.912015	34	15	314	1.00654
10	18	2.99	0.904101	35	13	309	0.96437
11	22	2.96	0.916662	36	24	308	0.980117
12	45	2.96	0.954534	37	49	307	0.971343
13	1	2.95	0.805322	38	9	306	1.002808
14	30	2.93	0.879647	39	44	302	0.975324
15	46	2.93	0.90631	40	16	291	0.882909
16	36	2.91	0.863948	41	47	290	0.966894
17	50	2.90	0.979416	42	2	276	0.960278
18	12	2.88	0.919181	43	14	272	0.932009
19	25	2.88	0.913863	44	23	271	0.986916
20	40	2.87	0.942743	45	6	270	0.863659
21	34	2.86	0.800419	46	7	268	0.847296
22	4	2.85	0.973656	47	17	261	0.848033
23	37	2.82	0.943604	48	41	209	0.886652
24	26	2.80	1.008215	49	43	181	0.761366
25	3	2.79	1.064123	50	5	160	0.657226

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A Study of Idiom Translation Strategies between English and Chinese

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Abstract—This paper, focusing on idiom translation methods and principles between English and Chinese, with the statement of different idiom definitions and the analysis of idiom characteristics and culture differences, studies the strategies on idiom translation, what kind of method should be used and what kind of principle should be followed as to get better idiom translations.

Index Terms— idiom, translation, strategy, principle

I. DEFINITIONS OF IDIOMS AND THEIR FUNCTIONS

Idiom is a language in the formation of the unique and fixed expressions in the using process. As a language form, idioms has its own characteristic and patterns and used in high frequency whether in written language or oral language because idioms can convey a host of language and cultural information when people chat to each other. In some senses, idioms are the reflection of the environment, life, historical culture of the native speakers and are closely associated with their inner most spirit and feelings. They are commonly used in all types of languages, informal and formal. That is why the extent to which a person familiarizes himself with idioms is a mark of his or her command of language. Both English and Chinese are abundant in idioms. Idioms are considered as quintessence and treasury of a language.

These statements above in certain degree reflect the idioms' characteristics, but cannot be regarded as idioms' definition. It is difficult to give a clear-cut definition to the word idiom. Firstly, idioms range very widely, which includes slang, proverbs, figurative phrases, motto, sayings, quotation, jargon, colloquial, two-part allegorical sayings, and so on. One idiom may possess several meanings, which might get readers completely at sea. Secondly, People of different nations have different geographical environment, historical allusion, historical backgrounds, religions, so they are sure to have deeply connected to traditional culture and customs. All of these causes bring difficulty to define an idiom, and different experts have different opinions and definitions about idioms. However, some English Dictionaries give "idiom" a variety of definitions as follows.

Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary defines an idiom as "phrase or sentence whose meaning is not clear from the meaning of its individual words and which must be learnt as a whole unit". (1997, p.734) *Collins Co-build Learner's Dictionary* defines an idiom as "an idiom is a group of words which have a different meaning when used together from the one they would have if you took the meaning of each word individually". (1996, p. 547) *New Simplified English Dictionary* gives an idiom such a definition as "a group of words which have a special meaning when used together". (1966, p.524) *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* defines an idiom as "a phrase which means something different from their meanings of the separate words from which it is formed". (1988, p.711) *Webster's New World Dictionary of the American language (2nd college edition, 1972*) gives this definition "an accepted phrase, construction, or expression contrary to the patterns of the language's having a meaning different from the language or having different from the literal". According to all those descriptions, "idiom" is a phrase or a group of words approved by people and has unique form. Its meaning is different from the literal. People use idioms to make their language richer and more colorful and to convey subtle shades of meaning or intention. Idioms are often used to replace a literal word or expression, and many times the idiom better describes the full nuance of meaning. Idioms and idiomatic expressions can be more precise than the literal words, often using fewer words but saying more. For example, the expression *"it runs in the family"* is shorter and more succinct than saying that a physical or personality trait is fairly common throughout one's extended family and over a number of generations. (Zeng Xin, 2004, p.129)

II. THE CHARACTERISTICS OF IDIOMS

Language is the carrier of human culture. Idioms are an extremely important language phenomenon and the essence of language. Idioms play an important role in the communication of human beings and they are a significant part of the general vocabulary of languages. It is known to all that idioms are mainly formed or created by people during their daily life, and they are the natural outcome of the working people's life practice and experience. Lots of cultural information is embedded in idioms. A variety of idioms could be found in languages, which are vivid and expressive.

People of all ages tend to make full use of idioms in different ways. They are regarded as not only the gems of languages, but also the crystallization of human wit and wisdom. They best mirror the national characteristic embodied in a language and they are thus always rich in culture connotation and national flavor. It is the colorful and meaningful idioms that make languages in the world so beautiful. For instance, such idioms on animals as "as timid as a hare", "it rains dogs and cats", and so on. Without idioms, our language would become dull and boring.

With the evolution of history and culture, quite a lot of idioms are not only closely associated with human being's daily life, but also have a great influence on our survival and development. Some of them can be applied to broader situations and some of them often contain enough philosophical and incisive theories for people to study and they have become an important part of modern English. Such idioms as "to make a clean sweep of something", "to hit the nail on the head", and so forth. According to *Webster's New World American Idioms Handbook* (2003), idioms are the result of long-term use of language, and gradually form their own characteristics including the region, nationality, figurativeness, religion, integrity and concordance and so on.

Firstly, take the characteristic of region for example. China is an agricultural country and its economy is dominated by farming, so cattle, mountains, hills, soil and plants are often used for metaphor. Such idioms as "be as steady as Mount Tai", "spend money like soil" and so on. While, Britain is an island country and sea girt, whose fisheries are developed, therefore, fish and water is often used for metaphor, such idioms as "the best fish swim near the bottom", "spend money like water" and so on. People of different regions express their ideas in different ways, but both "spend money like soil" and "spend money like water" express the same meaning.

Secondly, take the characteristic of integrity for example. Idioms are not only set phrases where the words together have a meaning that is different from the individual words, which can make idioms hard for foreigners to understand; but also short sentences made up of two or more words, and it functions as a unit of meaning which cannot be predicted from its literal meaning of its component words, as in *"He's pushing up daisies"* for *"He's Dead and Buried"*. (Heinemann, 2004, p. 344) That is to say, idioms are independent and fixed part in language. Because some idioms come from different historic allusions and events, we must take them as a whole to understand and translate. For instance, "to lose one's head" does not mean that somebody has lost his head, but means "to be panic"; "to jumps off the page" does not mean that somebody leaves the page quickly, but means that somebody is extraordinarily intelligent or talented. Idioms as above mentioned must be understood as a whole, and cannot be taken apart at random.

Thirdly, take the characteristic of concordance for example. Phonological harmony is often used in idioms to achieve the purpose of catchy, easy to remember and understand. Alliteration, end rhyme and repetition technique could be often used to increase language phonetic beauty and rhetorical effect in many idioms. Such alliteration idioms as "no root, no fruit", "part and parcel", "might and main" and so on. Such end rhyme idioms as "high and dry", "by hook or by crook", "man proposes, God disposes", "great boast, small roast", and so forth. Such repetition idioms as "step by step", "neck and neck", "call a spade a spade", "heart to heart", "shoulder to shoulder" and so on. Nevertheless, sometimes in order to achieve the purpose of catchy, both of alliteration and end rhyme are used together in one idiom, for instance, "no money, no honey", "no pains, no gains", "no sweat, no sweet" and so on. The characteristic of concordance used in idioms is to increase the aesthetic feeling.

Fourthly, take the characteristic of rhetoric for example. Language of rhetorical means mostly concentrates on idioms. Both English and Chinese idioms have various rhetoric meaning, such as simile, metaphor, metonymy, chiasmus and inversion. Of which metaphor is the most important in figure of speech, most idioms are using visual analogy to make language more lifelike. Idioms with rhetoric are colorful and vivid in meaning, which is rich and varied. **Simile** contains ontology, metaphors and comparing words, for instance, "like a cat on hot bricks", "as busy as bee", "as timid as rabbit", "as cold as a cucumber", "as cold as a marble" and so on. **Metaphor** contains ontology and metaphor, but no comparing words, such as "have a screw loose", "have many irons in the fire", and so on. **Metonymy** is to use something that has close ties to the other things to refer to ontology things. Such as "an old steel in the stable still aspires to gallop a thousand Li", "actions speak louder than words", and so on. **Chiasmus** refers to a statement in which you repeat a phrase in a sentence but with the words in the opposite order. Such idioms as "some people eat to live, and others live to eat", "we will not attack unless we are attached; if we are attacked, we are sure to counterattack". **Inversion** indicates that an interchange of position of adjacent objects in a sequence, especially a change in normal word order, such as the placement of a verb before its subject. Such as "a thousand sails pass by sunken ship, ten thousand saplings shoot up beyond the withered tree", and so on. The meaning expressed in rhetorical idiom forms is rich and varied, which are too many to be listed one by one.

Fifthly, take the characteristic of similarity in metaphorical meaning for example. People's experience and thoughts about the world in many quarters are similar. Although English culture differs from Chinese culture, there are similarities, even the same between these two cultures. For example, all the steel workers in the world, no matter they live in the eastern countries or western countries, have the same experience that "strike while the iron is hot". Moreover, nearly all peasants know the fact that "as you sow, so shall you reap". Through the struggle with nature, both the easterners and westerners have come to know that "unity is strength". Such idioms as "walls have ears", "burn one's boats", "add fuel to the flame", "practice makes perfect", and so on, are well versed in connotations and figurativeness. What's more, English and Chinese idioms in usage are interlinked, which is conformed to the structure and form of idiom and faithful to the original figurativeness and characteristic.

Sixthly, take the characteristic of the transparent for example. Idioms vary in 'transparency', that is, whether their meaning can be derived from the literal meanings of the individual words. For example, "make up one's mind" is rather transparent in suggesting the meaning 'reach a decision', while "kick the bucket" is far from transparent in representing the meaning 'die'.

Finally yet importantly, all of the characteristics, the semantic unity and the structural stability are mainly included. Each idiom is a semantic unity. For instance, "no practice, no gain in one's wit" means "a fall into the pit, a gain in your wit". Idioms have a very stable structure. The constituents of idioms can not be replaced, deleted or added to, not even an article. If we deleted or added to a word in an idiom, maybe it can affect the meaning we expressed. The order of the word can not be changed, either. Otherwise, it may express a different sense. For example, the two idioms "out of question" and "out of the question" are quite different in meaning. What's more, many idioms can not be grammatically analyzable.

There are so many characteristics in English and Chinese idioms that they cannot be listed all in this paper, but one point needs to be noted here: the common phrase 'idioms and phrases' refers to commonly used groups of words in English. These idioms and phrases are used in specific situations and often used in an idiomatic structure, rather than a figurative sense. Idioms are often full sentences. Phrases, however, are usually made up of a few words and are used as a grammatical unit in a sentence. Here are some examples of common idioms and phrases. "It's raining cats and dogs" is an idiom, which means it is raining heavily, while "at the top of" is a prepositional phrase, "chairman of the board" is a noun phrase, and "by the end of the day" is an adverbial phrase.

III. CULTURE DIFFERENCES

People from different countries speak different languages, keep different value systems, and have different ways of looking on things, which generates cultural differences. However, due to the lack of knowledge of cultural differences, many people fail to understand each other during the actual communicating activities. Idioms have an inseparable relationship with a nation's geographical environment, religious beliefs, historical background, traditional customs, and so on. Therefore, there are definitely some differences between English idioms and Chinese idioms. The difference can be approached from different angles. The author just wants to analyze the differences by religion, historical allusions, and traditional custom of different region.

The first is the religious differences. In China people believe in Buddhism and Taoism, therefore, there are many idioms about these two religions in Chinese, such as "借花献佛(to present Buddha with borrowed flowers)". This frequently used Chinese idiom might have bewildered you if you didn't understand it's meaning. Judging from its literal translation, it's not that easy to guess out what exactly it means. 借花(jiè huā) means to borrow flowers, 献佛 (xiàn fó) means to present to the Buddha. The original story was about a poor man. He wanted to thank Buddha who helped bring rain to his village in drought (people were superstitious in ancient China). However he was too poor to buy anything to present to Buddha. So he borrowed some money from others and bought flowers to present to Buddha. Today this idiom just means to use other people's stuff to do your own favor. In most cases, it is used positively. The same idioms related to Buddhism and Taoism as "普渡众生(to deliver all living creatures from torment)", "六根清净(to be free from human desires and passions)", "道高一尺，魔高一丈(As virtue rises one foot, vice rises ten./ The law is strong, but the outlaws are ten times stronger./ While the priest climbs a post, the devil climbs ten) and so on. While in British and American countries, people believe in Christianity. So there are many idioms from Christianity, such as "God help those who help themselves", "The nearer to church, the farther from God", "God sends fortune to fools", "Go to hell", "God's mill goes slowly, but it grind well/ the mills of God grind slowly but sure", "Cleanliness is next to godliness", and so on. For the idioms above, if you want to know what they mean you must know the information about the religions.

The second is historical allusion differences. Both Britain and China have a long history, so there are many idioms originated from historical allusions. These idioms often have simple structures and profound meanings and they cannot be understood or translated from literal meaning. As for the Chinese allusions, most of them have derived from fables and works of different dynasties, such as the Spring and Autumn period, Han Dynasty, Song Dynasty, etc. Some are even from doctrines of both Buddhism and Taoism. For example, the idiom "守株待兔(to wait for windfalls)" derived from a fable of the Warring States Period in China. It is said that there lived a farmer in the state of Song who had a tree stump in his field. One day while working in the fields, a frightened rabbit suddenly dashed out nowhere and bump into the stump accidentally. As a result, it fell dead with its neck broken. The farmer happily took the rabbit home and cooked himself a delicious meal. That night lying on his bed, he thought: "Why do I need to work so hard in the field? All I have to do is to wait for a rabbit to run into the stump each day." So from then on he gave up farming, and simply sat by the stump waiting for another rabbit to come and knocked against it. No more rabbits appeared, however, but he became the laughing-stock in the state of Song. So it is with some other idioms like "螳螂捕蝉，黄雀在后(to covet gains ahead without being aware of danger behind)", "树大招风(Great trees catch wind)", "四面楚歌(to be besieged on all sides)", and so on, all of which belong to Chinese historical allusions. As for English idioms, some of them have the allusions from three great resources-the Bible, Roman fables, the works of Shakespeare. Some of them come from Roman mythology and the historic events in Europe, which may include colloquialisms like "hit below the belt/ stab in the back", "cut the ground under someone". Some act as catchphrase like "the Trojan Horse", "swan song", "the wolf

may lose his teeth, but never his nature". As regard the idiom "meet one's Waterloo", it derived from a historical event. Just as Alandra Kiko described in *Using English*. com (2012) that there was a battle in Waterloo, in present-day Belgium on June 18th, 1815, which Napoleon lost, and if someone has "met their Waterloo", it means they have been defeated or met their death.

The third is the traditional custom differences of different regions. Idioms in English and Chinese reflect that custom differences are various. Customs are a kind of social phenomenon, which are affected by politics, economy, religion, literary and so forth. Idioms are thus greatly influenced by customs, which concern almost every aspect of social life. Although both Chinese and English people believe that "food the first necessity", the Chinese idioms related to "eat", such as "吃不了兜着走(bear all the consequences)", while the English idioms related to "food", such as "not all bread is baked in one oven". In this idiom, all the words seem simple and easy, yet when combined together, we are really at loss as to its meaning. As the most complex animal, humankind co-exists with other animals in our planet throughout history. Animals have a very close relation with humankind, so idioms influenced by animal words. "Dog" is quite different in the values and ideas of two national cultural traditions. In Chinese, idioms related to dog are almost all negative things, such as "狐朋狗友 (disreputable Gang)", "狼心狗肺 (be as cruel as a wolf)", "狗仗人势 (like a dog threatening people on the strength of its master's power)", "狗急跳墙 (a cornered beast will do something desperate)", etc. While British and American people often regard dogs as loyal partners, dog is commonly used to describe people. Such as, "a lucky dog", "every dog has his day", "not have a dog's chance", "the old dog will not learn new tricks", etc. People from different regions speak different languages, have different festivals, wear different clothes and eat different food and therefore they have different customs.

In a word, studying the cultural differences between east and west can decrease or avoid unnecessary conflicts when we do idiom translation. Culture differences should be handled properly in line with the principles of mutual respect, seeking common ground. The above mentioned idioms can be translated properly only when these cultural differences could be regarded. To deal with cultural differences, first of all, we should have respect for other cultures. In the next place, it is better for translator to learn something about the knowledge of cultural differences. The more we know, the fewer mistakes we make when communicating with people of different cultures. Last but not the least, as the old idiom says, "When in Rome do as the Romans do".

IV.   STRATEGIES EMPLOYED IN IDIOM TRANSLATION

Idiom translation is not only a language conversion, but also the transplantation of culture. Due to the historical and cultural background, traditional customs and thinking methods，which are significantly different from one country to another, the image, meaning and usage of idioms are also quite different. So idiom translation is one of the most difficult tasks in intercultural communication and language learning. Chinese scholar Liu Tiecheng: "Only in clear understanding on the basis of the source of Chinese and English which have nothing in common in culture origin, can we smoothly carry on translating the idioms both in English and Chinese". Therefore, idiom translation is not only a kind of recreating for art, but also a scientific and philosophical poetry with deep meaning, harmonic tone, and imaginative analogy. It is very difficult to translate a simple foreign literature correctly. How to translate the idioms correctly and appropriately, which matches the regulation and the characteristics of different nations, is the matter not only about the rules of translation, but also the methods. The studies on strategies for idiom translation are of the greatest international significance. Therefore, to master some translation methods and principles may be helpful for both readers and translators.

The first strategy is literal translation. Eugene. A. Nida's translation theory in the book *Language, Culture and Translating* (1993) indicates that the so-called literal translation, means on the basis of the standardization of the translation, on the premise of not causing wrong association or misunderstanding, keep the metaphor of English proverb, the methods of the image and national in color. On the one hand, literal translation can retain the original cultural characteristics; on the other hand, it also can fully spread the primitive culture. Some of the idiom translation has entered into the target language, but most people do not even know that they are from abroad. Such idioms as "blood is thicker than water", "knowledge is power", "you cannot clap with one hand", "easy come easy go", "constant dropping wears away a stone" and so forth, all can be translated directly in Chinese. Some of the idioms and proverbs are the same to the form of expression and meaning. When translate those kinds of idioms, we can use the similar Chinese to translate. Not only can make the reader easy to accept it, but also easy to understand. For recommending these unique expression methods, exotic flowers and rare herbs of foreign countries to China, it only takes the literal translation method to finish the task. Literal translation is the most commonly used in idiom translation. This is the so called "idioms must be expressed by idioms, image by image". Most of idioms are catchphrases, which sum up the essence of human culture accumulation, and touch the human basic life. Therefore, translators can find similar idioms in different languages. In this case, translators can use a set of synonyms to translate English idioms, such as "strike while the iron is hot", "to add fuel to the fire" etc. The above-mentioned idioms, either Chinese or English, literal translation is the basic method.

The second strategy is free translation. As for some of the idioms, literal translation can not be used, because the readers of other countries could neither understand the idioms of the target language's cultural background, nor find the

corresponding idioms of it. For some anecdotes or legends that the proverb involves are unknown by readers from other countries, footnote or note should be added to get further explanation. At this time, translators have to give up idioms' forms and figures of speech, but use the method of free translation to express the idioms of the target language clearly. For examples, the Chinese idiom "一言既出，驷马难追" could only be translated by using the method of free translation rather than literal translation. The free translation "A word spoken is past recalling" is much better than the literal translation "one word let slip and four horses will fail to catch it". So it is the same with English idioms as "keep one's nose clean", the free translation refers to "doing everything legally", which could express the target language clearly, while the literal translation could not convey the exact idea of the target language. The idiom "she was born with a silver spoon in her mouth", the free translation refers to "she was born in a rich family", but the literal translation refers to "there is a silver spoon in her mouth when she was born". The idiom "Every family has at least one skeleton in the cupboard", the free translation is "every family has its own trouble", while the literal translation is "every family has a bone structure in its cupboard", which could not express the rhetorical meaning of the idiom. Another example, the English idiom "don't put your finger in the pie", if we translate this idiom into Chinese by using literal method, Chinese readers could not understand it at all. The idiom "don't put your finger in the pie" reflects the individualism walk of philosophy which was pursued by English and American society, it warms people not meddle in matters that don't concern you, and caring about one's own matters is the best policy. Moreover, it differs from Chinese walks of philosophy and collectivism pursued by Chinese. The advantage of free translation lies in being succinct and distinct, benefit the style of writing, and prevent some messy cases caused by literal translation from happening. As for the idiom above, the use of literal translation method is to take totally ineffective measures, even hurt purpose in word, cause the disadvantage of misunderstanding, so the free translation is the best.

The third strategy is abridged translation. In Chinese idioms, there is the paralleling dual structure, which uses two different metaphors to express the same meaning. In this case, translators can use abridged translation method to remove the repeating sections, such as the Chinese idiom "wall of copper and wall of iron " should be translated into English "wall of bronze", one word "wall" used here to sand for two, one word "bronze" used here to stand for the two kinds of metal "copper and iron". Another example the Chinese idiom "long sigh and short groan" should be translated into "sighing deeply". The two examples illustrate the fact that the same meaning of idioms should be expressed in different methods; for the idioms like the above mentioned, the abridged translation method is the best choice.

The fourth strategy is borrowing translation. As humans, no matter what kind of nations, they inevitably have some similarities, in the feelings of things and social experiences, so there is a small amount of the same or similar idioms in different languages, not only whose literal meaning and image meaning are similar, but also connotative meaning is identical. That is to say, either the literal meaning or the image meaning of such idioms conveys the same cultural information. Translators can use borrowing translation method to carry out the mutual translation in such idioms. Such as the English idiom "practice makes perfect " is just the same as the Chinese idiom "熟能生巧", and the Chinese idiom "破釜沉舟" is also the same as the English idiom "burn one's boats", which originate from the military strategy of the two countries, so the usage and meaning are the same. Therefore, by faithfully expressing the meaning of the original idioms, translators try to keep the vivid image, the rhetorical effect and the ethnic characteristics of the original idioms.

When translating English idioms, translators should adopt different translation methods according to the different their characteristics. However, idioms contain some different ethnic characteristics and cultural information. Sometimes even the same idioms in different contexts have different kinds of translation results, which reflect the people's different views on cultural life habits. Sometimes even one idiom can be translated by using more than two kinds of translation methods, such as the Chinese idiom "木已成舟"can be translated by free translation and borrowing translation method "the milk is spilled", and can also be translated by literal translation "the wood is already made into a boat—what's done is done". (Wang Tao, 2001, p.388) In order to make the idioms better understood and used, translators should master not only the basic cultural elements and characteristics of the idioms, but also some basic translation techniques.

V. PRINCIPLES EMPLOYED IN IDIOM TRANSLATION

Translation is an art, which is a bilingual art. As there are many differences in vocabulary and syntax between the oriental and occidental language, it is not easy to do translation well, especially the translation of idioms. Therefore, in order to keep the original English idioms in step with the Chinese translation, some principles in translating idioms must be followed. Hence, based on faithfully expressing the meaning of the original idioms, translators should try to keep the vivid image of the original idioms, rhetorical effect and ethnic characteristics.

The first principle is not to take idioms too literally. Some English idioms have a distinct image and metaphor, and therefore, do not translate idioms too literally although literal translation is the most basic method. For example, "catch a crab" from the literal meaning, it means to have caught hold of a crab, but here as an idiom, it refers to that, the paddling into the water is too deep and out of balance. Take some other idioms for example, the idiom "smell a rat", the figurative translation is "to detect that something is not what it seems", not the literal meaning "to get the smell of a rat". The idiom "bring down the house", for literal translation is "to cause a house to collapse", for figurative translation is "(for a performance or a performer) to excite the audience into making a great clamor of approval". The idiom "count one's chickens before they are hatched" assumes that something will be successful before it is certain. There are also

some English idioms in animal metaphors, whose translation should not be done literally, either. Take the animal "dog" for example, "a gay dog" and "a dumb dog", here the word 'dog' refers to a person rather than an animal, which means separately "a person who has a feeling of happiness" and "a person who seldom speaks or talks to others". These above mentioned idiom examples prove that some idioms could not be translated literally.

The second principle is that the national color should be noted first for idiom translation. Ethnic idioms refer to the national culture (history, geography, religion, custom, etc.) of color idioms. Idioms are the essence of language; it contains ethical color and distinctive culture connotation. In idiom translation, translators should pay attention to keep different ethnic color, and do remember not to translate idioms with Chinese national color into the idioms with English national colors, and vice versa. For instance, the Chinese idiom "情人眼里出西施", according to traditional Chinese history "西施" refers to the name of a beautiful girl in Spring-Autumn dynasty, who has been regarded as the representative of Chinese beauties ever since then. The English people do not know about it, therefore the English Translation for this Chinese idiom should be "beauty lies in lover's eyes" but not "Xi Shi lies in lover's eyes". Otherwise, it would make the English readers puzzled and some even would generate conflicts with the original context. Take English idioms for example, both the idiom "talk of an angel and you'll hear his wings" and the idiom "talk of the devil, and he is sure to appear" express the same meaning as the Chinese idiom "talk of Chao Chao, and he will come". The words "an angel", "the devil" and "Chao Chao" in these idioms are quite different but they have the same function, and act as the same representatives in its own history allusions. Another kind of example, the English idiom "never offer to teach fish to swim", the literal meaning in Chinese refers to "不必教鱼儿游水", but according to the traditional Chinese culture, the literary quotation "不要班门弄斧" is quite related to it, so this is the best translation. In this way, the addition of the different national color could be avoided.

The third principle is that language artistic features should be noted in idiom translation. In the process of translating idioms, translators should not only faithfully express the ideological content of the original, but also maintain the original rhetorical effect as far as possible. For example, the English idioms either "the rotten apple injures its neighbors" or "the rotten apple spoils his companion" expresses the same idea as "if one of the apples got rotted in the basket, the others would get rotted one after another ", the translation for Chinese in metaphorical meaning is "城门失火，殃及鱼池", but it doesn't maintain its original faithfully expression, so if translator want to keep both faithfully expressing the ideological content of the original as well as the original rhetorical effect, the best translation should be "一条鱼腥一锅汤". So it is the same with some other idioms, such as "grasp all, lose all", the translation "样样抓，样样丢" is more faithful to the ideological content of the original, while the translation "贪多必失" contains both of the faithful expression and the original rhetorical effect, which embodies the language artistic features.

Idiom translation plays a very important role in foreign language translation, the translator's task lies in the content form of the original work, and as an entity, reproduces completely in another kind of language. Therefore, the result of correct idiom translation and using the expression skillfully can help us translate accurately, and by contrasting the idioms translation, some principles could be found. The study of these principles can help us understand idiom correctly and deal with them appropriately.

VI. CONCLUSION

Idioms are a unique and fixed part of the language, and also the essence of language. They are frequently used in daily life, which are concise and vivid. Due to different cultural backgrounds, the English and Chinese idioms embody the great cultural differences, which bring difficulties to translation. The translation of idioms should not only have a scientific spirit, but also a style of art, and then make translation reproduce the original beauty. In addition, a good translation of idioms can achieve the purpose of promoting the communication between English and Chinese culture.

By the study of idiom characteristics, by the analysis of culture differences on idioms, it is clear that there are different strategies to take and different principles to follow in idiom translation, but there is no certain formula and absolutely correct definition about this. Base on the principle of the unity of form and content in the different conditions, translators should take flexible ways to translate. Only by using proper strategies, following suitable principles and proficiency in understanding general situation and features of idioms, could translators maintain the original characteristics of the idioms and express their meaning clearly and correctly.

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An Investigation into Iranian EFL Learners' Level of Writing Self-efficacy

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Abstract—This article sets out to examine the relationship between EFL learners' sense of self-efficacy and their writing achievement. In order to tackle with this question, two self-efficacy questionnaires were employed, English and General self-efficacy. Ninety-three Iranian EFL learners from four different universities in north-eastern part of Iran took part in the study. Pearson correlation and ANOVA were run to analyze the collected data. The findings indicated a significant relationship not only between learners' writing performance and English self-efficacy beliefs, but also between learners' writing performance and their General self-efficacy beliefs. It is worth mentioning that English self-efficacy beliefs showed stronger relationship with learners' writing performance as compared to General self-efficacy.

Index Terms—English self-efficacy, writing performance, general self-efficacy, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Students establish and exhibit their knowledge through the chief common mode of writing. The ability to convey one's thoughts successfully in writing depends on one's sense of efficacy towards the skill-a skill which everyone needs in his/her lifelong learning journey. Despite the fact that writing is a highly demanding skill to acquire, it is the most widespread medium through which educators evaluate the performance of students. Writing is an extremely intricate and challenging task calling for a number of processes to be carried out. Those writers who have the ability to convey grammatical rules and mechanical actions while keeping focus are called proficient writers [6]. On the other hand, lack of confidence, low self-efficacy and motivation will have destructive effects on student's capability to write [24]. It is assumed that individuals who highly and positively perceive themselves as good writers are more likely to opt for writing opportunities, devote more energy through their writing process and persist longer in pursuing writing proficiency [4]. Hence, a high sense of self-efficacy or agency versus low self-efficacy, is expected to make a contribution to the composition of good-quality texts.

As mentioned above, writing composition continues to be vital in the education system playing the role of one of the fundamental language skills [28]. One of the prerequisites for the development of writing competence is that students be motivated and encouraged to become successful. Self-efficacy is essential to increase students' cognitive, behavioral and motivational engagement, the role of which has been proved to be indispensable in the improvement and advancement of writing skill. Whereas, being deficient in focus and determination impede development and improvement in learning writing in a second language [6]. Accordingly, the current study aims at exploring the relationship between students' self-efficacy and their achievement in writing module.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Self-efficacy, which is stemmed from the social learning/ cognitive-behavioral perspective, was proposed by Albert Bandura. Self-efficacy was defined by Bandura as" beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations" [2].Self-efficacy assumed to be contextualized and task or domain specific [3].Generally speaking, people believe that self-efficacy is how confident they are, or how much control they have in their capability to attain a goal or get a task done [3]. Strong *writing self-efficacy* stands for a high sense of efficacy and confidence for the task of writing. As soon as individuals with firm belief in their writing ability face difficulty while conducting a writing task, they may be more engrossed in writing, exercise more effort and demonstrate more persistence and resiliency [1].

The individual's perception and evaluation of his writing skills has considered as writing self-efficacy [10], or the writer's belief in his '*ability to successfully perform writing tasks at a given level*' [26] has viewed as writing self-efficacy. Debates over writing efficacy are usually revolved around three degrees of efficacy: high, mid and low. Individuals with a positive sense of writing efficacy or high writing efficacy are those with strong confidence in their writing ability. Likewise, those who have moderate levels of confidence in their writing are labeled as enjoying a moderate sense of writing efficacy. Those having less confidence in their writing ability, or having a reduced amount of

positive sense of writing efficacy are often referred to as low efficient writers. It has been proved that high self-efficacious consider difficult writing tasks as challenging and work considerably and carefully through using their cognitive strategies productively to learn them [8, 9].

It has been proved that self-efficacy has an effect on achievement directly and indirectly bringing up students' grades [30]. Moreover some studies have shown that self-efficacy contributes to the prediction of writing outcomes [17, 18, 19, 21, 31].Furthermore, learners' self-efficacy beliefs were proved to be related to success, in some academic fields such as reading and writing [25, 26].It seems that self-efficacy beliefs assumed to be mediator of the preceding writing performance and antecedents of those beliefs, such as apprehension.

Investigations into the association between writing self-belief and writing outcomes in academic setting by researchers have revealed a strong association between them [14, 17, 22]. In their studies, the strongest predicting power among all the motivational constructs examined over writing performance was self-efficacy; such results confirm the claim made by Bandura's social cognitive theory, that self-efficacy has a strong effect on writing performance [1].

Perceived magnitude of the writing task might be the source of low self-efficacy and poor writing performance. When a student sees a task overwhelming, putting an effort in a task turns out to be more difficult for him [9]. In this line of inquiry, Pajares and Valiente [22] carried out a research on writing self-efficacy of elementary- school students and found that the students' beliefs predicted their writing achievement. Moreover, their self-efficacy beliefs directly influenced their anxiety about the task of writing, their feelings about its perceived effectiveness and particularly their evaluation of essay writing.

Reviewing the literature, we can find a great deal of self-efficacy investigators who have verified that students' belief about their writing skills predicts their succeeding writing competence [10, 11, 15, 18, 20, 21, 25, 26]. As a case in point, investigations by McCarthy, Meir and Rinderer [10], and Pajares and Johnson [16] have revealed significant correlations between the quality of written products and the writers' evaluation of their own writing skill. Findings of these two studies indicated that students who considered themselves as successful and good writers, could undeniably write well, while the students who saw themselves as deficient writers, would work in accordance with their beliefs.

In addition, Pajares and colleagues have conducted abundant studies in which they measured students' self-efficacy coupled with their self-regulation in writing [18, 19]. In 1999, Pajares, Miller and Johnson [18]measured teacher evaluations of students writing, the results showed that without a doubt, student self-efficacy facilitates the influences of aptitude and self-efficacy for self-regulation of writing performance. Likewise, the findings of their research demonstrated that the students' self-efficacy contributed to the students' prediction of their writing performance.

In another study, Wachholz and Etheridge [29] carried out a study on the writing self-efficacy beliefs of a group of pre-service teachers which substantiated an association between writing performance and writing self-efficacy. Along the same line, Kim and Lorsbach [7] studied whether young students were capable of describing their self-efficacy in writing and whether there was a similarity among the educators', investigator', and students' perception of writing self-efficacy or not. They found out that the students with high sense of self efficacy had a greater degree of writing development than those having low self-efficacy. In addition, individuals with low self-efficacy exhibited limited knowledge of writing rules and skills.

In line with other researchers, Kim and Lorsbach [7] demonstrated in their study that writing tasks will be more avoided by students with low self-efficacy for writing than those with high level of self-efficacy. Completing the writing task for both students with high and low self-efficacy took a long time, but the rationale for the length of time varied for both groups. The reason behind taking a long time for completing the task for high self-efficacious students was their desire to do it well, whereas the rationale for the students with low self-efficacy in taking a long time was due to having difficulty with the task [7].

Due to a dearth of studies that have investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL students' perceptions of themselves, the aim of the present study is to figure out the relationship between students' self-efficacy and their writing achievement. The objectives of this study are: 1) To determine the relationship between learners' English Self-efficacy and their writing achievement. 2) To determine the relationship between learners' General Self-efficacy and their writing achievement. 3) To determine which of them have stronger association with writing performance.

III. METHOD

A. Setting and Participants

A total number of 93 EFL learners, comprising 38male and 55 female, participated in this research which was carried out in Mashhad, a city in Iran. The subjects were assumed to be balanced in terms of educational background since all of them were studying English as their major in different universities in Mashhad. The ones chosen were all undergraduate (BA=55) and graduate (MA =38) students majoring in English language teaching, English translation, and English literature. The graduate students were all studying in Ferdowsi University of Mashhad. The participants were upper-intermediate EFL learners who ranged in age from 20 to 30 years.

B. Instrumentation

To measure self-efficacy of the learners, we employed two instruments:

General Self-Efficacy Scale. To measure students' general self-efficacy the researchers utilized the General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES), designed and validated by Sherer et al., [27]. It consists of 17 five-point Likert items, ranging from 'strongly disagree' (one) to 'strongly agree' (five). In our study, the reliability of the scale estimated via Cronbach's alpha was 0.89.

English Self-Efficacy Scale. To assess students' English self-efficacy, the researchers used the English Self-Efficacy Scale (ESES), developed and validated by Rahemi [23]. It consists of 1o items using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' (one) to 'strongly agree' (five). In the present study, the total reliability of the scale estimated via Cronbach's alpha was 0.83.

C. Procedure

The process of data collection took three months starting in May (2012) and ending in July (2012). The permission being obtained, the researchers introduced two exam topics along with the instructions to the students. Participants were supposed to fill out questionnaires in about 10 minutes on the exam day and the researchers were about to select one of the topics afterwards to be written about in the same session. Students' writings were scored by two raters, one of whom was one of the researchers. The inter-rater reliability for the raters' scores was .86. The essays were analytically rated using the scale adopted by Engelhard et al. [5]. This rating scale consists of five domains: content and organization, style, sentence formation, usage, and mechanics. The overall score of the five domains considered to be 100 full score, each domain having 20 points.

The collected data were entered into the SPSS 16 program for further processing. In order to measure the relationship between English self-efficacy and writing performance, Pearson correlation was run. Another Pearson correlation was used to explore the association between General self-efficacy and writing performance. To do a deeper analysis of these relationships, One-way ANOVA was calculated for each of these relationships. To do this, the participants of the study were divided into three groups with regard to their total score in writing namely Low, Moderate and High-Groups.

IV. RESULT

To address the questions of this study, two correlation analyses and two One-Way ANOVA were run. Table 1 vividly shows the results of correlation regarding English Self-Efficacy.

TABLE 1
ENGLISH SELF-EFFICACY BY WRITING ACHIEVEMENT

	Writing performance
English Self-Efficacy	.96**

* p< .05, ** p < .01

From Table 1, it can be deduced that English Self-Efficacy was positively and strongly related to Writing performance (r=.96, p<.01). In other words, the higher the level of ES in Iranian EFL learners, the better their performance was in writing module. This means that those students who believed they were capable of writing successfully, were apt for writing well and getting high grades.

Stated differently, those Iranian EFL learners who saw themselves as capable in writing were more likely to be successful in their writing performance. In order to carry out further analysis of the association between English Self-Efficacy and writing performance, the participants were ranked into three groups in regard to their writing score. In consequence, students were located in high, mid or low groups based on their obtained writing scores. To see whether the difference among groups is statistically significant One-way ANOVA was used. Table 2 presents the results of ANOVA for the three groups.

TABLE 2
ONE-WAY ANOVA: VARIABILITY DUE TO WRITING LEVEL

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2981.610	2	1490.805	261.253	.000
Within Groups	513.572	90	5.706		
Total	3495.183	92			

Table 2 can directly represent the differences between the three groups in terms of Writing score band is statistically significant (F=261.253, p<.05). To spot the accurate location of the differences, Scheffe Post Hoc test was then computed. The results of Post Hoc comparison can be seen in Table 3

TABLE 3
SCHEFFE POST HOC TEST

Groups	N	1	2	3
Low-Group	29	33.6897		
Mid-Group	29		41.0345	
High-Group	35			47.4000
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

α =.05

Findings of Scheffe Post Hoc test indicated that the High group, the members of which had the highest writing score, hold the highest level of English Self-Efficacy (mean= 47.4000). The Mid-Group placed in the second position (mean=41.0345), and the Low-Group showed the lowest ranking in English Self-Efficacy (mean=33.6897). This means that those Iranian EFL learners having a high level of confidence in successfully performing and completing writing activity tended to be better writers of English as a foreign language and as a result, they got higher and better marks in writing. Conversely, those students who doubt their academic ability in writing had a low grade on their paper. That is, the more self-efficacious students were, the higher their writing scores would be. The aforementioned results underscore the meaningful association between Iranian EFL learners' English Self-efficacy and their writing performance.

As mentioned earlier, another correlation was computed to figure out the potential relationships between learners' General Self-Efficacy and Writing Performance. The results of correlation can be observed in Table 4.

TABLE 4
GENERAL SELF-EFFICACY BY WRITING ACHIEVEMENT

	Writing performance
English Self-Efficacy	.44**

* p< .05, ** p < .01

Having a quick glance at Table 4, it can be inferred that General Self-Efficacy was positively and moderately related to Writing performance (r=.44, p<.01). In other words, the higher the level of General Self-efficacy in Iranian EFL learners, the better their performance was in writing module. This means that those students who feel capable and confident about their capabilities to do the task of writing were much more likely to write well and get high marks.

That is, having high level of General Self-Efficacy equated to having better performance in writing. To put another way, those Iranian EFL students who found themselves confident and capable in writing task tended to be more successful in their writing performance. In order to conduct further analysis of the relationship between General Self-Efficacy and writing performance, One-way ANOVA was used. To see whether the difference among groups was statistically significant. Table 5 displays the results of ANOVA for the three groups.

TABLE 5
ONE-WAY ANOVA: GENERAL SELF-EFFICACY / WRITING PERFORMANCE

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2097.503	2	1048.752	12.272	.000
Within Groups	7691.486	90	85.461		
Total	9788.989	92			

As observed in Table 5, the differences between the three groups in terms of Writing score band is statistically significant (F=12.272, p<.05). With the aim of finding the accurate location of the differences, Scheffe Post Hoc test was then run. Table 6 displays the results of Post Hoc comparison.

TABLE 6
SCHEFFE POST HOC TEST: GENERAL SELF-EFFICACY BY GROUPS

Groups	N	1	2	3
Low-Group	29	56.1786		
Mid-Group	29		62.8750	
High-Group	35			67.9394
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Subset for alpha=.05

Findings suggested that the High group enjoyed the highest level of General Self-Efficacy (mean= 67.9394). The Mid-Group ranked second (mean=62.8750), and the Low-Group showed the lowest ranking in General Self-Efficacy (mean=56.1786). Unlike the low achievers, those Iranian EFL learners feeling a high level of confidence in successfully conducting and completing writing activity were actually more likely to be better writers of English as a foreign language. Simply put, the more self-efficacious students were, the higher their writing scores would be. The foregoing result underlines the meaningful association between Iranian EFL learners' GS and their writing performance.

To find a solution for the third question, Coefficient of Determination was calculated. This allows us to see how much of the variance (the variability of scores around the mean) in one measure can be accounted for by the other. Table 7 gives the results of Coefficient of Determination for each of those measures.

TABLE 7
COEFFICIENT OF DETERMINATION

	General Self-Efficacy	English Self-Efficacy
Coefficient of Determination(r²)	19.36	92.16

The findings in Table 7 suggest that 19.36% of the variance in the two tests of General Self-Efficacy and writing score is common to both; the proportion of overlapping variance between General Self-Efficacy and writing score is 19.36%. That means that about 19.36 percent of variance was shared between whatever General Self-Efficacy and writing performance are involved. Furthermore, the same Table represents that 92.16% of the variance in the two tests

of English Self-Efficacy and writing score is common to both; the proportion of overlapping variance between General Self-Efficacy and writing score is 92.16%. Accordingly, by a quick look at the results it can be inferred that the proportion of variance on English Self-Efficacy measure was greater than General Self-Efficacy. To conclude, Iranian EFL learners' English Self-Efficacy had stronger relationship with their writing performance.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The goal of the current study was to explore the potential association between Iranian students' English and General self-efficacy and their writing performance in an EFL context. Considering the first objective, the findings demonstrated that those Iranian EFL learners who found themselves as capable in writing were apt for being successful in their writing performance. This result lends support to the study conducted by Zimmerman, Bandura, and Martinez-Pons [30] that asserted the influence of self-efficacy on achievement. In addition, this result is similar to many previous studies conducted on the relationship between writing performance and self-efficacy [16, 18, 20, 21, 31] which contended that self-efficacy plays a critical role in predicting writing outcomes. As substantiated in this study, learners' self-efficacy beliefs demonstrated to be related to achievement in academic fields such as writing [25, 26].

It was also found that High achievers holding the highest level of English Self-Efficacy outperformed the Mid and Low-Groups. This would mean that those Iranian EFL learners who enjoyed a high level of confidence in successfully performing writing activity tended to be better writers and as a result, they surpassed others in higher marks in writing. On the other hands, those learners who were suspicious of their academic ability in writing had a low grade on their paper. This is in line with prior studies which proved that lack of confidence, low self-efficacy and motivation will have destructive effects on a student's ability to write well [24].And, individuals who highly perceive themselves as good writers are more likely to opt for writing opportunities and persist longer in pursuing writing proficiency [4].Therefore, when students perceive themselves as capable, enriched self-efficacy levels will help them through sustaining effort, enhancing perseverance, fostering optimism and lessening feelings of apprehension regarding a task [21]. Consequently, the positive correlation between English self-efficacy and writing performance simply reinforces the fact that when students realize they have competence in their knowledge, beliefs and feelings about their capabilities, they will exhibit improvement in the performance of the English language.

The moderate statistically significant positive relationship between General Self-Efficacy and writing performance showed individuals with confidence and capability in writing task led to successful writing performance. This finding supports prior research by Kim and Lorsbach [7] that high self-efficacy equals to high writing ability. Once more, this result is consistent with a great deal of self-efficacy investigations which have proved that students' beliefs about their writing skills predict their writing competence [10, 11, 15, 18, 19, 21, 25, 26]. In addition, this study verified that High group, the members of which got the highest writing score, enjoyed the highest level of General Self-Efficacy. The Mid-Group and the Low-Group ranked second and third in turn concerning General Self-Efficacy. Simply put, individuals felt a high level of confidence in successfully conducting writing task. Conversely, those learners who distrusted their academic ability in writing got a low grade on their paper. A possible explanation may be the fact that when a student sees a task overwhelming, putting an effort in a task becomes more difficult for him [9]. The abovementioned results confirm the claim made by Bandura's social cognitive theory, that self-efficacy plays a major role in predicting writing performance [1].

Furthermore, the findings also supports investigations by McCarthy, Meir and Rinderer [10], and Pajares and Johnson [16] who have found that students who considered themselves as successful writers, would undeniably write well, while the students who saw themselves as poor writers, would perform in accordance with their beliefs. In a nutshell, the major element which will bring about confidence and competence in performing the task is the beliefs the students have of themselves. Up to now, the findings substantiate the contention that learners' self-efficacy beliefs are effective indicators of their success in writing module. In addition, both English Self-Efficacy and General Self-Efficacy revealed the same findings with minute differences in the amount of $\Box r\Box$ regarding their associations with writing performance.

Taking the third question into account, the findings suggest that the proportion of overlapping variance between English Self-Efficacy and writing score was greater than the variance between General Self-Efficacy and writing score. Thus, it can be inferred that Iranian EFL students' English Self-Efficacy had more significant relationship with their writing performance. While self-efficacy assumed to be contextualized and task or domain specific [3], this result is not so much unexpected. The aforementioned result coincides with Bandura's contention [1] that self-efficacy as a predictor is most useful when matched properly to the criterial measure. As a matter of fact, General self-efficacy is the most inclusive form of self-efficacy which was put forward by the authors of the scale not to be task specific [27]. Hence, the reason behind this finding may lie on this fact that due to being more specific and language oriented, English self-efficacy which directly relates to English language learning, revealed stronger relationship with writing performance. To say differently, the more the degree of correspondence with the performance with which the belief is compared, the more predictability of self-efficacy will be.

Examining the results of this research, several implications are put forward; first, it provided further evidence to substantiate Pajares [14], who stated that the beliefs students have about their capabilities and their inner processes deserve due attention, as they might contribute to success or failure in educational contexts. Second, it is of utmost

importance for teachers to know that their perceptions of students' self-efficacy may affect students' abilities in the field of writing. Along with facilitating understanding of learners' self-efficacy; the obtained information will be of great importance for educators to develop innovative teaching materials and improve their pedagogical practices. Furthermore, L2 learners need considerable help to promote fundamental knowledge of the writing process and to be trained in effective writing strategies. As well as raising students' writing self- efficacy, such measures could help them in due course and encourage them to undergo wonderful lifelong learning experiences. Though the subject of self-efficacy which has been previously discussed, the beliefs students hold about themselves in Iran, and how their self-efficacy influence writing achievement proposes a lot more to write about.

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Discourse Structure and Listening Comprehension of English Academic Lectures

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Abstract—Based on Systemic Functional Linguistics, this paper makes a Phasal Analysis of the underlying macrostructure of academic lectures and studies the distinctive features of these phases. The purpose of the study is to offer teachers and their students a more realistic representation of the schematic patterning of lectures to facilitate student's processing of information transmitted in this mode.

Index Terms—academic lectures, macro-structure, phase, phasal analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, it attracts more and more linguistic concerns that foreign students experience great difficulties in processing spoken academic lectures. Traditional analysis of academic lecture in terms of a beginning or introduction, a middle or body, and a conclusion fails to give a more accurate configuration of the academic lecture discourse.

Based on the Systemic Functional Linguistics, this paper explores the underlying macrostructure of academic lecture from the perspective of Phasal Analysis and studies the distinctive features of the six phases (Discourse Structuring phase, Conclusion phase, Evaluation phase, Interaction phase, Theory phase and Examples phase) in academic lecture by taking account of the relationship between the semantic metafunctions such as ideational, interpersonal and textual and the linguistic choice realizing these functions. The purpose of the research is to offer teachers and their student of EFL a more realistic representation of the schematic patterning of lectures to facilitate student's processing of information of information transmitted in this mode.

II. CORPUS CONSTRUCTION

I downloaded 100 pieces of video of academic lectures with their transcripts from Internet for this research. They average out to last 60 minutes. Then 30 of these pieces of video are random selected as corpus of this investigation. And I selected about 20 minutes of each piece of the video. Of the 30 academic lecture discourses, eight are selected from *Advanced Viewing, Listening, and Speaking* published by Higher Education Press; three are delivered by Justice Sandel in Harvard University; nine are *Introduction to Psychology* given by Professor Bloom in Yale University; ten are *Positive Psychology* given by Professor Ben-Shahar in Harvard University. So these lectures can be classified into three categories – law, psychology and sociology.

III. MODAL OF ANALYSIS

A. Systemic Functional Grammar

M.A.K.Halliday (1973) has developed the ideas stemming from Firth's theories in the London School. Systemic Functional Grammar explicitly indicates the connection between situational factors, or contextual constructs, and languages choices. That is to say, it shows how different contexts engender different language varieties. Furthermore, it not only identify the macro-structure of a language variety, but also the micro-features of that make up this structure. With such identification available, teacher of English can acquaint students with the distinctive features of different varieties of language.

Situational factors generate linguistic choices. Halliday (2000) thought that Situations consist of three factors. The first is field which accounts for the activity in which speakers and listeners are engaged in a specific situation. It is what is going on through language in a particular time and place. The field of university lectures can be classified into Engineering, Economics, Sociology, Psychology, etc.

The second is tenor. It concerns the relationship between speakers and listeners or between writers and readers, a relationship that can be subdivided into two categories. The first is personal tenor which refers to the degree of formality between the participants in an instance of language. It accounts for the ways that different relationships such as relationship between lecturers and students influence language choices. Another is functional tenor which relates to the purpose for which language is being used. In other words, the language choices a speaker makes are also determined by the purpose of a person's speech.

Besides these influences, the third is mode which refers to the channel of communication. In the least delicate sense, it accounts for the differences that arise between spoken and written language; a more detailed description of this

construct might seek to accounts for differences that arise in spontaneous versus planned speech or between spoken monologues and dialogues.

Under the influence of the three situational factors, the linguistic code – the language we select in any given context – is shown on the semantic and the syntactic strata. The semantic stratum is composed of three different general functions. First is ideational function. I will use some examples to explain this function. we might say something like "Did Tom hit the boy last night?" here, there is an event, "hit", and the participants in this event, "Tom", "the boy", as well as the time of the event, "last night". These elements express the content of our ideas and it is for this reason that this general function is called the ideational one. It accounts for the experience we are communicating and reflects the what, the who, and the where and how of our activities. Putting it another way, it accounts for the process – which are anything that can be expressed by a verb, an event, a state or a relation – and the participants in that event or state or relation, along with the circumstances in which it occurs. our ideas, of course, need not always be about actives such as in the example above, but could instead be about mental states, as in the following examples: "they have to know the answer." "Think about the problem." Our utterances are also just as often about relations between things or people, as in: "She is the president." "Obviously, he is handsome." This metafunction, as we note from the examples, generates specific structures at the syntactic level: the nominal groups realizing subjects and objects; and verbal groups realizing transitive or intransitive verbs, those taking objects or not, as in the following two sentences: "She hit the dog." "He thinks." This ideational metafunction, then, accounts for processes, participants and circumstances at the semantic stratum, and these are realized in the syntactic level by nominal and verbal groups.

In addition to communicating about something, speakers and writers also express their stance or attitude toward the content; that is, they decided whether to ask questions, or state information, or express their opinion towards the content. The metafunctional component that accounts for an addresser's assessments, choices of speech function, etc., is the interpersonal one. And so when we look at the above sentences, we note that the interpersonal metafunction generates choices such as the use of modals, and whether or not a question is selected, or what attitude the speaker adopts to the utterance. In the above examples, in addition to the verbs and subjects, we have other elements in the utterance that are generates by this interpersonal metafunction. And so in the sentence, "They have to know the answer", we have a modal element "have to" which reflects not the experience of the speaker, but his attitude towards it, expressed in a modal of necessary; in another sentence the speaker has selected a command instead of a statement or a question in the sentence, "Think about the problem." In yet a third way a speaker had expressed attitude towards the content by his choice of the word "obviously" in, "Obviously, he is handsome." All of these are reflections of interpersonal function which generates mood choices, the use of modals and other attitudinal elements which are distinct from the features which realize ideational choices.

The last is the textual function which accounts for cohesive features such as ellipsis, reference, collocation, etc. cohesive features show how we connect our ideas to each other through, for example, reference, where a pronoun refers back to previous object or event in the discourse, as in the following, "Tom didn't know the answer. He should have known it." These are the kinds of choices that are governed by the textual metafunction.

The language code, then, is composed of the semantic stratum which generates particular structures and lexis at the syntactic level.

B.   Phasal Analysis

According to Young (1994), phase is designed to reveal similarities in different strands of a particular discourse in terms of what is being selected ideationally, interpersonally, and textually. Phases are strands of discourse that recur discontinuously throughout a particular language event and taken together, structure that event. These strands recur and are interspersed with others resulting in an interweaving of threads as the discourse progresses. What this suggests is that in speaking or writing one doesn't just begin a topic, discuss it and then conclude it before going on to a new one; rather, one's discourse is composed of different topics which are introduced, described, summarized, returned to and are interspersed with other subtopics which are themselves announced, discussed and exemplified.

According to Young, there are six phases or strands, three of which are metadiscoursal, that is, strands which comment on the discourse itself.

Of the three metadiscoursal phases that occur in all of the corpora, the first is Discourse Structuring phase in which addressors indicate the direction that they will take in the lecture. Thus such strands recur with great frequency through the lecture as the speaker proceeds to new points. It is an announcing phase that a lecture indicates to listeners new directions of the lecture.

The second and equally important metadiscoursal phase is Conclusion phase in which lectures summarize points they have made throughout the discourse. To a large extent, the frequency of this phase and the Discourse Structuring phase is determined by the number of new points made in any particular discourse. That is to say, if the addressor introduces only two points in a lecture, then there will tend to be two Discourse Structuring phases and two Conclusion phases discontinuously occurring throughout the lecture.

The third phase is Evaluation phase. The lecture reinforces each of the other strands by evaluating information which is about to be, or has already been transmitted. Lectures do so by indicating to the listeners how to weigh such information by giving their personal agreement or disagreement with different aspects of the content.

These three phases seem to be the direct result of the influence of the situational factor of tenor in the sense that,

because of the relationship between lectures and students, the former explicitly structure their discourse by indicating how they will proceed (Discourse Structuring phase), following this with a summation of what has been said (the Conclusion phase), and reinforcing both with an evolution of material (the Evaluation phase), to facilitate the students' ability of the processing of information. These three occur across disciplines, indicating that the relationship between addressors and addressees in this situation fashions a particularly consistent macro-structure.

Three other phases have a close relationship with the content of the lectures. The first is Interaction phase. Through this phase, lecturers maintain contact with their audience in order both to reduce the distance between themselves and their listeners and to ensure that what has been taught is in fact understood. They accomplish this by entering into a dialogue with the listeners by posing and answering questions. Whereas, as we will see in the section Discourse Structuring phase, the Discourse Structuring phase is full of rhetorical questions posed by the speaker in order to draw listeners' attention, in Interaction phase there are many interrogative questions intended to be answered by someone rather than the speaker.

The two other phases that compose the macro-structure of academic lectures constitute the actual content of these discourses. The first is Content phase which is to transmit theoretical information. In this phase, the theories, models and definitions are presented to students. The Content phase is modified with the metadiscoursal ones, and with the Interaction phase, as lectures indicate what they are about to say, summarize different elements of the content, evaluate it and check in the Interaction phase to ensure that students have understood various points. This phase is further modified with Examples phase. In this phase, the speakers explain theoretical concepts through concrete examples familiar to students. In many lectures, examples are more numerous than the theoretical ones, which shows how important the role of exemplification.

IV. PHASAL DESCRIPTION

A. Discourse Structuring Phase

The Discourse Structuring phase is one in which speakers announce the direction they will take, telling the audience what will come next in the discourse. The speaker identify topics that are about to be covered to facilitate processing by the students.   The addressors ease the burden of comprehension of new information. I will give a few lines from the lectures which will indicate the types of features that characterize this phase.

Let's move on to the second period, the period of individualism.
This is a course about justice. We begin with a story.
Today I'll give you some facts and figures about colleges and universities in the United States.

What are noteworthy here, in terms of ideational choices, are two types of selections. First, we see that the speakers use similar verbal groups such as "give you an example", "give you some facts and figures", and "move on to", all forms of verbalization, followed by nominal groups that tell the listeners what will follow. Second, there are particular choices of pronouns selected to involve the audience in the lecture: first person plural, and second person pronouns.

In terms of mood, there is significant variation, with that of *wh* interrogative alternating with imperatives and declarative statements. Almost all of the realization of the interrogative are rhetorical questions posed and answered by the addressors. They can further draw students' attention and alert them about what is to come. Some examples will be given.

What is distance education? A Consumer's Guide defines distance education this way: "Distance education is instruction that occurs when the instructor and student are separated by distance or time, or both."

What do you think the judicial branch does? Well, the judicial branch is primarily responsible for dealing with persons or corporations that are accused of breaking a law or that are involved in any kind of legal dispute.

What does this have to do with the idea of community and belonging? MacIntyre says this, once you accept this narrative aspect of moral reflection you will notice that we can never seek for the good or exercise of the virtues only as individuals…

And what make you healthy? The things I spoke about before: pursuing meaning, purpose; cultivating healthy relationships.

What we see then in this phase are several features which consistently mark it, that is, that lectures explicitly indicate what they are about to talk about through the choice of particular verbal groups, that lectures alert students about what is coming next in the lecture by asking rhetorical questions.

B. Conclusion Phase

Conclusion phase is an important part of academic lectures. There are some different features in terms of processes, participant chains and mood and modality. Here we see another type of process, in which lectures identify and classify what has already been discussed to ensure that the information is grasped by students. That is, the focus here is on relations between elements already raised in the Content phase. In addition, the participant roles are filled by the key terms and ideas of the theories presented throughout the lecture. For example:

So that's why for Kant acting according to duty and acting freely in the sense of autonomously are one and the same.

And that's why it's possible to act autonomously, to choose for myself, for each of us to choose for ourselves as autonomous beings and for all of us to wind up willing the same moral law, the categorical imperative.

Here we find a predominance of relational processes as signaled by the verbal group "is", with participant roles filled by terms such as: "autonomously".

I will give another example from course of justice.

So incentives, that's not a decisive objections against Rawls' difference principle.

That's his answer to libertarian laissez faire economists.

That, in fact, is his reply to the libertarian.

That is the first answer.

This is the second reply to the meritocratic claim.

The chain formed here is made up of nominal groups such as "his answer", "his reply", "the first answer", and "the second reply", all focusing on the topic of the lecture.

Another marker of this phase is in interpersonal choices. There is no mood variation, with almost all of the utterances being realized by the indicative declarative mood. In terms of modals, there are a few of kinds but none of them plays an important role. In this phase, lectures don't offer evaluative commentary on the content.

C. Evaluation Phase

Lectures evaluate material not by attitudinal elements such as modals, but through the selection of one type of predominating process. Lectures primarily evaluate a point they have already made, which acts as a reinforcement to the strands of the Conclusion phase or Content phase by indicating judgment on information already given to listeners. I will give some examples.

But it seems clear that such changes or similar ones are necessary to ensure a healthier U.S. family in the future.

... the importance of belonging to a church or religious organization seems greater to Americans than to Europeans.

For this reason, many people prefer another, more satisfactory, view of U.S. culture.

Local control of schools may seem very strange to some of you, but it will seem less strange if you consider how public schools in the United States are funded – that is, where money to run the schools comes from.

So the first benefit is we simply feel better.

Through these examples, we can see that evaluation phase is also lake of mood variation and marked modality. And there are some obvious judgments like "necessary", "greater", "more satisfactory" and "less strange" showed in the selections. In this phase, lectures are revisiting the same points touched on in the conclusion or other phases and evaluating them so that students will know how to weigh each of them.

D. Three Other Phases

Three other phases mark academic lectures. The first, Interaction phase, through which addressors maintain contact with their audiences in order both to reduce the distance between themselves and their listeners and to ensure that what has been taught in fact understood. I will give some examples from the justice lectures in Harvard University.

Who would turn to go onto the side track and why would you do it? What would be your reason?

Anybody? Anybody else?

Why would you do it? What would be your reason? Who's willing to volunteer a reason?

Does everybody agree with that reason?

And some other examples are from lectures of "*Introduction to psychology*".

Before discussing that example in a little bit more detail, any questions? What are your questions?

Any other questions?

Any questions about behaviorism? What are your questions about behaviorism?

Second, Content phase reflects the lecturer's purpose and transmits theoretical information. In this phase, theories, models, and definitions are presented to listeners. I will give an example from lecture of *crime and violence in the United States.*

The first theory says that people are good by nature. If a person turns to crime, the cause lies outside the person, not inside. In other words, crime and violence come from the environment, or society.

There is an example from justice lectures of Harvard University.

Second principle has to do with social and economic inequalities. Rawls calls it "the Difference Principle." A principle that says, only those social and economic inequalities will be permitted that work to the benefit of the least well off.

And Examples phase explains theoretical concepts through concrete examples. Here are some examples from lectures "*Positive psychology*".

Let me just give you a random example. Let's say, Monday morning, or Tuesday morning, you are walking toward 1504. And suddenly you see a friend of yours. A friend of yours you know who's genuine, is real- someone you trust...

Let me read you a few excerpts: "We will not be satisfied until justice rolls down like waters I mean, you can feel the water, you can feel that stream, you can see it, you can visualize it...

Or for example, let's say you want to start an exercise in gym. You realize how important it is. You read the research. You are exposed to that research and you see it really has an important effect.

V. SUMMARY

Based on the analysis of 30 academic lecture discourses, I find:

First, each phase recurs discontinuously and is interspersed with others. So what emerges is a continual interweaving of threads of discourse which forms the macro-structure of academic lecture discourse.

Second, the lectures of different content include the six phases defined by Young: Discourse Structuring phase, Conclusion phase, Evaluation phase, Interaction phase, Content phase and Examples phase.

Third, Discourse Structuring phase, Conclusion phase and Evaluation phase are often not influenced by the content of lectures; they show similar ideational, interpersonal and textual meaning. Three other phases have a close relationship with the content of lectures, they have no similar features.

Through the description of phases, we see that each metadiscoursal phase has its own features. The Discourse Structuring phase is marked by processes of verbalization, by first and second person pronouns, by rhetorical questions, and by a type of modality. The Conclusion phase is mainly obvious in terms of relational processes in which key terms of lecture are identified. In other words, the focus here is on the relations between elements already raised in the Content phase. And participant roles are filled with key terms to ensure that students realize what the most important terms in the lecture were. In the Evaluation phase, the lectures emphasize these concepts by evaluating each, further ensuring that listeners know which views to adopt.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

Phases reveal more accurate description of macro-structure of lectures than that of beginning, middle and end. As we have seen from the brief description of phases, what actually happens in the unfolding of the discourse is that introductory or predicting strands are interspersed throughout a lecture, precisely because there several information strands in which different content is transmitted. Similarly, there are several concluding strands that follow each discussion of new information. If one of the purposes of education is to familiarize students with the structure of lectures in order to facilitate their note taking, it is important to show them an accurate macro-structure. My point is that the theory of phase can provide a more realistic nature of the academic lectures. Only an accurate representation of macro-structure will facilitate students' processing of information.

It is important to identify for students, who have great difficulty in taking notes, that first, lecturers often clearly announce all new topics, and to acquaint them with the more common ways; second, that information is transmitted in several ways through theoretical discussion, through exemplification, and through summarization. If students know that the same information is transmitted in a number of ways, and that if they miss it the first time they will be able to grasp it later, they will be better able to deal with the information transmitted in lectures. If teachers can acquaint students with an analysis of macro-structure that accurately shows what goes on in the university lectures, their comprehension of information will be made easier. And with the knowledge of the ways in which lectures form their discourse, teachers will be to select appropriate features which indicate, for example, how speakers introduce their new points.

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A Comparative Study between the Performance of Iranian High and Low Critical Thinkers on Different Types of Reading Comprehension Questions

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Abstract—The present study aimed to find out whether there is any significant difference between the performances of high and low critical thinkers on factual, referential, and inferential reading comprehension questions. For this purpose, 42 learners were selected as the homogenized group. Afterwards, the Farsi version of Watson- Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (1980) (Form A) was administered to the participants and they were then assigned to two groups of high and low critical thinkers. Both groups were provided with a reading comprehension test including factual, referential, and inferential questions. The obtained data was analyzed via 16th version of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The Findings revealed that (a) there is a significant difference between high and low critical thinkers on their performance on factual reading comprehension questions, (b) there is a significant difference between high and low critical thinkers on their performance on referential reading comprehension questions, and (c) there is a significant difference between high and low critical thinkers on their performance on inferential reading comprehension questions. The study has some implications for language teachers, text book writers, and test designers.

Index Terms—critical thinking ability, factual questions, referential questions, inferential questions

I. INTRODUCTION

Many studies have been conducted in the domain of critical thinking to remind the learners and teachers about its significant role in education. Life without having a critical view toward issues turns out to be something repetitive and human beings running such a life turn out to be mere followers.

Critically thinking empowers people to look at everything from a different angle. This is what we need to do in our everyday life. Halpern (2003) also believes critical thinking is an everyday activity and is a vital necessity for the citizens of current century. Critical thinking enables individuals to tackle problems, penetrate into them, analyze them and finally find solutions. These abilities have helped societies to develop an age of technology which was one of the ambitions and dreams of their ancestors (Bassick, 2008).

Although there is a debate among scholars about the teachability of critical thinking, many believe that its strategies should be taught and practiced. Educational organizations and teachers all should do their best to provide opportunities in which learners can practice critical thinking and enable them to apply it to their real life situations. Many researchers such as Spolsky (1998) claim the more critical the learners, the more they are successful not only in their second or foreign language learning but also in other aspects of their lives.

Experts believe that inference, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation are "at the very core of critical thinking" (Facione, 1992, p.5). In fact, these mental skills are also employed in reading comprehension (Grabe, 1991). So, reading comprehension with its various thinking processes seems to have the potentiality for paving the way for applying critical thinking strategies.

According to Bloom (1956), comprehension involves various levels. On the basis of these different levels teachers can create different types of questions. This study aimed to explore whether the ability of thinking critically can help learners in answering different types of reading comprehension questions. Therefore, the following research questions were raised:

1- Is there any significant difference between high and low critical thinkers on their performance on factual reading comprehension questions?

2- Is there any significant difference between high and low critical thinkers on their performance on referential reading comprehension questions?

3- Is there any significant difference between high and low critical thinkers on their performance on inferential reading comprehension questions?

Concerning the foresaid research questions, the following null hypotheses were formulated:

1- There is no significant difference between high and low critical thinkers on their performance on factual reading comprehension questions.

2- There is no significant difference between high and low critical thinkers on their performance on referential reading comprehension questions.

3- There is no significant difference between high and low critical thinkers on their performance on inferential reading comprehension questions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Critical Thinking

Talking about a good educational setting without regarding the notion of critical thinking is impossible. This concept is not newly developed. From centuries ago, human beings came to this conclusion that thinking critically is a necessity and from that time on everybody is encouraged to be a critical thinker. It also became one of the major responsibilities of teachers and material developers to provide the opportunities for learners to practice critical thinking.

Over 2500 years ago, through probing questions, Socrates found out that when challenged, many people are unable of justification by reasoning and "they often display confusion and irrational thought when attempt to justify their knowledge" (Paul, Elder, & Bartell, 1997).

The concept of critical thinking has developed throughout centuries and various definitions have been proposed, therefore, "there is no consensus on a definition of critical thinking" (Fasko, 2003, p.8), and a single definition is not widely accepted (Halonen, 1995). Norris and Ennis (1989) terms critical thinking as "reasonable and reflective thinking that is focused upon deciding what to believe and do" (p.3). Similarly, Halpern (2003) calls it as "the use of those cognitive skills or strategies that increases the probability of a desirable outcome, thinking that is purposeful, reasoned, and goal oriented" (p.6).

Glaser (1941, cited in Bassick, 2008) believes that the following abilities are essential and required for the process of critical thinking:
- recognizing problems;
- finding workable means for meeting those problems;
- gathering information;
- recognizing unstated assumptions and values;
- comprehending and using language with accuracy, clarity, and discrimination;
- interpreting evidence;
- appraising evidence and evaluating statements;
- recognizing the existence of logical relationships between propositions;
- drawing warranted conclusions and generalizations;
- testing generalizations and conclusions;
- reconstructing one's pattern of belief on the basis of wider experience;
- rendering accurate judgments about specific things and qualities in everyday life.

B. Levels of Comprehension

At the early years of L2 studies, reading was considered as a passive skill and the bottom-up view toward the reading process was very trendy (Carrell, Devine & Eskey, 1988). So, learners' problems in reading comprehension were attributed to decoding problems (Rivers, 1968). Later on, according to Carrell (1983), the top-down view replaced the bottom-up approach. But recently the idea of interactive model in reading comprehension involving both top-down and bottom-up processes is acknowledged (Eskey & Grabe, 1988). The interaction between the reader and the text happens through content schemata, formal schemata, and abstract schemata. The comprehension concept, therefore, involves different levels of mental processing (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Nassaji, 2002; Pardo, 2004) which results in different comprehension levels (Erten & Karakas, 2007). Various taxonomies (Barrett, 1972; Bloom, 1956; Herber, 1978; Irwin, 1986) have studied these levels. Taking these taxonomies into consideration, teachers can define their teaching goals and decide about the cognitive complexity of the questions they ask.

C. Typology of Comprehension Questions

One of the most common ways of testing reading comprehension is designing a number of comprehension questions which can be used as pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities. Teachers or material developers can help the students to achieve different levels of comprehension through well-designed exercises and tests. Although some teachers may use paraphrasing or summary writing as their reading methodology, Lehnert (1977) proposes that "the ability to answer questions about a message is a better index of understanding than summarizing or paraphrasing" (p. 70).

Reading comprehension questions are classified into different categories based on their forms and functions. Widdowson (1983) identifies four types of questions with reference to form: (a) wh-questions, (b) polar (yes/no) questions, (c) true-false questions, (d) multiple-choice questions. In addition to the various forms that comprehension questions take, they may also be identified based on their functions:

- Use and usage reference questions (Widdowson, 1979);
- Macro and micro questions (Cohen & Fine, 1978);
- Higher and lower order questions (Been, 1975; Watts & Anderson, 1971);
- Textually explicit, textually implicit, and scriptally implicit questions (Pearson & Johnson, 1978);
- Factual, referential, and inferential questions (Farhady, 1998).

III. Methodology

The study followed a descriptive, ex post facto design. The researcher asked 60 Iranian sophomores, studying English Translation and Teaching English as a Foreign Language at Roudehen Islamic Azad University, to participate in this investigation. Their ages ranged from 18 to 25, with a mean of 19.92. This sample included 38 females and 22 males who voluntarily accepted to take the test. In order to ensure their homogeneity vis-à-vis their language proficiency, a piloted TOEFL test (ETS, January 2004) was administered. The Cronbach's alpha application showed the reliability of 0.88. This test comprised of two sections: (a) structure and written expression with 40 items, and (b) reading comprehension with 50 items. The allotted time to take the test was 80 minutes, and the scoring was estimated out of 90. The listening section, not being the focus of the present study, was deliberately omitted for practical reasons. Based on the obtained scores, those learners with a score falling within one standard deviation above and below the mean (M=65.45, SD= 9.33) were selected. Finally, 27 females and 15 males (N=42) with the scores between 56 and 75 formed the homogenized group. In the following session, the homogenized group was given Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal Test (1980) (Form A). The researcher used the Farsi version of the test, translated by Faravani (2006), of which the reported reliability is 0.85 (α=0.85). The test had 80 items and five subtests: (a) inference, (b) recognizing unstated assumptions, (c) deduction, (d) interpretation, and (e) evaluation of arguments. According to Watson and Glaser (1980), the test-retest reliability of this test has been 0.81 (r =0.81). It was completed in 60 minutes and the scoring was estimated out of 80. Taking the mean score (M= 65.23) into consideration, the students were divided into two groups of high and low critical thinkers. Those who scored 65 and above formed high critical thinkers group (23 participants) and the rest (19 participants) were defined as low critical thinkers. At the next step, in another session, a piloted reading comprehension test consisting of 6 passages followed by an equal number of factual, referential, and inferential questions was administered in both groups of high and low critical thinkers. The recommended time for the examinees to answer the 45 multiple choice items of this test was 55 minutes and scoring was calculated out of 45. Since the purpose of the test was to check their comprehension ability, they were supposed to answer based on what they understood from the passages and were not allowed to consult their dictionaries. The following is the description of the procedure for piloting reading comprehension test.

Initially, the readability of each of the reading comprehension passages in the TOEFL test was calculated by making use of the "Fog index Formula". As it is demonstrated in "TABLE I", the average readability of TOEFL passages was 15.8.

TABLE I.
THE READABILITY OF TOEFL PASSAGES

Passage	Degree of Readability
Passage 1	18.7
Passage 2	12.4
Passage 3	14.2
Passage 4	18.4
Passage 5	15.3
M= 15.8	

Accordingly, the researcher started to develop passages with similar readability indices to TOEFL passages. (TABLE II).

TABLE II.
THE READABILITY OF DEVELOPED PASSAGES

Passage	Degree of Readability
Passage 1	19.1
Passage 2	14.2
Passage 3	17.6
Passage 4	13.1
Passage 5	17.8
Passage 6	10.8
M= 15.4	

Afterwards, a test with 6 passages and 57 multiple choice questions from factual, referential, and inferential type was piloted among 30 learners. The results of piloting showed that the test enjoyed an acceptable level of reliability (α=0.94). Based on the results of calculating item facility and item discrimination, 12 items were omitted. The correlation coefficient of 0.72 between the results of the reading comprehension of an original TOEFL test and the developed comprehension test proved that the test is valid enough to be used in this study.

IV. Results

A. Testing the First Hypothesis

In order to test the first hypothesis, i.e." there is no significant difference between high and low critical thinkers on their performance on factual reading comprehension questions", an independent samples t-test was utilized to compare the performances of two groups on factual questions. TABLE III displays the descriptive statistics of both groups' performances on factual questions. The mean scores of high and low critical thinkers on factual questions are 12.08 and 10.21, respectively. It appears that high critical thinkers have performed moderately better on factual questions.

TABLE III.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF FACTUAL QUESTIONS SCORES

Group	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness		
	Statistic	Std. Error		Statistics	Std. Error	Ratio
High Critical Thinkers	12.08	0.42	2.02	-0.23	0.48	-0.47
Low Critical Thinkers	10.21	0.42	1.87	0.11	0.52	0.21

According to the above table, the skewness ratio values in high and low critical thinkers (-0.47, 0.21) both fall within the acceptable range of ± 1.96. Therefore, both sets of scores were normally distributed and running a t-test was legitimized. TABLE IV displays the results of the independent samples t-test.

TABLE IV.
T-TEST ON THE FACTUAL QUESTIONS SCORES OF THE HIGH AND LOW CRITICAL THINKERS

	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
Equal variances assumed	0.375	0.544	3.095	40	0.004	1.87643	0.60629
Equal variances not assumed			3.118	39.429	0.003	1.87643	0.60183

The two groups enjoyed homogeneity of variances (Levene's F=0.375, p=0.544> 0.05). Since the probability associated with the t-value (t=3.095, df=40, p=0.004<0.05) is lower that the significance level of 0.05, the null hypothesis was rejected. Therefore, there is a significant difference between the mean scores of high and low critical thinkers on their performance on factual reading comprehension questions. One more point important to be mentioned here is the effect size as "an indication of the strength of one's findings"(Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 282). The effect size is computed by Cohen's d and r using the t-value and df. Cohen's d is 0.97 yielding r value of 0.43. According to Cohen's standards, it is interpreted as a large effect and could be considered large for the purpose of generalization.

B. Testing the Second Hypothesis

In order to test the second hypothesis, i.e. "there is no significant difference between high and low critical thinkers on their performance on referential reading comprehension questions", an independent samples t-test was run to compare high and low critical thinkers on referential questions performance. According to TABLE V, scores of referential questions in high and low critical thinkers with the skewness ratio of 0.85 and 0.76 are distributed normally and therefore, running a t-test was legitimate.

TABLE V.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF REFERENTIAL QUESTIONS SCORES

Group	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness		
	Statistic	Std. Error		Statistics	Std. Error	Ratio
High Critical Thinkers	11.52	0.39	1.87	0.41	0.48	0.85
Low Critical Thinkers	9.94	0.41	1.80	0.40	0.52	0.76

According to Table V, the mean scores of high and low critical thinkers were 11.52 and 9.94. So, it can be concluded that high critical thinkers had a moderately better performance than low critical thinkers on referential questions. Both groups enjoyed homogeneous variances (Levene's F= 0.046, p= 0.831> 0.05) (See Table VI).

TABLE VI.
T-TEST ON THE REFERENTIAL QUESTIONS SCORES OF THE HIGH AND LOW CRITICAL THINKERS

	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
Equal variances assumed	0.046	0.831	2.747	40	0.009	1.57437	0.57308
Equal variances not assumed			2.757	39.023	0.009	1.57437	0.57096

According to the results (t= 2.747, df=40, p=0.009<0.05) the second null hypothesis was rejected. So, there is a significant difference between the mean scores of referential questions in high and low critical thinkers. The effect size, computed by Cohen's d is 0.86 which corresponds with r value of 0.39. This indicated a large effect, and therefore, considered as large and strong for the purpose of generalization.

C. Testing the Third Hypothesis

In order to test the third hypothesis, i.e." there is no significant difference between high and low critical thinkers on their performance on inferential reading comprehension questions", an independent samples t-test was utilized to compare the mean scores of both groups on inferential questions. TABLE VII, the descriptive statistics of inferential questions, shows the skewness ratio values of -1.37 and 0.51. Since the ratio values of inferential question scores in both groups are within the acceptable range of ±1.96, normality is assumed and running t-test is confirmed.

TABLE VII.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF INFERENTIAL QUESTIONS SCORES

Group	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness		
	Statistic	Std. Error		Statistics	Std. Error	Ratio
High Critical Thinkers	11.95	0.45	2.20	-0.66	0.48	-1.37
Low Critical Thinkers	6.52	0.57	2.50	0.27	0.52	0.51

Before running the t-test, it could be concluded that, on inferential questions, high critical thinkers with the mean score of 11.95 outperformed low critical thinkers with the mean score of 6.52. TABLE VIII displays the results of the independent samples t-test of the inferential questions performance in two groups.

TABLE VIII.
T-TEST ON THE INFERENTIAL QUESTIONS SCORES OF THE HIGH AND LOW CRITICAL THINKERS

	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
Equal variances assumed	0.632	0.431	7.474	40	0.000	5.43021	0.72654
Equal variances not assumed			7.383	36.280	0.000	5.43021	0.73554

As the above table indicates, the results of the Levene's test (F=0.632, p=0.431> 0.05) revealed that the variances between the two groups are not significantly different and thus, homogeneity of variances is assumed. The probability associated with the t-value (t=7.474, df=40, p=0.000< 0.05) is lower than 0.05, therefore, it could be claimed that there is a significant difference between high and low critical thinkers on their performances on inferential reading comprehension questions, meaning that the ability of thinking critically can influence the performance of learners on inferential questions. The effect size computed by Cohen's d and r value are 2.36 and 0.76, respectively. Taking the Cohen's standards into account, the magnitude of findings is large for the purpose of generalization.

V. DISCUSSION

The shift from behaviorism to cognitivism in language teaching led to explore the active role of learners in pedagogy. Researchers and teachers focused on learners, their learning styles, learning processes, and cognitive abilities. This might be when the concept of critical thinking attracted great attention. However, the educational systems are still focused on the lower levels of thinking. Consequently, the far-reaching implications of critical thinking in learning process are disregarded. Paul (1993, cited in Cody, 2002) states that" no substantial change can occur in education without a substantial change in the thinking of educators"(p.186). He believes that the educational systems need leaders with the intellectual courage to admit that education is filled with shallow thinking and shallow practices.

The urgent need to teach thinking skills at all levels of education continues (Carr, 1990), therefore, teachers should create an atmosphere of encouragement among the students to read deeply, question, engage in divergent thinking, and look for relationships among ideas. Educators must also replace the idea of "what to think" with "how to think" (Schafersman, 1991; Young, 1992).

The focus of the present study was on the reading comprehension which according to Farhady (1998), in spite of its importance, not much has been done to improve its teaching and testing.

Many teachers are still practicing reading comprehension through a traditional approach. Reading the passage and answering some factual true/false or factual explanatory questions are all what they do for the purpose of teaching reading comprehension. The same process takes place in exams. But, "teaching for understanding rather than knowledge will bring students to a higher level of learning "(Lord & Baviskar, 2007, p. 41). With this in mind, teachers should pay more attention to the questions they ask during teaching as well as the exams. Questions should go beyond students' literal knowledge and promote understanding relations and inferring ideas.

The purpose of the current research was to study the concepts of critical thinking and question types. High critical thinkers performed better generally on reading comprehension and specifically on all three types of questions. This could reveal that learners' critical thinking level have influenced their comprehension ability. This is very much in line with Facione's (1992) ideas according to which critical thinking and reading comprehension are significantly correlated and "improvements in the one are paralleled by improvements in the other" (p.21). In spite of the researcher's expectation, the results indicated a significant difference in both groups on *all three types* of questions. Reviewing the critical thinking definitions, it was expected that high critical thinkers would outperform low critical thinkers just on inferential question. But, the findings proved a better performance of high critical thinkers not only in inferential but also in factual and referential questions. This could have valuable pedagogical implications which are going to be elaborated later. The study has large effect sizes; however, before generalizing the results, more research should be carried out in this regard.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The study showed that critical thinking level of the students played an important role in their reading comprehension ability in general and their performances on different types of questions in particular. The teaching methodologies, in which critical thinking has not reached a status it deserves, can be impacted by the present findings. Looking at teaching from critical thinking angle is a welcome change. Critical thinking can be considered as one of the fundamentals of language teaching. Teachers' experiences show that answering reading comprehension tests are time consuming for almost all learners, but the ability of thinking critically could mitigate the difficulty of taking the reading comprehension test of this study. Therefore, it is strongly suggested to language teachers to use critical thinking strategies, since one of the responsibilities of a good teacher is to teach how to be a better thinker. Challenging topics for class discussions or writing tasks, and asking open-ended questions are easy to apply activities doing a lot to boost critical thinking ability of the students. Task-based language teaching is also very helpful in this regard. Using pre-tasks or post-tasks for the purpose of establishing critical thinking among learners is recommended. In addition, teachers should make use of questions from deeper levels in preference to shallow and literal level. Probably, test designers of TOEFL and IELTS exams also have the same ideology about comprehension. In reading comprehension section of these tests the candidates are expected to answer questions from different levels. A review of TOEFL iBT readings indicates that apart from vocabulary questions, questions about the author's method, purpose and attitude and sentence restatements, candidates should also answer a number of factual, referential, and inferential questions. Therefore, encountering these types of questions during the course creates a chance for learners to tap into different levels of comprehension and be familiar with the types of questions they are supposed to answer in TOEFL or IELTS exams. Preparing lesson plans involving factual, referential, and inferential comprehension questions for each reading material would be very beneficial.

Moreover, abilities of comprehending, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating may not be regarded as inherent characteristics of an individual. They must be acquired and practiced. By making use of critical thinking strategies and encouraging deeper understanding, textbook writers can make a very positive contribution in this regard.

The last suggestion addresses test designers. They are encouraged to check critical thinking and reasoning ability of learners instead of their rote memorization.

It seems worthwhile mentioning a point about the importance of factual questions. Although factual questions are categorized as lower order questions, they can be considered as good teaching devices for checking the comprehension ability of elementary learners.

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